Joint supervision of doctorate thesis with award of a dual doctoral diploma

U. PORTO
FACULDADE DE DESPORTO
UNIVERSIDADE DO PORTO

KU LEUVEN

What brings people into the stadium?

A social science perspective of soccer fans' motives for attendance

Mariana Seabra Moreira Ferreira de Carvalho

Supervisor

Prof. Jeroen Scheerder, Ph.D – Policy in Sports & Physical Activity Research Group, Department of Kinesiology, KU Leuven, Belgium

Co-supervisors

Prof. José Pedro Sarmento, Ph.D – Department of Sport Management, Faculty of Sport, University of Porto, Portugal

Prof. Filip Boen, Ph.D – Physical Activity, Sport & Health Research Group, Department of Kinesiology, KU Leuven, Belgium

Doctoral dissertation in Sports Science, presented to the University of Porto, Faculty of Sport, according to the decree law nº 74/2006, March 24th. Doctoral dissertation in Kinesiology, at the KU Leuven.

Porto and Leuven, 2014

Resources

"It is a miracle that curiosity survives formal education."

Albert Einstein

Aos pais Carvalho e à mana Ana

Ao Luís e à Luana

Acknowledgments

When I was a child or a teenager, I have never had the dream of having a Ph.D. or becoming a doctor. I always loved studying, as I always loved learning, just out of curiosity and pleasure of knowing things, and being able to discuss about them. However, from the start of my academic path, it always seemed the path to follow. After the master degree, it just felt the natural thing to do. Likewise, sports were there all my life, managing events and people is an activity that was there since early, and soccer, sport management, and marketing as passions were easily turned into a professional and academic career. Naturally, not all the steps were easy. Certainly, I had some difficult times on the way thinking if I was going the right way ('What am I doing in the Ph.D.? Where is this Ph.D. taking me? What will happen after? Did I make the right choices?').

Unquestionably though, there was a group of people who helped me throughout the way, and helped me to answer to these questions, and much more. Each one of them had an important role in the achievement of this thesis, and also in turning me into the person that I am today, after five years of research. I would like to thank all of them for their big or small support, either with a smile or with paper work, either with a contact for network or with a hint, either with a feedback or a word of courage after a bad day or another negative answer from a journal. I cannot mention the name of every single person who crossed the way with me during these years. Nevertheless, I would specially like to thank to people without whom it would have been impossible to complete this challenging but rewarding task.

I would like to start by thanking people or institutions directly or indirectly related to the actual academic process of thinking the thesis, collecting data for the thesis, and writing the thesis.

First, my words go to my supervisor, Prof. Dr. Jeroen Scheerder. Thank you for believing in me since Torino, in 2007, and for trusting my work since our first meeting in Porto, where you agreed to be my supervisor, although sport

sociology was only one part of the project. All these years you were not only a supervisor, guiding and helping from really close in all the process, but you were also a friend, supporting me when things could go better and I was feeling disappointed or hopeless. Thank you for accepting me to work at the KU Leuven, for all the projects you allowed me to be a part of, and for receiving me so well in Belgium, professionally and personally. Finally, thank you for liking soccer a little bit more now, and for always respecting my crazy passion for team sports, especially for soccer and handball. I know about and respect triathlon and cycling much more now!

My next words go to Prof. Dr. Filip Boen. Thank you for accepting to be my co-supervisor already after the start of the process, in this multidisciplinary thesis, and to give your valuable input from the psychological field. Your help was always straight to the point, clear and useful, and I have learned a lot from you. Your enthusiasm about your work, your family and your soccer club, Beerschot, are an example to me. I hope I can manage as well in the future! However, if bears and dragons face each other one day, I do not have a doubt that dragons will win.

I would also like to thank to my co-supervisor, Prof. Dr. José Pedro Sarmento. We know each other since more than 15 years, and I have always admired your teaching and management skills, your way of convincing people that they can do whatever they want and be whoever they want to be, if they work hard and put their minds to it. You were always an inspiration for your soft skills, and you helped me to become calmer, less impulsive, and to give problems only the importance they deserve. I know I will keep asking you for advice for my next challenges.

I could not forget some Professors of FADEUP. Prof. Dr. Maria José Carvalho, who advised me when I was at the master of sport management and when I decided to start the Ph.D. Thank you for your talks and advice, either professional or personal ones. Thank you for your friendship and care! A word of thanks to Prof. Dr. António Fonseca, Director of the Doctoral Program in Sport Science at FADEUP, for all the help with the bureaucracies of the Ph.D.,

To my 'gang', the family I chose, for making me feel so close, even though I was so far all the time! Helping each other until the end of the world, everywhere we are!

To my great friend Paula Isidoro: I miss you like crazy, no matter how far we are, you are always in my mind and heart! I love you my friend!

To my family for being there for me.

Finally, my words go to the main inspirations of my life.

To Luís, my boyfriend, my partner, my family: I'm so, so glad that life brought us together! You complete me, balance me and make me really happy. Thank you for being so strong, for not always agreeing with me, and for challenging me. Our discussions made me grow as researcher, as a person, and as a human being. Your support in the small details and in the big decisions is irreplaceable. I love you and *I wanna be yours*. Will you always be my *Ford Cortina*?

Last but not least, the biggest thank to my parents Francisco e Idalina, and to my sister Ana. Thank you for always being there for me. Thank you for our online life: lunches and dinners, conversations about everything and nothing, tears and smiles. I miss you more than anything. To my sis: I particularly miss the laughs, the sister's fights, the waking up with you and all the cats and dogs jumping over me, the driving next to Rio Douro, listening to Porto Sentido, the playing handball together. I'm sorry that I haven't been around all these years. Thank you for (almost always) bearing my absence. I love you as much as when I saw you for the first time, or even more. You are my best friend, and I just want you to be happy. To my parents, thank you for being an example that I want to follow, in so many fields. Thank you for instilling in me the values of responsibility, of giving my best without stepping into others, of understanding. Thank you for inspiring in me the passion for sports, since I remember. Thank you for supporting my choices of being away from home, I know it hurts, because it hurts to me as well. Thank you for believing in me, even when I did not. No matter where I am, you three will always be my home.

Table of contents

List of figures

List of tables

XXII

Abstract

While in some countries across Europe soccer games attract full stadiums, in other countries, such as Portugal, the stadiums reveal many empty seats in big up-to-date facilities. In Belgium by contrast, the construction of bigger stadiums is being planned to substitute out-dated facilities, and stadiums will have more places to fill. The aim of this PhD is to analyse the factors influencing live attendance at soccer games in those two countries. Factors that have been investigated in the literature as predictors include demographics (e.g., age, sex), team identification (i.e., the extent to which a fan feels psychologically connected to a team), place attachment (i.e., the connection a fan feels towards the stadium of their club), sportscape (i.e., the physical environment of the stadium) and the different motives to become a fan. This research comprises three studies, with more than 8,000 Belgian and Portuguese participants answering a fandom related survey. Quantitative analyses are employed, including descriptive and multilevel analyses, such as linear and hierarchical regression analyses, and structural equation modelling. The most relevant results show that team identification and place attachment are significant predictors of attendance. Moreover, becoming a fan because "it is the club of my region", because it is a "family tradition" and because of "influence of others than family" are positively related to the number of games currently attended. By contrast, becoming a fan because of "player(s) of the club" is negatively related to attendance. Lifestyle (i.e., a set of patterns, distinct from others, based on values, attitudes, and orientations) emerges as the strongest predictor of soccer attendance for 16-19 years old fans. In Belgium, sportscape related issues are strongly related to attendance. However, results reveal that fans with stronger team identification and fans with a stronger place attachment place less importance on the sportscape as a constraint for attendance. The Portuguese participants' complain about the price of the overall experience. They demand cheapest tickets, special prices for groups, and offers and promotions. The marketing implications of these findings are discussed.

KEYWORDS: FAN CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOUR, SOCCER ATTENDANCE MOTIVES, TEAM IDENTIFICATION, PLACE ATTACHMENT, SPORTSCAPE

Resumo

Enquanto em alguns países Europeus os jogos de futebol enchem estádios, noutros países, como por exemplo em Portugal, estádios modernos e com boas condições ficam muitas vezes vazios. Em contraste, na Bélgica, a construção de novos estádios está a ser planeada, para substituir instalações obsoletas, e haverá mais lugares para preencher nos estádios. O objectivo deste doutoramento é analisar os factores que influenciam a assistência a jogos de futebol nestes dois países. Diversos factores têm sido investigados na literatura: factores demográficos (e.g., idade, sexo), identificação com a equipa (i.e., a ligação psicológica emocional do adepto à equipa), identificação com o estádio (i.e., a ligação psicológica emocional do adepto ao estádio da sua equipa), a paisagem desportiva (i.e., o ambiente físico do estádio), e os diferentes motivos para se tornar adepto de uma equipa. Esta investigação inclui três estudos, com mais de 8,000 participantes Belgas e Portugueses, que responderam a um questionário sobre a sua relação de adeptos com uma equipa. Análise quantitativa, incluindo análise descritiva e inferencial (e.g., regressão linear e hierárquica, e modelos de equações estruturais), é utilizada. Os resultados mais relevantes mostram que identificação com a equipa e com o estádio predizem assistência a jogos de futebol. Além disso, ter-se tornado adepto porque "é a equipa da minha região", por "tradição familiar", e por "influência de outros não familiares", também predizem assistência a jogos. Por contraste, ter-se tornado adepto por causa de um ou mais jogadores está negativamente relacionado com a assistência atual a jogos de futebol. Estilo de vida (i.e., um conjunto de padrões comportamentais, distinto dos demais, com base em valores, atitudes e orientações), surge como o preditor mais forte para jovens adeptos (16-19 anos). Na Bélgica, a assistência a jogos aparece bastante relacionada com a paisagem desportiva. No entanto, os resultados revelam que adeptos mais identificados com a equipa e com o estádio atribuem menos importância à fraca qualidade do estádio. Os adeptos Portugueses queixam-se do preço da experiência em geral. Exigem bilhetes mais baratos, preços especiais para grupo, e ofertas e promoções. As implicações de marketing destes resultados são discutidas.

PALAVRAS-CHAVE: COMPORTAMENTOS DE CONSUMO DOS ADEPTOS, MOTIVOS PARA ASSISTÊNCIA A JOGOS DE FUTEBOL, IDENTIFICAÇÃO COM A EQUIPA, IDENTIFICAÇÃO COM O ESTÁDIO, PAISAGEM DESPORTIVA

XXVI

List of abbreviations

AGFI – Adjusted goodness-of-fit index

AVE – Average variance extracted

ASV – Average shared variance

CAS – Constraints on attendance scale

CFA – Confirmatory factor analysis

CFI – Comparative fit index

CR – Composite reliability

df – Degrees of freedom

e – Disturbance term

EFA – Exploratory factor analysis

e.g. – for instance

GFI – Goodness-of-fit index

i.e. – This is

IK – Item kurtosis

IS – Item skewness

IU – Item uniqueness

KMO – Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

M or $\bar{x}$ – Mean

MAS – Motives for attendance scale

MBF – Motives to become a fan

MSV – Maximum shared variance

N or n – Number of individuals in the sample

NNFI – Non-normed fit index

PA – Place attachment

PAS – Place attachment scale

r - correlation

RMSEA – Root mean square error of approximation

S-B – Sattora-Bentler measure

SD – Standard deviation

SEM – Structural equation modelling

SC – Sportscape as a constraint on attendance

SMC – Squared multiple correlations

SMS – Sociopsychological motives scale

SSIS – Sport spectator identification scale

SRMR – Standardised root mean square residual

TI – Team identification

α – Cronbach's coefficient

I.   INTRODUCTION

1. Relevance of the research

Soccer is the world's premier sport when it comes to popularity amongst its devotees (Giulianotti, 1999). But what is it about soccer that makes it so special for so many different kinds of people? According to Giulianotti (1999), the relative plasticity of soccer's rules can be one of the reasons that make it popular. Its rules are easy to adapt and it can be played everywhere, with few required materials. Besides, its simplicity allows everyone to play and to understand it. On the contrary to many other sports, it is possible to find tall skinny players or smaller stronger players in the same field, either professionally, either in the school playground. Further, soccer, among other sports, has become a global and commercialised activity, viewed as a profitable enterprise (Charleston, 2009). More than merely caring about the performance on the field, the current aim of the professional clubs is to increase the loyalty and passion of the fans and turn it into consumption behaviours, such as buying merchandising, following the club on the Internet, or attending games.

However, fans do not always show their passion by attending games. Across Europe many stadiums are almost empty in match days. Portugal is one of the countries facing this problem of absence of spectators and empty stadiums (Coelho & Tiesler, 2007). Several stadiums were built or rebuilt for the European Championship of 2004, and, for that reason, the facilities are modern and big. Nevertheless, despite the tradition in soccer, both at the organisational and the competitive level, the occupation rate of the Portuguese stadiums is only 40% (Bolas, 2013). The stadiums of Algarve, Aveiro, and Leiria, are examples of so-called 'white elephants', i.e., empty stadiums that fight to keep running due to the lack of use. This situation constitutes a financial problem for the clubs, for the municipalities, and for the country in general. By contrast, in Belgium the stadiums are old and rather small. However, the Royal Belgian Football Association is planning to establish five brand new stadiums, in order to assure a good hospitality for the fans (Martens, 2012). Are Belgian soccer and Belgian service providers prepared to fill these new stadiums with

spectators, or is Belgium tracking the wrong managerial path as Portugal followed before?

The general aim of this PhD is to analyse the factors influencing live attendance at soccer games. This research is relevant to the extent that the importance of fans at the stadium is undeniable, either for the show they help to perform, or for the influence they have in the decisions of the stakeholders. Not only the revenues from tickets, merchandising, food, and drinks are dependent on the number of spectators during the games, but also the sponsorships, advertising partners, and media rights are related to it (Czarnitzki & Satdtmann, 2002; Neale & Funk, 2006). The whole sports business depends on fans, which can be seen as the lifeblood of the sports organisations (Buhler & Nufer, 2010). Sport entities need the fans in order to generate money and keep their business running. More specifically, the scientific relevance of this research is shown as follows.

First, consumer behaviour in general, and specifically in sports, has received more and more attention from the scientific community, in the past few decades. However, these analyses are, most of the times, too specific for a certain field of knowledge, and unrelated with each other. Our approach intends to be broader, and includes the perspective from several disciplines from the social science, such as sociology, psychology, marketing, and management. We focus on the demand from the consumers, rather than on the supply, meaning that we give emphasis to the people, and to what they feel, perceive and wish, and not to what the service provider, the clubs in this case, supplies.

Second, existing research focus on fans that are already attending games, because data collection is usually performed around the stadium, on a game day. For this research, data collection was performed not only around the stadium (Study 1), but also in schools (Study 2), and by means of an online survey (Study 3), making it possible to collect data from people who are not necessarily attending live games at the stadium.

Third, research of this kind has been mainly performed in Australia or North America. Due to the fact that this PhD is a double degree between FADEUP, Portugal, and KU Leuven, Belgium, we had the opportunity to collect data from both countries. Therefore, this thesis includes samples from Belgium (a Central Western European country) and from Portugal (a Southern European country), in an international European analysis, adjusted to the European context. In this manner, we can understand the mind and the choices from the European consumers of two countries with different soccer cultures.

Finally, our research may be supportive to soccer agents (clubs from top level and lower level, Leagues, Football Associations, as well as cities that own or co-own soccer stadiums), in order to define their marketing strategies to attract more people to soccer stadiums, or even to attract other segments than the ones already attending. From our perspective, there is still much work that can be done by these agents, from the marketing perspective, to increase the number of attendees.

In order to assist the reader through this doctoral thesis, we would like to start by clarifying the use of the word 'soccer', instead of 'football', in this doctorate. Despite the fact that the word football is used all over Europe, and also by the two most powerful official institutions running the sport (FIFA – Fédération Internationale de Football Association, and UEFA - Union des Associations Européennes de Football), we prefer to use the word soccer. The main reason for this choice is that we would like this doctoral thesis to be accessible and clear to people all over the world, including the American, the Asian and the Australian continents, where the word soccer is mostly used. Moreover, when using searching engines, the word football can be confused with American football, or Australian football. Therefore, our choice is for the unambiguous 'soccer'.

Moreover, we need to clarify the concept of attendance. When we mention sport attendance in our research, and more specifically, when we mention soccer attendance, we are referring to the number of soccer games attended live at the stadium, and not on television or in a bar. Most of our research analyses the

number of games attended at the stadium of the favourite team, but we also refer to the number of away games attended.

2. Objectives of the research

In order to fulfil the main aim of this thesis and to answer the central problem, that is, what brings people into the stadium, we performed three studies, each one dedicated to answering specific questions. Therefore, this PhD comprised three studies with different objectives:

- *Study 1*: This study included the establishment of a general framework about soccer attendance, as well as the official translation from the English version into Portuguese and the validation of two of the scales used in this research, namely, the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS, Wann & Branscombe, 1993), and the Place Attachment Scale (PAS, Kyle, Graefe, Manning, Bacon, 2004). This study was performed while this PhD was being conducted in Portugal only (before the KU Leuven was involved in this project), and therefore, this official translation and validation has been performed from English to Portuguese only, and not into Dutch as well;

- *Study 2*: This study comprised the expansion of the specific survey for this research, and the translation to Dutch; it was also the aim of this part to investigate soccer attendance habits and motivations among young fans, in this case, high school students. More specifically, the aim was to understand if team identification is the strongest predictor of attendance among young people, as has been shown in studies among adults; *Study 2* worked as a pilot study both for the Belgian and the Portuguese contexts of *Study 3*;

- *Study 3*: The main aim of this study was the investigation of the soccer attendance habits and motivations among Belgian and Portuguese fans and non-fans, in a vast online data collection. Moreover, the establishment of the relationship between team identification, place attachment, soccer attendance, and constraints on attendance, was also aimed. Finally, the investigation about

the origin of team identification, this is, the investigation about why fans began to support their team at the beginning, was also included.

3. Structure of the thesis

This doctoral thesis was prepared according to the *article based thesis model*, in which papers are prepared and presented in a publishable shape, ready to be submitted and to be peer-reviewed, and, when possible, already submitted or accepted for publication.

However, in order to contextualise the content of the doctoral thesis, and to provide the reader with an in-depth overview of the existing literature, we include *Chapter II Theoretical framework*, dealing with the literature on sport consumption and fan behaviour. In particular, the motives to attend sport events, as well as the constraints to do so, are analysed together with sport consumption models and theories. This chapter includes a *status quaestionis* of the literature, i.e., the literature research about the concepts used in this research and also results from the field. Moreover, it includes the current European soccer context, when it comes to the attendance numbers and figures, and to some financial parameters. The references used in this chapter are presented at the end of *Chapter II*.

Furthermore, *Chapter III Instrument and data collection* presents the development of the instrument and some figures about the three different data collections (Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3). More specifically, it shows the progress of the survey used in the different studies. This chapter includes important information about this doctoral thesis that in part could not be included in the papers, mostly because of the number of word limit and other constraints related to the rules of the journals. The references used in this chapter are presented at the end of *Chapter III*.

C*hapter IV Output* includes the papers written within the framework of this doctoral thesis. As can be observed in Table 1, all papers are already submitted

to peer-reviewed journals, and four of them are published or accepted for publication. Most of the papers were partially or fully presented in an international conference, as can be observed in Table 1 as well.

Paper 1 Adepto desportivo: definição e contextualização includes the state of the art about the definition of being a sport fan, and it is the only paper written in Portuguese language. *Paper 2 Translation and initial validation of the Portuguese version of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale*, and *Paper 3 Translation and Portuguese validation of the Place Attachment Scale*, report the translation to Portuguese and validation of the SSIS and of the PAS, respectively (n = 217). These are two of the main scales used along this research, incorporating two of the main concepts of this PhD, team identification and place attachment. *Paper 1, Paper 2,* and *Paper 3* are included in *Study 1.*

Paper 4 What brings youngsters into the stadium? Sociopsychological predictors of soccer attendance among Belgian and Portuguese young fans is part of the pilot study, performed mainly to test the validity of the survey about sport fandom and soccer attendance. The main aim of this paper is to find out what takes Belgian (n = 173) and Portuguese (n = 188) youngsters into the soccer stadium. The role of sociopsychological factors, such as lifestyle and team identification, is explored. *Paper 4* is included in *Study 2*.

Paper 5 Sportscape as a constraint on soccer attendance in Belgium: The role of place attachment and team identification investigates the relationship between stadium facilities and the emotional attachment to the stadium and to the club in Belgium (n = 4,028). *Paper 6 Why do they come to the stadium? The relations between team identification, place attachment, and motives to become a soccer fan with soccer attendance in Belgium* intends to relate attendance, as dependent variable, with team identification, place attachment and motives to become a fan in a large Belgian sample (n = 4,482). Finally, *Paper 7 What keeps people away from the stadium? Constraints on soccer attendance in Portugal* embraces the problem from the opposite perspective, and explores the motives people have not to go to the stadium in Portugal (n = 1,866). *Paper 5, Paper 6*, and *Paper 7* are included in *Study 3*.

Finally, *Chapter V General discussion* summarises evidences from the three studies, namely, the results, discussion and conclusion from the several papers presented in *Chapter IV*. Sub-chapters with limitations, marketing implications, future research and final considerations are included in this general discussion. The references used in this chapter are presented at the end of *Chapter V*. Table 1 presents an overview of the content of this doctoral thesis.

Table 1. Overview of the doctoral thesis' content

Chapter II Theoretical framework
Literature review; Sport consumption concepts; Motives and constraints for sport attendance; Fan consumption behaviour; European soccer attendance figures
This chapter was partially presented at the following oral communication: de Carvalho, M., Sarmento, J. P., & Scheerder, J. (2011). Sport fans and motives for attendance: A Status Quaestionis from the literature. *Book of abstracts of the 19th Annual European Sport Management Conference (EASM),* p. 249-250. Madrid, September.
Chapter III Instrument and data collection
Methodology; Development of the instrument; Descriptive data
This chapter was partially presented at the following oral communications: de Carvalho, M., Sarmento, J. P., Boen, F., & Scheerder, J. (2012). What brings fans into the stadium? Questionnaire about the motives for soccer attendance in Belgium and in Portugal. *Book of abstracts of the 17th annual Congress of the European College of Sport Science (ECSS),* p. 230-231. Bruges, July. de Carvalho, M., Sarmento, J. P., & Scheerder, J. (2012). *O que leva as pessoas ao Estádio de Futebol? Processo de elaboração de um questionário.* I Simpósio Virtual de Gestão Desportiva da Aliança Intercontinental de Gestão Desportiva (AIGD). Online symposium, March 14th.

Chapter IV Output		
Paper	*Oral communication*	*Study and sample*
Paper 1 Adepto desportivo: definição e contextualização de Carvalho, M. Published in *Revista Intercontinental de Gestão Desportiva* (2011), 1(2): 73-77	de Carvalho, M. (2010). O adepto de futebol: Um conceito em constante redefinição. *1° Seminário Internacional do Programa Doutoral em Ciências do Desporto*, Faculty of Sport, University of Porto. Porto, June 4th.	Study 1 Literature review
Paper 2 Translation and initial validation of the Portuguese version of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale Theodorakis, N., Wann, D., de Carvalho, M., & Sarmento, J. P. Published in the *North American Journal of Psychology* (2010), 12(1): 67-80	de Carvalho, M., & Theodorakis, N. (2009). The prediction of behavioral loyalty from team identification and place attachment among Portuguese fans – A study conducted with F.C. Porto fans. *Book of abstracts of the 17th Annual European Sport Management Conference (EASM)*, p. 391. Amsterdam, September.	Study 1 Portugues e sample
Paper 3 Translation and Portuguese validation of the Place Attachment Scale de Carvalho, M., Theodorakis, N., & Sarmento, J. P. Published in the *Variorum, Multi-Disciplinary e-Research Journal* (2011), 1(4): 1-11	de Carvalho, M., & Theodorakis, N. (2009). The prediction of behavioral loyalty from team identification and place attachment among Portuguese fans – A study conducted with F.C. Porto fans. *Book of abstracts of the 17th Annual European Sport Management Conference (EASM)*, p. 391. Amsterdam, September.	Study 1 Portugues e sample

Paper 4 What brings youngsters into the stadium? Sociopsychological predictors of soccer attendance among Belgian and Portuguese young fans de Carvalho, M., Boen, F., Sarmento, J. P., & Scheerder, J. Submitted for publication	de Carvalho, M., Sarmento, J. P., Boen, F., & Scheerder, J. (2014). What brings youngsters into the stadium? Predictors of soccer attendance among Belgian and Portuguese fans. *Book of abstracts of the 11th European Association for Sociology of Sport Conference (EASS)*, p.76. Utrecht, May.	Study 2 Belgian and Portugues e sample
Paper 5 Sportscape as a constraint on soccer attendance in Belgium: The role of place attachment and team identification de Carvalho, M., Boen, F., & Scheerder, J. Accepted for publication in *The Journal for Facility Planning, Design, and Management* (Fall 2015)	de Carvalho, M., Sarmento, J. P., Boen, F., & Scheerder, J. (2013). Love For the Club, Love for the Stadium? The Relationship between Sportscape Perception, Place Attachment, and Soccer Attendance among Belgian Fans. *Book of abstracts of the 21st Annual European Sport Management Conference (EASM),* pp. 383-386. Istanbul, September *(New Researcher Award – 3rd place).* de Carvalho, M., & Scheerder, J. (2013). Wat verwacht de fan van stadioninfrastructuur? *Stadium Summit 2013*. Brussels, September 30th (Guest speaker).	Study 3 Belgian sample

Paper 6 Why do they come to the stadium? The relations between team identification, place attachment, and motives to become a soccer fan with soccer attendance in Belgium de Carvalho, M., Boen, F., Sarmento, J. P., & Scheerder, J. Submitted for publication	de Carvalho, M., Sarmento, J. P., Scheerder, J., & Boen, F. (2013). What is the origin of team identification? Socialisation agents and motives to become a fan in Belgian and Portuguese soccer. *Dag van het sportonderzoek.* Eindhoven, November, 7th.	Study 3 Belgium sample
Paper 7 What keeps people away from the stadium? Constraints on soccer attendance in Portugal de Carvalho, M., Boen, F., Van Thielen, J., & Scheerder J. In preparation for submission	de Carvalho, M., Sarmento, J. P., Boen, F., & Scheerder, J. (2014). What keeps people away from the stadium? Constraints on soccer attendance in a European context. *Book of abstracts of the 22nd Annual European Sport Management Conference (EASM)*, pp.78-79. Coventry, September. de Carvalho, M., Scheerder, J., Boen, F., & Sarmento, J. P. (2014). A transmissão televisiva dos jogos é razão para não irmos ao estádio? *III Jornadas de Comunicação e Desporto: Futebol e Media*. Coimbra, February, 24th.	Study 3 Portugues e sample

Chapter V – General discussion

Summary of main findings; Marketing implications; Limitations and future research; Final considerations

4. References

Bolas, N. (2012). Estudos e rankings Europa – Espectadores vs Receitas e População. *Futebolfinance*. Retrieved December 20, 2012 from http://www.futebolfinance.com/europa-espectadores-vs-receitas-e-populacao

Buhler, A., & Nufer, G. (2010). *Relationship marketing in sports*. Oxford: Elsevier.

Charleston, S. (2009). The English football ground as a representation of home. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 29*, 144-150.

Coelho, J. N., & Tiesler, N. C. (2007). The Paradox of the Portuguese Game: The Omnipresence of Football and the Absence of Spectators at Matches. *Soccer & Society, 8*(4), 578-600.

Czarnitzki, D., & Satdtmann, G. (2002). Uncertainty of outcome versus reputation: Empirical evidence for the first German football division. *Empirical Economics, 27*(1), 101-112.

Giulianotti, R. (1999). *Football - A Sociology of the global game*. Cornwall: Polity Press.

Kyle, G., Graefe, A., Manning, R., & Bacon, J. (2004). Effect of activity involvement and place attachment on recreationists' perceptions of setting density. *Journal of Leisure Research, 36*(2), 209-231.

Martens, S. (2012). 1 Jaar op de voetbalbond, een terugblik en... vooruitblik [1 Year at the football association, and a look back ... preview]. *Sporza*. Retrieved June 9, 2012 from http://sporza.be/cm/sporza/voetbal/1.1337672.

Neale, L., & Funk, D. (2006). Investigating motivation, attitudinal loyalty and attendance behavior with fans of Australian Football. *International Journal of Sport Marketing & Sponsorship, 7*(4), 307-317.

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

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1. Sport consumption

Sport consumption behaviour, sport events attendance choices, and motives that take people into the sports venue or that make them stay out of the stadium, are issues that arouse the interest of people from the academic and practical field. A better comprehension about the sport fans, the motives that get supporters into the stadium and the reasons that can make them buy some official merchandising can help to build a whole picture about the followers of a specific club, athlete or sport. This picture will be useful from the academic point of view, and can also provide evidence for the sport marketeers and managers in the design of a team or club marketing plan. Therefore, the wide-ranging idea of this literature review is to systematise the knowledge about sport consumption and particularly about live attendance.

There are many different sport consumptions, e.g., attending a game or a sport event, listening to the radio or seeing sports on TV, playing a sport or a game (as a professional, amateur and recreationist), or buying sports equipment and merchandising. Nowadays, with the new technologies and social media growth, also playing in a fantasy game or league or engaging in an on-line sport chat room can be included in the definition of sport consumption.

Viseu, Santos, Fernandes, and Ribeiro (2002) refer to the sport consumption as active or passive. Active consumption is related with actually performing sports activities. Passive consumption is associated with live attendance at the stadiums or sport facilities, with media attendance (via radio, TV or newspaper), and with a sports life style (a sport self-image). Scheerder et al. (2011) differentiate between media sport and mass sport, with media sport referring to watching sport, physically passive sport activities and a sport public, whereas mass sport refers to doing sport, physically active sport activities and sport participants. Sometimes, it is not possible to totally draw the lines between the several types of consumption, e.g., using some kind of sport shoes can be related with an active consumption, such as practicing some sport, or with a sportive life style.

Another distinction can be made between the direct and indirect consumption. Direct sport consumption involves attendance or participation at a sporting event. Indirect sport consumption involves contact with sport through some form of mass media (TV, radio, or internet). This distinction is important because the situational context in which a spectator witnesses an event may impact the response to the event. It is totally different if the person becomes a part of the event environment or not, and if an individual has the opportunity to impact the environment or not (Wann, Melnick, Russell, & Pease, 2001).

Although there are innumerable studies, theories and models that attempt to get into the mind of the consumer, the factors that influence this behaviour may be considered either environmental or individual (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 1993). Environmental factors may include social and cultural norms, climatic and physical conditions, social class structure, race and gender relations, sport opportunity structure, significant others, such as family, peers and coaches, and market behaviour of firms in the sport industry. Individual factors include one's attitudes, perceptions, learning, motivations, and stage in the family cycle, as well as the process of consumer decision making itself.

The individual sport consumption, in general, is affected by the following classic determinants (Viseu et al., 2002):

▪ income, economic well-being, personal wealth and credit possibilities;

▪ the price of the sports products;

▪ the price of other consumer goods that can substitute or are complementary to sports goods;

▪ the period of life in which the person is living;

▪ the sports offer.

From another more sports oriented perspective, Smith and Stewart elaborated a list of factors moderating sport consumption behaviour (2007):

▪ sport context (type of sport, sport location and reciprocity);

- competition (balance, uncertainty, quality of visiting teams, likelihood of winning);
- physical environment (venue, facilities);
- economic (prices of tickets, income of fan);
- promotional (special experiences, product attachments);
- social context (alternative activities, social change and fashion, fractured traditions).

Several studies talk about sport consumption but they do not distinguish the different types of consumption such as attendance, media consumption, or merchandising consumption. Motives for watching sports are related, but are different from team identification and sporting event consumption in general (Madrigal, 2006).

Studying sport consumption from a general perspective may be useful if the main objective is focused on the definition of fans and their consumption behaviour. Nevertheless, it is important to distinguish the different kinds of consumption. Namely, the attendance behaviour is an important issue of the consumption that should be studied separately, due to its dimension, influences and consequences (Czarnitzki & Satdtmann, 2002).

1.1. *Sport consumers, sport fans, or sport spectators?*

When it comes to the use of the terms *sport consumer*, *sport spectator*, or *sport fan* (or *supporter*, used mainly in the context of the team sports) there is a lot to discuss. Although some authors use the words in an indifferent way (for instance, Trail and colleagues (2000; 2003) talk about *Sport Spectator Consumption Behaviour* mixing the concepts of spectator and consumer), others, correctly we would say, distinguish them.

Sport consumer is the broadest definition. A sport consumer is someone that consumes sport in some way, and therefore, everyone that can actively or passively be associated to a sport, a team, an athlete, a sport product, in any

way, is a consumer. Sport consumers profiles differ a lot, e.g., their needs, wishes, values, attitudes, and behaviours are quite varied (Meir, 2000; C. Sá & Sá, 1999). Some are passionate and fanatical, but not all of them are fanatical in the same way; some use their team to confirm their personal identity; some are totally loyal; some are aware of the club history or are resistant to changes that may threaten team values and practices (Stewart, Smith, & Nicholson, 2003); some attend games on a regular basis, while others attend only on special occasions (Meir, 2000; Stewart et al., 2003); some consumers spend most of their time engaging in sport chatter and surfing on the internet, while others display their fandom by watching pay-per-view sports in different ways, and use team affiliations to meet a diverse range of needs (Wann, Melnick, et al., 2001); finally, some of them like to consume sports live, while others prefer to follow it on TV or through other media; and some buy sports products regularly or occasionally, while others do not (Stewart et al., 2003). Sport consumption is complex and fan typologies cannot be defined based on a single factor (Crawford, 2004). It is critical to highlight that there are cultural differences between supporters at the local, regional, national and continental levels. Also in history, each nation shows itself to have certain unique characteristics in the development of militant forms of fandom (Giulianotti, 1999). However, within a progressively more global cultural framework, it is possible to recognise some continuity.

Distinguishing spectators from fans is imperative. This separation between the definitions is useful from a theoretical, as well as from a practical point of view. It elucidates the concepts and makes them clearer, also to the professionals on the field, such as marketeers and managers. A sport spectator can watch and observe, from a less emotional point of view (Trail, Robinson, Dick, & Gillentine, 2003), while a sport fan is an enthusiastic follower of a team, athlete, sport or sport product (Wann, Melnick, et al., 2001).

The definition of sport spectator is objective. Sport spectators are those individuals who witness a sporting event in person or through some form of media, while some sport fans rarely witness sporting events in person (Wann,

Melnick, et al., 2001). Some spectators have little interest in identifying with a favourite sport team or player, while sport fans can be described as those with a permanent interest in sport (Wann, Melnick, et al., 2001).

On the other hand, a fan is an enthusiastic devotee (this is, with some level of attachment) of some particular sports consumptive object – a team, a league, a sport, an athlete or coach (Hunt, Bristol, & Bashaw, 1999). Being a fan is a self-defining concept, i.e., a fan is someone that considers him or herself a fan (Dietz-Uhler, Harrick, End, & Jacquemotte, 2000). Table 1 distinguishes spectators and fans.

Table 1.   Sport consumers' characteristics: spectators vs. fans

Spectators	vs.	Fans
- Watch and observe, but from a less emotional point of view - Witness a sport event in person or through some form of media - Some of them have little interest in identifying with a favourite team or player - Want to see a quality show, appreciate the skills and the game aesthetics, and want to increase their knowledge about the sport - Objective concept		- Enthusiastic follower of a team, athlete, sport or sport product - They use it as a confirmation of their identity - Some of them rarely witness sporting events in person - Want their team to win above all - Want to share the triumphs with the club itself, get to know the coach and the athletes, ask for autographs and take pictures - Want to know everything about their club and keep informed - Like to dress as their idols or, at least, like to be visually identified with the team - Self-defining concept

Sources: Dietz-Uhler et al., 2000; Trail, Robinson, et al., 2003; Wann, Melnick, et al., 2001; Wann & Waddill, 2003

The distinction between spectators and fans is important mainly for sport marketeers. Marketeers can focus on making people feel themselves more of a fan, so they consume more sports (attending games or buying merchandising) or on objectively attracting them to the stadium through several commercial or emotional strategies. The spectators want to see a quality show, appreciate the skills, the game aesthetics and to increase their knowledge about the sport. These individuals are much more influenced in their consumption decisions by things like the price of a certain product, accessibility or commodity of a game, and they will decide to stay at home if the last experience between the crowds has not been pleasant or if the traffic to the game was infernal (Trail, Fink, et al., 2003). The fans are different. Some fans want their team to win above all, and they want to share this triumph with the club itself, get to know the coach and the athletes – the marketeer should organise, for instance, autograph sessions. For the fans that like to be informed, the club should communicate through the webpage, internet chats or blogs. Finally, fans like to dress as their idols or, at least, they like to be visually identified with the team. The club must be aware and insightful to give the fans what they want (Trail, Fink, et al., 2003).

The concepts of spectator and of fan are not mutually exclusive, of course. A person can be both a spectator and a fan, i.e., someone that follows a team, sport, or athlete and also follows the competition live, or in any kind of media. But sport spectators are not necessarily sport fans (Wann, Melnick, et al., 2001), and being a fan of a certain team does not mean being a spectator. An extreme example of a fan who is not a spectator is someone that affirms being a fan of a team, just because of the colour they play (he / she even bought the playing shirt and uses it to play soccer with friends), but does not follow any kind of competition or information about the team. On the other hand, an extreme example of a spectator that is not a fan is someone that attends soccer games with friends or family just to be with them, and is actually seeing the game, but not really interested in it. In this manner, a passive sport consumer can be only a spectator, only a fan, or both of them.

We excluded the active participation in sports, because the analysis would become too complex, and the active sport participation is not the focus of this report or of our work. Figure 1 presents a scheme of the passive sport consumers' classification, including the sport fans, the buyers of sport material or merchandise, and the sport spectators. The proportions of the spaces do not have the intention to be adjusted to the reality, as we do not have statistical information about it. By presenting this scheme, we merely want to call the attention to the intersection between the groups. The focus of our research is the group in white, the live spectators, i.e., the ones that witness live sport events, in this case, soccer games.

Figure 1.   Classification of the passive sport consumers
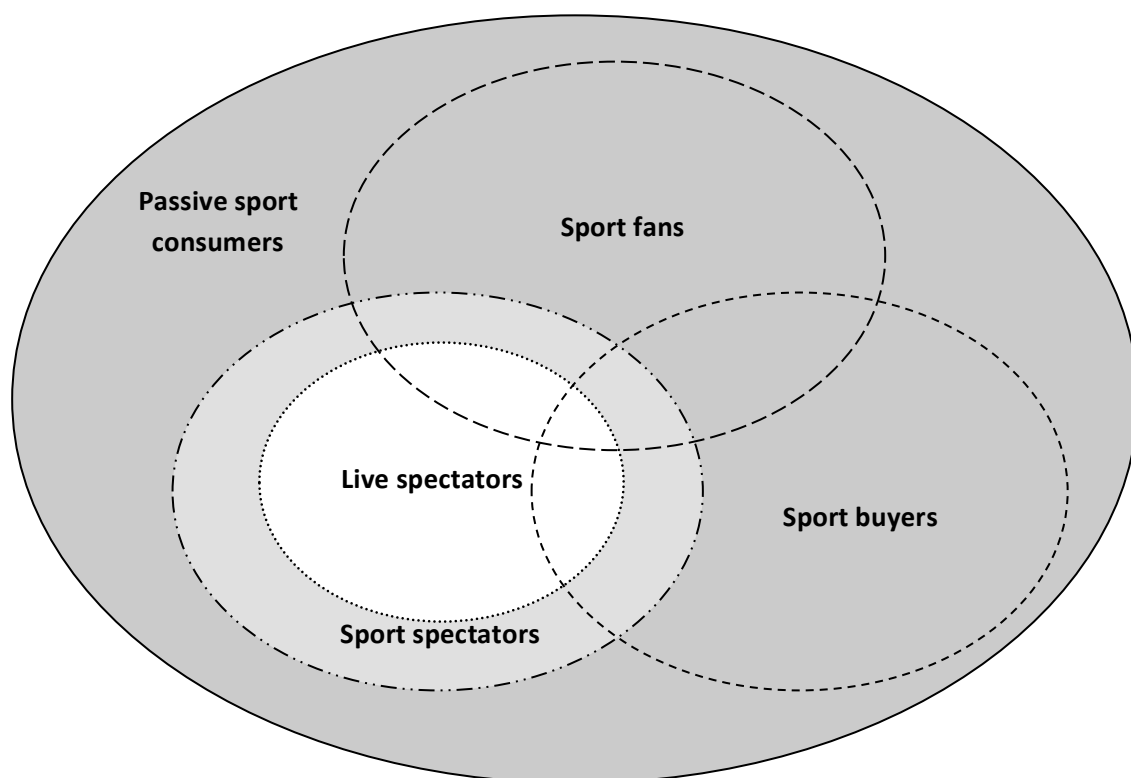
1.2.   Fan loyalty

Loyalty is a highly developed attitude that is persistent, resistant to change, creates biases in cognitive processing and provides a guide to behaviour (Funk & James, 2001). It was studied as a one-dimensional construct, but also as a multidimensional construct: attitudinal loyalty and behavioural loyalty (Neale & Funk, 2006). Fan loyalty researchers have used these criteria to operationalise loyalty to a sport team, and often require that people both express a strong positive attitude toward the team (truly caring about the team's success), and direct their behaviour toward the team, in order to be considered a loyal team fan (Funk & James, 2001; Mahony, Madrigal, & Howard, 2000). People who could be classified as a buyer, such as a person who buys a hat because of the colours but does not cheer for the team, or solely spectators (such as a person who attends games as a designated driver but does not cheer for the team) were excluded from the definition of fan loyalty. This attitudinal loyalty is a similar concept to the one of team identification, which will be more deeply analysed later in this text. Some activities showing behavioural loyalty in sports are, e.g., attending the favourite club´s games live at the stadium, watching the favourite club's games on TV, consuming other club-related media, purchasing club merchandise, wearing the colours and / or logo of the favourite club, and participating in discussions about the favourite club (Bauer, Sauer, & Exler, 2005).

Backman and Crompton (1991, cit. Mahony et al., 2000, p. 17) used attitudinal and behavioural scores to segment sport fans. They used a two-dimensional matrix to distinguish four discrete levels of loyalty (Figure 2). The resulting four-quadrant matrix was useful to classify participants into specific groups by weak or strong attitudes and high or low behavioural consistency. Following Day's (1969) earlier characterisation (cit. Mahony et al., 2000, p.16), those demonstrating strong psychological attachment, i.e., high attitudinal loyalty, as well as active participation, i.e., high behavioural loyalty, were placed in the upper left quadrant, labelled *high (true) loyalty*, as can be seen in the Figure 2. *Latently loyal* fans often express a strong desire to participate, but may lack the

means, e.g., money, time, equipment. With this categorisation, Backman and Crompton demonstrated that the traditional all-or-none portrayal of loyalty as a simple dichotomy between loyal and non-loyal consumers was far too slender.

Figure 2.   Fan loyalty model

Psychological commitment

	High (true) Loyalty	Spurious Loyalty
Behavioural consistency	Latent Loyalty	Low (Non) Loyalty
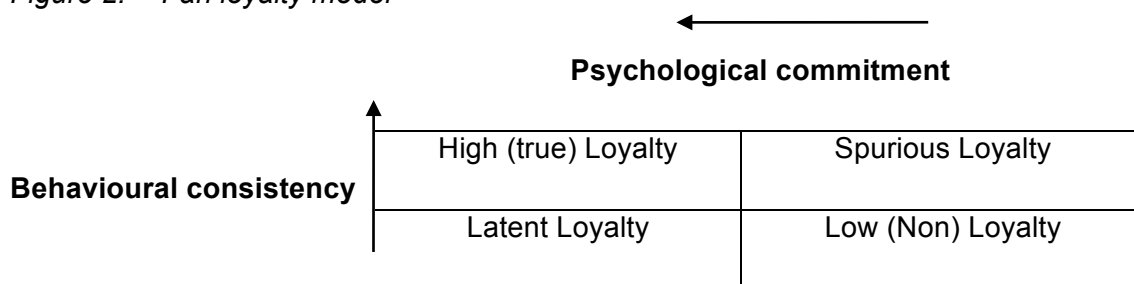
Source: Backman & Crompton, 1991, cit. Mahony et al., 2000, p. 17

Following this line of thoughts, Mahony and colleagues (2000) proposed, based on the use of their psychological commitment to team scale, four attitudinal loyalty segments, i.e., high loyalty, spurious loyalty, latent loyalty and low loyalty.

We can distinguish lowly and highly identified sport fans (Wann, Melnick, et al., 2001), or as Wann and Branscombe (1990) called them, the fair-weather and the die-hard fans. The fair-weather fans may appear rather disinterested, they do not wear apparel that signifies their allegiance to a particular team or athlete, they rarely clap or yell and they seem more interested in talking to their friends than watching the game (Wann, Melnick, et al., 2001). On the other hand, the die-hard fans appear to be immersed in the contest, they are dressed and / or painted in their team's colours, they clap and yell for their team and they see nothing else besides of the game or the contest. Quick (2000) names them as tribal fans also. They are passionate about the sport, the game, its culture and they are intensely committed to a particular team, athlete or coach, as in the case of a tribe.

2. *Theoretical model of live attendance*

Literature about sport consumption, and sport attendance in particular, has covered different areas of knowledge, such as marketing, anthropology, sociology, economy, and psychology. Leisure activities consumption, like sport attendance, is indeed experiential in nature, with a lot of associated subjective and symbolic meanings (Madrigal, 2006). In this section we present a model proposed by ourselves, to relate the different factors associated with sport attendance. The several motives that are studied to be related to sport attendance, especially in professional team sports, are developed.

The first researches conducted about this issue were stating that, in general, attendance was influenced by economic, demographic and game attractiveness variables (Schofield, 1983). On a revision paper with data collected from the 70's and the 80's studies in professional North American leagues, the sub-categories of each one of these categories were defined (Hansen & Gauthier, 1989). While economic factors corresponded to ticket price, per capita income, substitute forms of entertainment, television effects and the effect of other sports attractions in the area, sociodemographic factors studied by that time were the population size of the area, ethnic population and geography (including distance between franchises and easy access to facility for fans). The category nominated as game attractiveness included factors as promotions and special events, star players, the team as a contender or team placement in the standings and the closeness of the pennant race. Finally, the residual variables corresponded to scheduling of games, fan accommodation and weather conditions.

As research in this area of knowledge became stronger, several models and explanations about sport attendance with numerous variables emerged (Mullin et al., 1993; Stewart et al., 2003; Trail et al., 2000; Trail & James, 2001; Viseu et al., 2002; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann, Schrader, & Wilson, 1999). While some studies give an overemphasis to social and psychological traits, identifying important motivational and behavioural differences, other studies (also) focus on the cultural and economic context in which behaviours take

place. Most of them rarely explain how fans might move between different segments, or how relationships with sport teams are formed in the first place. Also surveys about the motives that make people consume, and, in particular, attend a game or sports event were elaborated, in several languages (Trail & James, 2001; Wann et al., 1999). However, the differences between the scales are often semantic (Wann, 1995).

A wide-ranging literature review was undertaken to emphasise the diverse approaches, models and dimensions explored by researchers studying sport attendance. We elaborated this model (Figure 3) based on sociological, psychological, anthropological and marketing concepts. The factors included are related to the fans, their fandom, and the object of their fandom, in this case, the sport and the club.

We propose that these four groups represent a different role on the attendance decision. **Demographics** are background variables, and therefore they are control variables. The provider cannot change these variables, and therefore, it should be taken into account in order to segment the spectators. **Fanographics** refer to the items about people that are related to their relationship with the sport or club. These factors are vital but not enough to assure that people go to the stadium. The third group represented, **sociopsychological factors**, involves a combination of social and psychological factors. This group is, from our perspective, and according to many authors, the most important, and the one affecting live attendance in a larger way. Finally, the fourth group, representing the **external factors,** i.e., representing the supply, is also really important. Providers have a greater possibility of introducing changes on the third and the forth groups. Following, we present an explanation about each group, and the factors included in each of them.

Figure 3.   Model of attendance in professional team sports

1. Demographics

Sex

Age

Education

Socioeconomic status

Sport participation

2. Fanographics

Interest in soccer

Duration of involvement with the club as fan

Member of the club/fan club

Season ticket holder

Time dedicated to the team/availability

Time to get to the stadium

Attendance

3. Sociopsychological factors

Team identification

Place attachment

Sociopsychological motives (socialisation, performance/knowledge (game itself), aesthetics, excitement/eustress/drama, esteem/vicarious ahievement, diversion/ entertainment, escape, professional reasons/ networking, economical reasons/gambling, belongingness)

4. External factors

Sportscape (hygiene, crowd/security perception, comfort, service quality, accessibility, aesthetics, location)

Game related (importance, time of the season/ week/day, level of play of own team, level of play of visiting team, fair-play, expected game result (unpredictable/expected victory), league position, players, predicted number of goals)

Marketing related (offers, publicity, promotions, activities before/during game, brand image/ values/solidarity/colours/equipment)

Economic (ticket price, total cost game, scarcity)

Broadcasting / weather forecast

E-marketing

2.1. Demographics

A number of researchers have attempted to establish a demographic and personality profile of sport fans (Wann, Melnick, et al., 2001). However, factors such as age, sex, socioeconomic status, education and sport participation are demographic variables used to study sport attendance mainly as a background control. For instance, it is usual that more men attend soccer games and also more men participate in surveys related to sports attendance (Charleston, 2009; Dietz-Uhler & Murrell, 1999). Moreover, research has shown that men and women have different attendance motives, with men giving more importance to the excitement related with the game, and women giving more importance to sportscape factors and social contact (Hall & O'Mahony, 2006).

The sex differences have been studied more deeply than the other demographic data. However, some research has been done with other factors. The level of education can relate with attendance because it correlates with the type of media people use (more intellectual newspapers or general ones, for instance) and the targeting of the clubs can be performed through one or other kind of media. There are some contradictions also about how other demographic characteristics relate with attendance. Variables such as socioeconomic status or age have already shown positive but also negative relationships with attendance (Wann, Melnick, et al., 2001). This incongruence might be mainly due to different methodologies employed in the different researches.

2.2. Fanographics

Fanographics refer to the items about people that are related to their relationship with the sport or club. We introduce the concept of fanographics because it consists of characteristics of the person as a fan. Included in this group of variables we can find items such as interest for a specific sport, duration of involvement with the club as a fan, member of the club/fan club, season ticket holder, time dedicated to the club, and time to get to the stadium.

The interest for sports in general and for a sport in particular, in our case, soccer, is important but not enough to take people into the stadium. The fact that someone enjoys soccer does not mean that the person also takes pleasure in attending live games. Likewise, understanding about the game, its rules, and knowing the teams and the players, does not mean that the person is a fan of a special club. Therefore, from a marketing perspective, it is important to increase people's interest for soccer, but mainly from the ones that are totally disconnected from it. The duration of involvement with the club, and the number of years as a fan, are related with the team identification, but the research did not focus on the relationship of these items with attendance. The options of the people of what to do with their free time can influence the attendance numbers as well. It is important to know how much time per week, for instance, people dedicate to the club. Some people may think they do not have time to attend games, because they are occupied with other activities or they prefer other hobbies. Finally, the time people take to reach their home stadium is a vital factor influencing attendance. Naturally, the further people live from the stadium, the more difficult and expensive it is to get to the game.

2.3.   Sociopsychological factors

Sociopsychological factors involve a combination of social and psychological factors. This group of factors includes the team identification, the place attachment, and the sociopsychological motives to attend.

2.3.1. Team identification

Team identification refers to the extent to which a fan feels psychologically connected to a team, he or she is involved with the team, has invested in the team, and sees the team as an extension of the self. It is a particular instance of social identification (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Wann, 1996; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann, Ensor, & Bilyeu, 2001; Wann, Melnick, et al., 2001).

This team identification can be different, according to social background, including age, gender, and ethnic, regional, national, and continental affiliations (Bouchet, Bodet, Bernache-Assollant, & Kada, 2011). It constitutes a strong driver for numerous affective, cognitive, and behavioural reactions (Wann, 1996).

The social identity theory is divided into the concepts of in-group identification and self-representation. The concept of team identification corresponds to the concept of in-group identification (Tropp & Wright, 2001). In-group identification is the part of social identity related to the degree to which the in-group is included in the self as a relative constant individual difference. Research indicates that team identification is not a function of the location or outcome of a team's most recent game (Wann, 1996). Instead, fans tend to report highly consistent levels of identification from game to game and from season to season. Therefore, it appears to be a stable measure. For fans with a low level of team identification, the role of team follower is merely a secondary factor of their self-concept (Wann & Dolan, 1994). However, for fans with a high level of team identification, the role of team follower is a central component of their identity. Because of their close association with a team, highly identified fans often view it as an expression of themselves. The team's successes become the fan's successes and the team's failures become the fan's failures (Wann & Dolan, 1994). Madrigal (2001) also mentioned that high identification can be dangerous, because a fan can relate the team failure as being his or her failure.

The self-representation as a group member can vary substantially across social situations. It corresponds to how people show themselves as part of the group. And this is related to the behavioural variations that can be found in fandom, this is, to how people express their identification.

Because of the amplified meaning highly identified fans place on their team's performance, their affective, cognitive and behavioural reactions tend to be quite extreme (Wann, Melnick, et al., 2001). Research shows that compared to lowly identified fans, those high in team identification:

- tend to report more involvement with the team (Wann & Branscombe, 1993);

- are more likely to experience greater levels of anxiety and arousal watching their team competing (Branscombe & Wann, 1992);

- are particularly likely to shout encouragement to their team and to direct harassment toward opponents (Wann & Dolan, 1994);

- display a more ego-enhancing pattern of attribution for the team's successes (Wann & Branscombe, 1993);

- feel that sport attendance is a more enjoyable activity (Madrigal, 1995; Wann & Schrader, 1997);

- possess a greater level of knowledge about their team and about sport in general (Wann & Branscombe, 1995);

- have more positive expectations concerning future team performances (Murrell & Dietz, 1992; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann & Dolan, 1994);

- are more likely to be intrinsically motivated to originally follow a team(Wann, Melnick, et al., 2001);

- are more likely to believe that fans of the team they are identified with possess special qualities (Wann & Branscombe, 1993);

- report higher level of vigour and self-esteem and lower level of tension, depression, anger, fatigue and confusion (Wann et al., 1999);

- exhibit greater willingness to invest larger amounts of time and money watching the team play (Wann, Bayens, & Driver, 2004; Wann & Branscombe, 1993);

- are more willing to consider illegally assisting their team (Wann, Hunter, Ryan, & Wright, 2001);

- show higher levels of motivation, perceive higher service quality, and have higher levels of satisfaction (Gau, James, & Kim, 2009; Wakefield & Sloan, 1995);

- attend more games (Wakefield & Sloan, 1995; Wann & Branscombe, 1993).

Team identification has been used in several studies as a determinant of sport consumers' behaviours such as game attending or game watching (Trail et al.,

2000) and licensed apparel buying and wearing behaviour (Kwon & Armstrong, 2002). Some authors (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Wann & Branscombe, 1993) point team identification as one of the most important motives to attend sport events. Accordingly, theorists interested in explaining the factors involved in attendance decisions have incorporated team identification into their models (Trail et al., 2000).

Wann and Branscombe (1993) developed the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS), differentiating people on the basis of the intensity of their relationship with a club and measuring this intensity with this scale. Several behavioural, affective and cognitive reactions among sport spectators were used for this construction. With the SSIS team, identity is evaluated as a one-dimensional construct.

Team identification is not the only factor determining sports fans' sense of self (Chun, Gentry, & McGinnis, 2004). They dynamically create and build their identities as sports fans by attaching symbolic meanings to objects and activities, securing their valuable traditions, and anchoring their behaviour in cultural and social orders through the fan ritualisation process. As a result, sports fans, in their roles as ritual participants, may celebrate not only successful team performance, but also symbolised cultural meanings through engaging in a variety of fan rituals.

The origin of the team identification, i.e., the motive(s) why people became fans of a certain team from the start, has also been studied. A study by Wann, Tucker, and Schrader (1996) indicates that, although there are a lot of reasons to first identify with a particular team, some of them are outstanding. According to these authors, the most common reason listed is that one's parents were supporters of the team at that time (parental and family influence). The second most important influence is the talent and characteristics of the players. The success of the team is only the fifth most commonly mentioned reason. But they found that the prevailing reason for continued identification with a team is success quantified by the win / loss record. On the contrary, Jones (1997) argued that geographical reasons are the most dominant reason for continuing

to support a team. Fink, Trail, and Anderson (2002) found vicarious team achievement to be the greatest motivator for team identification. However, Greenwood, Kanters, and Casper (2006) found that the strongest predictor of sport fan team identification is the variable players' and coaches' talent and the second strongest predictor is being a native or a resident in the area. Dimmock and Grove (2006) found that preferences for sport teams are significantly related to the preferences of family and friends. For what can be seen, the results vary with the contexts where the studies are conducted. Therefore, this issue still needs to be further explored.

2.3.2. Place attachment

Studies in the leisure and tourism literature have shown that the place meanings can improve our understanding about aspects of an individual's leisure and tourism behaviour (Alexandris, Kouthouris, & Meligdis, 2006). Place attachment (PA) refers to the extent to which a person has an emotional, functional, cognitive, symbolic, spiritual and/or affective connection to a particular physical place, environment, or setting in a particular condition and at a particular time. It is a fluctuating process, also, through time (Moore & Graefe, 1994; Moore & Scott, 2003; Smaldone, Harris, Sanyal, & Lind, 2005). Other authors gave the concept a different name, such as *special places* (Smaldone et al., 2005), *place bonding* (Hammitt, Backlund, & Bixler, 2006; Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2004a), *sense of place* (Hammitt et al., 2006; Nanzer, 2004), *rootedness*, *insidedness* or *environmental embeddedness* (Hammitt et al., 2006), but they always focus on the value people attribute to the place. The degree and strength of this connection depends on a multitude of factors, including the physical characteristics of the place, the social relationships and experiences of the subjects involved, the activities or rituals done at the place, the individual's length of association with the place, as well as the individual's personal set of beliefs, values and preferences (Moore & Graefe, 1994; Smaldone et al., 2005). All these words or expressions emphasise the meaning

not only of the actual place itself, but also the individual's feelings, relationships and interactions with the place.

The concept of PA has been used most of the time in a recreational and natural setting (Kyle, Absher, & Graefe, 2003; Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2003, 2004b). However, in our perspective the concept can also fit when it comes to professional team sports and their stadium. Charleston (2009) investigated, in England, the extent in which PA with the stadium may lead the fans to feel their home stadium as their real home. Also de Carvalho, Theodorakis, and Sarmento (2011) used the concept of PA in professional team sports in Portugal, to study the relationship of the fans with the stadium.

In soccer, the stadium is often called *cathedral*, or the place where the stadium is located is sometimes nominated as *holy ground* (Costa, 1997). The stadium is frequently a special place to the fans, e.g., they associate the stadium with their youth, or they have pleasant memories of past experiences at the stadium. To some extent, their preferred soccer team's home stadium represents home as well (Charleston, 2009). Thus, the ground where the game takes place, the home floor of a team, and the meaning of the neighbourhood where the stadium is located, can play a crucial role in the decision of the fan to attend a game.

In a natural setting, as for instance a national nature park, the more meaningful a destination is to the visitors, the less likely it is to be substituted by another place (Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck, & Watson, 1992). In the sports attendance context, a stronger attachment with the stadium may lead to a stronger desire to attend games.

2.3.3. Sociopsychological motives

Theoretical foundations of social psychology are imperative, when it comes to understand attitude related research in sport and leisure (Funk & James, 2004). Some scales with sociopsychological motives were elaborated by different authors. In general, they all focus on similar motives, and some of them are

presented with different names, but the concepts are correspondent, such as social facilitation or social interaction.

Following, a list of some elaborated scales, or of the concepts mentioned as motives for attendance, is presented.

▪ The *Sport Fan Motivation Scale* (Wann, 1995; Wann et al., 1999): the SFMS involves the concepts enumerated as follows; eustress, i.e., many fans feel they do not get enough stimulation or excitement from their own life, but find it through watching games; it is a positive form of stress that inspires and strengthens a person; self-esteem, i.e., fans often relate themselves to their teams; when the team does well, some fans experience elevated self-esteem; being a fan provides an opportunity for these fans to feel better about themselves; escape, i.e., fans who are dissatisfied or bored may temporarily forget about setbacks and distress through sports by using it as a diversion from work and the normal, unexciting activity of everyday life (Fink et al., 2002); entertainment, i.e., some fans just find watching sports to be an enjoyable pastime; economic, i.e., the greatest motivation attracting some fans is the potential economic return from gambling on sports; aesthetic, i.e., some fans are attracted to the beauty and grace found in an athletic performance; affiliation, i.e., a fan's desire to be with other people and a fan's need for belongingness; in this study, group refers to friends, colleagues, or any other group of people excluding family members; and family, i.e., a similar motivation to group affiliation, it involves one's desire to spend time with his/her family, and the purpose of watching games may be to spend time with his/her family members, especially for those families that have children (Wann, 1995; Wann, Ensor, et al., 2001; Wann et al., 1999; Wann & Waddill, 2003).

▪ The *Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption* (Trail & James, 2001): the MSSC involves the concepts enumerated as follows; achievement, acquisition of knowledge, aesthetics, drama or eustress, escape, family, physical attractiveness of participants, the quality of physical skill of the participants and social interaction.

- The *Sport Interest Inventory* (Funk & James, 2001; Funk, Mahony, & Ridinger, 2002; Funk, Ridinger, & Moorman, 2003): the SII examines how individual different factors can be used to explain various levels of consumer support for a specific sport property; these factors are role model, excitement, drama, wholesome environment, aesthetics, entertainment value, interest in soccer, interest in the team, bonding with family, national pride, vicarious achievement, support women's opportunity in sports, vicarious achievement, socialisation, and interest in player(s).

- The *Motivations of the Sport Consumer* (McDonald, Milne, & Hong, 2002): based on Maslow's needs hierarchy, the MSC suggests twelve motivation constructs (37 items) for sport participants and spectators; these motives are risk-taking, stress reduction, aggression, affiliation, social facilitation, self-esteem, competition, achievement, skill mastery, aesthetics, value development, and self-actualization; this scale was not specific for spectators.

- The *SPEED* (Funk, Filo, Beaton, & Pritchard, 2009): this scale includes socialization, performance, excitement, esteem, and diversion (its name is an acronym from the concepts). Called by the authors the *Big 5* is a parsimonious way of showing the motives found among prior scales in this area of study; socialisation was defined as a desire for social interaction with other spectators, participants, friends, and family; performance was defined as the desire for aesthetic and physical pleasure; excitement was defined by the desire for intellectual stimulation and mental action; esteem was defined as the desire for competency, a sense or personal and collective self-esteem; and diversion was defined as a desire for mental well-being, going apart from the daily work and life routines that create stress.

- The *FANDIM* (Madrigal, 2006): this scale is a measurement of sporting event consumption with two higher order factors (autotelism and appreciation) that each consist of three one-dimensional factors (fantasy, flow, evaluation; personalities, physical attractiveness, aesthetics, respectively); these factors are not motives to attend to sport events, they are consequences from it.

▪ The *Sporting Event Experience Search Scale* (Bouchet et al., 2011): the SEES aims to identify different segments of sport spectators. This scale was based on four types of sporting-event consumers, i.e., aesthete, interactive, supporter, and opportunist, defined with a theoretical framework, by Bourgeon and Bouchet (2001); they tested the validity of this scale to a live spectatorship within stadiums or arenas and a mediated spectatorship on public or private screens, and it appeared to be relevant, in a live-attendance context, but they state that the scale should be retested and needs improvement.

2.4. External factors

The previous groups of factors are related with the demand, i.e., with the fans. The fourth group of factors, representing the external factors, is the only one referring to the supply side.

2.4.1. Sportscape factors

Westerbeek and Shilbury (1999) argued that in the marketing mix, the 'P' associated with place (e.g., the sport facility) has to be considered as the most important element, considering that the core service sport and its associated services are dependent on the facility for its production. The perception of service quality is known to increase the likelihood that customers will repeat purchases. Consumer satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) with core service elements has been shown to influence future buying behaviours across wide-ranging business contexts (Sivadas & Baker-Prewitt, 2000).

The sportscape is defined as the physical environment of the stadium, including the interior and the exterior fixed elements, and the non-fixed elements (Hill & Green, 2000; Wakefield, Blodgett, & Sloan, 1996; Wakefield & Sloan, 1995).

The findings from research in marketing and general consumption are also extendable to sport contexts. By the late '80s stadiums across countries like France, Germany, Italy, and Spain upgraded their largest grounds to host major

international tournaments (Giulianotti, 1999). Functional exigencies such as spectator safety, comfort and control, access to parking spaces, toilets and food kiosks, came to dominate the architectural philosophy. Later, other countries in Europe (e.g., Belgium, Portugal, or the United Kingdom) followed in this modernisation of the facilities. In this way, sportscape elements became more important and central to the clubs.

The interior fixed elements of the sportscape include general comfort, aesthetics, scoreboard quality, seating comfort, and layout accessibility such as space allocation and signage (Wakefield et al., 1996). The exterior fixed elements of the sportscape include parking, accessibility, outdoors aesthetics and location.

The non-fixed elements include service quality (food quality and service, cleanliness, ticketing service, services at the stadium in general), stadium security and safety, perceived crowding, and time to get to the stadium. Even though Wakefield and colleagues (1996) did not include non-fixed elements in their model of sportscape, we propose that these factors should be included in this concept, because they belong to the stadium factors and can be controlled by the facility management. The inclusion of the non-fixed elements in the sportscape model is in line with the work of Wakefield and Sloan (1995), and the work of Hill and Green (2000).

2.4.1.1. Research about sportscape and attendance

A stronger sportscape perception has been found to predict the intention to attend sport events (Wakefield et al., 1996; Wakefield & Sloan, 1995). Findings from Hill and Green (2000) also show that stadium factors, i.e., the sportscape, can enhance the likelihood that supporters of the home team will attend future games. In three rugby games, of teams of different levels, these authors found that sportscape perception improved the prediction of future attendance intentions for spectators supporting the home team in each of the three venues. The specific sportscape elements that predicted attendance the best were different in each case, i.e., parking, for one of the venues, perceptions of

cleanliness and the willingness to spend time inside the stadium, for the second venue, and the sportscape as a whole, for the third venue. Nevertheless, these findings suggest that the sportscape perception can enhance the likelihood that fans of the home team will attend future games.

2.4.2. Game related factors

Naturally, the game itself represents a role on the attendance decisions. Usually, the winning teams of each country are the ones having more spectators at the stands, but this relationship is not direct, because there is only one team winning the championship every season. Game related factors, such as importance of the game, level of play of own team, level of play of visiting team, the fact that the game is a derby between two teams of the same town or rival teams, fair-play, expected game result (unpredictable / expected victory), league position, players, predicted number of goals, are preponderant and affect the number of spectators that are present at the stands. Also time of the season, week or day, i.e., the schedule convenience are important (Wann, Melnick, et al., 2001).

2.4.3. Marketing factors

The fields of sports marketing and of marketing research in general are very broad. The focus of this research is not on the marketing factors. However, they should be mentioned, as more and more, not only the big soccer clubs, but also the smaller ones, think of marketing as crucial to the success of the club. Each club defines its marketing-mix, aiming to communicate with their fans in a better way, and to keep them engaged and close to the club (Buhler & Nufer, 2010). The club brand, including the colours, the equipment, the logo, the communication strategy, the positioning of the club (as for instance a more aggressive club or as a special or different club) are important to be recognised on the minds of the consumers (Aaker, 1996; de Carvalho, 2014).

When it comes to promotion, team marketeers sometimes launch extrinsic rewards associated with the games and the teams, such as giveaways (e.g., autographed balls, pictures, memorabilia), entertainment (e.g., opening of the games, during the break, after the games), or opportunities to interact with the players (e.g., special moments during the break or during other days). Offers of tickets or ticket promotions, such as group or family prices, are used by the clubs to try to attract more audience to the stadium.

2.4.3.1. Relationship marketing and value co-creation

Relationship marketing in sports refers to the establishment and maintenance of positive, enduring, and mutually beneficial relations between professional sporting organisations and their stakeholders, such as for instance sponsors or fans (Buhler & Nufer, 2010). More and more soccer clubs are organised like companies, for instance, in England (Czarnitzki & Satdtmann, 2002). Like any other company, a club or team has to make sure that they have not only momentary buyers, but also long lasting clients, supporters and even advocates, which consume their product regularly, and encourage others to do it (Buhler & Nufer, 2010). Relationship marketing provides a variety of techniques and instruments to successfully achieve this goal, based on the relationship established and not in a single transaction (sell-buy) as transactional marketing focused on. Clubs should be specific for their fans, and not engage in strategies that reach everybody and nobody at the same time.

Consumers, in general, engage in the process of both defining and creating value (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004a) through the co-creation of personal experiences (Rowley, Kupiec-Teahan, & Leeming, 2007), and high-quality interactions (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004b), at a specific place and time, and within the context of a specific act (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009). Their role has evolved from unaware to informed, from isolated to connected, from passive to active (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004a). Customers are increasingly gaining power and taking control over and within organisations (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009). An illustrating example of extreme power given to sport fans is the world's first web-community owned club (www.myfootballclub.co.uk).

The club Ebbsfleet United, from the United Kingdom, is run from its electronic platform, available to everyone as long as they pay the fees. The members vote on club management issues, e.g., player transfers, kit manufacturer, kit designs, budgets, advertising campaigns, ticket pricing and how the society is run and organised.

Likewise, the value co-creation of fans at the stadium is undeniable, either for the show they help to perform, or for the influence they have in the decisions of the stakeholders. Not only the revenues from tickets, merchandising, food, and drinks are dependent on the number of spectators during the games, but also the sponsorships, advertising partners, and media rights are related to it (Czarnitzki & Satdtmann, 2002; Neale & Funk, 2006). The whole sports business depends on fans, which can be seen as the lifeblood of the sports organisations (Buhler & Nufer, 2010). Sport entities need the fans in order to generate money and keep their business running, even next to the sponsors and the media. In this manner the professional sporting organisations should maintain the old fans as well as win new ones in order to increase their fan base.

2.4.3.2. E-marketing: The fans and the clubs online

In the twenty-first century, the use of electronic technologies in marketing is not only a reality, but also a requirement for the clubs and athletes who want to reach their fans (Schwarz, Hunter, & LaFleur, 2013). The Internet, the World Wide Web, and the Intranet are providing new opportunities for managers and marketeers to get to know their costumers better, and to serve their needs and wants more successfully, and even more engagingly. Within the B2C (Business-to-consumer) marketing, these electronic networks can be used with several aims, such as market research, targeting and planning, as a distribution channel, and as a communication channel. Fans' profiles can be defined by analysing their Internet usage of sport related websites. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and other social media platforms, are being used by clubs and athletes to communicate with their fans in several ways, for instance, by selling merchandising. The big soccer clubs do not limit their website to their territory

anymore. Clubs such as Chelsea FC, Real Madrid CF, or FC Bayern Munich, aim to widen its appeal with fans from other countries. Therefore, their websites can be found in several languages, since the main contact point of the foreigner fans with the clubs is the website (Brassington & Pettitt, 2006).

Viral marketing is a future trend (Schwarz et al., 2013). Viral marketing is a modern version of the word-of-mouth, in which the marketeer uses electronic media to disseminate messages between individuals. Usually it takes a prize, or something funny, surprising or emotional, for the consumers to have the will to spread the message (Brassington & Pettitt, 2006). They do it with a low cost for the company, and a lot of times become ambassadors for the brand. Sports in general, and soccer in particular are an excellent field to explore this kind of strategy, because the fans want to be a part of it, and they even feel happy to comply.

The evolution of the relationship of the fans and the clubs online is unstoppable. Unlike the soccer stadium, Internet as a *Place* is endless. What smartphones and tables can currently do is just the beginning of a new digital era where augmented reality will be part of the normal life.

2.4.3.3. Corporate social responsibility

The association of the provider with solidarity events or solidarity institutions, it is a way to make people be sensitive to the actions or problems of society. This so-called corporate social responsibility (CSR) has grown in importance to sport organisations (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006), and it has often been associated with the marketing of the club, namely, with the positioning of the brand.

2.4.4. Economic factors

Financial cost of the event can affect the decision to attend or not to attend a soccer game. People can pay each game individually or they can be season-ticket holders (Villar & Guerrero, 2009). Nevertheless, it is important to note that the price of the ticket does not represent the actual price of the game, because

this last one includes travelling, eating, parking, memorabilia, etc. (Wann, Melnick, et al., 2001). Besides, the socio-economic status of the person can affect attendance as well. A weekly trip to the stadium of the favourite team may no longer be a viable option for many fans, especially if they want to bring their family to the game. A cheap ticket might motivate a fan to attend a game, or good conditions on buying a season ticket might convince the fan to be there the entire season.

2.4.5. Ticket scarcity

The scarcity effect involves the tendency for individuals to attempt to acquire opportunities and resources that are either scarce or becoming increasingly more scarce (Cialdini, 1995). Items or events that are perceived to be scarce tend to be viewed as more valuable and important and, consequently, individuals have a greater desire for them (Lynn, 1992). Marketing research outside sports has found support for this scarcity effect. Wann, Bayens and Driver (2004) simulated a situation of ticket scarcity in a sporting event, and found that the scarcity effect was also present: people were more likely to attend a basketball game when there were fewer tickets available.

2.4.6. Broadcasting and weather forecast

Broadcasting is usually blamed of taking away the spectators from the stadium. Between 1992 and 2001, for instance, the clubs of the English Premier League decided to sell only around 60 out of 380 matches, in each season, afraid that the broadcast would decrease attendance and the income of the cartel would be reduced (Forrest, Simmons, & Szymanski, 2004). However, there was econometric evidence illustrating that broadcasting had a minor effect on attendance and that extra broadcast fees would be likely to exceed any possible opportunity cost (Forrest et al., 2004).

On the other hand, Garcia and Rodriguez (2002) found that, in the first division of Spanish soccer between 1992 and 1996, broadcasting had a huge and statistically significant negative effect on attendance among non-season ticket holders. Another research showed that televised Monday night games had 15% less spectators at the stadium than Sunday games (Baimbridge, Cameron, & Dawson, 1996). However, this study did not estimate a separate coefficient for weekday matches not broadcasted. Therefore, these results can be related to the broadcasting or to the game being played during the week.

The weather conditions might also influence the attendance numbers. The service provider cannot do something about it, directly. However, they can create the conditions on the sportscape to make people believe that they will not suffer from the cold or the rain. Otherwise, even people that want to see the game will prefer to stay home or at the bar, and watch comfortably without a big winter jacket.

3. Constraints on attendance

Some of the factors referred to in the attendance model, can be both positive and negative factors when it comes to live attendance. Besides being motivators, they can be constraints, meaning, they can be factors that impede or inhibit an individual from attending a sporting event. In this manner, they can also be the motives why people do not go to the stadium (Kim & Trail, 2010). What encourages fans to attend may not be reflected in what discourages fans from attending (Tomlinson, Buttle, & Moores, 1995). This means that attendance and non-attendance in sports are two different things and that is how they should be viewed and studied. Not a lot of studies have been performed about non-attendance. Several researchers have mentioned constraints on attendance, but only few of them conducted empirical research to support their hypotheses. In many cases, research has been performed about motives for attendance, and the authors infer that motivators and constraints are the opposite extremes of the same continuum. However, this may not be

the case for all the factors. For instance, while a televised game might be a reason to stay at home, it does not mean that if the game is not televised, the person will attend the game. Therefore, motives and constraints should be studied separately. Next, we present an overview of constraints on attendance referred to in the literature.

Financial issues, in particular the price of the tickets and the total cost of the experience, including transport and food, are referred to as one of the most important constraints on attendance (Douvis, 2007; Tomlinson et al., 1995). Nowadays, across Europe, movements of fans gather to complain about how their beloved game turned into a business. For instance, the "football without fans is nothing" movement in England fights for the clubs to find a way to lower the prices of the tickets that from the perspective of the movement are currently unbearable (http://www.fsf.org.uk/blog/view/Football-Without-Fans-Is-Nothing).

In an essay about the low attendance rates in Portugal, Coelho and Tiesler (2007) referred to the expensive tickets as the most common way of explaining it. Another argument presented by these authors is the fact that the game is being played on television. The authors support the substitution effect, also referred by García and Rodríguez (2002), which states that people substitute the live experience by the televised experience, because it is cheaper, more comfortable (especially in case of bad weather), and because the schedules of the games are inconvenient for the fans (e.g., games being played on Sunday or Monday night, or even during midweek, as requested by the broadcasting companies). Inconvenient schedules were also referred by Zhang et al. (1995) as a constraint on attendance. Also Tomlinson et al. (1995) reported that television broadcasting was a constraint on attendance in several team sports, in the USA, while Villar and Guerrero (2009) concluded the same in an economy study in Spanish soccer. In another economy related study in English soccer, broadcasting live had a small negative effect on gate revenue for the best performing clubs and a much larger negative effect for the worst performing clubs (Cox, 2012). By contrast, Winfree (2009) states that television could not have a dramatic effect on gate attendance, because when a match is

not broadcasted, attendance rates are not much higher. Confirming this perspective, Lera-López et al. (2012) found a complementary effect of television broadcasting, i.e., a positive relationship between sports attendance in general and watching sports programmes on TV, in Spanish soccer.

Team identification has been shown to positively and strongly predict attendance (e.g., Kim & Trail, 2010; Wann et al., 2004; Won & Kitamura, 2006). Similarly, a lack of team identification has been referred to as a constraint on attendance in the study of Lock and Filo (2012). In their research, Lock and Filo explain that this lack of team identification can be of two kinds: a cognitive disassociation or a cognitive apathy. In cognitive disassociation, people have a negative perception of the group, in this case, of the club, and they do not want to associate with their values or characteristics, e.g., bad management, not sharing the values of soccer. In cognitive apathy, the individual sees no value in identifying or disidentifying with the group, e.g., is not interested in soccer, or lacks information about the club.

Other constraints have been mentioned in literature, some of them without an empirical confirmation. Those factors include alternative leisure activities or alternative sport entertainment (Cardoso, Correia, & Biscaia, 2014; Coelho & Tiesler, 2007; Trail et al., 2008), bad weather (García & Rodríguez, 2002; Trail et al., 2008), lack of success of the team or poor performance (Douvis, 2007; Coelho & Tiesler, 2007; Kim & Trail, 2010; Trail et al., 2008), family or work commitments (Tapp & Clowes, 2002; Trail et al., 2008), lost interest (Tapp & Clowes, 2002), sportscape factors, i.e., related to the conditions of the stadium, such as location of the stadium, accessibility to stadium and parking availability, poor facilities and service, problems with safety and with security (Cardoso et al., 2014; Trail et al., 2008; Douvis, 2007; Wakefield et al., 1996), lack of knowledge and lack of someone to attend with (Kim & Trail, 2010), and concentration of power among the top clubs (Coelho & Tiesler, 2007). Further research on this topic should be performed.

4. European soccer: facts and figures

In this section we present an analysis of some European soccer facts and figures. First, we take a look to some financial data in Europe. Sport economics and financial issues arouse the interest of academics and managers all over the sports world. Second, we present the Belgium and the Portuguese soccer history, and some facts about competitive rankings. Finally, we analyse a range of attendance statistics. In general, when we examine absolute numbers, the countries of the big five leagues, i.e., England, Germany, France, Italy, and Spain, are dominant. However, if we take a look to the relative numbers, the ranking significantly changes. Therefore, we also include numbers regarding other countries, including Belgium and Portugal.

4.1. The European soccer market

The soccer market has enjoyed a phenomenal growth in the last decade (Bosshardt et al., 2013). The soccer industry involves much more than only soccer itself. A huge amount of stakeholders, such as spectators, sponsors, media, and other, are involved. Even civil society is affected by it, e.g., English soccer contributes with €1.3 billion of taxes to the Government.

Dan Jones, partner in the Sports Business Group at Deloitte, commented that the growth in revenues in all of Europe's big five leagues in 2009-10, and the two following seasons, during the economic downturn is an impressive achievement (Battle et al., 2011; Bosshardt et al., 2013). He states that the loyalty of fans through thick and thin, and the continued partnerships with broadcasters and sponsors, illustrate that the world's most popular sport remains as attractive as ever. He reinforces that top flight European soccer is one of television's most desirable products and, in revenue terms, soccer continues to be a stellar economic success story in almost all European countries.

Deloitte presented some interesting data about the finances of soccer in Europe, relative to the season 2011-12 (Bosshardt et al., 2013). In the season

2011-12, the European soccer market grew by 11% in revenue, to €19.4 billion. Despite the substantial economic downturn, all of Europe's big five leagues reported revenue growth, to a collective total of €9.3 billion, with a market share of 48%. The Premier League kept its place as the soccer world's leader revenue generating club, with €2.9 billion, and a growth of 16%. This league is followed by the German Bundesliga, with revenue of €1.9 billion, and a growth of 7%. The Spanish La Liga, with revenue of €1.8 billion, and a growth of 7%, and the Italian Serie A, with revenue of €1.6 billion, and a growth of 1%, showed a smaller growth than the Premier League and the Bundesliga. This may have happened due to the difficult economic conditions that these countries are going through. The French Ligue 1 had revenue of €1.1 billion, and a growth of 9%. This growth also had place during the previous seasons (Battle et al., 2011).

Broadcasting revenue increasing 7% was the main accountable of growth and during the season 2009-10, it was over €4 billion across the big five leagues (Battle et al., 2011). Three of the big five leagues, i.e., England, Italy, and France, generated more than half their revenue from broadcasting. The season of 2011-12 exemplified also a strong year of revenue growth for the elite clubs, with the top 20 Money League clubs generating more than €4.8 billion, a 10% increase compared with the season 2010-11 (Bosshardt et al., 2013).

Match day revenue reached €1.8 billion in 2009-10 and comprised 22 percent of big five league revenues (Battle et al., 2011). In the same season, outside of the big five countries, The Netherlands (€420m), Turkey (€378m), and Russia (€368m) had the largest revenue generating leagues (Battle et al., 2011).

4.2. Belgium soccer: facts and figures

4.2.1. Time travel back to 1895

This part describes in short the history of Belgium soccer in Europe. It also shows some data related to the competitive ranking of Belgium, and its clubs,

according to UEFA. This information was collected from the official UEFA website (www.uefa.com/memberassociations/association=bel/profile/index.html)

The *Union Royale Belge des Sociétés de Football-Association – Koninklijke Belgische Voetbalbond* (URBSFA-KBVB) was formed in 1895 prior to Belgium's first soccer championship in 1895-96. Nine years later, the URBSFA-KBVB became one of the seven original members of FIFA.

The first big conquer of Belgium in Europe came when the Red Devils won gold at the 1920 Olympic Games in Antwerp. That victory set the tone for a string of honours as football rapidly gained popularity around the globe.

The introduction of European club competitions, after the foundation of UEFA in 1954, led to successful Belgian outfits becoming more familiar across the continent. RSC Anderlecht hold the proudest record, having reached a total of seven European finals, with European Cup Winners' Cup victories in 1975-76 and 1977-78, as well as triumphs in the 1982-83 UEFA Cup and the 1976 and 1978 UEFA Super Cups. Also Mechelen won the UEFA Cup Winners' Cup in 1988 and the UEFA Super Cup in 1989.

The URBSFA-KBVB also successfully co-hosted the UEFA EURO 2000 together with the Koninklijke Nederlandse Voetbalbond (KNVB) from the Netherlands. Four Belgian venues – Brussels, Bruges, Liège and Charleroi – were selected to host matches in what was a 16-team UEFA European Championship.

Since 2002, however, Belgium's senior squad has failed to qualify for a major final tournament. The aim, therefore, is to get the national team back to the highest level, beginning with the 2014 World Cup in Brazil. The Belgium national team seeks a place in this cup with a talented draft of players, a lot of them playing outside Belgium.

At the end of the season 2012-13, Belgium was at the 11th place in the European ranking elaborated by UEFA. Standard de Liège was the club with a better position, i.e., the 48th place, when it comes to the UEFA clubs

coefficients. Barcelona (Spain), Bayern (Germany) and Chelsea (England) occupied the podium.

4.2.2. The competition formula

Following, we present the explanation of the competition formula adopted by Belgium professional soccer. First, a description of the competition formula of the 1st league, the *Jupiler Pro League*, during the most recent seasons, inclusively season 2013-14 is given:

> *The 16 teams of the Jupiler Pro League play against each other twice, one home game and one away game. The best six teams play Playoff I to find the champion. These teams start this mini-league with half of the points. Teams ranked between the seventh and the 14th places, inclusively, are divided into two groups of four teams. They start with zero points and play twice against each other. The winners of the groups will play the final of Playoff II. The winner of Playoff II plays against number four of Playoff I for the last place in the Europa League. The teams ranked 15 and 16 play five matches against each other. The fifteenth starts with an advantage of three points and plays three of the five games in their home field. The winner of these two teams plays against three teams from the second league to win one single place for the Jupiler Pro League, for the following season. The loser drops straight to second league.*

Source:

http://sport.be.msn.com/nl/jupilerproleague/competitieformule/

The second league, i.e., the *Belgacom League*, plays with 18 teams, according to a simpler scheme, namely, teams play all-against-all, with a total number of 34 games per team, being one half home games, and one half away games. The champion is promoted to the *Jupiler Pro League*.

4.3. Portuguese soccer: facts and figures

4.3.1. From England to Portugal

This part describes in short the history of Portuguese soccer in Europe. It also shows some data related to the competitive ranking of Portugal, and its clubs, according to UEFA. This information was collected from the official UEFA website (http://www.uefa.com/memberassociations/association=por/index.html).

Soccer was taken to Portugal in the second half of the 19th century by a combination of young Portuguese men educated in the English public school system and British expatriates. The first recorded match was played in Cascais in October 1888. The *Federação Portuguesa de Futebol* (FPF) – the national body's official name from 1926, May 28th – started life as the *União Portuguesa de Futebol* (UPF), being formed on 1914, March 31st, on the initiative of the three regional associations of Lisbon, Porto, and Portalegre. During the First World War its activities were limited to organising annual matches between representative teams from Lisbon and Porto, yet its ambitions went beyond this narrow remit. The UPF's application to join FIFA was provisionally accepted in August, 1914 and formally confirmed in May, 1923. The name *Federação Portuguesa de Futebol* was adopted shortly afterwards, and the FPF became a founder member of UEFA in 1954.

Portugal's national-team debut was a 3-1 friendly loss to Spain in Madrid on 1921, December 18th. Their first notable achievement was to qualify for the Olympic football tournament in Amsterdam in 1928. Yet it was not until the 1966 FIFA World Cup that they flourished again. Portugal finished third in England, thanks to the scoring feats of the Mozambique-born striker Eusébio. Portugal qualified for the World Cups of 1986, 2002, 2006 and 2010. There have also been six UEFA European Championship appearances, in 1984, 1996, 2000,

2004, 2008 and 2012. The national team usually called *Selecção das Quinas* lost the final of UEFA EURO 2004 as the home team against Greece. Even so, that Portuguese EURO 2004 organisation was considered a resounding success, with great games staged in modern stadiums and a friendly atmosphere in keeping with traditional Portuguese hospitality. At the end of the season 2012-13, Portugal was at the 5th place in the European ranking elaborated by UEFA.

At the club level, there are three dominating clubs since a long time ago. The country's first national championship took place in Lisbon and Porto in 1933. A year later a modified version of the league competition was played with *Futebol Clube do Porto (FC Porto)* winning the inaugural title. *Sporting Clube de Portugal (Sporting CP)*, *Sport Lisboa e Benfica (SL Benfica)* and *FC Porto* have all enjoyed great domestic success since, with their dominance being broken only by *Clube de Futebol Os Belenenses* and *Boavista Futebol Clube*, on one occasion each. The presence in European competitions is also clear. *SL Benfica* won back-to-back European Champion Clubs' Cups, beating *FC Barcelona* 3-2 in the 1961 final and *Real Madrid CF* 5-3 the next season. *Sporting CP* overcame *MTK Budapest* 1-0 in a replay to take the European Cup Winners' Cup in 1964. *FC Porto* tasted glory two decades later by lifting the 1987 European Cup, defeating *FC Bayern München* 2-1. Their 3-2 triumph over *Celtic FC* in the 2002-03 UEFA Cup final directly preceded 2004 UEFA Champions League glory in a 3-0 victory over *AS Monaco FC*.

During season 2012-13, *SL Benfica* was the club with a better position, i.e., the 6th place, when it comes to the UEFA clubs coefficients, followed by *FC Porto* (8th place), *Sporting CP* (27th place), and *SC Braga* (33rd place). *FC Barcelona* (Spain), *FC Bayern Munich* (Germany) and *Chelsea FC* (England) occupied the podium.

4.3.2. The competition formula

Following, we present the explanation of the competition formula adopted by Portuguese professional soccer, i.e., the first and second leagues, both competitions organised by the *Liga Portuguesa de Futebol Profissional* (LPFP). The LPFP is an association of private law.

The first league, currently named *Liga Zon Sagres*, for sponsorship reasons, includes 16 teams, playing all-against-all, with a total number of 30 games per team, being one half home games, and one half away games. The team with more points in total becomes the champion. The first places on the ranking of this championship also provide access to the UEFA Champions League and the UEFA Europa league. The two last teams of the ranking drop to the second league. From season 2014-15 on, the first league will include 18 instead of 16 teams.

The second league, currently named *Liga2 Cabovisão*, for sponsorship reasons, includes 22 teams, playing all-against-all, with a total number of 42 games per team, being one half home games, and one half away games. The team with more points in total becomes the champion. The champion is promoted to the *Liga Zon Sagres*. The three last teams of the ranking drop to the National Football Championship, the top amateur competition.

All of the teams of the first and of the second leagues play the *Liga Cup* (except for the 'B' teams of teams playing in the first league that play in the second league). Nationally, there is still another competition, organised by the FPF, called *National Portuguese Cup*, including 156 teams, from the first and second leagues, from the national amateur championship and from some lower divisions.

4.4.   European soccer attendance: contextualising Belgium and Portugal

4.4.1. Occupation rate and country

The Annual Review of Football Finance 2013 reveals that the previously mentioned big five had the highest attendance numbers during season 2011-12 (Bosshardt et al., 2013). Table 2 presents the average number of spectators per game are, as well as the difference relatively to the previous season.

In a report elaborated by *The Portuguese Institute of Administration and Marketing* during the seasons 2006-11 (Sá & Malveiro, 2011), Belgium was in the 11th place in Europe when it comes to the total number of spectators, with an average attendance of 9,000 spectators per game. However, there are five stadiums in Belgium with a capacity above 25,000 places.

The authors analysed the attendance of the main 20 national championships in Europe, with 322 clubs involved, and almost all the rounds (excluding play-offs). An analysis of the soccer attendances from the main European countries during those seasons shows that there are huge differences between different leagues (Table 3). Germany was the leader with an average of more than 40,000 spectators/game. The other big five, i.e., England, Spain, Italy and France followed.

When it comes to occupation rate, Germany, England, and The Netherlands take the top three, with more than 85% of seats occupied during the five seasons considered. Belgium has an occupation rate of only 52% (11th place on the ranking) and Portugal has an occupation rate of only 46% (9th place on the ranking).

Table 2.   *Occupation rate according to country (season 2011-12)*

Ranking	Country	Attendances 2011-12 (average/game)	Difference with 2010-11 (%)
1	Germany	44,293	+5
2	England	34,646	-2
3	Spain	26,050	+1
4	Italy	22,005	-7
5	France	18,869	-4

Source: Bosshardt et al., 2013

Table 3.   *Occupation rate according to country (seasons 2006-11)*

Ranking	Country	Attendances 2006-11 (average/game)	Occupation rates 2006-11 (%)
1	Germany	40,641	88
2	England	34,301	90
3	Spain	27,317	70
4	Italy	22,317	48
5	France	20,108	72
6	The Netherlands	18,859	85
7	Scotland	14,665	69
8	Russia	12,168	42
9	Portugal	10,926	46
10	Switzerland	10,710	54
11	Belgium	8,953	52

Source: Sá & Malveiro, 2011

4.4.2. Occupation rate and size of population

However, if we take into account the number of inhabitants of the country, the attendance perspective changes significantly (Table 4). In this case, Germany comes only on the 7th place of the ranking, and Scotland, The Netherlands, and Belgium occupy the podium. Portugal occupies an honourable 5th place. We have to analyse this ratio carefully. From this perspective, smaller countries should understand that the number of places of their stadiums should not be, in general, as high as in bigger countries. In other words, when the clubs or federations want to build new stadiums, they should take into account, that even if a high percentage of population attends to soccer games, they will never have as many people in the stadiums as for instance Germany. It looks as if it is a matter of population size, and not a smaller interest in attending soccer games.

Table 4. Number of inhabitants and spectators (season 2011-12)

Ranking	Country	Inhabitants	Spectators	Ratio	%
1	Scotland	5.254,800	2.737,633	1.9	52
2	The Netherlands	16.751,323	5.978,689	2.8	36
3	Belgium	11.041,266	2.815,321	3.9	26
4	England	53.013,000	13.148,465	4.0	25
5	Portugal	10.581,949	2.626,950	4.0	25
6	Spain	47.190,493	10.793,170	4.3	23
7	Germany	81.799,600	13.804,761	5.9	17
8	Italy	60.813,326	8.547,309	7.1	14
9	France	65.350,000	7.172,105	9.1	11

Source: Unknown, 2013

4.4.3. Occupation rate and clubs in Belgium

Relatively to clubs, and to the average attendance during the seasons 2006-11 (Sá & Malveiro, 2011), the top 20 includes eight German clubs, four English clubs, two Spanish clubs, two Italian clubs, two Scottish clubs, one Dutch club and one French club. Manchester United FC was on the top of the ranking with 75,356 spectators/game, with the following places belonging to Borussia Dortmund (75,309 spectators/game), FC Barcelona (74,298 spectators/game), Real Madrid CF (72,599 spectators/game) and FC Bayern München (68,929 spectators/game). Again, when it comes to occupation rates, the English, Dutch and German clubs occupy the top places (six clubs, six clubs and five clubs, respectively). Schalke04 had an occupation rate of 99.5%, with a stadium capacity of 61,673 places.

During season 2012-13 these numbers slightly changed, being Borussia Dortmund on the top of the attendance ranking, with an average of 80,558 spectators / game and 99.8% of occupation rate. In this ranking, half of the teams until the 16th place were from Germany. Interestingly, Borussia Dortmund was only in the 11th place of the ranking of revenues of the European clubs, in the season 2011-12 (Bosshardt et al., 2013). Real Madrid, Barcelona and Manchester United were on the podium of the revenue numbers. This numbers show that revenues are of course affected but not totally controlled by attendance numbers. Anyway, in general, the big five are dominant when it comes to average numbers of spectators or revenues.

When it comes to Belgium, Club Brugge was the club with the highest occupation rate during season 2012-13, with 87% of the places being occupied, in average (Table 5). However, this club is only on the 82nd place of the European ranking of number of spectators, showing the big gap between the biggest European leagues and the Belgian league. The attendance numbers of the remaining 1st league Belgian clubs are also included in this table for comparison. However, their European ranking is not included, because they were not included in this European ranking.

Table 5.   *Clubs and spectators (season 2012-13)*

European ranking	Club	Stadium capacity	Total	Average	Capacity filled (%)
1	Borussia Dortmund	80,700	1.369,485	80,558	99.8
82	Club Brugge KV	29,024	377,069	25,138	86.6
115	Standard de Liège	29,173	320,428	21,362	73.2
121	RSC Anderlecht	26,361	314,479	20,965	79.5
134	KRC Genk	24,604	303,007	20,200	82.1
-	KAA Gent	19,999	161,609	10,774	53.9
-	KV Mechelen	13,123	154,417	10,294	78.5
-	Cercle Brugge KSV	29,024	122,305	8,154	28.1
-	Beerschot AC	12,769	120,949	8,063	63.2
-	Oud-Heverlee Leuven	9,319	120,280	8,019	86.1
-	KV Kortrijk	9,399	114,893	7,660	81,5
-	SV Zulte-Waregem	9,746	113,300	7,553	77.5
-	K Lierse SK	14,538	108,728	7,249	49.9
-	RSC Charleroi	24,891	96,707	6,447	25.9
-	Waasland-Beveren	13,290	96,179	6,412	48.3
-	KSC Lokeren	9,560	91,421	6,095	63.8
-	RAEC Mons	12,662	69,769	4,651	36.7

Source: Unknown, 2013

4.4.4. Clubs, stadiums and attendance in Portugal

When it comes to Portugal, *SL Benfica* was the club with the highest number of spectators, and an occupation rate during season 2012-13, with 65% of the places being occupied, in average (Table 5). However, these numbers are far from the top clubs in Europe. Moreover, when we analyse the numbers of the smaller clubs, we can find a huge gap. CS Marítimo had a high occupation rate (84%) but their stadium has less than 10,000 places.

Actually, Portuguese attendance numbers show a huge variability in several ways. Six clubs had a total number of spectators during the season that is lower than one average game of *SL Benfica*, the club on the top of the ranking. In the same way, if we look to the number of spectators per round, we can see that, already during season 2013-14, the numbers vary a lot. For instance, the first round of the season had 64,095 spectators, while the second round had almost the double, 111,730 spectators (Liga Portuguesa de Futebol, 2013).

These low occupation rates might also be related to the size of the stadiums, as Portugal organised the European Championship of Football in 2004, with 10 stadiums with at least 30,000 seats. In Table 5 we can verify that half of the teams playing in the first league, i.e., eight teams had their home stadiums renewed or build for the Euro 2004. Besides the ones shown in the table, other two stadiums were built (Estádio Doutor Magalhães Pessoa, property of the city) or renewed (Estádio Bessa Século XXI, property of the club) for the Euro2004. These facilities are the home stadiums of teams playing in lower divisions than the professional ones, but that used to play at the top level.

Table 6.   *Portuguese clubs and spectators (season 2012-13)*

Rank	Club	Stadium	Stadium capacity	Total n. º spectators during season	Average n. º spectators (per game)	Capacity filled (%)
1	SL Benfica	Estádio da Luz (a, c)	65,647	635,391	42,359	65.2
2	FC Porto	Estádio do Dragão (a, c)	52,000	454,173	30,278	60.1
3	Sporting CP	Estádio Alvalade XXI (a, c)	50,076	397,817	26,521	53.0
4	Vitória SC (Guimarães)	Estádio Dom Afonso Henriques (a, d)	30,146	183,800	12,253	40.8
5	SC Braga	Estádio Municipal de Braga (b, c)	30,154	180,914	12,061	39.8
6	Gil Vicente FC	Estádio Cidade de Barcelos (b, e)	12,504	63,456	4,230	35.3
7	SC Beira-Mar	Estádio Municipal de Aveiro (b, c)	32,830	62,388	4,159	13.9
8	A Académica Coimbra	Estádio Cidade de Coimbra (b, c)	30,075	59,221	3,948	13.3
9	CS Marítimo	Estádio dos Barreiros (a, e)	9,177	55,593	3,706	83.7
10	Vitória FC (Setúbal)	Estádio do Bonfim (b, e)	18,692	47,534	3,169	20.5
11	SC Olhanense	Estádio do Algarve (b, c)	5,561	37,044	2,470	9.0
12	Rio Ave FC	Estádio do Rio Ave (a, e)	12,820	32,054	2,137	19.9
13	CD Nacional	Estádio da Madeira (a, e)	5,132	31,763	2,118	41.3
14	Moreirense FC	Parque de Jogos Comendador Joaquim Almeida Freitas (a, e)	9,000	31,248	2,083	33.9
15	FC Paços Ferreira	Estádio da Mata Real (a, e)	5,255	30,823	2,055	39.7
16	GD Estoril Praia	Estádio António Coimbra da Mota (a, e)	5,015	29,552	1,970	39.3

Notes: (a) Club property; (b) Municipality property; (c) Built for Euro2004; (d) Renewed for Euro2004; (e) Not for Euro2004

Source: Liga Portuguesa de Futebol, 2013

5. References

Aaker, D. (1996). *Building strong brands*. New York: The Free Press.

Alexandris, K., Kouthouris, C., & Meligdis, A. (2006). Increasing customers' loyalty in a skiing resort The contribution of place attachment and service quality. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality, 18*(5), 414-425.

Babiak, K., & Wolfe, R. (2006). More than just a game? Corporate social responsability and Super Bowl XL. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 15*(4), 214-222.

Backman, S., & Crompton, J. (1991). Differentiating between high, spurious, latent, and low loyalty participants in two leisure activities. *Journal of Park & Recreation Administration, 9*(2), 1-17.

Baimbridge, M., Cameron, S., & Dawson, P. (1996). Satellite television and the demand for football: a whole new ball game? *Scottish Journal of Political Economy, 43*(3), 317-333.

Battle, R., Bull, A., Hawkins, M., Hearne, S., Parks, R., & Thorpe, A. (2011). The untouchables - Football Money League. In D. Jones (Ed.), *Sports Business Group*. Manchester: Deloitte.

Bauer, H., Sauer, N., & Exler, S. (2005). The loyalty of German soccer fans: does a team's brand image matter? *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship, 7*(1), 14-22.

Binkhorst, E., & Den Dekker, T. (2009). Agenda for co-creation tourism experience research. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 18*(2-3), 311-327.

Bosshardt, A., Bridge, T., Hanson, C., Shaffer, A., Stenson, C., & Thorpe, A. (2013). Captains of industry – Football Money League. In D. Jones (Ed.), *Sports Business Group*. Manchester: Deloitte.

Bouchet, P., Bodet, G., Bernache-Assollant, I., & Kada, F. (2011). Segmenting sport spectators: construction and preliminary validation of the sporting event experience search (SEES) scale. *Sport Management Review, 14*, 42-53.

Bourgeon, D., & Bouchet, P. (2001). La recherche d'expériences dans la consommation du spectacle sportif. *Revue Européenne de Management du Sport, 6*, 1-47.

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

Brassington, F., & Pettitt, S. (2006). *Principles of Marketing* (4th ed.). Essex: Prentice Hall.

Buhler, A., & Nufer, G. (2010). *Relationship marketing in sports*. Oxford: Elsevier.

Cardoso, J., Correia, A., & Biscaia, R. (2014). Influência das restrições na lealdade dos espectadores de futebol: Sport Lisboa e Benfica. *Revista Brasileira de Ciências do Esporte*, *36*(1), 141-154.

Cialdini, R. (1995). Principles and techniques of social influence. In A. Tesser (ed.), *Advanced social psychology* (pp. 256-281). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Charleston, S. (2009). The English football ground as a representation of home. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 29*, 144-150.

Chun, S., Gentry, J., & McGinnis, L. (2004). Cultural differences in fan ritualization: A cross-cultural perspective of the ritualization of American and Japanese baseball fans. *Advances in Consumer Research, 31*, 503-508.

Coelho, J. N., & Tiesler, N. C. (2007). The paradox of the Portuguese game: The omnipresence of football and the absence of spectators at matches. *Soccer & Society, 8*(4), 578-600.

Costa, A. S. (1997). *À volta do estádio – O desporto, o Homem e a sociedade*. Porto: Campo do Desporto.

Cox, A. (2012). Live broadcasting, gate revenue, and football club performance: some evidence. *International Journal of the Economics of Business, 19*, 75-98.

Crawford, G. (2004). *Consuming sport – fans, sport and culture.* London: Routledge.

Czarnitzki, D., & Satdtmann, G. (2002). Uncertainty of outcome versus reputation: Empirical evidence for the first German football division. *Empirical Economics, 27*(1), 101-112.

de Carvalho, M. (2014). Gestão do marketing da coisa desportiva. In M. Arraya & M. N, Silva (Ed.), *Tendências contemporâneas da gestão desportiva*. Lisboa: Aretê.

de Carvalho, M., Theodorakis, N., & Sarmento, J. P. (2011). Translation and Portuguese validation of the place attachment scale. *Variorum, 1*(4), 1-11.

Dietz-Uhler, B., Harrick, E., End, C., & Jacquemotte, L. (2000). Sex differences in sport fan behavior and reasons for being a sport fan. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 23*(3), 219-232.

Dietz-Uhler, B., & Murrell, A. (1999). Examining fan reaction to game outcomes: a longitudinal study of social identity. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 22*(1), 15-27.

Dimmock, J., & Grove, R. (2006). Identification with sport teams as a function of the search for certainty. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 24*(11), 1203-1211.

Douvis, J. (2007). A Review of attendance and non-attendance studies. *Journal of Biology of Exercise*, *3*, 5-20.

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

Fisher, R., & Wakefield, K. (1998). Factors leading to group identification: a field study of winners and losers. *Psychology & Marketing, 15*(1), 23-40.

Forrest, D., Simmons, R., & Szymanski, S. (2004). Broadcasting, attendance and the inefficiency of cartels. *Review of Industrial Organization, 24*, 243-265.

Funk, D., Filo, K., Beaton, A., & Pritchard, M. (2009). Measuring the motives of sport event attendance: Bridging the academic-practitioner divide to understanding behavior. *Sports Marketing Quarterly, 18*(3), 126-138.

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

Funk, D., & James, J. (2004). The fan attitude network (FAN) model: exploring attitude formation and change among sport consumers. *Sport Management Review, 7*(1), 1-26.

Funk, D., Mahony, D., & Ridinger, L. (2002). Characterizing consumer motivation as individual difference factors: augmenting the sport interest inventory (SII) to explain level of spectator support. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 11*(1), 33-43.

Funk, D., Ridinger, L., & Moorman, A. (2003). Understanding consumer support: Extending the sport interest inventory (SII) to examine individual differences among women's professional sport consumers. *Sport Management Review, 6*(1), 1-32.

García, J., & Rodríguez, P. (2002). The determinants of football match attendance revisited: empirical evidence from the Spanish football league. *Journal of Sport Economy, 3*(1), 18-38.

Gau, L., James, J., & Kim, J. (2009). Effects of team identification on motives, behavior outcomes, and perceived service quality. *Asian Journal of Management and Humanity Sciences, 4*(2-3), 76-90.

Giulianotti, R. (1999). *Football - A sociology of the global game*. Cornwall: Polity Press.

Greenwood, P. B., Kanters, M. A., & Casper, J. (2006). Sport fan team identification formation in mid-level professional sport. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 6*(3), 253-265.

Gwinner, K., & Bennett, G. (2008). The impact of brand cohesiveness and sport identification on brand fit in a sponsorship context. *Journal of Sport Management, 22*(4), 410-426.

Hall, J., & O'Mahony, B. (2006). An empirical analysis of gender differences in sports attendance motives. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship, July*, 334-346.

Hammitt, W., Backlund, E., & Bixler, R. (2006). Place bonding for recreation places: conceptual and empirical development. *Leisure studies, 25*(1), 17-41.

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

Hill, B., & Green, B. C. (2000). Repeat attendance as a function of involvement, loyalty, and the sportscape across three football contexts. *Sport Management Review 3*, 145-162.

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

Jones, I. (1997). A further examination of the factors influencing current identification with a sports team, a response to Wann et al 1996. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 85*, 257-258.

Kim, Y. K., & Trail, G. (2010). Constraints and motivators: A new model to explain sport consumer behavior. *Journal of Sport Management, 24*, 190-210.

Kwon, H., & Armstrong, K. (2002). Factors influencing impulse buying of sport team licensed merchandise. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 11*(3), 151-163.

Kyle, G., Absher, J., & Graefe, A. (2003). The moderating role of place attachment on the relationship between attitudes toward fees and spending preferences. *Leisure Sciences, 25*(1), 33-50.

Kyle, G., Graefe, A., Manning, R., & Bacon, J. (2003). An Examination of the relationship between leisure activity involvement and place attachment among hikers along the Appalachian Trail. *Journal of Leisure Research, 35*(3), 249-273.

Kyle, G., Graefe, A., Manning, R., & Bacon, J. (2004a). Effect of activity involvement and place attachment on recreationists' perceptions of setting density. *Journal of Leisure Research, 36*(2), 209-231.

Kyle, G., Graefe, A., Manning, R., & Bacon, J. (2004b). Predictors of behavioral loyalty among hikers along the Appalachian Trail. *Leisure Sciences, 26*(1), 99-118.

Kyle, G., Mowen, A., & Tarrant, M. (2004). Linking place preferences with place meaning: An examination of the relationship between place motivation and place attachment. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 24*(4), 439-454.

Lera-López, F., Ollo-López, A., & Rapún-Gárate, M. (2012). Sports spectatorship in Spain: attendance and consumption. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 12*, 265-289.

Liga Portuguesa de Futebol (2013). Estatísticas. *Liga Portuguesa de Futebol*. Retrieved October 11, 2013 from http://www.ligaportugal.pt/oou/estatisticas/espectadores/clube/20122013

Lynn, M. (1992). Scarcity's enhancement of desirability: The role of naïve economic theories. *Basic and applied social psychology*, *13*, 67-78.

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

Madrigal, R. (1995). Cognitive and Affective determinants of fan satisfaction with sporting event attendance. *Journal of Leisure Research, 27*(3), 205-227.

Madrigal, R. (2001). Social identity effects in a belief-attitude intentions hierarchy: implications for corporate sponsorship. *Psychology & Marketing, 18*(2), 145-165.

Madrigal, R. (2006). Measuring the multidimensional nature of sporting event performance consumption. *Journal of Leisure Research, 38*(3), 267-292.

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

McDonald, M., Milne, G., & Hong, J. (2002). Motivational factors for evaluating sport spectator and participant markets. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 11*(2), 100-113.

Meir, R. (2000). Fan reaction to the match day experience: A case study in English professional rugby league football. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 9*(1), 34-42.

Moore, R., & Graefe, A. (1994). Attachments to recreation settings: the case of rail-trail users. *Leisure sciences, 16*(1), 17-31.

Moore, R., & Scott, D. (2003). Place attachment and context: comparing a park and a trail within. *Forest Science, 49*(6), 877-884.

Mullin, B., Hardy, S., & Sutton, W. S. (1993). *Sport Marketing* (1st ed.). New York: Human Kinetics.

Murrell, A., & Dietz, B. (1992). Fan support of sport teams: The effect of a common group identity. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 14*(1), 28-39.

Nanzer, B. (2004). Measuring sense of place: a scale for Michigan. *Administrative Theory & Praxis, 26*(3), 362-382.

Neale, L., & Funk, D. (2006). Investigating motivation, attitudinal loyalty and attendance behavior with fans of Australian Football. *International Journal of Sport Marketing & Sponsorship, 7*(4), 307-317.

Prahalad, C. K., & Ramaswamy, V. (2004a). Co-creating unique value with customers. *Strategy & Leadership, 32*(3), 4-9.

Prahalad, C. K., & Ramaswamy, V. (2004b). Co-creation experiences: the next practice in value creation. *Journal of interactive marketing, 18*(3), 5-14.

Quick, S. (2000). Contemporary sport consumers: some implications of linking fan typology with key spectator variables. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 9*(3), 149-156.

Rowley, J., Kupiec-Teahan, B., & Leeming, E. (2007). Customer community and co-creation: a case study. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 25*(2), 136-146.

Sá, C., & Sá, D. (1999). *Marketing para desporto - Um jogo empresarial*. Porto: IPAM.

Sá, D., & Malveiro, P. (2011). *European football attendances report 2011*. Gabinete de estudos de marketing para desporto do IPAM: IPAM.

Schwarz, E., Hunter, J., & LaFleur, A. (2013). *Advanced Theory and Practice in Sport Marketing* (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.

Scheerder, J., Vandermeerschen, H., Van Tuyckom, C., Hoekman, R., Breedveld, K., & Steven, V. (2011). *Understanding the game: sport participation in Europe. Facts, reflections and recommendations* (Sport Policy & Management 10). Leuven: KU Leuven/Policy in Sport & Physical Activity Research Group.

Schofield, J. (1983). Performance and attendance at professional team sports. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 6*(4), 196-206.

Sivadas, E., & Baker-Prewitt, J. (2000). An examination of the relationship between service quality, customer satisfaction, and store loyalty. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management, 28*(2), 73-82.

Smaldone, D., Harris, C., Sanyal, N., & Lind, D. (2005). Place attachment and management of critical park issues in Grand Teton National Park. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 23*(1), 90-114.

Smith, A., & Stewart, B. (2007). The travelling fan: Understanding the mechanisms of sport fan consumption in a sport tourism setting. *Journal of Sport & Tourism, 12*(3-4), 155-181.

Stewart, B., Smith, A., & Nicholson, M. (2003). Sport consumer typologies: A critical review. *Sports Marketing Quarterly, 12*(4), 206-216.

Tapp, A., & Clowes, J. (2002). From ``carefree casuals'' to ``professional wanderers'' –Segmentation possibilities for football supporters. *European Journal of Marketing, 36,* 1248-1269.

Tomlinson, M., Buttle, F., & Moores, B. (1995). The fan as customer: customer service in sports marketing. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing, 3*(1), 19-36.

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

Trail, G., Fink, J., & Anderson, D. (2003). Sport spectator consumption behavior. *Sports Marketing Quarterly, 12*(1), 8-17.

Trail, G., & James, J. (2001). The motivation scale from sport consumption: assessment of the scale's psychometric properties. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 24*(1), 108-127.

Trail, G., Robinson, M., Dick, R., & Gillentine, A. (2003). Motives and points of attachment: fans versus spectators in intercollegiate athletics. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 12*(4), 217-227.

Trail, G., Robinson, M., & Kim Y. (2008). Sport Consumer Behavior: A Test for Group Differences on Structural Constraints. *Sports Marketing Quarterly, 17*, 190-200.

Tropp, L., & Wright, S. (2001). Ingroup identification as the inclusion of ingroup in the self. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 27*(5), 585-600.

Unknown (2013). Number of spectators. *Transfer market*. Retrieved May 22, 2013 from http://www.transfermarkt.co.uk/en/default/besucherzahlen/basics.html

Villar, J. G., & Guerrero, P. R. (2009). Sports attendance: a survey of the literature 1973-2007. *Rivista di diritto ed economia dello sport, V(2),* 111-151.

Viseu, J., Santos, O., Fernandes, H., & Ribeiro, C. (2002). *O consumo desportivo em Portugal.* Braga: Universidade do Minho.

Wakefield, K., Blodgett, J., & Sloan, H. (1996). Measurement and management of the sportscape. *Journal of Sport Management, 10*, 15-31.

Wakefield, K., & Sloan, H. (1995). The effects of team loyalty and selected stadium factors on spectator attendance. *Journal of Sport Management, 9*, 153-172.

Wann, D. (1995). Preliminary validation of the sport fan motivation scale. *Journal of Sport And Social issues, 19*(4), 377-396.

Wann, D. (1996). Seasonal changes in spectators' identification and involvement with and evaluations of college basketball and football teams. *Psychological Record, 46*(1), 201-216.

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

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

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

Wann, D., & Branscombe, N. (1995). Influence of identification with a sports team on objective knowledge and subjective beliefs. *International Journal of Sport Psychology, 26*(4), 551-567.

Wann, D., & Dolan, T. (1994). Attributions of highly identified sports spectators. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 134*(6), 783-792.

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

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

Wann, D., Melnick, M., Russell, G., & Pease, D. (2001). *Sport fans - The psychology and social impact of spectators*. New York: Rouledge.

Wann, D., & Schrader, M. (1997). Team identification and the enjoyment of watching a sporting event. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 84*(3), 954.

Wann, D., Schrader, M., & Wilson, A. (1999). Sport fan motivation: questionnaire validation, comparisons by sport, and relationship to athletic motivation. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 22*(1), 114-139.

Wann, D., Tucker, K., & Schrader, M. (1996). An exploratory examination of the factors influencing the origin, continuation, and cessation of identification with sports teams. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 82*(3), 995-1001.

Wann, D., & Waddill, P. (2003). Predicting sport fan motivation using anatomical sex and gender role orientation. *North American Journal of Psychology, 5*(3), 485-498.

Westerbeek, H., & Shilbury, D. (1999). Increasing the focus on 'place' in the marketing mix for facility dependent sport services. *Sport Management Review, 2*, 1-23.

Williams, D., Patterson, M., Roggenbuck, J., & Watson, A. (1992). Beyond the commodity metaphor: examining emotional ans symbolic attachment to a place. *Leisure sciences, 14*, 29-46.

Winfree, J. (2009). Fan substitution and market definition in professional sports leagues. *Antitrust Bulletin, 54,* 801-823.

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

Zhang, J., Pease, D., & Hui, S. (1995). Variables affecting the spectator decision to attend NBA games. *Sports Marketing Quarterly, IV*, 29-39.

III. RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

As shown before, a large spectrum of theories related to sport events attendance exists. In the literature, there are a large number of variables that influence attendance or non-attendance at sporting events. The instrument used in our research is a survey. To elaborate our survey, we gathered motives that were related to live attendance in prior research, as well as existing scales on sport fandom, and some items related to our own experience and context. Hence, a variety of sub-scales and validated questions are utilised to represent the various dimensions identified in the literature review. Following, we expose and explain the instrument used along the different studies. We also present information about the samples of each study.

1. Study 1

The survey of Study 1 included the Sport spectator identification scale (SSIS), the Place attachment scale (PAS), demographic items (e.g., sex, age), and some loyalty and sport consumption related measures, such as number of games attended or number of years as a fan.

1.1. Measures

1.1.1. Sport spectator identification scale (SSIS)

A Portuguese version (translation information in Paper 2) of the SSIS (Wann & Branscombe, 1993) was used to assess levels of team identification among Portuguese soccer fans. The SSIS is a uni-dimensional seven-item Likert scale with response options ranging from 1 (low identification) to 8 (high identification). In this study, participants expressed their identification with a targeted professional soccer team (e.g., "How strongly do you see yourself as a fan of [named team]?"). A number of studies have provided evidence regarding the SSIS's factor structure, internal consistency, test-retest reliability, and construct validity (Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann et al., 2001).

1.1.2. Place attachment scale (PAS)

A Portuguese version (translation information in Paper 3) of the PAS developed by Kyle et al. (2004), was used to assess levels of place attachment among Portuguese soccer fans. For the purpose of this study, all items were adapted into the context of professional soccer so to measure the allegiance between a fan and the team's soccer stadium. The PAS contains 18 items that reflect four dimensions: Place Dependence (four items, e.g., "this soccer stadium is the best place to watch X play"); Social Bonding (four items, e.g., "the time spent here allows me to bond with my family and friends"); Place Identity (five items, e.g., "this stadium means a lot to me"); and Affective Attachment (five items, e.g., "I really enjoy this place").

1.2. *Participants and data collection*

After receiving permission from the soccer club's manager, six trained research assistants distributed and collected the questionnaires to participants. Participants filled out the forms in designated areas before taking their seats at the beginning of the soccer game. Participants in this study were 161 spectators who attended a soccer game between two teams from the top professional league in Portugal. They were 113 (70.2%) males and 48 (29.8%) females. Their age ranged from 18 to 70 years, with a mean age of 34.04 years (SD = 13.2). The vast majority were employees from the private and state sectors (60.9%), followed by students (18.5%) and self-employed professionals (10.6%). Participants had been attending games for periods of time ranging from 5 to 63 years. On average, they had attended 5.92 games the previous soccer season.

2. *Study 2*

This study is a pilot study with focus on youngsters from Belgium, and from Portugal. A first version of the survey was elaborated in Dutch and in Portuguese, and a first pilot study was conducted. A convenience sample of 70 respondents was obtained in Belgium, and of 45 respondents was obtained in Portugal. After filling out the survey, respondents were asked about the length and clarity of each question. The open-ended questions were also analysed and used to improve the survey. Important information was collected with this first pilot study. The survey had several flaws, namely, the exaggerated extension, language and organisational issues. It was too time-consuming, leading to a lack of interest and attentiveness from a certain point on. A first set of changes was performed and the survey was applied to a higher number of people.

2.1. *Measures*

After the implementation of the first pilot study the first final version of the survey was completed both in Dutch and in Portuguese including (i) a part on sociodemographic items (age, sex with Female = 0 and Male = 1, origin with Portugal = 0 and Belgium = 1, financial status measured in a scale from 1 = *really difficult to live at home*, to 5 = *really easy to live at home*, education, favourite sport(s) to attend and to practice, and active sports participation); and (ii) a part on the person as a fan (or not), with questions about their soccer consumption habits, i.e. interest for soccer measured in a scale from 1 = *not interested at all*, to 5 = *very much interested*, attendance (number of games attended during the previous season), favourite professional soccer club, since what age they were fans, and who were their socialisation agents in order to become a fan.

2.1.1. Sociopsychological motives scale (SMS)

The items regarding the sociopsychological motives were collected from the work of several authors (Correia & Esteves, 2007; Bouchet et al., 2011, Funk et al., 2001; Funk et al., 2003; Funk et al, 2009; McDonald et al., 2002; Trail & James, 2001; Wann, 1995; Wann et al., 1999). After an in-depth analysis of different scales and with the support of the pilot study we maintained items related to interaction with other fans (two items), family (two items), friends (two items), vicarious achievement (two items), escape (two items), tradition (two items), entertainment (two items), and team (one item). The options ranged from 1 = totally disagree, to 5 = totally agree.

2.1.2. Other scales

The original survey included the SSIS and the PAS, previously described. It also contained other scales constructed by us that were not used in any paper or analysis, because they were found not to be valid and reliable.

2.2. Participants and data collection

The sample was constituted by 461 Belgian and 215 Portuguese high school students. We have sent a letter to schools from Aveiro, in Portugal, and from Leuven, in Belgium, to ask for cooperation in this research (Appendix 1). The schools cooperated, by sharing the link to the survey in their Internet pages, and also by allowing our researchers to visit the schools, explain the research, and collect e-mails from the students, so we could send them the link for the survey.

We collected data from fans (people who mentioned that they were fans of a specific club) and from non-fans (people who specifically mentioned that they were not a fan of a specific club). From the Belgian students, 62% were non-fans, whereas among the Portuguese students, 13% were non-fans. However,

in this study we wanted to focus on fans only and on their relationship with their club. Therefore, we kept the 38% of Belgian youngsters and the 87% of Portuguese youngsters who were fans. The final sample consisted of 361 fans, including students from the last two years of secondary school from Aveiro (n = 188) and from Leuven (n = 173). Among these students, 32% were female (n = 113; n_{PT} = 88; n_{BE} = 25), and 68% were male (n = 236; n_{PT} = 95; n_{BE} = 141). Portuguese respondents were only slightly older than their Belgian counterparts ($\bar{x}_{age\ PT}$ = 17.74 ± 1.43; $\bar{x}_{age\ BE}$ = 17.43 ± 0.95, t (319) = 2.40, p < .05).

3. Study 3

This study was the main study of this PhD. It was based in an online data collection in Belgium, and in Portugal. Relatively to the survey of Study 2, some changes were still executed and a last version was accomplished.

3.1. Measures

The final survey, in Portuguese and in Dutch, was an online survey and consisted of three parts. The first part examined the person as a soccer fan. The second part investigated the reasons of the respondents to attend to soccer games and their soccer consumption habits. The third part consisted of sociodemographic questions. Table 1 describes the survey more in detail. The full questionnaire is presented in Appendix 2.

3.1.1. Motives for attendance scale (MAS)

For the MAS, people had to answer the question *When you decide to go to a soccer game, to what extent do the following motives/reasons affect your decision to attend?* Items relative to the sportscape (i.e., stadium aesthetics, crowding, parking, accessibility, hygiene, and quality of food and drinks), game and management related issues, sociopsychological concepts, marketing

actions, and economical factors were included. The items were judged on 5-point scales (1 – *nothing* to 5 – *totally)*. There was also an extra item, named *Other*, were people could write an extra important reason for themselves. We elaborated this scale based on a sound review of the literature and on a previous pilot study. Explicitly, the items derived both from existing research (e.g., Correia & Esteves, 2007; Douvis, 2007; Hall, O'Mahony, & Vieceli, 2009; Hansen & Gauthier, 1989; Kim & Trail, 2010; Wakefield, et al., 1996; Wakefield & Sloan, 1995), and from an open answer question presented on the pilot study, asking the motives of the participants to attend soccer games.

3.1.2. Constraints on attendance scale (CAS)

For the CAS, people had to answer the question *When you decide to go to a soccer game, to what extent do the following motives/reasons affect your decision to not attend?* Items that were similar to the MAS were included, but on the other direction, e.g., *Lack of interest*, *Game being played on TV*, or *Lack of time*. The items were judged on 5-point scales (1 – *nothing* to 5 – *totally)*. There was also an extra item, named *Other*, where people could write an extra important reason for themselves. We elaborated this scale based on a sound review of the literature and on a previous pilot study. Explicitly, the items derived both from existing research (e.g., Correia & Esteves, 2007; Douvis, 2007; Hall et al., 2009; Hansen & Gauthier, 1989; Kim & Trail, 2010; Wakefield et al., 1996; Wakefield & Sloan, 1995), and from an open answer question presented on the pilot study, asking the motives of the participants to attend soccer games.

3.2. Participants and data collection

3.2.1. Belgian sample

In total, 5,015 respondents participated in the survey. Due to the fact that the present research focuses on live attendance during the season, we excluded 53 fans of foreigner clubs and the five fans of the National Belgian team, known by the *Rode Duivels* (Red Devils). As a consequence, 4,957 respondents constitute the study sample, with 4,482 fans of a certain team, and 475 people who are not fans of any team. In some of the analysed groups the number of respondents does not coincide with this one, because we had a small number of missing values, but always bellow 3%, which is a negligible number.

This study was conducted in Flanders, the Dutch-speaking part of Belgium. People were invited to answer to the online survey through several social media: e-mail, Facebook pages (from the team of researchers but also the official pages of clubs or fan clubs), and blogs of the clubs. *Het Nieuwsblad*, a popular Belgian newspaper, also spread the information by publishing the link to the survey on the paper version and on the online version. Participants were addressed with a brief explanation about the content of the study and a request to fill out the twenty minutes survey. As an extra motivation, a lottery of a prize was announced. Surveys were completed from half November 2012 to the end of January 2013. Respondents were $\bar{x}_{age}$ = 35.4 (SD = 15.7), ranging from 9 to 82 years old. There were 85% men and 15% women. Their financial situation was average ($\bar{x}$ = 3.7, SD = 0.8). Most of the people were employed fulltime (55%) or students (28%); higher clerks, officials or managers were the most common professions. Of the respondents, 36% were married and 35% were single; 19% had basic level of education or less, 42% completed one of the different levels of high school, and 39% had a bachelor or higher level.

3.2.2. Portuguese sample

In total, 2,184 respondents participated in the survey. Due to the fact that the present research focuses on live attendance during the season, we excluded 34 fans of foreigner clubs – these people were, most of the times, fans from Brazilian clubs (the fact that there are a lot of Brazilian people living in Portugal and the language is the same, might have contributed for this high number of Brazilian clubs in the list). As a consequence, 2,150 respondents constitute the study sample, with 1,866 fans of a certain team, and 284 people who are not fans of any team. In some of the analysed groups the number of respondents does not coincide with this one, because we had a small number of missing values, but always bellow 3%, which is a negligible number.

People were invited to answer to the online survey through several social media: e-mail, Facebook pages (from the team of researchers but also the official pages of clubs or fan clubs), and blogs of the clubs. The link of the questionnaire was also sent to the majority of the students of the biggest University of the country, the University of Porto. O *Jornal Record*, a popular Portuguese sports newspaper, also spread the information by publishing the link to the survey on the online version. Respondents were $\bar{x}_{age}$ = 25.9 (SD = 9.4), ranging from 11 to 68 years old. There were 59% men and 41% women. Their financial situation was moderate ($\bar{x}$ = 3.3, SD = 0.8). Most of the people were students (62%) or employed fulltime (28%); 48% of the respondents never had a job; 12% worked in education. Of the respondents, 62% were single 20 were in a relationship, and 13% were married; 2% had basic level of education or less, 46% completed one of the different levels of high school (with 13% in the technical or professional option and 33% in the sciences option), and 52% had a bachelor or higher level.

Table 1.   *Questions included in the final survey of Study 3*

Question	Explanation / scale
1) Interest for soccer	1 Item, 5-point scale (1 – *not interested at all* to 5 – *very much interested*)
2) Fan	Yes/no answer – If respondents would answer *No*, the person was considered a non-fan, and the survey skipped all fandom related Questions 3 to 17
3) Favourite professional soccer team	One answer only; respondents could choose one of the 1st league teams or choose *Other* and write other team; extra clubs mentioned were categorised afterwards
4) Fan since which age	Respondents could choose one number above three
5) Reasons to become a fan	Nine Items, 5-point scales (1 –*not at all* to 5 – *very much*); example – *Family tradition*, *Ranking of club at the time*, or *Club of my region*
6) Socialisation agents/influencing others in order to become a fan	One or more answers; respondents could select one or more categories (example – *Father*, *Friends*, *A certain player*, or *Nobody*), and they could add one category on the item *Other*; extra categories mentioned were categorised afterwards
7) Member of the (fan) club	Yes/no answer
8) *Sport spectator identification scale* (SSIS) to assess levels of team identification	Seven Items, 7-point scales (1 – *low identification* to 7 – *high identification)*; example – *How strongly do you see yourself as a fan of your team?*
9) Place attachment scale (PAS) to assess levels of place attachment	Six Items, 5-point scales (1 – *totally disagree* to 5 – *totally agree)*; example – *I have a strong emotional bond with the stadium X*, or *I associate special people in my life with the stadium X* *Note: due to the extension of the survey overall, we shortened the PAS – the explanation for this is included in Paper 5*
10) Sociopsychological motives scale (SMS)	18 Items, 5-point scales (1 – *totally disagree* to 5 – *totally agree)*; example – *I get a success feeling when the team I'm supporting wins*, or *I feel relaxed when I attend to a soccer game*
11) Season ticket	Yes/no answer
12) Number of home games attended during previous season	Respondents could write any number until a maximum number of 30
13) Number of away games attended during previous season	Respondents could write any number
14) Time they take to the stadium	Respondents could write any number, in number of minutes

Part (i) – the respondent as a soccer fan

Part (ii) – Reasons for attendance/non-attendance

83

	15) Time dedicated to club during a week	Respondents could choose one of four categories (0-1h; >1-3h; >3-6h; >6h)
	16) Motives for attendance scale (MAS)	23 Items, 5-point scales (1 – *nothing* to 5 - *totally*); example – *Good atmosphere*, *Free entrance*, or *Level of play*; respondents could add one category, on the Item *Other*; extra categories mentioned were categorised afterwards
	17) Constraints on attendance scale (CAS)	21 Items, 5-point scales (1 – *nothing* to 5 - *totally*); example – *Lack of interest*, *Game being played on TV*, or *Lack of time*; respondents could add one category, on the Item *Other*; extra categories mentioned were categorised afterwards
	18) Measures of the clubs to make them attend to games	Respondents had to choose, among 14 Items, the three main measures the clubs could take to make them attend more to games at the stadium
Part (iii) – Sociodemographic items	19) Age	Respondents could choose one number
	20) Sex	Male / Female
	21) Origin	Respondents could write the name of the city where they were born
	22) Education	Respondents could choose their highest level of education, from *No education* until *Master or PhD*
	23) Marital status	Respondents could choose their correspondent status, from *Single* to *Widowed*
	24) and 25) Professional status	Respondents could choose their kind of professional status and kind of profession
	26) Financial situation	Respondents should answer to the question *How easy it is to live at your home?* choosing from 1 – *Really difficult* to 5 – *Really easy*
	27) Favourite sport to attend	Respondents could write the name of their favourite sport to attend
	28) Frequency of sports participation	Respondents could choose one of four categories (Less than 1 time/week; 1 Time/week; 2-4 times/week; More than 4 times/week)
	29) Favourite sport to practice	Respondents could write the name of their favourite sport to practice

4. *References*

Bouchet, P., Bodet, G., Bernache-Assollant, I., & Kada, F. (2011). Segmenting sport spectators: construction and preliminary validation of the sporting event experience search (SEES) scale. *Sport Management Review*, *14*, 42-53.

Correia, A., & Esteves, S. (2007). An exploratory study of spectators' motivation in football. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing, 2*(5-6), 572-590.

Douvis, J. (2007). A Review of attendance and non-attendance studies. *Journal of Biology of Exercise*, *3*, 5-20.

Funk, D., Filo, K., Beaton, A., & Pritchard, M. (2009). Measuring the motives of sport event attendance: Bridging the academic-practitioner divide to understanding behavior. *Sports Marketing Quarterly, 18*(3), 126-138.

Funk, D., Mahony, D., & Ridinger, L. (2002). Characterizing consumer motivation as individual difference factors: augmenting the sport interest inventory (SII) to explain level of spectator support. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 11*(1), 33-43.

Funk, D., Ridinger, L., & Moorman, A. (2003). Understanding consumer support: Extending the sport interest inventory (SII) to examine individual differences among women's professional sport consumers. *Sport Management Review, 6*(1), 1-32.

Hall, J., & O'Mahony, B. (2006). An empirical analysis of gender differences in sports attendance motives. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship*, *July*, 334-346.

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

Kim, Y. K., & Trail, G. (2010). Constraints and motivators: A new model to explain sport consumer behavior. *Journal of Sport Management*, *24*, 190-210.

Kyle, G., Graefe, A., Manning, R., & Bacon, J. (2004). Effect of activity involvement and place attachment on recreationists' perceptions of setting density. *Journal of Leisure Research, 36*(2), 209-231.

McDonald, M., Milne, G., & Hong, J. (2002). Motivational factors for evaluating sport spectator and participant markets. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 11*(2), 100-113.

Trail, G., & James, J. (2001). The motivation scale from sport consumption: assessment of the scale's psychometric properties. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 24*(1), 108-127.

Wakefield, K., Blodgett, J., & Sloan, H. (1996). Measurement and management of the sportscape. *Journal of Sport Management, 10*, 15-31.

Wakefield, K., & Sloan, H. (1995). The effects of team loyalty and selected stadium factors on spectator attendance. *Journal of Sport Management, 9*, 153-172.

Wann, D. (1995). Preliminary validation of the sport fan motivation scale. *Journal of Sport And Social issues, 19*(4), 377-396.

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

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

Wann, D., Schrader, M., & Wilson, A. (1999). Sport fan motivation: questionnaire validation, comparisons by sport, and relationship to athletic motivation. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 22*(1), 114-139.

Adepto desportivo: definição e contextualização

Author	de Carvalho, M.
Affiliation	Sport Management Department, CIFI^{2}D, Faculty of Sport, University of Porto, Portugal
	Policy in Sports & Physical Activity Research Group, Department of Kinesiology, University of Leuven, Belgium

Data	Literature review

Resumo

A definição do conceito de adepto desportivo é um objectivo de longo prazo de especialistas de diversas áreas do desporto, nomeadamente psicologia, sociologia, gestão e marketing. Esta investigação conclui que não existe uma única definição de adepto desportivo, pois este é um conceito multidimensional, sendo os adeptos desportivos totalmente heterogéneos nos seus interesses, motivos, tipo de consumo e envolvimento com a modalidade, atleta ou equipa.

Palavras-chave: Gestão desportiva. Fans. Desporto.

Resumen (Los aficionados al deporte: definición y antecedentes)

La definición de los fanáticos del deporte es un objetivo a largo plazo de expertos de diversos campos del deporte, incluyendo la psicología, la sociología, gestión y comercialización. Esta investigación concluye que no existe una definición única de un aficionado a los deportes, ya que este es un concepto multidimensional, los aficionados al deporte son muy heterogéneos en sus intereses, motivaciones, el consumo y el tipo de implicación con el deporte, deportista o equipo.

Palabras clave: Gestión deportiva. Aficionados. Deporte.

Abstract (Sports fans: definition and background)

The definition of sports fans is a long-term goal of experts from various fields of sport, including psychology, sociology, management and marketing. This research concludes that there is no single definition of a sports fan, because this is a multidimensional concept, and sports fans totally heterogeneous in their interests, motives, consumption and type of involvement with the sport, athlete or team.

Keywords: Sport Management. Fans. Sport.

Introdução

Ser adepto de Futebol, nomeadamente em Portugal, não é, de forma alguma, ser apenas amante de Desporto: é algo apaixonado, cultural, histórico, quase obrigatório – neste país, ser adepto de um determinado clube e acompanhar os seus sucessos e insucessos, as suas peripécias e os seus meandros faz parte da condição humana.

Neste sentido, e dado o interesse de especialistas de diversas áreas do desporto, como a psicologia, a sociologia, a gestão ou o marketing, é importante conduzir uma investigação sobre a definição de adepto desportivo, assim como distinguir adepto, espectador e consumidor desportivo, na perspectiva de diferentes autores.

Definição de adepto desportivo

Quando se pensa nos conceitos de "adepto desportivo" ou "espectador desportivo" várias perspectivas podem surgir: Algumas pessoas podem pensar em indivíduos felizes e estáveis psicologicamente, que têm no desporto uma actividade de ocupação de tempos livres, e que compartilham esses momentos com a família e com os amigos; por outro lado, pode pensar-se em comportamentos desviantes, indivíduos que bebem demais, que provocam problemas com adeptos de equipas adversárias e que são alheados da realidade social, política e cultural (Wann et al., 2001). Os consumidores desportivos diferem bastante: valores, atitudes e comportamentos são largamente distintos (Sá & Sá, 1999; Meir, 2000). Alguns são apaixonados e fanáticos, mas nem todos são fanáticos de forma idêntica; outros usam a equipa como forma de confirmarem a sua identidade; alguns são totalmente leais; alguns são conhecedores da história do clube, outros ainda são resistentes à mudança dentro do mesmo (Stewart et al., 2003). Por outro lado, alguns assistem a jogos da equipa com regularidade, outros apenas em ocasiões especiais (Meir, 2000; Stewart et al., 2003). Alguns dedicam grande parte do seu tempo a pesquisar e falar na internet sobre o seu clube, outros

traduzem o seu interesse assinando canais de televisão pagos e tornam-se sócios para usufruir de todas as vantagens possíveis e especiais (Wann et al., 2001). Finalmente, alguns gostam de consumir desporto ao vivo, outros pela televisão ou outros meios de comunicação social e outros comprando, com mais ou menos regularidade, produtos do seu clube e utilizando-os publicamente (Stewart et al., 2003).

Assim, um passo crucial que deve ser tomado primeiramente é a definição e classificação destes consumidores desportivos.

Sobre a utilização das expressões "adepto desportivo" ou "espectador desportivo" muito há a dizer – enquanto alguns autores usam as expressões indiferentemente, outros distinguem os conceitos. A sua distinção é bastante útil do ponto de vista teórico, pois clarificando os conceitos, é mais fácil para os gestores desportivos e para os responsáveis pelo marketing do clube estabelecerem medidas para pessoas diferentes, com necessidades e desejos diferentes. Estes conceitos não são, obviamente, mutuamente exclusivos, podendo co-existir num mesmo indivíduo, mas existem diferenças significativas entre eles.

O "adepto desportivo" é um entusiástico seguidor de uma equipa, atleta, modalidade ou produto desportivo, enquanto um "espectador desportivo" é aquele que testemunha um evento desportivo ao vivo ou através dos media (Wann et al., 2003). Alguns adeptos raramente assistem ao espectáculo ao vivo enquanto alguns espectadores pouco se interessam por uma determinada equipa ou jogador, focando-se muito mais na qualidade da competição e na vertente desportiva da modalidade. Alguns adeptos querem que a sua equipa ganhe acima de tudo; além disso, querem compartilhar os sucessos e as vitórias com o clube, conhecer o treinador e os atletas, pedir autógrafos e tirar fotografias; querem saber tudo sobre o clube e manter-se informados sobre as novidades; finalmente, gostam de se vestir como os seus ídolos ou, pelo menos, gostam de ser identificados visualmente com a equipa. O clube deve procurar saber o que os adeptos querem e precisam do clube (Trail et al. 2003) – deve por exemplo organizar sessões de autógrafos, manter o site do clube

actualizado e disponibilizar material desportivo (como camisolas ou acessórios com o símbolo do clube) para consumo dos seus sócios ou simpatizantes. Os adeptos desportivos podem, resumidamente, ser descritos como indivíduos com um interesse enorme e permanente pelo Desporto, equipa ou atleta em questão (Wann et al., 2001).

Os espectadores são completamente diferentes. Estes querem ver um espectáculo de qualidade, apreciar as habilidades desportivas, a estética do jogo e aumentar o seu conhecimento sobre a modalidade. Este tipo de consumidor é muito mais influenciado nas suas decisões por factores como o preço do produto, acessibilidade ou comodidade do recinto desportivo em questão. O espectador decidirá ficar em casa se a sua última experiência no meio da multidão não tiver sido agradável ou se o trânsito para o jogo tiver sido infernal (Trail et al. 2003). Wann et al., em 2001, descreveu os espectadores desportivos como os indivíduos que realmente assistem aos eventos desportivos.

O adepto desportivo e o clube

" (...) O Futebol Clube do Porto é uma paixão, uma maneira de viver, é a representação de uma forma de ser de um grupo de pessoas (...) não sei explicar..."

Anónimo, Adepto do Clube Futebol Clube do Porto – Portugal

O clube é, afinal, o grande foco da grande maioria dos adeptos desportivos. "Se bem que o símbolo possa estar associado a um país, região ou cidade, ele representa algo mais particular, uma colectividade específica designada geralmente por 'clube' " (Brito, 2001). Não poderá o clube ser considerado um meio que concorre para a construção de uma identidade social? A teoria da identidade social estipula que os indivíduos procuram construir uma identidade social positiva mediante comparações entre o seu grupo e o grupo dos outros sendo que, estas comparações se baseiam em dimensões associadas a

valores sociais dominantes e que conduzem ao favoritismo pelo grupo de pertença, neste caso, pelo clube de pertença (Garcia-Marques, 2000). Os jogos, ao realizarem-se em grandes espaços rodeados por uma enorme massa de público a viver intensamente a competição, provavelmente contribuem para incrementar esse sentimento de pertença; as emoções, geradas por momentos de grande tensão, onde se vivem momentos de êxtase e de enorme desilusão em questões de segundos apenas. Também Elias e Dunning (1970) defendem esta atmosfera de excitação como uma das especificidades do futebol. Ele representa o vínculo emocional, que reforça o gosto pelo espectáculo, que muitas vezes é sentido como uma paixão irracional (Mariovet, 2002). Estes estados emocionais de alegria extática e de raiva e desânimo, ou até de tristeza profunda, só se tornam possíveis se existir um forte envolvimento emocional. Através da identificação com um clube, este pode apresentar-se como a prioridade básica na vida do adepto; pode apresentar-se como aquele que mobiliza a maior carga emocional no seu dia-a-dia. Deste modo, a identificação é definida como a extensão pela qual os adeptos se sentem psicologicamente ligados à equipa (Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Pode também utilizar-se a identificação para descrever a lealdade dos adeptos a um jogador específico.

Motivos para ser adepto desportivo

Mas quais são os motivos que influenciam alguém a assistir, ler, discutir sobre desporto e, por extensão, a assentar a sua preferência sobre determinado clube? Existem motivos que levam os adeptos a serem fãs de determinada equipa, influenciando-os na relação com o desporto.

Wann, Melnick, Russell, Gordon e Pease (2001) consideram os seguintes motivos como os mais importantes:

Relação de grupo – em muitos casos assiste-se a espectáculos desportivos devido a motivos sociais, alguns indivíduos são atraídos pela natureza do

evento desportivo, pela necessidade de pertencer a um grupo, permitindo, assim, passar o tempo na companhia de outras pessoas;

Família – o motivo familiar é similar ao anterior, mas neste caso os indivíduos com quais o adepto partilha o tempo desportivo são substituídos pela família, ou seja, trata-se de uma oportunidade de passar algum tempo com a família. Como seria de esperar este motivo é mais frequente entre os adeptos que têm filhos e/ou são casados;

Estético – envolve o desejo individual de participar como adepto devido a razões de beleza artística e à graça dos movimentos exprimidos pelo desporto; Certamente os desportos artísticos e estilísticos como a patinagem artística e a ginástica são mais atractivos para muitos adeptos devido à beleza que têm inerente e à expressão artística dos atletas. Contudo, é importante frisar que o motivo estético não se reduz aos adeptos de desportos estilísticos, na medida em que pessoas interessadas noutros desportos podem expressar um alto nível de motivação estética;

Auto-Estima – relaciona-se com o desejo individual de participar no desporto enquanto adepto porque lhe dá a oportunidade de se sentir melhor consigo próprio, ou seja, o indivíduo usa o desporto para manter um auto-conceito positivo (Wann et al., 2001);

Económico – trata-se de indivíduos que são conduzidos a consumir desporto por motivos económicos como, por exemplo, apostar em competições desportivas. Indivíduos que apresentam estes comportamentos não se consideram adeptos desportivos, não vêem os seus pais ou amigos como adeptos e não têm elevados níveis de identificação com a equipa (Wann et al., 2001);

Stress – vários teóricos sugerem que muitos indivíduos não recebem estimulação suficiente no seu dia-a-dia (Elias & Dunning, 1970; Howard, 1912; Klapp, 1972; Klausner, 1968; McNeil, 1968; M. Zuckerman, 1984, cit. in, Wann et al., 2001). Para muitos adeptos, a expectativa vivida durante os jogos pode ser considerada uma situação agradável;

Escape – neste caso o desporto funciona como uma maneira de fugir aos problemas do dia-a-dia, principalmente quando o indivíduo se encontra com problemas pessoais;

Entretenimento – assistir a um espectáculo desportivo é comparável a outras actividades recreativas, como ir ao cinema, ver televisão, ouvir música ou ler.

Conclusão

Apesar de se ter realizado já alguma investigação séria e profunda nesta área, o facto dos pesquisadores provirem de áreas diferentes do conhecimento, leva a que ainda não se tenha encontrado ou definido um modelo comum de estudo do adepto desportivo. Neste sentido, as diversas conclusões são bastante heterogéneas e por vezes pouco elucidativas.

Conclui-se no entanto que os adeptos são bastante diferentes entre si e que um melhor conhecimento dos mesmos poderá trazer vantagens, nomeadamente na área do marketing e do consumo ou no estudo de comportamentos de risco, voluntariado ou fenómenos de grupo.

Referências

Brito, A. P. (2001). *Psicologia do Desporto*. Lisboa. Omniserviços, Representações e Serviços.

Elias, N. & Dunning, E. (1970). The quest for excitement in unexciting societies. In G. Luschen. *The cross-cultural analyses of sport and games.* Champaign, II Stipes.

Garcia-Marques, L. (2000). O Inferno são os outros: Estudo da Influência Social. In Vala, J. & Monteiro, M.B. (Eds.). *Psicologia Social.* Lisboa: FCG.

Mariovet, S. (2002). *Aspectos Sociológicos do Desporto.* Lisboa: Livros Horizonte.

Meir, R. (2000). Fan reaction to the match day experience: a case study in English professional rugby league football. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 9 (1): 34-42.

Sá, C. & Sá, D. (1999). *Marketing para Desporto – Um jogo empresarial*. Porto: Edições IPAM.

Stewart, B.; Smith, A. & Nicholson, M. (2003). Sport Consumer Typologies: A critical review. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 4 (12): 206-216.

Trail, G.; Fink, J. & Anderson, D. (2003). Sport Spectator Consumption Behavior. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 1 (12): 8-17.

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

Wann, D.; Melnick, M.; Russell, G. & Pease, D. (2001). *Sport fans – The psychology and social impact of spectators*. New York: Routledge.

Wann, D.; Pierce, S.; Padgett, B.; Evans, A.; Krill, K. & Romay, A. (2003). Relations between sport team identification and optimism. *Perceptual & Motor Skills*, 97 (3): 803-804.

Translation and initial validation of the Portuguese version of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale

| **Author(s)** | Theodorakis, N.[1], Wann, D.[2], de Carvalho, M.[3,4], & Sarmento, P.[3] |

Affiliation	[1] Aristotle University of Thessaloniki
	[2] Murray State University
	[3] Sport Management Department, CIFI^{2}D, Faculty of Sport, University of Porto, Portugal
	[4] Policy in Sports & Physical Activity Research Group, Department of Kinesiology, University of Leuven, Belgium

| **Data** | Study 1 |

Abstract

Team identification (the extent to which a fan feels psychologically connected to a team) plays a fundamental role in many fan behaviors. Consequently, the establishment of psychometrically sound instruments for assessing this variable is critical. One of the most successfully utilized measures of identification is the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (Wann & Branscombe, 1993). The current investigation was designed to expand potential use of the scale by translating the scale into Portuguese. Results indicated that the Portuguese version was a reliable and valid instrument for use by researchers in Portuguese-speaking countries attempting to assess sport team identification.

Introduction

Sport scientists have shown an increased interest in the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of sport fans in recent years (Wann, Melnick, Russell, & Pease, 2001). For instance, investigators have facilitated our understanding of attendance decisions (Williamson, Zhang, Pease, & Gaa, 2003; Zhang, Smith, Pease, & Lam, 1998), coping strategies (Wann & Grieve, 2008; Wann, Grieve, Waddill, & Martin, 2008), psychological well-being (Wann, 2006b), and motivation of sport fans (Funk, Mahony, & Ridinger, 2002; Wann, Grieve, Zapalac, & Pease, 2008; Wann, Schrader, & Wilson, 1999). However, perhaps the greatest advances have come in our understanding of the role of team identification in fan attitudes and behaviors.

Team identification concerns the extent to which a fan feels a psychological connection to a team (Wann & Branscombe, 1993), that is, the extent to which the fan believes that the role of team follower is a central component of his or her social identity. A number of researchers have examined the causes and consequences of sport team identification. In terms of antecedents of team identification, Wann's (2006a) review of the literature led him to conclude that there are three general categories of causes of identification: psychological, environmental, and team-related. Psychological consequences include the need for belonging and affiliation (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; Sutton, McDonald, Milne, & Cimperman, 1997) and distinctiveness (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). In terms of environmental causes, research suggests that the socialization process (Crawford, 2003; James, 2001) and the salience of rival teams can impact team identification (Ashforth & Mael, Wann & Pool, 2007). Finally, team-related causes include organizational characteristics such as the image and tradition of the team (Sutton et al., 1997; Underwood, Bond, & Baer, 2001), team success (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Wann, Tucker, & Schrader, 1996), and player attributes such as attractiveness (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998).

Researchers have also identified a number of consequences that are impacted by the fan's level of team identification (Deitz-Uhler & Lanter, 2008). For instance, research indicates that team identification is a strong predictor of

attendance (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998). Further, higher levels of aggression have been found among persons with high levels of team identification (Lanter, 2000; Wann, Carlson, & Schrader, 1999). And finally, research indicates that level of team identification is a significant predictor of positive and negative postgame affect (Madrigal, 2003; Wann, Dolan, McGeorge, & Allison, 1994).

Because of the importance of team identification to sport fandom, researchers have attempted to develop valid and reliable measures of assessing this variable. Although several different measures have been constructed (e.g., Dimmock, Grove, & Eklund, 2005; Mahony, Madrigal, & Howard, 2000; Trail & James, 2001), the most widely utilized instrument appears to be the Sport Spectator Identification Scale developed by Wann and Branscombe (1993). This seven-item Likert-scale has strong reliability and validity (see Wann & Branscombe, 1993), and has been used in dozens of studies (Wann et al., 2001). Recently, investigators have begun to expand the usability of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale by translating the original scale into different languages, including Greek (Theodorakis, Vlachopoulos, Wann, Afthinos, & Nassis, 2006), German (Straub, 1995), Japanese (Uemukai, Takenouchi, Okuda, Matsumoto, & Yamanaka, 1995), and Dutch (Melnick & Wann, 2004). There are a number of advantages to having multiple translations of a particular scale. For instance, this allows for greater generalizability of the instrument. Further, researchers can conduct cross-cultural research on team identification in different environments (Melnick & Wann, 2004; Theodorakis & Wann, 2008). A third, multiple versions of a team identification scale increase the options available to sport management and marketing professionals. For example, until Theodorakis et al. (2006) developed a Greek version of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale, sport professionals in this country were without a valid instrument for assessing the construct.

The current investigation was designed to further expand the use of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale by translating the scale into Portuguese. The Portuguese language is one of the most spoken in the world and is the official language of several countries across five continents (currently, it is estimated

that there are more than 223 million Portuguese speakers in over 12 countries). Portuguese is the official language of Brazil and Angola, emerging powers of continental dimensions, which together with all other Portuguese speaking countries hold a special commitment to sport in general, but particularly to soccer (in particular, Brazil is considered one the greatest world powers of this sport). Portugal has a strong tradition not only in competitive soccer (e.g., successful national team and clubs) but also as an organizer of major international competitions such as the European Football Championship 2004, successful in promoting the image of the Portuguese culture to the world. Brazil will be organizing the next World Cup in 2012 and Angola will be the venue of the next African Cup of nations. Portugal will submit to host the 2016 World Cup. The size and importance of the soccer spectacle in the Portuguese speaking countries, and its society, is recognized by all. Therefore, studies on their consumers are required in an increasingly numerous way and certified by the principles of academic research.

Method

Participants and data collection

Participants in this study were 161 (N = 161) spectators who attended a soccer game between two teams from the top professional league in Portugal. They were 113 (70.2%) males and 48 (29.8%) females. Their age ranged from 18 to 70 years, with a mean age of 34.04 years (SD = 13.2). The vast majority were employees from the private and state sectors (60.9%), followed by students (18.5%) and self-employed professionals (10.6%). Five per cent of the participants reported to be unemployed, and 5% were retired individuals. Participants had been attending games for periods of time ranging from 5 to 63 years. On average, they had attended 5.92 games the previous soccer season. The 161 individuals described above participated solely during the reliability and validity steps of the methodology.

After receiving permission from the soccer club's manager, six trained research assistants distributed and collected the questionnaires to participants. Participants filled out the forms in designated areas before taking their seats at the beginning of the soccer game.

Measures

Team Identification. A Portuguese version (see translation information below) of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS, Wann & Branscombe, 1993) was used to assess levels of team identification among Portuguese soccer fans. The SSIS is a uni-dimensional seven-item Likert scale with response options ranging from 1 (low identification) to 8 (high identification). In this study, participants expressed their identification with a targeted professional soccer team. The SSIS's seven items were: "How strongly do you see yourself as a fan of [named team]?", "How strongly do your friends see you as a fan of [named team]?", "During the season, how closely do you follow [named team] via any of the following: in person, by television, by radio, by televised news, or by newspaper?", "How important is being a fan of [named team]?", "How much do you dislike the greatest rivals of [named team]?", "How often do you display [named team's] name or insignia at your place of work, where you live, or on your clothing?

A number of studies have provided evidence regarding the SSIS's factor structure, internal consistency, test-retest reliability, and construct validity (Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann et al., 2001).

Place attachment. The Place Attachment Scale developed by Kyle, Graefe, Manning, and Bacon (2004a) was also used. For the purpose of this study, all items were adapted into the context of professional soccer so to measure the allegiance between a fan and the team's soccer stadium. Place attachment refers to the instrumental and emotional/symbolic attachments that bond individuals to places. The Place Attachment Scale contains 18 items that reflect four dimensions: Place Dependence (four items, e.g., "this soccer stadium is the

best place to watch X play"); Social Bonding (four items, e.g., "the time spent here allows me to bond with my family and friends"); Place Identity (five items, e.g., "this stadium means a lot to me"); and Affective Attachment (five items, e.g., "I really enjoy this place"). Internal consistency reliabilities for all PAS's subscales were satisfactory: Place Dependence .72, Social Bonding .87, Place Identity .81, and Affective Attachment .86.

There is evidence that place attachment is a key variable in predicting attitudinal aspects of consumers' behavior in sport and leisure settings (Bricker & Kerstetter, 2000; Kyle et al., 2004a; Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2004b; Moore & Graefe, 1994; Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck, & Watson, 1992). Recently, Theodorakis, Tsigilis, and Alexandris (in press) suggested that sport managers should make efforts to develop skiers' emotional and symbolic bonds with the place (skiing resort) to increase customers' identification with the sport service provider. In addition, Alexandris, Kouthouris, and Meligdis (2006) found that two place attachment dimensions (place identity and place dependence) influenced the development of skiers' loyalty with the sport agency.

Results

To translate and validate the SSIS in Portuguese a seven-step methodology was used. This methodology was developed originally by Vallerand (1989) in the psychological field, and described in the physical activity domain by Banville, Desrosiers, and Genet-Volet (2000). This cross-cultural technique ensures that the instrument will provide data that are valid and reliable in the target population. The first three steps of the methodology refer to the translation of the scale, the next three refer to the validation of the translated version. The seventh step – establishing norms, was not presently elaborated since it was out of the scope of this study.

Translation of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale

Step one is called preparation of the preliminary versions and it uses the back translation technique (Vallerand, 1989). This technique requires the contribution of a committee of four bilingual translators. Translators A and B were two Portuguese sport scientists, with Ph.D.'s in sport sciences, who independently translated the SSIS from English to Portuguese; a comparison of the two translated versions (translator A and B) revealed differences in two of the seven items of the SSIS. Following Banville et al. (2000), the non-similar items were compared and the two translators agreed which translated items to keep, giving a bigger importance to the meaning of the sentences into the targeted language, instead to the word-for-word translation. Then, two other sport researchers with similar academic backgrounds (translators C and D) retranslated back all seven Portuguese items into English. In spite of the fact that almost none of the re-translated items were identical to the original ones, the translators decided to retain all seven items since their meaning was judged to be similar to the meaning of the original SSIS items.

The goal of step two, called the evaluation of the preliminary versions, was to compare the re-translated and the original items of SSIS, and to prepare a satisfactory final experimental version. To avoid single-person bias, a committee-technique comprised by four bilingual translators was employed (Banville et al. 2000). A final experimental version was accomplished.

In step three, the pre-test of the experimental version, the final draft of the Portuguese version of SSIS was distributed to a sample of 20 individuals (M_{age}= 30, SD= 4.3), with characteristics similar to those of the target population, as suggested by Banville et al. (2000). These individuals were asked to provide feedback on the translated scale. First, they were instructed to provide their responses on the Portuguese version of the scale, and second to indicate any words or sentences that they did not understand or they thought that required adjustment. They were also asked to provide their own suggestions. The committee members then reviewed the respondents' comments and made minor modifications to the experimental version. In the end, a qualified

Portuguese-language teacher reviewed the translated version to ensure the appropriate language and comprehensiveness, and to avoid any grammar or syntax mistakes.

Reliability and validity of the Portuguese version of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale

The purpose of the fourth step was to evaluate the content and concurrent validity of the translated scale. All four committee members analyzed the original and the translated scales at the same time, examining whether each translated item and its corresponding original one were identical in meaning. They concluded that the content validity of the translated version was protected.

To examine the concurrent validity of the translated version Pearson's correlations between the original and the translated scales were computed. The two versions were given to 36 Portuguese bilingual university students (M_{age}= 22.6, SD= 2.9). Before answering both versions of the scale, the participants' ability to understand, read, write and speak English was assessed using a four-item scale developed by Vallerand and Halliwell (1983). All participants, except two (who scored eight), scored higher than 12 in this scale (maximum 20), which shows ability in the English language. These two individuals were excluded. The remaining 34 participants answered both versions of the SSIS in a classroom setting. Half of the sample completed the Portuguese version first, and the other half, the English version first, to avoid order bias. One month later they repeated the process by answering both versions in opposite order. Pearson's product moment correlation was computed to observe the relation between the original and the translated version, revealing a high coefficient (r = .86), indicating high concurrent validity of the translated SSIS.

In the next step the reliability of the translated version of the SSIS was evaluated using four types of reliability: internal consistency, composite reliability, average variance extracted (AVE), and test-retest reliability. The Cronbach's alpha value for the translated scale was .76, the composite

reliability value was .80 (>.60), and the AVE was .60 (>.50) indicating acceptable internal reliability. As mentioned above, the 34 students completed both scales in reverse order over a one month interval. The intra-class correlation was .86, indicating satisfactory test-retest reliability.

The sixth step pertained to the evaluation of the construct validity of the Portuguese version of the SSIS (SSIS-P). The factorial validity of the SSIS-P was employed using confirmatory factor analysis (Ullman, 1996) with the EQS 6.1 software (Bentler, 1995). A single factor model was tested, the factor loadings were fixed to unity, and the item residual covariances were fixed to zero. To determine if all variables were normally distributed, an exploratory data analysis based on the inspection of skewness values and kurtosis values was assessed. Skewness values ranged from -2.73 to -.59, and kurtosis values from -.68 to 9.73. The Mardia's coefficient (Mardia, 1970) of multivariate kurtosis was 41.26 and the normalized estimate was 22.95, suggesting that the assumption of multivariate normality was not tenable. Byrne (2006) proposed that normalized estimate values greater than five indicate a departure from normality. Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested that confirmatory factor analysis could be also used even if data departs from normality, employing the Sattora-Bentler scaled $\chi2$ statistic.

Table 1. Goodness of fit indexes of the SSIS-P

	S-Bχ^2	df	S-B χ^2 / df	NNFI	CFI	RMSEA
S-F Model	15.87	13	1.22	.958	.974	.038

Note: S-F = Single Factor

To assess the fit of CFA models researchers have developed and presented a great number of fit indices. Since the data of this study were not normally distributed, the fit indices used for model evaluation were: the Sattora-Bentler scaled $\chi2$ statistic ($\chi2$), the Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI), the robust Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

(RMSEA), Generally, NNFI and CFI values greater than .90 indicate an acceptable fit between the observed data and the hypothesized model (Hu & Bentler, 1995), while values greater than .95 an excellent fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). RMSEA values ranging from .06 to .08 declare an adequate fit with .10 to be considered as the upper limit (Byrne, 2000). For the SSIS-P, results indicated a very good fit of the model to the data: S-B χ2 = 15.87, df = 13, p < .001, S-B χ2 / df = 1.22, NNFI = .958, CFI = .974, RMSEA = .038, 90% RMSEA CI = .000 - .092 (Table 1). The factor loadings ranged from .32 to .89. All were significant at the p<.05. CFA item statistics of the translated SSIS are presented in Table 2.

To further assess its construct validity, the translated version was correlated to four Place Attachment subscales. According to theory (Kyle et al., 2004b), positive correlations were expected. Results showed that all correlations were significant at p < .05 (Place Dependence = .29; Social Bonding = .39; Place Identity = .40; Affective Attachment = .54). Descriptive statistics of the SSIS-P are also presented in Table 3.

Table 2. Confirmatory factor analysis results of the translated SSIS

Scale Item	t - values	IS	IK	Item loading	IU	SMC's*
Item 1	7.39	-2.73	9.73	.56	.82	.32
Item 2	13.38	-2.04	4.87	.89	.45	.79
Item 3	9.95	-1.63	3.23	.71	.69	.51
Item 4	7.85	-1.25	1.61	.59	.80	.35
Item 5	11.24	-2.57	7.76	.78	.62	.61
Item 6	3.92	-.78	-.60	.32	.94	.10
Item 7	5.34	-.52	-.68	.43	.90	.18

Note: *N* = 161, * SMC's = Squared Multiple Correlations, IU = Item Uniqueness, IS = Item Skewness, IK = Item Kurtosis

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for the SSIS-P.

Scale Item	M	SD	R					
Item 1	7.49	.94						
Item 2	7.07	1.37	.49					
Item 3	6.80	1.45	.30	.64				
Item 4	6.84	1.36	.41	.49	.45			
Item 5	7.37	1.19	.51	.70	.52	.46		
Item 6	5.97	2.23	.12	.27	.23	.30	.20	
Item 7	5.30	2.19	.20	.38	.34	.25	.28	.29

Discussion

Research on sport fan behavior has been accelerated the last decade because of the tremendous economic, social, and psychological impact of professional sports in people's lives worldwide. In this research stream, the construct of team identification possesses a central role in many published sport fan behavior models (e.g., Funk & James, 2006; Robinson, Trail, Dick, & Gillentine, 2005). With very few exceptions, what we know about the behavior of the sport fan results from studies that comprise fans from only a few, typically English-speaking countries (e.g., United States, England). However, this approach limits our understanding of sport fandom worldwide, and impedes further cross-cultural comparisons. The development of scales in other cultures and languages will assist sport researchers in overcoming this obstacle, generalizing results and understanding the global sport fan. In line with this argument, the aim of the present study was to translate and validate the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (Wann & Branscombe, 1993) into Portuguese.

A thorough methodology suggested by Vallerand (1989) and further elaborated by Banville et al (2000) was used to translate and validate the original SSIS into the new language. The first three steps of this process secured the proper translation of the seven scale items into Portuguese. The remaining three steps

pertained to the reliability and validity of the SSIS-P. Results indicated that the Portuguese version of the SSIS (SSIS-P) had a good item structure as suggested by three reliability estimates: internal consistency, composite reliability and AVE. The intra-class correlation coefficient that was used to examine test-retest reliability over a period of one-month revealed acceptable levels of stability for the SSIS-P. Also, the SSIS-P indicated strong concurrent validity, as revealed by the high correlation between the translated and the original version of the SSIS. Confirmatory factor analysis results supported the uni-dimensional structure of the scale in the new language, and the seven scale items indicated an acceptable factor structure. In addition, the direction and magnitude of the correlations between the translated version and the four subscales of the Place Attachment Scale supported theoretical expectations (Kyle et al., 2004b) and provided initial evidence regarding the construct validity of the SSIS-P.

Based on the results of the present study, sport marketing practitioners in Portuguese-speaking countries worldwide could use SSIS-P to assess the psychological attachment among fans and the sport team. Similar to the original version, SSIS-P is a short and easy to complete questionnaire that could be conveniently distributed inside an arena, thus leading to ease of use in field settings. Sport marketers could use the SSIS-P to segment fans using their levels of attachment with the sport team as the segmentation variable. By applying such a segmentation strategy, sport marketers will create a better understanding of their customers' needs and wants, and subsequently will influence their future behaviors. A recent study among professional basketball fans in Greece revealed that the influence of perceived service quality on spectators' decisions to attend games in the future was not the same for all customer segments, categorised on their levels of identification with a particular sports team (Theodorakis, Koustelios, Robinson, & Barlas, in press). Greenwell, Fink and Pastore (2002) also found that highly identified spectators of minor hockey league games in the U.S were less critical on both the core (i.e. the game) and the peripheral (i.e. services) sport product, than customers with low identification.

It is to be noted that Portuguese is the official language of more than 223 million people around the world, thus sport researchers could use the SSIS-P so as to advance our understanding of the sport fans in the Portuguese-speaking countries. SSIS-P could be used to conduct cross-cultural studies in order to reveal differences and similarities of the global sport fan. As professional sport teams attempt to augment their fan bases by attracting fans from all over the globe, multiple language instruments will assist in our understanding of this globalization process.

However, this was a first attempt to translate and validate the SSIS into Portuguese. Additional research is needed to further establish the construct validity of the scale into the new language. It should be noted we used the Place Attachment Scale to document initial support for the construct validity of SSIS-P. However, future researchers might also use behavioral indices to further explore the construct validity of the translated scale. In addition more stringent tests might be used by researchers in the future so to disentangle the relationships between team identification and related constructs. To add another version of SSIS is not enough, researchers should focus on cross-cultural generalizability of the scale by using stringent tests such as multi-group CFA analyses with samples from different countries. By doing so, they will not only secure the cross-cultural validity of their scale, but will also enhance our understanding about sport fandom worldwide.

References

Alexandris, K., Kouthouris, C., & Meligdis, A. (2006). Increasing customers' loyalty in a skiing resort. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 18, 414-425.

Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. Academy of Management Review, 14, 20-39.

Banville, D., Desrosiers, P., & Genet-Volet, Y. (2000).Translating questionnaires and inventories using a cross-cultural translation technique. Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 19, 374-387.

Bentler, P. M. (1995). EQS structural equations program manual. Encino, CA: Multivariate Software, Inc.

Bricker, K., & Kerstetter, D. (2000). Level of specialization and place attachment. Leisure Sciences, 22, 233-257.

Byrne, B. M. (2000). Structural equation modeling with AMOS : Basic concepts, applications, and programming. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Byrne, B. M. (2006). Structural equation modeling with EQS: Basic concepts, applications,and programming. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Crawford, G. (2003). The career of the sport supporter: The case of the Manchester Storm. Sociology, 37, 219-237.

Dietz-Uhler, B., & Lanter, J. R. (2008). The consequences of sports fan identification. In L. W. Hugenberg, P. M. Haridakis, & A. C. Earnheardt (Eds.), Sports mania: Essays on fandom and the media in the 21st century (pp. 103-113). Jefferson, NC: McFarland.

Dimmock, J. A., Grove, J. R., & Eklund, R. C. (2005). Reconceptualizing team identification: New dimensions and their relationship to intergroup bias. Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 5, 75-86.

Fisher, R. J., & Wakefield, K. (1998). Factors leading to group identification: A field study of winners and losers. Psychology & Marketing, 15, 23-40.

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

Funk, D. C., Mahony, D. F., & Ridinger, L. L. (2002). Characterizing consumer motivation as individual difference factors: Augmenting the Sport Interest

Inventory (SII) to explain level of spectator support. Sport Marketing Quarterly, 11, 33-43.

Greenwell, C.T., Fink, J.S., & Pastore, D.L. (2002). Perceptions of the service experience: Using demographic and psychographic variables to identify customer segments. Sport Marketing Quarterly, 11, 233-241.

Gwinner, K., & Swanson, S. R. (2003). A model of fan identification: Antecedents and sponsorship outcomes. Journal of Services Marketing, 17, 275.294.

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1995). Evaluating model fit. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), Structural equation modeling: Concepts, issues, and applications (pp. 76-99). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

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

James, J. D. (2001). The role of cognitive development of socialization in the initial development of team loyalty. Leisure Sciences, 23, 233-261.

Kyle, G. T., Graefe, A., Manning, R. E., & Bacon, J. (2004a). The effect of place attachment on users' perception of social and environmental conditions encountered in a natural setting. Journal of Environmental Psychology, 24, 213-225.

Kyle, G., Graefe, A., Manning, R., & Bacon, J. (2004b). Predictors of behavioral loyalty among hikers along the Appalachian Trail. Leisure Sciences, 26, 99-118.

Lanter, J. R. (2000, November). Sport spectator identification and involvement in a spontaneous sport victory celebration. Paper presented at the meeting of the North American Society for the Sociology of Sport, Colorado Springs, CO.

Madrigal, R. (2003). Investigating an evolving leisure experience: Antecedents and consequences of spectator affect during a live sporting event. Journal of Leisure Research, 35, 23-48.

Mahony, D. F., Madrigal, R., & Howard, D. (2000). Using the psychological Commitment to Team (PCT) Scale to segment sport consumers based on loyalty. Sport Marketing Quarterly, 9, 15-25.

Mardia, K. V. (1970). Measures of multivariate skewness and kurtosis with applications. Biometrika, 57, 519-530.

Melnick, M. J., & Wann, D. L. (2004). Sport fandom influences, interests, and behaviors among Norwegian university students. International Sports Journal, 8, 1-13.

Moore, R.J., & Graefe, A.R. (1994). Attachments to recreational settings: The case of rail-trail users. Leisure Sciences, 16, 17-31.

Robinson, M. J., Trail, G. T., Dick, R. J., & Gillentine, A. J. (2005). Fans vs. spectators: An analysis of those who attend intercollegiate football games. Sport Marketing Quarterly, 14, 43-53.

Sutton, W. A., McDonald, M. A., Milne, G. R., & Cimperman, J. (1997). Creating and fostering fan identification in professional sports. Sport Marketing Quarterly, 6, 15-22.

Straub, B. (1995). Die Messung der Identifikation mit einer Sportmannschaft: Eine deutsche adaptation der "Team Identification Scale" von Wann und Branscombe. Psychologie und Sport, 4, 132-145.

Theodorakis, N.D., Koustelios, A., Robinson, L., & Barlas, A. (2009). Moderating role of team identification on the relationship between service quality and repurchase intentions among spectators of professional sports. Managing Service Quality, 19, 456-473.

Theodorakis, N.D., Tsigilis, N., & Alexandris, K. (in press). The mediating role of place attachment on the relationship between service quality and loyalty in the context of skiing. International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing.

Theodorakis, N. D., Vlachopoulos, S. P., Wann, D. L., Afthinos, Y., & Nassis, P. (2006). Measuring team identification: Translation and cross-cultural validity of

the Greek version of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale. International Journal of Sport Management, 7, 506-522.

Theodorakis, N. D., & Wann, D. L. (2008). An examination of sport fandom in Greece: Influences, interests, and behaviors. International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing, 4, 356-374.

Trail, G. T., & James, J. D. (2001). An analysis of the sport fan motivation scale. Journal of Sport Behavior, 24, 107-127.

Uemukai, K., Takenouchi, T., Okuda, E., Matsumoto, M., & Yamanaka, K. (1995). Analysis of the factors affecting spectators' identification with professional soccer teams in Japan. Journal of Sport Sciences, 13, 522.

Ullman, J. B. (1996). Structural equation modeling. In B. G. Tabachnick and L. S. Fidell (Eds.), Using multivariate statistics (3rd ed.) (pp. 709-811). Northridge, CA: HarperCollins.

Underwood, R., Bond, E., & Baer, R. (2001). Building service brands via social identity: Lessons from the sports marketplace. Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 9, 1-13.

Vallerand, R. J. (1989). Vers une mèthodologie de validation trans-culturelle de questionnaires psychologiques: Implications pour la recherché en langue française. Psychologie Canadienne, 30, 662-680.

Vallerand, R. J., & Halliwell,W.R. (1983). Vers une methodologie de validation trans-culturelle de questionnaires psychologiques : Implications pour la psychologie du sport. Journal de Canadien des Sciences Appliquees au Sport, 8, 9-18.

Wann, D. L. (2006a). The causes and consequences of sport team identification. In A. A. Raney & J. Bryant (Eds.,) Handbook of sports and media (pp. 331-352). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Wann, D. L. (2006b). Understanding the Positive Social Psychological Benefits of Sport Team Identification: The Team Identification – Social Psychological Health Model. Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 10, 272-296.

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

Wann, D. L., Carlson, J. D., & Schrader, M. P. (1999). The impact of team identification on the hostile and instrumental verbal aggression of sport spectators. Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 14, 279-286.

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

Wann, D. L., & Grieve, F. G. (2008). The coping strategies of highly identified fans: The importance of team success on tendencies to utilize proactive pessimism. In L. W. Hugenberg, P. Haridakis, & A. Earnheardt (Eds.) Sports Mania: Essays on Fandom and the Media in the 21st Century (pp. 78-85). Jefferson, NC: McFarland.

Wann, D. L., Grieve, F. G., Waddill, P. J., & Martin, J. (2008). Use of retroactive pessimism as a method of coping with identity threat: The impact of group identification. Group Processes & Intergroup Relations, 11, 439-450.

Wann, D. L., Grieve, F. G., Zapalac, R. K., & Pease, D. G. (2008). Motivational Profiles of Sport Fans of Different Sports. Sports Marketing Quarterly, 17, 6-19.

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

Wann, D. L., & Pool, T. (2007, February). Rival salience and sport team identification.Paper presented at the third annual Sport Psychology Gathering, Bowling Green, KY.

Wann, D. L., Schrader, M. P., & Wilson, A. M. (1999). Sport fan motivation: Questionnaire validation, comparisons by sport, and relationship to athletic motivation. Journal of Sport Behavior, 22, 114-139.

Wann, D. L., Tucker, K., B., & Schrader, M. P. (1996). An exploratory examination of the factors influencing the origination, continuation, and cessation of identification with sport teams. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 82, 995-1001.

Williams, D., Patterson, M., Roggenbuck, J., & Watson, A. (1992). Beyond the commodity metaphor: examining emotional and symbolic attachment to place. Leisure Sciences, 14, 29-46.

Williamson, D. P., Zhang, J. J., Pease, D. G., & Gaa, J. P. (2003). Dimensions of spectator identification associated with women's professional basketball game attendance. International Journal of Sport Management, 4, 59-91.

Zhang, J. J., Smith, D. W., Pease, D. G., & Lam, E. T. C. (1998). Dimensions of spectator satisfaction toward support programs of professional hockey games. International Sports Journal, 2, 1-17.

Requests for the English version of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale should be addressed to Daniel L. Wann Murray State University Department of Psychology Murray, KY 42071. dan.wann@murraystate.edu

Requests for the Portuguese version of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale should be addressed to Mariana de Carvalho, University of Porto, Portugal. msmfcarvalho@gmail.com

Translation and Portuguese validation of the Place Attachment Scale

Author(s)	de Carvalho, M.[1,2], Theodorakis, N.[3], & Sarmento, P.[1]
Affiliation	[1] Sport Management Department, CIFI[2]D, Faculty of Sport, University of Porto, Portugal [2] Policy in Sports & Physical Activity Research Group, Department of Kinesiology, University of Leuven, Belgium [3] Aristotle University of Thessaloniki
Data	Study 1
Status	Published in the *Variorum, Multi-Disciplinary e-Research Journal* (2011), 1(4): 1-11

Abstract

Place Attachment is a concept with growing importance in Sports tourism. This concept refers to the extent to which an individual values or identifies with a particular environmental setting (Moore & Graefe, 1994; Moore & Scott, 2003). Four dimensions constitute Place attachment: place dependence, place identity, social bonding and affective attachment (Kyle *et al*., 2004b). In this study, the concept was brought to the team sports, namely, to Soccer. The objective of this study is to translate the Place Attachment Scale (PAS) into Portuguese and to examine the cross-cultural generalizability of the factor structure and psychometric properties underlying responses to the translated scale. Therefore, the present study extends the use of the PAS to Portuguese soccer fans through testing the psychometric properties and the cross-cultural validity of the translated scales. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis and the alpha scores provide evidence for the validity and reliability of the scale used.

Keywords

Place attachment, Translation, Validation, Tourism, Sport consumption, Sport fan

Introduction

Tourism is an industry that is significantly associated with the sports industry (Chelladurai & Turner, 2005). Sport and tourism are major global phenomena that demonstrate an increasing degree of integration (Gibson, 1998). In the last decades, tourism for sports purposes was marked by a growing acknowledgment of the inherent relationship between sport and tourism (Gibson, 2003). A substantial amount of sporting activity is characterized by travel (Hinch & Higham, 2001) and the opposite also happens. The confluence of sport and tourism, and the definition of sport tourism have therefore become subjects of academic attention (Higham & Hinch, 2003). When it comes to Portugal, the organization of the European Championship of Football, in 2004, is a big representative of how sport and tourism can relate and of the way a country can welcome tourists that are also big fans of a team, in this case, a national team. In this competition, Portugal had the experience of spectators travelling great distances only to attend soccer games, to live the experience, to get to know foreigners and another country.

Gibson, in 2003, in the article *Sport Tourism: An Introduction to the special issue* resumes some interesting data. Over the last ten years, a number of specialized sport tourism books have been published. A growing number of conferences also adopted a sport tourism theme through the 1990's. Government policy has also been influenced by sport tourism, since various governments have introduced sport tourism initiatives to encourage tourism related to sport in their countries. In recent years, in line with the increased academic and practical attention to this form of tourism, universities have added sport tourism to their curricula in various ways.

Gibson (1998) defines sport tourism as "leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities, to watch physical activities, or to venerate attractions associated with physical activities" (p. 49). This definition highlights sport as a touristic activity and alludes to the spatial and temporal dimensions that define tourism (Higham & Hinch, 2003).

In Gibson's view (2003) sports-related travel may be undertaken for one of three purposes:

- Active participation, such as traveling to take part in a sports event as a participant;
- Attending to a sporting event, for example, traveling to watch others participate in a sports event, like a soccer match;
- Nostalgia, for example, traveling to visit sports-related attractions such as halls of fame and famous stadiums (for instance, when it comes to this country, and because there are a lot of emigrants of Portugal in other countries, like France, Belgium or Luxembourg, people come back to visit the country to attend games or to go to sport facilities because of the Nostalgia purpose).

Sport also has unique characteristics of sport as a tourist attraction: a unique set of rules (with a special playing surface and duration of the match), competition relating to physical prowess and the playfulness inherent in sport.

Although there are numerous definitions of sport tourism, Hinch and Higham (2001) note that all share three key dimensions:

- Temporal dimension – the travel is temporary;
- Spatial dimension – individuals must leave and eventually return home;
- Relationship – the purpose of travel must be sports related.

The core elements of sport as a tourism attraction are summarized in Table 1.

When it comes to the second mentioned, the spatial dimension, the geographic context is the main issue, which may be further divided into space, environment and place (Hall & Page, 1999, *cit.* by Higham & Hinch, 2003). Relatively to space, the more powerful the attraction, the further people will be willing to travel because of something. When it comes to environment, the concept refers to the impact of the tourists on the environment and to the delight of the person to be a part of a certain environment. Finally, the concept that is more related with this investigation, the place. Tuan, in 1974 stated that place is related with

the meaning of a certain place to a person or group (*cit.* Higham & Hinch, 2003). The more meaningful that a destination is to visitors, the less likely it is to be substituted by another place (Williams *et al.,* 1992).

Table 1. The core elements of sport as tourism attraction

Core elements of sport as a tourism attraction	Description
Sport attraction nucleus	
• Rules	Spatial and temporal organization of sports
• Competition	Degree and type, physical powers, skill sets and strategies
• Play	Uncertain of outcome and sanctioned display
Space	
• Space	Travel distance, threshold and location
• Environment	Environmental resources and impacts
• Place	Role of sports in constructing meaning attached to space
Time	
• Short term	Travel behavior and duration of visit
• Medium term	Seasonal travel patterns
• Long term	Long term evolution of sport and tourism

(Adapted from Higham & Hinch, 2003)

In the touristic perspective, and also in the sport tourism context, the concept of place is, as can be inferred, really important. Sport can also determine the construct that a person has of a certain place. Therefore, the concept of sport tourism and the related concept of place attachment will be analyzed carefully.

Current studies in the leisure and tourism literature have shown that the concept of place attachment is helpful for understanding aspects of an individual's leisure and tourism behavior (Alexandris *et al.,* 2006). Place meanings have been widely studied in many different fields of knowledge. This concept refers to the extent to which an individual values or identifies with a particular

environmental setting (Moore & Graefe, 1994; Moore & Scott, 2003). According to Williams and Vaske (2003) place attachment refers to the emotional and symbolic relationships that individuals form with recreational resources. Hammitt and colleagues (2006), name the concept place bonding, stating that it is a common phenomenon in many recreation areas, where people develop an affective and cognitive based attachment to special resource settings. Kyle and colleagues (2004b) also talk about place bonding when it comes to place attachment, but they also refer to terms as "sense of place" (also used by Nanzer in 2004), "rootedness", "insidedness" or "environmental embeddedness". Smaldone and colleagues (2005) calls it "special places" and applied a multi-dimensional, representative and inclusive definition, where place attachment is viewed as the extent to which a person has an emotional, functional, cognitive, symbolic, spiritual or affective connection to a particular physical place, environment, or setting in a particular condition and at a particular time (it is a varying process also, along the time).

The degree and strength of this connection depends on a multitude of factors, including the physical characteristics of the place, the social relationships and experiences of the individuals involved, the activities or rituals done at the place, the individual's length of association with the place, as well as the individual's personal set of beliefs, values and preferences (Smaldone *et al.,* 2005; Moore & Graefe, 1994).

All these words or expressions emphasize the meaning not only of the actual place itself, but also the individual's feelings, relationships and interactions with the place.

Schreyer and White (1981) proposed that place attachment represents a user's valuing of a recreation setting and that this valuation consists of two dimensions: functional meanings (relating to specific activity needs) and emotional-symbolic meanings. In other words, a place can be valued by a recreationist because it is a "good" place to undertake a particular activity, or it can be valuable because it is seen as "special" for emotional, symbolic or both reasons.

Williams and Roggenbuck (1989, *cit.* Kyle *et al.* 2004a) developed these concepts in a study where they found three distinct dimensions of place attachment, two of them related to the dimensions found by the authors mentioned above:

▪   The first dimension corresponded to the emotional-symbolic meanings – this dimension was termed "place identity" because it included items that represent the extent to which using the place is a central aspect of subjects' lives;

▪   The second dimension, relating to the functional meanings proposed before, was named "place dependence" because it was composed of items indicating that subjects were less willing to use another site for their particular activities;

▪   The third, included items that made negative appraisals of the setting and was considered a place indifferent dimension.

Low and Altman, in 1992 (*cit.* Kyle *et. al*, 2004a) indicated that most conceptualizations include three components: affect, cognition and practice. The affective component is most often reflected in emotional attachments to place, whereas the cognitive component concerns thoughts, knowledge and beliefs related to place. Practice refers to the behaviors and activities that occur within spatial contexts.

Subsequent research using these three concepts has shown the place identity and place dependence dimensions to be the most reliable across a variety of samples (Moore & Graefe, 1994; Warzecha & Lime, 2001).

Moore and Graefe, in 1994, developed a model to help explain how such relationships with recreation settings form. This model was then tested with a sample of users of three "rail-trails" (multiuse recreation trails constructed on unused railroad rights-of-way). Results supported the literature, suggesting that place attachment has at least two dimensions: a place dependence, reflecting the importance of the place in facilitating a user's activity, and a more affective

place identity, reflecting an individual's valuing of a setting for more symbolic or emotional reasons.

Place attachment is, in this way, composed out of two components: place identity and place dependence (Kyle *et al*., 2004a). According to the authors, place dependence reflects the importance of a resource for providing amenities necessary for desired activities. Indeed, the place has a functional meaning, because it collects attributes that allow the pursuit of a focal activity. Kyle *et al.* (2004a) refer that the value of a specific setting to the individual is based on specificity, functionality and satisfaction of a place and its "goodness" for an activity. Place dependence refers to the specific functions and conditions of a place that are necessary to satisfy an individual's needs and goals, in comparison to other similar or competitive places (Williams & Vaske, 2003). These functions or conditions might be related to the physical aspects of the place (Kyle *et al.,* 2004c) or, for instance, with the accessibility (Williams & Vaske, 2003).

Place identity refers to, as Proshansky described (1978, p. 155) "those dimensions of the self that define the individual's personal identity in relation to the physical environment by means of a complex pattern of conscious and unconscious ideas, beliefs, preferences, feelings, values, goals, and behavioral tendencies and skills relevant to this environment" (*cit.* Kyle *et al*., 2004a). Jorgensen and Stedman (2001, *cit.* Kyle *et al*., 2004a) also referred to place identity, saying that it refers to global self-identification similar to conceptualizations of gender identity and role identity. Thus, in addition to being a resource for satisfying explicitly felt behavioral or experiential goals, a place may be viewed as an essential part of one's self, resulting in strong emotional attachment to places (Williams *et al.* 1992). Place identity has an emotional meaning and it refers to "the symbolic importance of a place as a repository for emotions and relationships that give meanings and purpose to life" (Williams & Vaske, 2003, p. 831). It has been related with the conception of self-identity and seen as a part of one's self that results in developing emotional attachment to a particular place (William *et al.* 1992). Williams and Vaske (2003) reported that

place identity can enhance an individual's self-esteem and increase feelings of belonging to his/her community.

An analysis to some studies about place attachment and its concepts will now be performed. Moore and Graefe study analysis (1994) reveals that place identity can best be predicted by how long users have been associated with the trail, the importance they ascribe to their trail activity, and their level of place dependence. Level of place dependence is best predicted by the distance between the trail and the users' home and users' frequency of trail use. Users' frequency of trail use is most strongly related to their age, the importance they ascribe to their trail activity, and how far the trail is from their home.

One aspect of place attachment that has not been explored empirically is the extent to which people become attached to a specific site versus its larger setting. The main purpose of a study from Moore and Scott (2003) was to examine users' place attachment to a large metropolitan park versus their place attachment to a particular trail located within that same park. They found that: the frequency of use was positively related to both park and trail attachment; levels of trail attachment varied across different trail activities, but levels of park attachment did not; the most powerful predictor of both park attachment and trail attachment was personal commitment to the activity that users were pursuing; and, unlike previous research, factor analyses indicated that both park and trail attachment were unidimensional rather than comprised of place identity and dependence dimensions.

Higham and Hinch (2003) found in a study about the Otago highlanders that spectators were willing to travel greater distances than they did for provincial competitions, also because of the franchise business.

In another study, Alexandris and colleagues (2006), found that the skiers' loyalty was significantly predicted by both the place attachment dimensions (place identity and place dependence). Besides that, place attachment was significantly predicted by the interaction and physical environment service quality dimensions. The results of this study propose that place attachment is

an important construct for ski resort managers and marketers in their effort to build up customer loyalty.

The concept place attachment has been used by investigators to try to understand visitor responses to fee programs on public lands. In 2003a, in a study of Kyle and colleagues, the results indicated that only place identity was a statistically significant moderator, this is, the higher the place identity is, the more recreationists are able to spend in the fee program.

Williams and Watson (1998, *cit.* Kyle *et al.,* 2004b) found that place dependent responds were more accepting of fees, whereas place identity was generally associated with negative views of fees. Smaldone and colleagues (2005) used the words "special places" to talk about the emergent importance of planning, always keeping in mind the associated values and the place values to people.

Lots of studies found a positive relation between use frequency and place attachment (Moore & Graefe, 1994; Williams *et al.*, 1992). Bricker and Kerstetter (2000) found that highly specialized individuals rated the place identity dimension as most important, whereas no relationship existed between specialization and place dependence. Instead, place dependence was linked in a positive way to "support for management options" (e.g. development of amenities, trails and extractive uses), whereas place identity held a negative relationship. These studies suggest that recreationists with strong attachments to a place have specific needs when it comes to enjoying their selected leisure experiences.

Alexandris and colleagues (2006) noted that from the definition of the two constructs, it can be argued that building place identity, that has a personal and emotional meaning, is more difficult than building place dependence that is related to the needs satisfied in the place.

Converging trends have led many researchers and writers to conclude that a place is both a personal and a social phenomenon, whereby a place is imbued with meaning by people at both individual and collective levels (Relph, 1976, *cit.* Smaldone *et al.,* 2005). In resume, theoretical and empirical evidence suggest

that place attachment is multidimensional, hard to define, and comprised of a wide range of constructs embodying both setting variables and personal variables (Smaldone *et al.*, 2005). There is evidence that place attachment is a key variable in predicting attitudinal aspects of consumers' behavior in sport and leisure settings (Bricker & Kerstetter, 2000; Kyle *et al.,* 2004a; Kyle *et al.,* 2004b; Moore & Graefe, 1994; Williams *et al.,* 1992).

The concept was most of the times used in recreational and natural settings (for example: Kyle *et al.,* 2003a, 2003b; Kyle *et al.,* 2004a, 2004b, 2004c; Smaldone *et al.,* 2005). Nanzer used it to measure the sense of place for Michigan (2004). But the concept can also fit when it comes to professional team sports.

The place attachment scale

The employment of quantitative measures of place attachment is a recently considered issue. Some specialists, as can be seen by the data presented before, used some questions to try to identify place attachment.

Kyle and colleagues have been working since the beginning of the century, positioning themselves after the work of other researchers. Subsequent to examine the concepts of place dependence and place identity and analyze the studies around place attachment, Kyle and colleagues (2004b) concluded that those concepts were not sufficient. After Jorgensen and Stedman (2001) and Low and Altman (2002), they considered an attitudinal construct consisting of three components: affect, cognition and behavioral intention.

Relatively to the affective dimension, reflecting human's emotional bond with the setting, they found that investigators have demonstrated that the affective component, was more salient in some cases, than the other components (e.g. Kyle *et al*., 2004b; Moore & Graefe, 1994). The second component of place attachment, reflecting place cognition, was operationalized in terms of place identity, this is, the cognitive connection between the self and the setting (consistent with Proshansky, 1978). Finally, the conative (behavioral)

component was undertaken in terms of two dimensions: place dependence, which remains from the former studies presented and social bonding. Several authors have noted the importance of social ties to place (e.g. Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001): neighbors and friends.

The current investigation was designed to further expand the use of the *Place Attachment Scale* by translating the scale into Portuguese and into team sports. The Portuguese language is one of the most spoken in the world and is the official language of several countries across five continents – presently, it is estimated that there are more than 223 million Portuguese speakers in over 12 countries). Portuguese is the official language of emerging powers of continental dimensions, like Brazil and Angola, which together with all other Portuguese-speaking countries hold a special commitment to sport in general, but mainly to soccer – in particular, Brazil is considered one of the greatest world powers of this sport. Portugal has a strong tradition not only in competitive soccer but also as an organizer of major international competitions such as the European Football Championship 2004. Brazil will be organizing the next World Cup in 2012 and Angola will be the venue of the next African Cup of nations. To all those competitions, Stadiums are being built or renewed, and fans get more or less attached to those new or to the older Stadiums. Thus, studies on their attachment to the place where the competition takes place are useful to improve the knowledge in the area of sport consumption or fan behavior.

Hence, the objective of this study is to translate the Place Attachment Scale into Portuguese and to examine the cross-cultural generalizability of the factor structure and psychometric properties underlying responses to the translated scale.

Methods

Participants and data collection

Participants in this study were 161 spectators (113 males, 70.2%, and 48 females, 29.8%) who attended a soccer game between two teams from the top professional league in Portugal (response rate = 95%). Their age ranged from 18 to 70 years, with a mean age of 34.04 years (*SD* = 13.2). The vast majority were employees from the private and state sectors (60.9%), followed by students (18.5%) and self-employed professionals (10.6%); 5% of the participants reported to be unemployed, and 5% were retired individuals. On average, they had attended 5.92 games the previous soccer season. Participants had been attending games for periods of time ranging from 5 to 63 years. The 161 individuals described above participated solely during the reliability and validity steps of the methodology.

With the permission from the soccer club, six skilled research assistants distributed and collected the questionnaires to participants. Participants filled out the forms outside of the stadium before taking their seats at the beginning of the soccer game.

Measures – Place Attachment Scale

The short version of Williams and Vaske's (2003) scale, as adjusted by Kyle and colleagues (2004a), is used to measure Place attachment. Kyle and colleagues (2004a, 2004b) tested this scale and reported good psychometric properties.

The concept of Place attachment was most of the times used in recreational and natural settings (e. g. Kyle *et al.,* 2003a, 2003b; Kyle *et al.,* 2004a, 2004b, 2004c; Smaldone *et al.,* 2005). But Nanzer used it to measure the sense of place for Michigan (2004).

For the first time, in this work, the concept is being used to measure the Place attachment to a stadium, this is, the concept is being brought to the professional team sports context, to measure the allegiance between a fan and the team's soccer stadium. For instance, instead of "The X is the best place for the recreation activities that I enjoy" the questionnaire was adapted to "The X Stadium is the best place to attend soccer games".

18 items divided in four dimensions (Place dependence, Affective attachment, Place identity and Social bonding) constitute the Place Attachment Scale. Place dependence – PD (e.g., "this soccer stadium is the best place to watch X play") is measured with four items; Affective attachment – AA (e.g., "I really enjoy this place") with five items; Place identity – PI (e.g., "this stadium means a lot to me") with five items; and Social bonding – SB (e.g., "the time spent here allows me to bond with my family and friends") with four items. A five-point Likert-type scale (strongly disagree = 1 to strongly agree = 5) was used for all the dimensions.

Results and discussion

To translate the PAS, the seven-step methodology developed by Vallerand (1989) as described in the physical activity domain by Banville and colleagues (2000), was used. According to Vallerand, this methodology is suitable to insure cross-cultural translation and validation of questionnaires developed for a specific culture.

While the first three steps of the methodology refer to the translation of the scale, the next three refer to the validation of the translated version (Theodorakis *et al.,* 2006). The seventh step – establishing norms, was not presently elaborated since it was out of the scope of the study.

Translation of the Place Attachment Scale

Step one is called the back translation technique (Vallerand, 1989). This technique requires the contribution of four bilingual translators. Translators X and Y were two sport scientists, with a PhD in sport sciences who independently translated the PAS from English to Portuguese; after that, translators W and Z, also specialists, translated it back to English.

A comparison of the two translated versions (translator X and Y) revealed differences in seven of the 18 items of the PAS. Following Banville and colleagues (2000), the non-similar items were compared and the translators agreed which translated items to keep. Then, two other sport researchers with similar academic background (translators W and Z) re-translated all 18 items of the PAS back into English.

Despite that almost none of the re-translated items were identical to the original ones, all of them were kept, as their meaning was judged to be similar to the meaning of the original PAS items.

The goal of step two was to compare the re-translated and the original items of PAS, and to prepare a satisfactory final experimental version. To avoid single-person bias, the committee comprised of the four bilingual translators was employed (Banville *et al*. 2000). A final experimental version was defined.

In step three, the final experimental version of PAS was distributed to a sample of 20 people (M_{age} = 30, SD = 4.3), with similar characteristics to those of the target population (Banville *et al.,* 2000) to provide a first feedback on the translated scale. The only characteristic they were demanded to have was to consider themselves fans of some team or club.

Firstly, they were instructed to provide their responses on the Portuguese version of the scale, and secondly to indicate any words or phrases that they did not understand or they thought that required modification. They were also asked to provide their own suggestions. Then, the committee members

reviewed the respondents' comments and made minor modifications to the experimental version, especially in the graphic part.

In this research the final translated scales were also shown to a qualified Portuguese–English teacher, which reviewed the translation in order to ensure the appropriate language and comprehensiveness.

Therefore, the first three steps performed allowed us to have a PAS-p translated correctly.

Reliability and validity of the Portuguese version of the Place Attachment Scale

Step four evaluates the content and concurrent validity of the translated scale.

The committee members, who examined whether each translated item and the corresponding original item were identical in meaning, secured content validity. Further, the concurrent validity of the PAS responses was examined through Pearson's correlations between the original and the translated scales.

To examine the concurrent validity of the translated scale, data from a sample of 36 Portuguese bilingual university students (M_{age} = 22.6, SD = 2.9) were used. In line with Banville and colleagues (2000), a sample of 20 to 30 participants is recommended, but this sample consisted of more people.

Before answering both versions of the scale, the Portuguese participants' ability to understand, read, write and speak English was assessed using a four-item scale developed by Vallerand and Halliwell (1983) and used by Theodorakis and colleagues (2006). All participants, except two (who scored eight and were excluded from this group), scored individually higher than 12 in this scale (maximum 20). Subsequently, they answered both versions of PAS in a classroom setting. Half of the sample completed the Portuguese version first, and the other half, the English version first. One month later they repeated the

process by answering both versions in reverse order. Each individual took around ten minutes to respond to the entire questionnaire.

Pearson's correlation between the original and the translated version revealed high coefficients, indicating high concurrent validity for the translated PAS. Four high correlations were found: Place dependence (.72), Place identity (.81), Affective attachment (.86) and Social bonding (.87), in a total of .91, a high and satisfactory correlation.

In step five the reliability of the translated version of the PAS was evaluated using internal consistency and test-retest reliability. Internal consistency reliability is an indicator of how well the individual items of a scale reflect a common, underlying concept (Spector, 1992, *cit.* Alexandris *et al.,* 1999). The internal consistency was determined through Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951, *cit.* Theodorakis *et al.,* 2006) – coefficient alpha is the statistic most often used to assess the internal consistency (Spector, 1992, *cit.* Alexandris *et al.,* 1999). The Cronbach's alpha value for the translated scale was .75. Test-retest reliability was determined through the intra-class correlation coefficient. A value of .84 indicated satisfactory test-retest reliability.

Finally, the sixth step aims to evaluate the construct validity of the Portuguese version of the PAS (PAS-p). The factor structure and measurement invariance of PAS responses were examined, between the translated and the original versions of the instrument.

To examine the factorial validity of the PAS-p, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed, using the EQS (Bentler, 1995). To test, if all variables were normally distributed, an exploratory data analysis based on the inspection of skewness values and kurtosis values. To assess the fit of CFA models researchers have developed and presented a great number of fit indices. In this study, the fit indices used for model evaluation were: the Sattora-Bentler scaled χ^2 statistic (χ^2), the robust Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). Generally, for CFI values above than .90 indicate an acceptable fit between the observed data and the hypothesized

model (Hu & Bentler, 1995), while values above than .95 indicate an excellent fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). RMSEA values ranging from .06 to .08 declare an adequate fit with .10 to be considered as the upper limit (Byrne, 2000). For the Portuguese version of the PAS-P, results indicated an acceptable fit of the model to the data: S-B χ^2 = 204, 91, df = 113, p < .001, CFI = .901, RMSEA = .071, 90% RMSEA CI = .055 - .086.

Place attachment dimensions

Place bonds vary with individual interaction with the environment or with past experiences and memories. Relatively to place attachment, in this case, stadium attachment, the total score can vary between 18 and 90 points. The total score of place dependence and social bonding (PD and SB) can vary between 4 and 20. The total score of affective attachment and place identity (AA and PI) can vary between 5 and 25.

In this sample of 161 individuals, the minimum range was 37 and the maximum range was 89 (Table 2). Around 75% of the individuals scored higher than 60 points and 50% of the sample scored higher than 70 points, what shows that the sample was highly attached with the stadium, in the several dimensions. This fact can also be seen by the mean value (M = 68.70; SD = 11.51).

Relatively to the several dimensions, the relative higher score was the affective attachment dimension (M = 21.1 in 25 possible points), followed by the place identity (M = 18.7 in 25 possible points) and the social bonding (M = 14.8 in 20 possible points) dimensions. The place dependence dimension scored the lowest relative points (M = 14.1 in 20 possible maximum points).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of PAS and dimensions.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Total score PAS	161	37	89	68.70	11.5
Total score PD	161	8	20	14.1	2.4
Total score SB	161	4	20	14.8	3.8
Total score AA	161	11	25	21.1	3.3
Total score PI	161	5	25	18.7	4.6

Conclusion

The PAS was translated into the PAS-p, validated and it can be used in the future in the Portuguese language and reality. However additional research should be conducted in order to better determine the construct validity into Portuguese. In addition, more research should be performed when it comes to the place attachment to a stadium or a sport facility whereas people go as fans and not as sport participants.

The PAS-p may be employed by sport marketers to determine the attachment fans have to the stadium. This scale can be used to boost the comprehension about sport consumption in Portugal, in general, and about sport fans, in particular. Place identification can be an important variable in sport marketing research, given that it could assist sport marketers to develop various marketing strategies such as Market segmentation, ticket-pricing strategies, sponsorship programs and communication strategies. Future practical research should focus on several activities that can be developed to increase place identity, affective attachment and social bonding: organization of events, involvement of people in the events, involvement of the families in the events, promotion of fun activities, improving service quality. To increase place dependence, there are also some actions that can be performed: asking people what they need in the stadium, ensuring the quality of the existing services and facilities, improving parking places and accessibilities, respecting the needs and desires of the costumers.

The English-speaking countries, as the United States of America, United Kingdom and Australia, are dominant when it comes to scientific research, namely, in sport management and fan consumption behavior. By translating and validating this scale into Portuguese we are contributing to worldwide knowledge about sport fans.

References

Alexandris, K.; Kouthouris, C. & Meligdis, A. (2006). Increasing customers' loyalty in a skiing resort – The contribution of place attachment and service quality. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18 (5): 414-425.

Alexandris, K.; Papadopoulos, P.; Palialia, E. & Vasiliaids, T. (1999). Customer satisfaction: a comparison between public and private sport and fitness clubs in Greece. *Journal for Sport Management*, 6 (1): 40-54.

Banville, D.; Desrosiers, P. & Genet-Volet, Y. (2000). Translating questionnaires and inventories using a cross-cultural translation technique. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 19: 374-387.

Bentler, P. (1995). *EQS Structural Equations Program Manual*. Encino: Multivariate Software, Inc.

Bricker, K. & Kerstetter D. (2000). Level of specialization and place attachment: an exploratory study of whitewater recreationists. *Leisure Sciences*, 22 (4): 233-257.

Byrne, B. (2000). *Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, Applications and Programming.* Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Chelladurai, P.; Turner, B. (2005). Management. *Berkshire Encyclopedia of World Sport*, 3: 954.

Gibson, H. (1998). Sport Tourism: a critical analysis of research. *Sport Management Review*, 1 (1): 45-76.

Gibson, H. (2003). Sport tourism: An introduction to the special issue. *Journal* of *Sport Management*, 17: 205-213.

Hammitt, W.; Backlund, E. & Bixler, R. (2006). Place bonding for recreation places: conceptual and empirical development. *Leisure studies*, 25 (1): 17-41.

Hidalgo, M. & Hernández, B. (2001). Place attachment: conceptual and empirical questions. *Journal of environmental Psychology,* 21: 273-281.

Higham**,** J. & Hinch, T. **(**2003). Sport, space, and time: effects of the Otago Highlanders franchise on tourism. *Journal of Sport Management*: 17 (3): 235-257.

Hinch, T. & Higham, J. (2001) Sport Tourism: A Framework for Research. *The International Journal of Tourism Research*, 3 (1): 45-58.

Hu, L. & Bentler, P. (1995). Evaluating model fit. In: R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), Structural Equation Modeling: concepts, issues and applications. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hu, L. & Bentler, P. (1999). Cut off criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. Structural Equation Modeling, 6: 1-55.

Kyle, G.; Absher, J. & Graefe, A. (2003a). The moderating Role of Place Attachment on the Relationship Between Attitudes Toward Fees and Spending Preferences. *Leisure Sciences*, 25: 33-50.

Kyle, G.; Bricker, K.; Graefe, A. & Wickham, T. (2004a). An Examination of Recreationists' Relationship with Activities and Settings. *Leisure Sciences*, 26: 123-142.

Kyle, G.; Graefe, A.; Manning, R. & Bacon, J. (2003b). An Examination of the relationship between leisure activity involvement and place attachment among hikers along the Appalachian Trail. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 35 (3): 249-273.

Kyle, G.; Graefe, A.; Manning, R. & Bacon, J. (2004b). Effect of activity involvement and place attachment on recreationists' perceptions of setting density. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 36: 209-231.

Kyle, G.; Mowen, A. & Tarrant, M. (2004c). Linking place preferences with place meaning: An examination of the relationship between place motivation and place attachment. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 24: 439-454.

Moore, R. & Graefe, A. (1994). Attachments to recreation settings: the case of rail-trail users. *Leisure Sciences*, 16 (1): 17-31.

Moore, R. & Scott, D. (2003). Place attachment and context: comparing a park and a trail within. *Forest Science*, 49 (6): 877-884.

Nanzer, B. (2004). Measuring sense of place: a scale for Michigan. *Administrative Theory & Praxis*, 26 (3): 362-382.

Schreyer, R. & White, R. (1981). Nontraditional uses of the national parks. *Leisure Sciences*, 4 (3): 325-341.

Smaldone, D.; Harris, C.; Sanyal, N. & Lind, D. (2005). Place attachment and Management of Critical Park issues in Grand Teton National Park. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 23 (1): 90-114.

Theodorakis, N.; Vlachopoulos, S.; Wann, D.; Afthinos, Y. & Nassis, P. (2006). Measuring Team Identification: Translation and Cross-cultural Validity of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale. *International Journal of Sport Management*, 7 (4): 506-522.

Vallerand, R. J. (1989). Vers une mèthodologie de validation trans-culturelle de questionnaires psychologiques: Implications pour la reserche en langue française. *Psychologie Canadienne*, 30: 662-680.

Warzecha, C. & Lime, D. (2001). Place attachment in Canyon lands National Park: Visitors' assessment of setting attributes on the Colorado and Green Rivers. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 19 (1): 59-78.

Williams, D. & Vaske, J. (2003). The measurement of attachment: validity and generalizability of a Psychometric approach. *Forest Science*, 49 (6): 830-840.

Williams, D.; Patterson, M.; Roggenbuck, J. & Watson, A. (1992). Beyond the commodity metaphor: Examining emotional and symbolic attachment to place. *Leisure Sciences*, 14: 29-46.

What brings youngsters into the stadium? Sociopsychological predictors of soccer attendance among Belgian and Portuguese young fans

Author(s)   de Carvalho, M. [1,2], Boen, F. [3], Sarmento, J. P. [2], & Scheerder, J. [1]

Affiliation   [1] Policy in Sports & Physical Activity Research Group, Department of Kinesiology, University of Leuven, Belgium

[2] Sport Management Department, CIFI^{2}D, Faculty of Sport, University of Porto, Portugal

[3] Physical Activity, Sports & Health Research Group, Department of Kinesiology, University of Leuven, Belgium

Data   Study 2

Status   Submitted for publication

Abstract

While in some countries across Europe soccer games attract full stadiums on a regular basis, in other countries, such as Portugal, the stadiums reveal many empty seats in big up-to-date facilities. On the other hand, in Belgium, the construction of bigger stadiums is being planned to substitute the current out-dated facilities. In both cases, it is important to understand why people, and specifically the young fans, attend or do not attend games. Therefore, the main objective of this research is to find out what takes Belgian and Portuguese youngsters into the soccer stadium. We performed a fandom related survey to 16-19 years old fans, more specifically 173 Belgian (81.5% male) and 188 Portuguese (50.5% male) high school students. We analysed data employing structural equation modelling in AMOS. Lifestyle, defined as a set of patterns, distinct from others, based on values, attitudes, and orientations, emerged as the strongest predictor of soccer attendance for youngsters. Team identification was also a significant predictor for Belgian young fans. Marketing implications of these findings are discussed.

Keywords

Introduction

Can someone imagine a Real Madrid vs. Barcelona or a Chelsea vs. Manchester United with empty stands? Hardly, we would say. The soccer industry is almost inseparable from the spectators that fill the stadium with colourful shirts and chants. Still, while some countries across Europe, such as Germany, Spain, England, or the Netherlands, have full stadiums during the regular professional league soccer games, others have to deal with empty seats.

Portugal is one of the countries facing this problem of absence of spectators and empty stadiums [8]. Several stadiums were built or rebuilt for the European Championship of 2004, and, for that reason, the facilities are modern and big. Nevertheless, despite the tradition in soccer, both at the organisational and the competitive level, the occupation rate of the Portuguese stadiums is only 40% [5]. The stadiums of Algarve, Aveiro, and Leiria, are examples of so-called 'white elephants', i.e., empty stadiums that fight to keep running due to the lack of use [14]. This situation constitutes a financial problem for the local clubs, for the cities, and for the country in general. By contrast, in Belgium the stadiums are old and rather small. However, Steven Martens, the General Secretary of the Royal Belgian Football Association, recently stated '(…) our long-term goals include an increase of the number of football fans (…). This is only possible if we have modern stadiums that can assure a good hospitality for the fans. Therefore, we would like to establish five brand new stadium cases' [23]. Regardless of these contextual differences, Belgium and Portugal are in a similar situation when it comes to the number of inhabitants (around 11 million) and to the number of spectators who attend soccer games (around 10,000 spectators/game) [30]. The possibility to collect data from Belgium and Portugal within the same research design was a good opportunity to include two different soccer attendance cultures.

Hence, the main objective of this paper is to identify predictors of soccer attendance on 16-19 year old youngsters in Belgium and in Portugal. The reasons why we chose for youngsters are explained next. The potential of the

youth consumer has been acknowledged by the sport industry, e.g., by the largest sporting goods companies [36]. Teens are important target groups for marketeers because they are considered to be trendsetters, because they influence their parents' spending, and because they are a future market [18, 50]. In Western societies youngsters have substantial amounts of money to spend on their needs and wants, which qualify them as an important primary market [26]. Besides, they develop brand loyalty at an early age, and those positive attitudes toward brands last into adulthood [26]. However, previous research on sport attendance has not paid attention to this target group, making it a gap on the literature. The main focus so far was on adult fans and university students. In this research we want to understand if young fans have the same motives as adult fans to attend soccer games. A better understanding of the young sport consumers and their motives to go into the stadium, can help to build a more complete framework about the sport consumers. It can also provide evidence for sport marketeers and for the clubs to find the best strategies to market their core product, i.e. the game itself and their supplementary services, with the specific target constituted by the youngsters.

Theoretical framework

The value that fans create at the stadium is undeniable, either for the show they help to perform, or for the influence they have in the decisions of the stakeholders. Not only the revenues from tickets, merchandising, food, and drinks are dependent on the number of spectators during the games, but also the sponsorships, advertising partners, and media rights are related to it [10]. Clubs could not survive without their fans, nor without their spectators. While a fan is an enthusiastic devote of a team, an athlete, or a sport, [21] it does not mean that he / she attends games on a regular basis. Which are the motives that take fans into the stadium, and turn them into live spectators as well?

Based on several studies, [20, 28, 32, 33, 39] de Carvalho and colleagues categorised the factors influencing attendance in professional team sports in four clusters,

from the perspective of the fan [11]. Their model includes (1) demographics; (2) *fanographics* – features relative to the person as a fan, such as interest in soccer, or age at which they became a fan; (3) external factors – factors related with the supply, i.e., sportscape or physical environment, game related, marketing actions of the club, and economical issues; these factors are similar to the ones proposed by Smith and Stewart [33]; and (4) sociopsychological factors – were not included in previous categorisations and include the sociopsychological motives for attendance, team identification (TI) and place attachment to the stadium. Although all these factors are important, in this paper we give emphasis to the sociopsychological motives, with a specific focus on social interaction, and to the relationship of social interaction with TI, specifically among youngsters.

Sociopsychological motives

Numerous authors have examined sociopsychological motives influencing sport consumption and attendance in particular [17, 24, 39, 45]. These motives can be studied through several different instruments, e.g., the Sport Fan Motivation Scale, [45, 46] the Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption, [39] or the Sporting Event Experience Search Scale [6]. Nevertheless, as Wann mentioned, the differences between scales are often semantic [46]. Recently, Funk and colleagues provided a parsimonious measuring tool to explain sport events attendance [16]. The SportWay or SPEED (acronym of socialisation, performance, excitement, esteem, and diversion) demonstrated the ability to explain 75% of the variance in team commitment.

Social interaction (SI), also named socialisation by some authors, [16] has been included in all the models presented. SI is the desire for contact with spectators, participants, friends, and family [16]. Sport is mostly consumed in the presence of others (less than 2% of people attend games on their own), and marketeers may remember that the sport product creates social facilitation [28]. Weed showed that watching significant sport events remotely, but in the presence of

others, could produce just as much delight or disappointing as actual attendance [47]. The author focused on people attending soccer games at the pub. He suggested that the need for proximity was not for proximity to the event, but to others partaking in the experience of watching the event, enhancing in this way the social aspect of spectatorship. However, Melnick stated that live sport spectating has developed into a major urban organisation where people come together to enrich their sociopsychological lives through the relationships accessible [27]. Even though other sociopsychological motives might be important for the sport attendance, social interaction is gaining place in a modern society full of urbanisation, individualism, interpersonal competition, technology, and geographical mobility, and where people, namely the young people, have difficulties to find social ties. Sport attendance might be a way for young people to find these social ties. In this way, we propose that *SI is positively related to attendance* (Hypothesis 1).

Team identification (TI)

TI refers to the extent to which a fan feels psychologically connected to a team, is involved and invested in the team, and sees the team as an extension of the self; it is a particular instance of social identification, [42, 43] which is a concept from the social identity theory [41]. Identification with a certain team corresponds to the concept of in-group identification [40]. In-group identification is the part of social identity related to the degree to which the in-group is included in the self. In fact, an individual forms a relationship with the group in order to maintain his or her self-definition, and, consequently, behaves in accordance with group norms and expectations. In this manner, a member who is identified with the group behaves in order to show his / her loyalty. Group membership and the adoption of an identity based on group membership are really important to take into account in the sport context [15]. In this context, attendance is one instantiation of group loyalty. Thus, a soccer fan shows this behavioural loyalty to the group by, for instance, attending games [2]. Accordingly, TI was shown to predict attendance in adults [22, 42, 49]. During adolescence, the peer influence

151

within the group is even stronger as groups are chosen on the basis of existing similarities, but also seem to foster resemblance in behaviour and attitudes, once the relationship has been established [37]. Hence, we predict that also among young fans, *TI is positively related to attendance* (Hypothesis 2)*.*

When a fan identifies with the team, and moreover largely enjoys being at the stadium because of the SI with other people, such as family, friends and other fans, the gathering of both instances might accelerate the attendance numbers. We predict that for youngsters with a strong TI, the relationship between SI and attendance will be maximised. Therefore, we hypothesise that *the interaction between TI and SI is positively related to attendance* (Hypothesis 3).

Material and methods

Sampling and data collection

Two similar university cities with respectively 97,000 (Aveiro, Portugal), and 78,000 inhabitants (Leuven, Belgium) were selected for the data collection. One medium level soccer club played in the first league in each city, namely Sport Club Beira-Mar, and Oud-Heverlee Leuven. Six secondary schools from Aveiro and five secondary schools from Leuven participated in this research with some classes of different levels and study areas. Individuals were addressed at their classroom, with the presence of their teacher, with a brief explanation about the content of the study.

The students filled out a twenty minutes survey, and as an extra motivation to do it properly, a lottery of a prize was carried out across the schools. This sample was not representative of the overall population, it was a convenience sample instead, because only some selected classes filled out the survey. However, because the entire classes had to do it, we could collect data from a varied range of youngsters (different financial status, different interest in soccer,

different number of games attended, etc.). The surveys have been completed during March and April 2012.

We collected data from fans (people who mentioned that they were fans of a specific club) and from non-fans (not a fan of any specific club). From the Belgian students, 62% were non-fans, whereas among the Portuguese students, 13% were non-fans. However, in the present study we want to focus on fans only, and on their relationship with their club. Therefore, we kept the 38% of Belgian youngsters and the 87% of Portuguese youngsters who were fans. The final sample consisted of 361 fans, including students from the last two years of secondary school from Aveiro (n_{PT} = 188) and from Leuven (n_{BE} = 173). Among these students, 32% were female (n = 113; n_{PT} = 88; n_{BE} = 25), and 68% were male (n = 236; n_{PT} = 95; n_{BE} = 141). Portuguese respondents were only slightly older than their Belgian counterparts ($x_{age\ PT}$ = 17.74±1.43; $x_{age\ BE}$ = 17.43±0.95, t(319) = 2.40, p<.05).

Instrument

After the implementation of a pilot study, [11] the final version of the survey was completed both in Dutch and in Portuguese including (i) a part on sociodemographic items (age, sex with Female = 0 and Male = 1, origin with Portugal = 0 and Belgium = 1, financial status measured in a scale from 1 = *really difficult to live at home*, to 5 = *really easy to live at home*, education, favourite sport(s) to attend and to practice, and active sports participation); and (ii) a part on the person as a fan (or not), with questions about their soccer consumption habits, i.e. interest in soccer measured in a scale from 1 = *not interested at all*, to 5 = *very much interested*, attendance (number of games attended during the season), favourite professional soccer club, since what age they were fans, who were their socialisation agents in order to become a fan, [7] the sociopsychological motives scale, and the sport spectator identification scale.

Sociopsychological motives scale (SMS)

The items regarding the sociopsychological motives were collected from the work of several authors, as shown before; all the items of the SMS are presented in Table 1. After an in-depth analysis of different scales and with the support of the pilot study we maintained items related to interaction with other fans (two items), family (two items), friends (two items), vicarious achievement (two items), escape (two items), tradition (two items), entertainment (two items), and team (one item). The options ranged from 1 = *totally disagree*, to 5 = *totally agree*.

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted for the total sample on the 18 items of the SMS with oblimin rotation (Table 1). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was .92. Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi^2(153) = 3242.67$, p<.001, indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for EFA. An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. After analysis of the scree plot and eigenvalues together, three factors were retained explaining 62% of the total variance. The content of the items that loaded highly on Factor 1 suggest that it represents Enjoyment (e.g., 'A soccer game at the stadium is a good entertainment for me', or 'I enjoy being with friends at the stadium'). Enjoyment refers to the fun that the person has with the activity [31]. The items loading on this factor represent this joy and pleasure of being at the event itself. Factor 2 represents Lifestyle. Lifestyle is a set of patterns, distinct from others, based on values, attitudes, and orientations, and the items loading on this factor relate to the way of life, and the traditions of the individual and of the people surrounding him/her (e.g., 'It is a tradition to attend SG at the stadium in my family', or 'Attending SG at the stadium is part of my lifestyle') [35]. Finally, Factor 3 represents Vicarious Emotions, i.e., feeling together or in harmony with the team (e.g., 'I get a success feeling when the team I'm supporting wins') [1]. The SMS factors showed a good reliability (α ≥ .79). Factors 1 and 2 include items related to social interaction. In fact, the totality of items loading on Factor 2 is related to social interaction. Because we want to investigate social interaction, we use both dimensions in our model.

154

Table 1. Factor loadings for exploratory factor analysis with oblimin rotation of the SMS (n = 361)

Items	Factor Enjoyment	Lifestyle	Vicarious Emotions
13 – A SG at the stadium is a good entertainment for me	.882		
5 – I enjoy being with friends at the stadium	.728		
15 – I feel relaxed when I attend a SG at the stadium	.715		
12 – I like following rituals at the SG	.674		
6 – I enjoy being with other fans and part of the crowd at the stadium, I feel like I belong to a group or tribe	.615		
16 – I feel that I can let go my emotions when I attend a SG at the stadium	.604		.327
14 – I feel that I can escape from reality when I attend a SG at the stadium	.501		.315
2 – It is a tradition to attend SG at the stadium in my family		.849	
1 – Attending SG at the stadium is part of my lifestyle		.665	
3 – It is a tradition to attend SG at the stadium in my group of friends		.611	
7 – It is important meeting/networking with people that can help me in my professional life at the stadium		.592	
18 – I like to celebrate special occasions (birthdays, holidays or others) attending a SG at the stadium		.534	
4 – I enjoy being with family at the stadium		.457	
9 – I get a failure feeling when the team I'm supporting looses			.676
8 – I get a success feeling when the team I'm supporting wins			.664
17 – I feel that a SG can be too exciting or stressing			.638
10 – I enjoy guessing the plays that are going to happen next during the SG			.408
11 – My presence is important either economically or sentimentally			.316
Number of items	7	6	5
Eigenvalues	8.28	1.52	1.35
% of variance	46.01	8.44	7.50
α	.91	.85	.79

Note. Factor loadings <.30 were suppressed to assist the screening; SG = soccer game(s)

Sport spectator identification scale (SSIS)

The SSIS was used to assess levels of TI among the soccer fans [38, 42, 43]. The options ranged from 1 = *low identification,* to 7 = *high identification*. An EFA was conducted on the 7 items of the SSIS with oblimin rotation. The KMO measure confirmed the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .91. Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi^2(21)$ = 1499.07, p<.001, indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for EFA. An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. One factor had an eigenvalue over Kaiser's criterion of one and explained 64% of the variance. The SSIS with seven final items (e.g., 'How strongly do you see yourself as a fan of the team?') showed an excellent reliability (α = .90).

Data analysis

We conducted descriptive analyses using SPSS 21.0, and multivariate analyses using AMOS 21.0. For the multivariate analysis, AMOS requires a listwise deletion. Thus, a sample with no missing values was analysed (n = 223; n_{PT} = 133; n_{BE} = 90). We performed curve estimation for all the relationships in our model, and determined that all relationships were sufficiently linear to be tested using a co-variance based structural equation modelling algorithm used in AMOS.

Multicollinearity diagnosis and confirmatory factor analysis

To confirm the EFA, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the measures included in this research, i.e., the SSIS, and the factors of the SMS that included the concept of social interaction items, i.e., Enjoyment, and Lifestyle. The CFA measurement model displayed in Figure 1 represented a good fit. We declined four items with loadings below .60. Based on the modification indices proposed to improve the model, we allowed some error terms to co-vary. The absolute fit measures goodness-of-fit index (GFI = .91), standardised root mean square residual (SRMR = 0.05), and root mean square

error of approximation (RMSEA = 0.06, p>.05) indicated moderate and good fit respectively [19]. The chi-square test statistic (χ^2 = 186.7, df = 98, χ^2/df = 1.9) was good, but significant (p<.001); this was likely inflated by the size of the calibration sample [25]. The incremental fit measure adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI = .88) and the parsimonious fit measure comparative fit index (CFI = .96) indicated great fit [19]. We tested the invariance between groups (Belgian and Portuguese sample) and the model showed invariance. We also tested for common method bias, employing the unmeasured latent factor method, [29] and we concluded that this was not a serious concern, as there was less than 50% of common variance between factors.

Figure 1. Measurement model illustrating the relationship among the three latent variables tested using CFA.
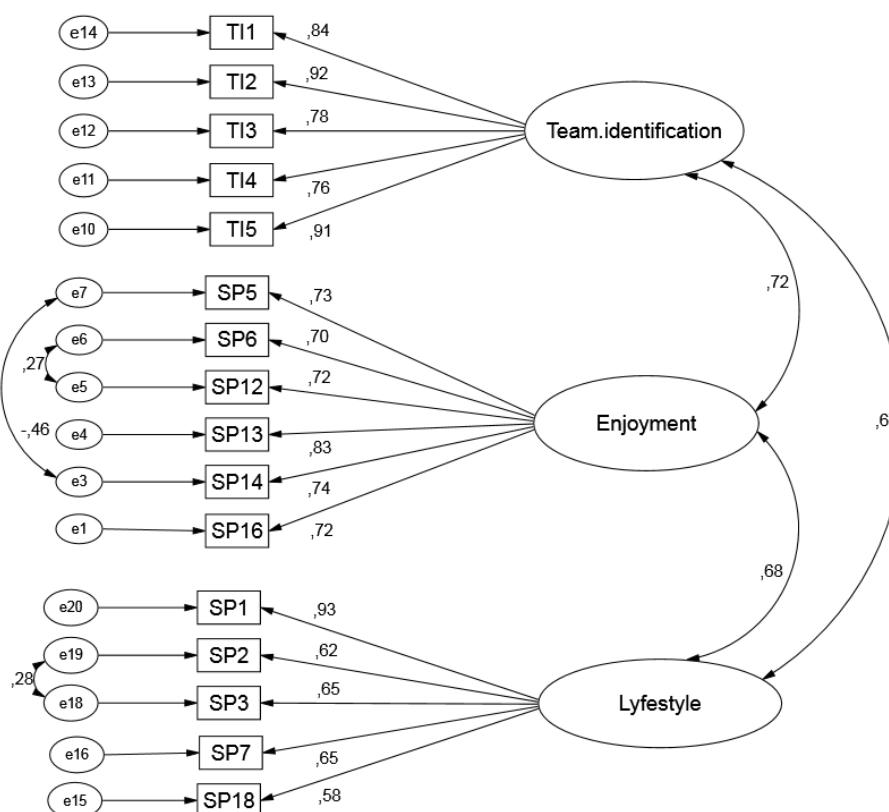
Table 2 shows the means and standard deviations of the main constructs of this research, i.e., SSIS, Enjoyment and Lifestyle. In the same table we see that the measurement model presented convergent and discriminant validity as well. The average variance extracted (AVE), the maximum shared variance (MSV), and the average shared variance (ASV), were good. The composite reliability (CR) of each scale was above .7 and CR > AVE. The correlations among the scales were statistically significant and moderate (r ≤ .72, p<.001). The magnitude of the correlations demonstrated that it was feasible to test a theoretically based structural model.

Table 2. Factor correlation matrix, convergent and discriminant validity, means, and standard deviations for scores of the latent variables TI, Enjoyment and Lifestyle (n = 223)

Measure	TI	Enjoyment	Lifestyle	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	M	SD
Team identification (SSIS)	.84	-	-	.92	.71	.51	.48	5.07	1.43
Enjoyment (SMS Factor 1)	.72***	0.72	-	.88	.55	.51	.49	3.45	0.98
Lifestyle (SMS Factor 2)	.66***	0.68***	0.70	.82	.49	.46	.45	2.38	0.95

Note: SSIS = Sport Spectator Identification Scale (7-point scales); SMS = Sociopsychological Motives Scale (5-point scales); CR = Composite reliability; AVE = Average variance extracted, with square root of the AVE on the diagonal; MSV = Maximum shared variance; ASV = Average shared variance
***p<.001

Model specification and modification

The structural model consisted of the previously hypothesised relationships. The structural model included paths from TI, Enjoyment and Lifestyle to attendance (Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2). We specifically tested the interactions of TI with Enjoyment and of TI with Lifestyle (Hypothesis 3). We also included paths to attendance from several control variables such as age, sex, financial situation, and time to stadium. Finally, we performed multigroup moderation in order to find differences between the Belgian and the Portuguese samples. We performed model modifications by eliminating a single path with a

non-significant t-value at a time, and then re-estimating the model. We removed paths with non-significant t-values because no substantive meaningful interpretation can be delivered for the parameter estimates.

Results

Table 3 shows the results for the entire sample, including comparisons between the Belgian and the Portuguese sample. As we can see in the table, respondents in the Belgian sample showed a stronger financial status, and a stronger interest in soccer. Moreover, Belgian students were three times more likely to attend games than the Portuguese students. Portuguese students became fans at a younger age, and they were significantly more influenced by a family member to become a fan than the Belgian participants (χ^2(1) = 115.54, p<.001). Portuguese students also lived further from the stadium of their club. We found that 86% of the fans followed the clubs Sport Lisboa e Benfica, Futebol Clube do Porto, or Sporting Clube de Portugal. Only 7% of the Portuguese fans were fans of Sport Clube Beira-Mar, the local club. In the Belgian sample, it was also found that Sporting Anderlecht and Club Brugge attracted 45% of the fans, but Oud-Heverlee Leuven, the local club, still attracted 29% of the Belgian fans.

Structural equation modelling

The final structural model presented in Figure 2 represented an enough good fit to the data. The absolute fit measures GFI = 0.96, SRMR = 0.085, presented a good fit, and the RMSEA = 0.09 (p = .02), presented a moderate fit [19]. The chi-square test statistic (χ^2 = 37.49, df = 13, χ^2/df = 2.88) was significant (p<.001); this was likely inflated by the size of the calibration sample (n = 223) [25]. The incremental fit measure AGFI = 0.89, and the parsimonious fit measure CFI = 0.97 presented a good fit [19].

Table 3. Summary of descriptive statistics about the fans (total sample, Belgium Vs. Portugal)

	Total M (SD) (n = 223)	Belgium M (SD) (n = 90)	Portugal M (SD) (n = 133)	
Financial situation	3.50 (0.86)	3.90 (0.82)	3.23 (0.78)	t(221) = -6.22 ***
Interest in soccer	3.97 (1.18)	4.31 (0.98)	3.74 (1.25)	t(216) = -3.79 ***
Attendance (n. º games attended/season)	4.70 (6.59)	7.37 (8.33)	2.89 (4.25)	t(121) = -4.70 ***
Time to stadium of their team (hours)	2:15 (1:34)	1:16 (0:41)	2:55 (1:39)	t(191) = 10.13 ***
Age they became a fan	7.52 (3.85)	9.54 (3.93)	6.14 (3.13)	t(162)= -6.86 ***
Team identification (SSIS)	5.07 (1.43)	4.96 (1.30)	5.14 (1.51)	t(209) = 0.93
Enjoyment (SMS Factor 1)	3.45 (0.98)	3.47 (0.92)	3.44 (1.02)	t(221) = -0.23
Lifestyle (SMS Factor 2)	2.38 (0.95)	2.40 (0.91)	2.37 (0.97)	t(221) = -2.61
Vicarious Emotions (SMS Factor 3)	3.32 (0.89)	3.06 (0.85)	3.50 (0.87)	t(221) = 3.70 ***

Note. SSIS = Sport Spectator Identification Scale (7-point scales); SMS = Sociopsychological Motives Scale (5-point scales); *** p < .001, two-tailed.

Figure 2. Results of the structural model with the regression standardised coefficients (β). To improve the clarity of the figure, the items are not included, and significant relationships are presented in bold (p≤.001). e = disturbance term.
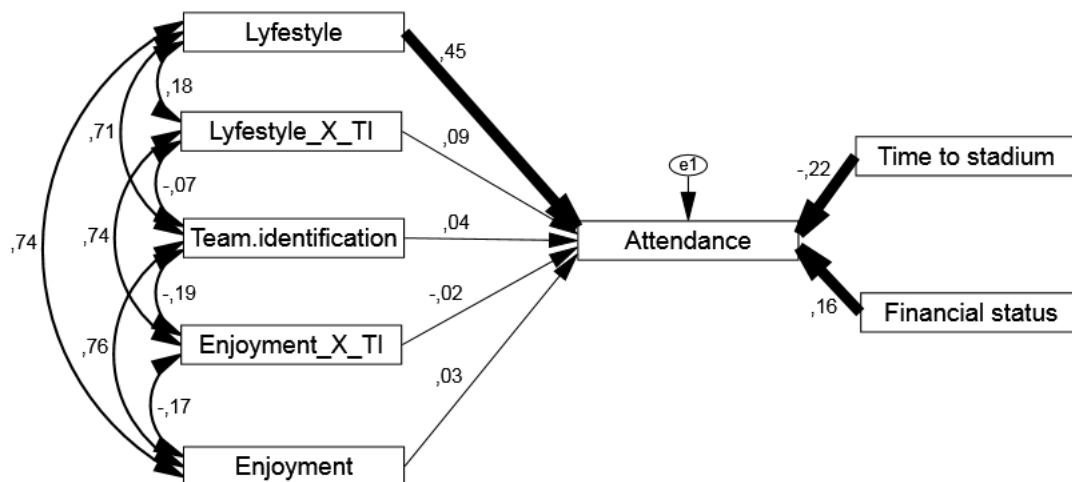
Lifestyle positively predicted attendance confirming Hypothesis 1. There was no significant relationship between attendance and TI, or between attendance and Enjoyment. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 could not be confirmed.

The control variables time to stadium, and financial status were related to attendance. The variable time to stadium showed a negative relationship with attendance. The variable financial status presented a positive relationship with attendance. From our findings it was clear that sex and age were not predictors of attendance for youngsters.

We tested both the interaction of TI with Lifestyle and the interaction of TI with Enjoyment. None of the interactions was a significant predictor of attendance. TI was not found to be a positive moderator in the relationship between Lifestyle and attendance, or between Enjoyment and attendance. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was not confirmed.

The model explained 34% of the variance in attendance, with Lifestyle explaining the biggest part of this variance. In this manner, the more games youngsters attended, the higher they scored on the Lifestyle motive, the closer they lived to the stadium, and the higher their financial status was.

To investigate the differences between the Belgian sample and the Portuguese sample, we tested multigroup moderation. We found several differences between the Belgian sample and the Portuguese sample. There was a significant difference ($p < .05$) on the relationship between TI and attendance. While the relationship between TI and attendance is positive in the Belgian sample ($\beta = .32$, $p<.05$), in the Portuguese sample is negative and non-significant ($\beta = -.16$, $p>.05$).

The control variable time to stadium also presented a significant difference ($p < .05$) between countries. While for the Belgian sample, the relationship between time to stadium and attendance was negative ($\beta = -.20$, $p<.05$), for the Portuguese sample, there was no significant relationship between time to stadium and attendance ($\beta = .13$, $p>.05$). Relatively to the financial status, there was a significant difference between countries as well. For the Belgian sample,

the relationship between financial status and attendance was positive (β = .18, p<.05), for the Portuguese sample there was no significant relationship.

Discussion

First, we present the discussion about the comparison between the sample from Belgium and the sample from Portugal, including the multigroup moderation. Second, we present the discussion of the structural model for the total sample.

Although the sample is not representative of the general population, in both countries data was collected in the same way, as we described before. We found a difference between the financial status of the Belgian and of the Portuguese fans. This result is in consonance with the current economic situation in Europe, where inhabitants from countries such as Portugal, and others in Southern Europe, face economic problems.

The interest in soccer varies according to the origin of the youngsters, with fans from Belgium being more interested in soccer than the ones from Portugal. There is a general cultural engagement of Portuguese people with soccer [8]. This means that in Portugal almost everyone is a fan of a club, even when they are not specifically interested in soccer. Accordingly, almost all respondents in the Portuguese sample were fans (87%), whereas only around one third of the Belgian students were fans (38%). The interest of the Portuguese overall participants, i.e., fans and non-fans, is more homogeneous, whereas the Belgian sample shows a huge gap between the ones that were involved with a club as fans and the ones that were not. This may indicate that the Portuguese people are, in general, fans of a club whether they are interested in soccer or not, but the Belgian people who are really into fandom are more interested in the sport itself. In Portugal, soccer belongs to the identity of the people, and it is omnipresent in society [8]. For instance, there are three daily sport newspapers, and several daily television debates and shows about soccer during the entire week. For Belgian people, cycling takes a similar central place in their national sport identity [12].

Portuguese fans live further from their home stadium than the Belgian fans. This difference is in harmony with the results showing that Portuguese people are fans of one of the three big clubs, regardless the place where they live. These three clubs are so hegemonic in the country that children learn to distinguish between red (SL Benfica), blue (FC Porto) and green (Sporting CP) referring to the colours of these clubs [8]. Only 7% of the Portuguese fans are fans of Beira-Mar, the local club. This finding also confirms that Portuguese people are fans of a so-called big club firstly, and only second one is a fan of a local club [13]. In the Belgian sample, Anderlecht and Club Brugge attract a lot of fans, but Oud-Heverlee Leuven still attracts one third of the Belgian fans, showing that the connection with the local club is stronger.

The average number of games attended by the Belgian fans is also much higher. Since Portuguese fans live further from the stadium of their club, it might be more difficult for them to reach the stadium, physically, and therefore they are going significantly less to the games. The financial situation of the respondents might also contribute to their absence from the stadium. In the Portuguese culture, soccer is commonly considered as a religion [9]. Resembling other religions, Portuguese people proclaim their passion for their clubs but do not practice what they preach, given that paradoxically the attendance numbers are really low [8].

In addition, Portuguese fans are fans of the club since a younger age than it is the case for Belgian fans. This finding can also be related to the fact that the Portuguese fans are significantly more influenced by a family member to become a fan than the Belgian ones.

Relatively to the multigroup moderation, we identify that there are some differences between groups, when it comes to predicting attendance. Differently to what the SEM shows to the Belgian and the Portuguese fans together, TI is positively related to attendance for the Belgian fans. This result partially confirms Hypothesis 2 and it is in accordance with previous research [22, 42, 49]. For the Belgian fans financial status positively predicts attendance, and time to stadium negatively predicts attendance. For the Portuguese fans, there are no

unique predictors of attendance. This lack of relationship between number of games attended and other factors such as team identification, time to stadium or financial status, might be related to the fact that attendance presents a small variability in the Portuguese sample.

Lifestyle can be considered the strongest predictor of attendance, both for young Belgian and Portuguese fans. This relationship is much stronger than the relationship of TI with attendance for both subsamples. This may mean that for young people, the decision to attend a soccer game or not is less related with TI, and much more related, e.g., with tradition within the family and within the group of friends, and the kind of life stage. Within sports research, the concept of lifestyle has been previously related to the practice of extreme sports, such as windsurfing, skateboarding or rock climbing [48]. In the present study, we define lifestyle from a sociological perspective, more specifically as a distinctive mode of living, with routines and tangible behaviour patterns, [34] such as sports attendance. We found that the number of games attended is higher when the lifestyle enclave in which the youngster is involved, includes the game attendance behaviour. The lifestyle enclave is formed by people who share some features of private life, patterns of appearance, and consumption and leisure activities [4]. In the youngsters' life, this enclave is, still mainly constituted by the parents. Therefore, at this age, the parents still primarily influence consumption, as has been described in research on consumer behaviour [3].

The interaction between TI and Lifestyle or between TI and Enjoyment do not represent significant relationships with attendance. This might be related with the fact that neither TI nor Enjoyment are significant predictors of attendance, as the only clear predictor of attendance was Lifestyle.

Conclusions

In the present study, we wanted to test whether the findings from previous research on sport attendance of adults could be replicated among youngsters. We did not find previous research about sport attendance conducted specifically

with youngsters, and this paper improves this field of knowledge in that sense. Moreover, we found that the motives for youngsters to attend soccer games are different from the ones previously found for adults. As a summary of the major findings of this research, we can conclude that for young Belgian and Portuguese fans, Lifestyle is the strongest predictor of attendance, and not TI, as previous research showed among adults. The distance to the home stadium is negatively related to attendance. The model explained 34% of the variance in attendance, with Lifestyle explaining the biggest part if this variance.

One added value of this research is that we reach attendants and non-attendants by means of the educational system, instead of asking people who are attending at the stadium. In this manner, it is possible to understand the factors influencing attendance for both spectators and non-spectators. Also the fact that we collected data from two countries allows us to ascertain an interesting international perspective.

Limitations and future research

The current study includes a convenience sample of high school students, limiting its generalisability. The fact that the sample consists of young people involves that variables related to age (such as age itself, age at which they became a fan, and the number of years as a fan) have a smaller amount of variability than it would happen with a larger sample including other age groups. Also the fact that Portuguese youngsters do not attend games on a regular basis, limits the establishment of some relationships.

In this research, we focused on consumer behaviour related to soccer clubs, such as motives to attend games. However, in addition to being a fan of their club, or sometimes, even when they are not following a particular club, people support the national team. From our perspective, it would be interesting to understand what moves fans towards the national team games. The motives of these national team fans might be totally different and from a sociological perspective, it would be noteworthy to understand them.

Marketing implications

Lifestyle is a major predictor of attendance in professional soccer both for Belgian and Portuguese young fans. Clubs should put emphasis on family activities, group promotions, special offers, and social activities with the friends, or for instance the school. To maintain and build attendance, opportunities for attendees to socialise with others before and during the game should be provided. For instance, youngsters like to celebrate special occasions, such as their birthday, at the stadium (Table 1). Therefore, clubs could present special packages, including the ticket for the game and other special features, such as a small present or a special activity with the team, if the person decides to spend a special occasion at the stadium.

The distance fans live from the stadium, in general, and specially in Belgium, is negatively related with attendance. This is an expected result, but marketeers cannot mistreat that fact. For fans living further from the stadium, the total price of the game is not only the price of the ticket itself, but the price of the food and of the travel, as well [11]. Besides, the time people have to spend to reach the stadium can also demotivate youngsters to attend a soccer game, or they can even be forbidden by their parents to go so far, and eventually they must choose for another entertainment activity. Special prices and special transportation should be provided, and for certain games a 'youngsters bus' could be a great investment on the future loyalty of the future consumers.

References

1. Batson D, Fultz J, Schoenrade P (1987). Distress and empathy: two qualitatively distinct vicarious emotions with different motivational consequences. *J Pers 55*(1):20-39

2. Bauer H, Sauer N, Stefanie Exler S (2005). The loyalty of german soccer fans: does a team's brand image matter? *Int J Sport Mark Sponsor 7*(1):14-22

3. Belch G, Belch M, Ceresino G (1985). Parental and teenage child influences in family decision-making. *J Bus 13*:163-176

4. Bellah R, Madsen R, Sullivan W, Swidler A, Tipton S (2007). *Habits of Heart. Individualism and Commitment in American Life.* Berkeley:University of California Press

5. Bolas N (2012). Estudos e rankings Europa – Espectadores vs Receitas e população. Retrieved from *Futebolfinance* http://www.futebolfinance.com/europa-espectadores-vs-receitas-e-populacao (December)

6. Bouchet P, Bodet G, Bernache-Assollant I, Kada F (2011). Segmenting sport spectators: construction and preliminary validation of the sporting event experience search (SEES) scale. *Sport Man Rev 14*:42-53

7. Casper J, Menefee C (2010). Prior sport participation and spectator consumption: socialization and soccer. *Eur Sport Man Quart 10*(5):595-611

8. Coelho JN, Tiesler NC (2007). The paradox of the Portuguese game: the omnipresence of football and the absence of spectators at matches. *Soccer Soc 8*(4):578-600

9. Costa AS (1997). *À volta do estádio – O Desporto, O Homem e a Sociedade*. Porto:Campo do Desporto

10. Czarnitzki D, Satdtmann G (2002). Uncertainty of outcome versus reputation: empirical evidence for the first german football division. *Emp Econ 27*(1):101-12

11. de Carvalho M, Scheerder J, Boen F, Sarmento JP (2013). *What brings people into the soccer stadium? (Part 1) The case of Belgium from a marketing perspective* (Sport Policy & Management series 18). Leuven:University of Leuven

12. Delheye P, Knuts S, Ameye T. (2013). London is just around the corner: Belgium, Britain and Sport. *Int J Hist Sport 30*(7):736-756

13. Domingos N (2004). A Inauguração. In Neves J, Domingos N (ed.). *A época do futebol - O jogo visto pelas ciências sociais*. Lisboa:Assírio & Alvim, 415-440.

14. Felizes P (2009). Campeonato Europeu de Futebol 2004. Retrieved from *Jornal de Notícias* http://www.jn.pt/Dossies/dossie.aspx?content_id=1456567&dossier=Figuras e Factos da D%E9cada (September)

15. Funk D, James J (2004). The fan attitude network (Fan) model: exploring attitude formation and change among sport consumers. *Sport Man Rev 7*(1):1-26

16. Funk D, Filo K, Beaton A, Pritchard M (2009). Measuring the motives of sport event attendance: bridging the academic-practitioner divide to understanding behavior. *Sports Mark Quart 18*(3):126-38

17. Funk D, Ridinger L, Moorman A (2003). Understanding consumer support: extending the sport interest inventory (SII) to examine individual differences among women's professional sport consumers. *Sport Man Rev 6*(1):1-32

18. Gunter B, Furnham A (1998). *Children as consumers: a psychological analysis of the young people's market.* London, UK:Routledge

19. Hair J, Black W, Babin B, Rolph A (2009). *Multivariate data analysis: a global perspective*. 7th ed. Upper Saddle River:Prentice Hall

20. Hansen H, Gauthier R (1989). Factors affecting attendance at professional sport events. *J Sport Man 3*(1):15-32

21. Hunt K, Bristol T, Bashaw RE (1999). A conceptual approach to classifying sports fans. *J Serv Mark 13*(6):439-52

22. Kim YK, Trail G (2010). Constraints and motivators: a new model to explain sport consumer behavior. *J Sport Man 24*:190-210

23. Martens S (2012). 1 Jaar op de voetbalbond, een terugblik en... vooruitblik. Retrieved from *Sporza* http://sporza.be/cm/sporza/voetbal/1.1337672 (June).

24. McDonald M, Milne G, Hong JB (2002). Motivational factors for evaluating sport spectator and participant markets. *Sport Mark Quart 11*(2):100-13

25. McDonald R, Marsh H (1990). Choosing a multivariate model: noncentrality and goodness of fit. *Psy Bul 107*(2):247-55

26. McNeal J (1992). *Kids as customers: a handbook of marketing to children*. New York:Lexington Books

27. Melnick M (1993). Searching for sociability in the stands: a theory of sports spectating. *J Sport Man 7*(1):44-60

28. Mullin B, Hardy S, Sutton W (2007). *Sport Marketing.* 3rd ed. Champaign:Human Kinetics

29. Podsakoff P, MacKenzie S, Lee JY, Podsakoff N (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *J App Psy 88*(5):879-903

30. Sá D, Malveiro P (2011). *European football attendances report 2011*. Matosinhos:IPAM

31. Scanlan T, Lewthwaite R (1986). Social psychological aspects of competition for male youth sport participants: IV. predictors of enjoyment. *J Sport Psy 8*:25-35

32. Schofield J (1983). Performance and attendance at professional team sports. *J Sport Behav 6*(4):196-206

33. Smith A, Stewart B (2007). The travelling fan: understanding the mechanisms of sport fan consumption in a sport tourism setting. *J Sport Tour 12*(3-4):155-181

34. Sobel M (1981). *Lifestyle and social structure: concepts, definitions, analyses*. New York:Academic Press

35. Stebbins R (1997). Lifestyle as a generic concept in ethnographic research. *Qual Quant 31*:347-60

36. Stevens J, Lathrop A, Bradish C (2005). Tracking generation Y: a contemporary sport consumer profile. *J Sport Man 19*(3):254-77

37. Sumter S, Bokhorst C, Steinberg L, Westenberg M (2009). The developmental pattern of resistance to peer influence in adolescence: will the teenager ever be able to resist? *J Adolesc 32*(4):1009-1021

38. Theodorakis N, Wann D, de Carvalho M, Sarmento JP (2010). Translation and initial validation of the Portuguese version of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale. *North Amer J Psy 12*(1):67-80

39. Trail G, James J (2001). The motivation scale from sport consumption: assessment of the scale's psychometric properties. *J Sport Behav 24*(1):108-127

40. Tropp L, Wright S (2001). Ingroup identification as the inclusion of ingroup in the self. *Pers Social Psy Bul 27*(5):585-600

41. Turner J, Tajfel H (1979). Social comparison and group interest in ingroup favouritism. *Eur J Social Psy 9*(2):187-204

42. Wann D, Branscombe N (1993). Sport fans: measuring degree of identification with their team. *Int J Sport Psy 24*(1):1-17

43. Wann D, Ensor C, Bilyeu J (2001). Intrinsic and extrinsic motives for originally following a sport team and team identification, *Percept Mot Skills 93*(2):451-54

44. Wann D, Melnick M, Russell G, Pease D (2001). *Sport fans – The psychology and social impact of spectators.* New York:Rouledge

45. Wann D, Schrader M, Wilson A (1999). Sport fan motivation: questionnaire validation, comparisons by sport, and relationship to athletic motivation. *J Sport Behav 22*(1):114-39

46. Wann D (1995). Preliminary validation of the sport fan motivation scale. *J Sport Social Issues 19*(4):377-96

47. Weed M (2008). Exploring the sport spectator experience: virtual football spectatorship in the pub. *Soccer Soc 9*(2):189-197

48. Wheaton B (2004). *Understanding lifestyle sports. Consumption, identity and difference*. New York: Routledge

49. Won J, Kitamura K (2006). Motivational factors affecting sports consumption behavior of K-league and J-league spectators. *Int J Sport Health Sci 4*:233-251

50. Zollo P (1995). *Wise up for teens.* New York:New Strategists Publication, Inc.

Sportscape as a constraint on soccer attendance: Is it predicted by place attachment and by team identification?

Author(s) de Carvalho, M. [1,2], Boen, F. [3], & Scheerder, J. [1]

Affiliation [1] Policy in Sports & Physical Activity Research Group, Department of Kinesiology, University of Leuven, Belgium

[2] Sport Management Department, CIFI[2]D, Faculty of Sport, University of Porto, Portugal

[3] Physical Activity, Sports & Health Research Group, Department of Kinesiology, University of Leuven, Belgium

Abstract

Despite the poor stadium conditions, the average soccer attendance in Belgium has been slightly growing during the last decade. The objective of this paper is to investigate whether team identification (TI) and place attachment (PA) explain why spectators accept this sportscape, this is, accept the poor stadium conditions, and still attend games. An online survey was completed by 4,028 Belgian respondents (89.3% male; M_{age} = 35.1, SD = 15.5). Results reveal that fans with a stronger TI, fans with a stronger PA, and younger people are less constrained by the sportscape when deciding not to attend a game (b=-.07, b=-.12, and b=.25, respectively, p < .001). Moreover, PA partially mediates the relationship between TI and SC (z=-6.78, p < .001).

Keywords

Introduction

Regardless of the specific core business, providing a venue of a suitable quality has usually been a prerequisite for the presence and for the satisfaction of spectators at an event. However, in many soccer stadiums these situations do occur, even though soccer generates huge amounts of money and sponsorship deals as the biggest sports industry in the world, especially in Europe (Giulianotti & Robertson, 2004).

In Belgium, the reference country of our research, most first division soccer stadiums do not meet the current standards of comfort, accessibility, or technological infrastructures, and they are becoming obsolete. For example, Zulte Waregem, the Belgian vice-champion of the season 2012-13, had to play the qualifications for the Champions League at the stadium of Anderlecht, almost 80 kilometers away, because their home stadium did not meet the minimum requirements for the European competitions. In a recent study among Belgian fans, 87% stated that they would attend more games at their club's home stadium if the stadium conditions would be better, and they rated the stadiums with only six points in ten, in average (Vandewalle & Wauters, 2014). Fans mainly complained about the conditions of the toilets, the cleanliness of the stadium in general, the accessibility, and the parking conditions.

However, despite the rather poor stadium conditions, the average soccer attendance in Belgium is slightly growing since 2005 (Mapfurno, 2014). The average number of spectators per game increased from 9,715 during season 2004/05, to 11,836 during season 2013/14, indicating an increase of 2,000 spectators per game.

One of the possible reasons why spectators tolerate these rather poor stadium conditions is their team identification (TI), this is, their emotional connection with the team (Wann & Branscombe, 1993). In fact, previous studies have revealed that TI is the most important predictor of attendance independently of other factors, explaining between 15% and 21% of its variability (Kim & Trail, 2010; Mahony, Nakazawa, Funk, James, & Gladden, 2002; Matsuoka, Chelladurai, &

Harada, 2003; Wann, Bayens, & Driver, 2004; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Won & Kitamura, 2006). Strongly attached fans might attend games anyway, because they place less importance to external constraints, such as rather poor stadium conditions.

Another possible reason why people still seem to accept these inadequate stadium conditions and keep attending games is their place attachment (PA), this is, their emotional connection with the place (Moore & Graefe, 1994), and in this case, the stadium. A passionate link with the stadium goes beyond the tangible conditions, and might stimulate people to attend live games, as well as care less about the stadium characteristics. Sacred words such as "cathedral" or "holy ground" are applied to the stadium and to the ground where the stadium is located, respectively (Costa, 1997). This happens inclusively when the stadium is not modern and could be improved (Charleston, 2009). Sometimes, moving to a new and better stadium can be a traumatizing event for the fans, even if the new "home" is located near the original (Giulianotti, 1999). This emotional relationship of the fans with the home stadium of their club might be so important, that a rather poor sportscape plays a smaller role on the non-attendance decision of the fans. In other words, an inferior sportscape might be a less relevant constraint on attendance when the PA is stronger.

The objective of this paper is to investigate the relationship between TI and the sportscape as a constraint on attendance (SC), and between PA and SC. More specifically, we want to investigate if a stronger TI or a stronger PA are related to the fact that sportscape is less important in the non-attendance decision of the fans. The concepts of TI and PA have not been investigated in relation to how fans are influenced by an inferior sportscape in their non-attendance decisions. TI, PA and SC have not been studied simultaneously and in relation to each other before. Therefore, this exploratory research intends to fill this gap in the research, and add up to the theoretical background about TI and PA, by modeling the relationship between TI and PA, between TI and SC, and between PA and SC.

The Royal Belgian Football Association and the Belgian clubs have repeatedly stated that their aim is to increase the number of people attending live games by assuring a good fan experience (Martens, 2012). In order to achieve this objective, the federation is planning five bigger soccer stadiums in collaboration with some clubs, to be ready by the year 2020. In this context, this research is also valuable from an applied perspective. The emotional connection of fans with the club and with the stadium cannot be underestimated (Westerbeek & Shilbury, 1999), both in the old, and in the new stadiums. In this manner, the specific relationship of TI with PA, and their overall relationship with the sportscape should attract the attention of both researchers and marketeers.

Conceptual framework

The sportscape, this is, the physical environment of the stadium (Wakefield, Blodgett, & Sloan, 1996), includes the interior and the exterior fixed elements such as stadium access, facility aesthetics, scoreboard quality, and perceived crowding, comprising seating comfort and layout accessibility. Even though Wakefield et al. (1996) did not take into account non-fixed elements in their model, we decided to include service quality (for example, food service, stadium security, cleanliness) in our definition of the concept, because it can be controlled by the facility management. This inclusion of the non-fixed stadium elements in the sportscape model is in line with the work of Wakefield and Sloan (1995), and of Hill and Green (2000). It has been found that the more the sportscape is positively evaluated, the more people intend to attend sports events, at least with respect to minor league baseball games and major college American football games (Wakefield et al., 1996). Findings from Hill and Green (2000) also showed that a positive sportscape perception enhances the likelihood that supporters of the home team would attend future games, in Australian rugby. However, in the present research we chose not to focus on the perception of sportscape, but rather on the emphasis that the fans put on the sportscape when they decide not to attend a game, this is, on the sportscape as a constraint on attendance (SC). A poor sportscape has been

refered to as one of the constraints on sports attendance (Douvis, 2007; Wakefield, et al., 1996).

One of the few studies about the relationship of constraints on attendance with other factors has explored the relationship between ticket pricing as a constraint on attendance and TI (Wann et al., 2004). Wann and Branscombe (1993) referred to the concept of TI as the extent to which a fan feels psychologically connected, is involved with and has invested in the team, and sees the team as an extension of the self. TI corresponds to the social identification concept of the social identity theory (Turner & Tajfel, 1979). The research of Wann et al. (2004) showed that for the more strongly attached fans, the price of the tickets is a weaker constraint on attendance. However, research has not yet investigated the relationship of other constraints, such as a rather poor sportscape, with TI.

Research about TI has been receiving a great deal of attention in several team sports contexts, this is, in different sports and countries. For instance, regarding motives to attend, research in softball and baseball indicated that lowly identified fans are more likely to be motivated by entertainment and sociability than strongly identified fans (Gau, James, & Kim, 2009). TI has been mainly related to factors that influence the attendance decision. Nevertheless, what encourages fans to attend may not be reflected in what discourages fans from attending (Tomlinson, Buttle, & Moores, 1995). However, the relationship of TI with constraints on attendance has been overlooked. Specifically, the relationship between TI and SC has not been established.

Place attachment (PA) refers to the extent to which a person has an emotional, functional, cognitive, symbolic, spiritual and/or affective connection with a physical place, environment, or setting, at a particular moment in time (Moore & Graefe, 1994; Smaldone, Harris, Sanyal, & Lind, 2005). Other authors have given the concept a different name, such as "special places", "place bonding", or "sense of place" (Hammitt, Backlund, & Bixler, 2006; Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2004; Nanzer, 2004; Smaldone et al., 2005). The concept of PA has been used in recreational and natural settings such as national parks or sky

resorts (Kyle, Absher, & Graefe, 2003; Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck, & Watson, 1992). In those contexts, the findings revealed that the more meaningful a destination was to the visitors, the less likely it would be substituted by another place (Williams, et al., 1992). In the professional team sports context, PA has been connected with the emotional attachment fans feel to the home stadium of their club (de Carvalho, Theodorakis, & Sarmento, 2011). In fact, the stadium is, most of the times, a special place to the fans, and it represents home as well (Charleston, 2009). For example, they associate the stadium with their youth, or they have pleasant memories of past experiences at the stadium, such as being there with the family and the friends, or they have memories related with the club history.

The research about PA is currently in an embryonic stage when compared to research about TI. While TI has been widely studied, PA is a relatively new concept when it comes to studying the attachment of the fans to a stadium and its neighborhood, as it was only recently brought to the team sports context by de Carvalho et al. (2011). The relationship between the emotional connection with the stadium, namely, PA, and the SC has not yet been established.

Hypotheses

Hall and O'Mahony (2006) stated that more strongly identified fans are not focused on issues such as the venue, or on the sportscape, but much more on the team itself. The sportscape perception of these fans might be negative, but they may nevertheless choose to continue to attend the games, because they do not see a poor sportscape as a constraint. Consequently, a stronger TI and/or a stronger PA might mitigate the importance of the sportscape when people decide not to attend a game.

More specifically, we expect fans with a stronger TI to be less sensitive to the conditions of the venue or to the conditions of the service at the stadium, and, therefore, to place less importance on the sportscape in their decision to not attend. Previous research has shown that TI was related to perceived service

quality (Gau et al., 2009). However, we propose that the attendance decision of fans might not be based on their perception of service quality, or perception of the quality of the venue, but on the importance they attribute to the sportscape. People with a strong TI attend games no matter what, and they do not care so much about other factors than the team itself. As Wann and Branscombe (1990) stated about teams with a losing record, "die-hard fans will persevere with their chosen team through almost anything…" (p. 111). Therefore, we hypothesize that *the more fans display TI, the less they place importance on the SC* (Hypothesis 1).

In the same manner, for fans with a strong PA, the conditions of the stadium may be less relevant for their attendance decision, this is, the emotional connection with the stadium might lead fans to place less importance to the sportscape. The fan might think "I'll go anyway; no matter if there is no parking place, or if it rains over me – I feel good to be at the stadium, I have great memories of personal/club related experiences there". This idea is supported by the study of Charleston (2009), who found that fans of clubs with old stadiums had stronger connection with the stadium than fans of clubs with new stadiums. Therefore, we hypothesize that *the more fans display PA, the less they place importance to the SC* (Hypothesis 2).

According to Lee, Jae Lee, Seo and Green (2012), the more positive associations that people have with the club, the stronger their connection with the venue will be. Westerbeek and Shilbury (1999) stated that the place is more important for the fans that identify strongly with the club. Therefore, fans that are strongly identified with the club are likely to be strongly attached to the stadium, and consequently to place less importance to the sportscape when they decide not to attend. In this manner, we expect that TI not only has a direct negative effect on SC, as proposed in Hypothesis 1, but also through PA. Therefore, we hypothesize that *PA would partially mediate the negative relation between TI and SC* (Hypothesis 3).

Methodology

Sampling and Data Collection

The present research included soccer fans of clubs from the first and second Belgian league. More than 70% of these clubs are located in the Dutch-speaking regions of the country. People were invited to answer a fifteen-minute online survey through social media (ex: e-mail, Facebook pages and blogs of the clubs), and also through a popular Flemish newspaper (paper and online version). Therefore, the survey was conducted in Dutch. As an extra motivation, a lottery of a prize, namely, a season ticket to their favorite team was raffled.

The final sample consisted of 4,028 respondents, with 89.3% males (M_{age} = 35.05, *SD* = 15.49; $M_{financial\ status}$ = 3.63, *SD* = 0.8, on a 5-point scale, from 1 – financially really difficult to live, to 5 – financially really easy to live). About 40% of the respondents hold a bachelor's or a higher degree, 42% went to high school, and about 18% only attended basic school or less. The majority of the respondents were employed full time (56.4%), or were students (27.7%).

Measures

The survey consisted of the following questions: *fanographic* items such as interest for soccer (5-point scale, from 1 – *not interested at all*, to 5 – *very much interested*), favorite soccer club, age they became fans, season ticket holder or not, number of minutes they take to get to the home stadium, and number of home games attended during the previous season; and the three scales are shown as follows.

Place attachment scale (PAS). An adapted version of the PAS (Kyle, Mowen, & Tarrant, 2004) was used to measure PA. This scale was brought to the context of professional soccer by de Carvalho et al. (2011). In their work, the scale was adapted to examine the attachment to a stadium, substituting the

wording related to recreational settings with wording related to soccer. However, due to the extension of the survey overall, we shortened the PAS. The Affective Attachment dimension scored the highest average in the work of de Carvalho et al. (2011). Based on the face validity of the items we selected three items corresponding to the dimensions of Affective Attachment, this is, current emotional connection with the stadium (for example, "I have a strong emotional bond with stadium X"), and two items corresponding to the dimension of Social bonding, this is, items related to the meaning, the memories, and the nostalgia towards the place (for example, "I associate special people in my life with stadium X"). The neighborhood where the stadium is located is generally also a meaningful place for the fans (Westerbeek & Shilbury, 1999). Consequently, we added one item about the place where the stadium is located, namely "The place where stadium X is located means a lot to me". A Dutch version of the PAS was constructed based on a pilot study (de Carvalho, Scheerder, Boen, & Sarmento, 2013). The six items were judged on a 5-point scale (from 1 – *totally disagree*, to 5 – *totally agree*).

Sport spectator identification scale (SSIS). The SSIS (Wann, Melnick, Russell, & Pease, 2001) was used to assess levels of TI, for example, "How strongly do you see yourself as a fan of your team?" Several studies provided evidence regarding the SSIS's factor structure, internal consistency, test-retest reliability, and construct validity (Theodorakis, Dimmock, Wann, & Barlas, 2010; Theodorakis, Wann, de Carvalho, & Sarmento, 2010; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann et al., 2001). A Dutch version of the SSIS was constructed based on a pilot study (de Carvalho et al., 2013). The seven items were judged on a 7-point scale (for example, from 1 – *not at all*, to 7 – *very much*).

Sportscape as a constraint scale (SCS). For the SCS, to measure sportscape as a constraint for attendance (SC), people had to answer the question, "When you decide to not go to a soccer game, to what extent do the following motives affect your decision to not attend?" Items relative to the sportscape (for example, poor accessibility, insecurity and confusion, poor stadium conditions, ugly stadium) were derived both from existing research (Hill & Green, 2000; Kim

& Trail, 2010; Wakefield et al., 1996; Wakefield & Sloan, 1995), and from an open answer question included in the pilot study (de Carvalho et al., 2013), asking the motives of the participants to not attend soccer games. The five items were judged on a 5-point scale (from 1 – *not at all a motive to not attend*, to 5 – *very much a motive to not attend*).

Data Analysis

We used SPSS 22.0 for descriptive analyses and AMOS 22.0 for multivariate analyses. Preliminarily, we performed confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). We performed a curve estimation for all the relationships in our model, and determined that all relationships were sufficiently linear to be tested using a co-variance based structural equation modeling algorithm used in AMOS. There was no multicollinearity between variables in our model (VIF < 1.0 for all relationships).

The CFA measurement model displayed in Figure 1 represented a good fit. We dropped TI6, and SC1 and SC5, given that the loadings of these items were lower than 0.6 (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). We allowed error terms to co-vary (see Figure 1) based on their close meanings or wording, or because they appear next to each other in the survey, and therefore, there might have existed a systematic correlation.

Figure 1. Empirical results from the confirmatory factor analysis with the standardized coefficients. *e* = disturbance term.
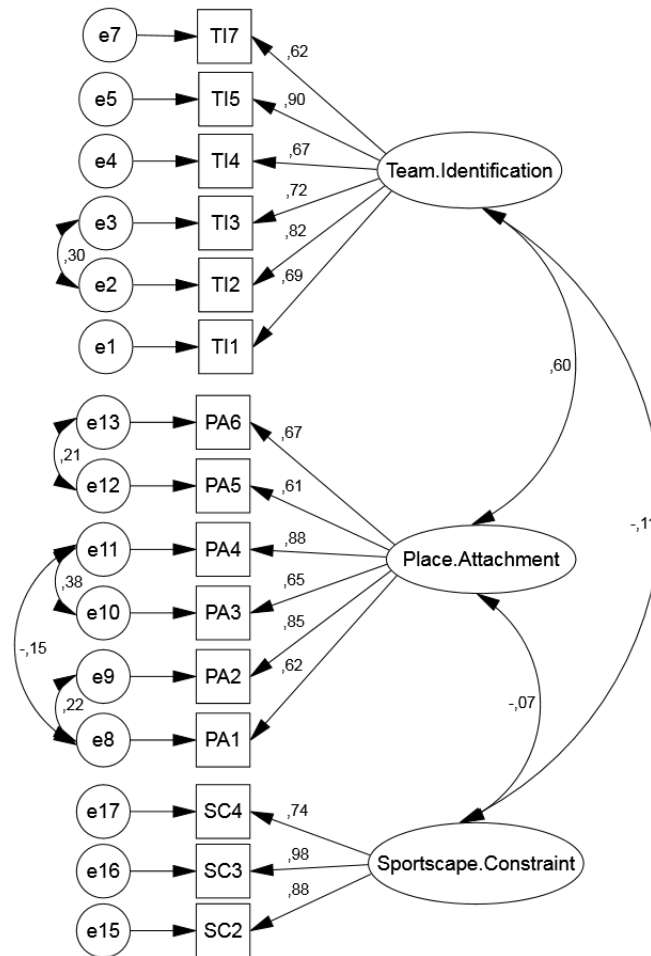
The absolute fit measures goodness-of-fit index (GFI = .97), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR = 0.03), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA = 0.05, p > .05) indicated good fit. The chi-square test statistic (χ^2 = 868.5, df = 82, χ^2/ df = 10.6) was significant (p < .001); this was likely inflated by the size of the calibration sample (*n* = 4,028) (McDonald & Marsh, 1990). The incremental fit measure adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI = .96) and the parsimonious fit measure comparative fit index (CFI = .98) indicated good fit as well.

Table 1 shows the reliability, the means and the standard deviations of the factors, convergent validity (CR > .7, CR > AVE, AVE > .5), and discriminant

validity (MSV < AVE, ASV < AVE) as well (thresholds by Hair et al., 2010). We tested common method bias using a common latent factor (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Lee, 2003). PA was slightly affected by common method bias (CMB), but not the other factors. Therefore, we kept the common latent factor before imputing the composite variables PA, TI and SC. For the structural model we used the composite variables, which are adjusted for CMB.

In order to test Hypotheses 1 and 2, the model included paths from TI (independent variable) to SC (dependent variable), and from PA (mediator) to SC. In order to test Hypothesis 3, expecting that the relation between TI and SC would be partially mediated by PA, we used the bootstrapping method (Hayes & Matthes, 2009). We also included paths from the control variables age, sex, and financial status. We removed paths with non-significant t-values because no substantive meaningful interpretation could be added by them. The hypothesized model is presented in Figure 2.

Table 1. Factor correlation matrix, convergent and discriminant validity, means, and standard deviations for scores of the latent variables team identification (TI), place attachment (PA), and sportscape as a constraint on attendance (SC)

Measure	M	SD	α	PA	TI	SC	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
PA (5-point scales)	2.97	0.96	.87	.72	-	-	.87	.52	.36	.18
TI (7-point scales)	5.49	1.00	.86	.60**	.74	-	.88	.55	.36	.19
SC (5-point scales)	2.39	1.16	.90	-.07**	-.11**	.87	.90	.76	.01	.01

Note: n = 4,028; CR = Composite reliability; AVE = Average variance extracted, with square root of the AVE on the diagonal; MSV = Maximum shared variance; ASV = Average shared variance
** p < .01

Figure 2. Proposed model with the hypothesized relationships between variables and the control variables
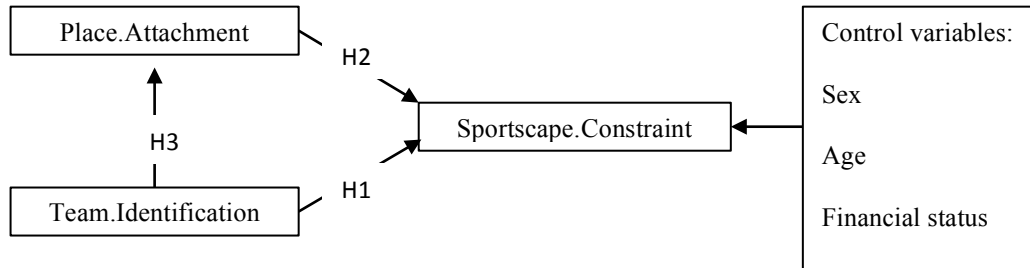

Results

The fans included in this research were strongly interested in soccer ($M = 4.69$, $SD = 0.55$). They became fans around 12 years old ($M = 12.23$, $SD = 9.22$), and were fans for, on average, 23 years ($M = 23.16$, $SD = 14.51$). They attended almost nine home games during previous season ($M = 8.68$, $SD = 7.77$), with approximately one third of people attending three or less games (maximum = 30 home games). Most of them were fans of a team playing in the first league (96.3%), and 39.0% hold a season ticket. It took the respondents about one hour to reach the home stadium of their favorite club ($M = 58.73$, $SD = 46.51$). About 34% of the respondents live half an hour or less from the stadium, and around 10% take more than two hours to reach it.

The final structural model presented in Figure 3 represented an excellent fit to the data. There was a significant direct negative relationship from TI to SC, confirming Hypothesis 1. Specifically, the more the fans identified with their team, the less importance they placed on SC. There was also a significant direct negative relationship from PA to SC, confirming Hypothesis 2. Specifically, the more the fans were attached to the home stadium of their team, the less importance they placed on SC. It should be noted that the effect size of both relations was quite modest ($b = -.07$ and $b = -.12$, respectively).

TI was a significant predictor of SC, when excluding the mediator PA (b = -0.10, p < .001). The direct effect of TI on SC, when including the mediator PA was smaller but still significant (b = -0.06, p < .01). The indirect effect of TI on SC through the mediator PA was small but still significant (b = 0.02, p = .001). Results from the Sobel test confirmed that PA partially mediated the relationship between TI and SC (z = -6.78, p < .001). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was also supported.

The model explained 5% of the variance in PA, and 9% of the variance in SC. There were significant direct relations from age and financial status to SC. Age presented a positive moderate relationship with SC, and financial status a negative and small relationship with SC.

Figure 3. Empirical results from the structural model with the regression standardized coefficients and the proportions of explained variance in italic. e = disturbance term. GFI = 1.00, CFI = 1.00, SRMR = 0.004, RMSEA < 0.001 (p > .05), χ² = 1.421, df = 3, χ² / df = 0.47, p > .05, AGF I = 1.00, and CFI = 1.00.
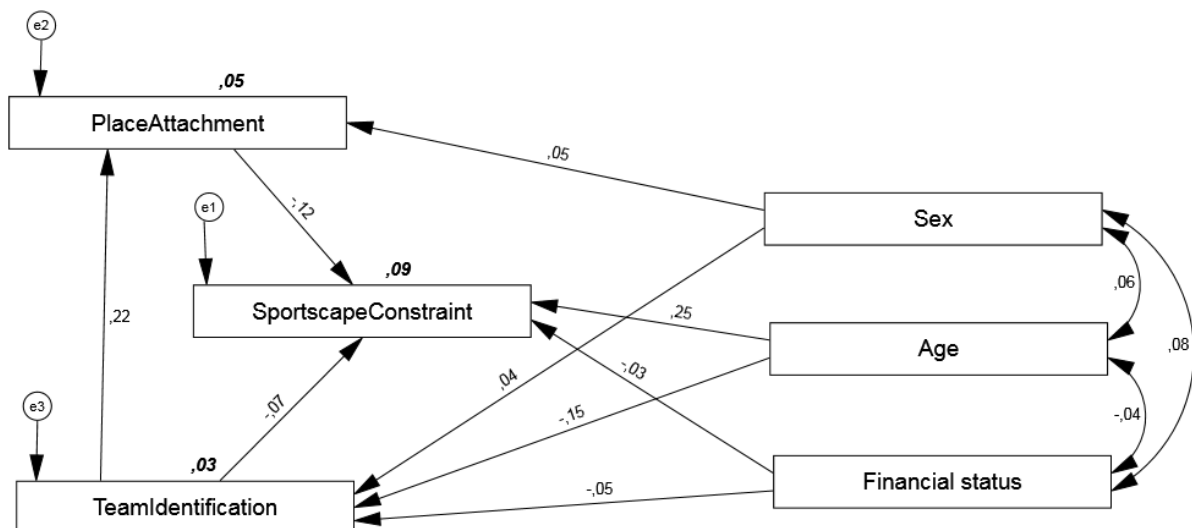
Discussion

The findings of our study revealed that TI was negatively related to SC, as proposed in Hypothesis 1. Explicitly, fans with a stronger TI were less constrained by a rather poor sportscape, than fans with a weaker TI. In other words, fans that considered the sportscape a stronger constraint on their attendance were the fans that were less attached to their club. Previous research has not explored the relationship of TI with other constraints, except with ticket pricing. The relationship between TI and ticket pricing as a constraint on attendance revealed that fans that were more strongly identified with the team, were less constrained by the price of the ticket (Wann et al., 2004). Therefore, in both the research of Wann et al. (2004) and the present research, the results showed a negative relationship between TI and a constraint on attendance, this is, between TI and ticket pricing, or between TI and poor sportscape, respectively. These results are in accordance to Wann and Branscombe (1990), who claim that a fanatic fan will not be influenced by other factors in his / her choice to attend, because TI is the most important link to the team. As we referred to in the introduction, research has shown that TI is the stronger predictor of attendance. With this research, we add that the stronger the TI is, the less constrained by the inferior stadium conditions, this is, by the poor sportscape, the fans are.

Similarly, as postulated by Hypothesis 2, PA was negatively related to SC. More specifically, fans with a stronger PA consider that sportscape is less of a constraint on their attendance, than fans with a weaker PA. For the fans that are most connected to the place, the stadium is certainly more than a facility (Lee et al., 2012), since it feels like being home (Charleston, 2009). Research about PA is still emerging, and therefore, we cannot compare this result with results of previous studies. However, research in the field of place meanings, in general, has shown that if the PA people feel towards their own home is very strong, any environment may still be perceived as being good enough to live in (Billig, 2006). In the same manner, fans that have a strong connection with the stadium may recognize the fragilities of the facility, for instance, they may even have a

negative sportscape perception, but at the end they care less than someone who has no connection with the stadium. The soccer stadium might represent, as their home represents, their castle, the place they do not want to leave, no matter what happens (Billig, 2006).

Fans often complain about seat comfort, food quality, or overpriced tickets. Repeated attendance could be considered as difficult to explain in the face of such negative evaluations of the stadium and its amenities (Lee et al., 2012). However, many fans continue to attend games, or they even attend more games than before, as Mapfurno (2014) showed about Belgian soccer attendance during recent years. This indicates that the attendance experience at and with the stadium goes beyond the pleasant sportscape, such as a comfortable stadium and a polite staff only. The quality of the sportscape itself might be, in the fans' perspective, better or worse, but what seams to really matter when they are deciding to attend or not to attend a game, is the importance they confer to it.

PA was found to be a partial mediator of the negative relationship between TI and SC. In other words, TI positively predicts PA, which in turn negatively predicts SC. Thus, the mediator variable PA, clarifies the nature of the relationship between TI and SC. Specifically, TI predicts not only SC, but also predicts PA. When TI and PA are stronger, the fans feel less constrained by a poor sportscape, when they are deciding to attend a game. This result shows that the relationships with the club and with the stadium are not independent from each other. This interconnection between the club and the stadium is in accordance to what Westerbeek and Shilbury (1999) stated. Lee et al. (2012) also proposed a more holistic approach to understand the fans, in a sense that identification with both club and stadium cannot be disconnected when it comes to the relationship with other factors, inclusively, with the sportscape.

The strongest relationship found in the present research was a positive relationship between sportscape as a constraint and age. Specifically, the older the fans were, the more they cared about the sportscape as a constraint, this is, the more this was an important factor on their decision of not attending games.

Younger fans were not so constrained by sportscape factors, and probably their constraints would be related to other factors, such as economic or organizational issues.

In this research, sex did not emerge as a predictor of SC. Contrary to what Hall and O'Mahony (2006) found, women did not place more importance to sportscape factors. Research has focused on finding differences between sexes when it comes to sports fandom and sports consumption (e.g., Dietz-Uhler, Harrick, End, & Jacquemotte, 2000). However, this trend might be changing, and differences between men and women might start being smaller when it comes to sports fandom, due to the fact that female fans might prefer to prioritize their fan identity above their gender identity (Jones, 2008). On the other hand, differences might be currently smaller or inexistent, because men and women are acquiring more similar status in society. Time will show if these smaller differences are only a trend or a cultural change.

Limitations

According to our results, the relationships supporting the hypothesis were moderate, the effect size was small, and these relationships might have been enhanced by the vast sample size. However, these results should be taken into account for future research and from a marketing perspective as well, because they add to the existing literature on TI and PA.

A limitation of the current research is a possible positive bias of the answers of the fans. This sample is constituted by fans that are strongly interested in soccer, and that are a fan since a young age and for a long time. Despite the fact that the online survey was open to everyone, for instance, to fans with different kind of fanographics, maybe the fans with stronger interest in soccer, and a stronger emotional connection with the club and to the stadium were more motivated to answer questions about their own fandom. Therefore, this is not a representative sample. However, this restriction of range with respect to TI and PA might have attenuated an even stronger negative relationship between

TI and SC, and between PA and SC. With a broader range of levels of TI or of PA, the prediction of SC and the mediation effect might have been stronger.

The percentage of female fans in this research is of 11%, and this might be a limitation, when it comes to understand women as fans. However, this proportion between men and women is similar to other studies on soccer fandom (for instance, Charleston, 2009). This difference between men and women's willingness to answer to surveys about themselves as soccer fans is probably due to two reasons. In one hand, it is possible that more men are soccer fans than women, in Belgium. For instance, research conducted in Flanders, Belgium, found that 54% of men attend sport events on a yearly basis, while only 29% of women have this consumption behavior (Scheerder, Decraene, & Laermans, 2007). On the other hand, in the past, sport has typically been perceived as a male domain (Dietz-Uhler et al., 2000), and women might think that their team identification and their interest for soccer is not strong enough to answer to fandom related surveys, and that they are still in a subordinate position in a world of soccer fandom dominated by men (Pope, 2011).

Another limitation is that the online collection might have kept people not using Internet out of the sample, for instance, older people. However, the age range was certainly varied, allowing us to have answers from a large age spectrum. On the other hand, the online data collection allowed us to include people that in this kind of research are usually neglected, because data are typically collected around the stadium. With this online data collection, instead of only reaching fans that are already attending games, we aimed to reach both attendants and non-attendants. Fans that are non-attendants are sometimes underestimated by research, because data is collected around the stadium, with the spectator fans. However, the non-attendant fans, staying at home, are potential consumers as well, as they have their own perceptions and feelings about the club and the stadium, and reasons to attend or not to attend live games.

Another added value to this online data collection is the fact that the sample included a high number of respondents, who are fans from various clubs in the country, and who live at diverse distances from their club. Even though the overwhelming majority of the fans were fans of a first league club, they were fans of varied clubs, from the ones usually on the top of the ranking, to the ones with worse rankings. In addition, the different distances the fans lived from their home stadium is illustrative of the reality of the different clubs, as one third of the fans lived half an hour or less from the their home stadium, but 10% lived more than two hours from the stadium.

Marketing Implications

The results of the present study indicate that the emotional connection of people with the stadium is negatively related to the importance they place on the sportscape. Despite the rather poor sportscape, people are still attached to the place they already know, and where they have memories and experiences. A brand new stadium, such as the ones that the Royal Belgian Football Association is planning to build together with some clubs (Martens, 2012), might be meaningless to a fan, despite the good facilities. It constitutes a challenge to make the fans forget the old stadium and start enjoying the new one. The promotion of the club, such as outdoor posters, or publicity in general, should focus not only on the club, as is usually the case, but also on the stadium. The fact that PA is a mediator of the relationship of TI with SC provides support to our model, and also to the idea that sports service providers, when establishing their marketing strategies, should not look at the club and at the venue separately, but simultaneously. In fact, they should consider cobranding the club, the venue, and even the community (Lee et al., 2012).

Interestingly, the older the fans were, the more constrained they were by a rather poor sportscape, and the more this was a factor on their decision of not attending games. More specifically, the lack of safety was a key concern for older people. If clubs want to attract more elderly people, the improvement of

the sportscape might be a priority, or at least, the communication with the fans should show when the club is paying attention and improving safety issues.

Future Research

The results of this research cannot be generalized to other sports and populations, as it is specific to Belgian soccer fans. The exploratory nature of the study and the lack of research in this field make this study a good basis for research and provide opportunity for future research in other contexts, such as other sports or countries.

The novelty effect states that clubs playing in new facilities attract more fans for a certain period of time (Howard & Crompton, 2003). This increased number of spectators may be due to curiosity to get to know the new stadium, or to the better sportscape of the new facilities. However, this "honeymoon effect" only lasts from one year, when previous attendance numbers are largely exceeded, up to five years, when previous attendance numbers are only slightly exceeded (Howard & Crompton, 2003). In addition, research has shown that fans have stronger feelings for the older stadiums than for the new ones (Charleston, 2009; Giulianotti, 1999). Clubs and stadium owners might think that having a new stadium is *per se* a solution to attract more spectators to the stadium but research has shown differently. Future research should focus on analyzing this novelty effect together with the PA of the fans to the old and the new stadium, and should put some effort on how to make the transition from the old stadium to the new one.

Constraints on attendance have not been deeply analyzed in the literature. As we stated, research has focused on motives for attendance and on spectator segmentation based on demographic characteristics and motives for attendance. Future research should focus on differences between segments of spectators, based on their constraints to attend games. Specifically, the role of sportscape as a constraint for each segment should be explored.

References

Billig, M. (2006). Is My Home My Castle? Place Attachment, Risk Perception, and Religious Faith. *Environment and Behavior, 38*(2), 248-265. doi: 10.1177/0013916505277608

Charleston, S. (2009). The English football ground as a representation of home. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *29*(1), 144-150. doi:10.1016/j.jenvp.2008.06.002

Costa, A. (1997). *À volta do estádio – O desporto, o Homem e a sociedade* [Around the stadium – Sport, people and society]. Lisboa: Campo das Letras.

de Carvalho, M., Scheerder, J., Boen, F., & Sarmento J. P. (2013). *What brings people into the soccer stadium? (Part 1) The case of Belgium from a marketing perspective* (Sport Policy & Management 18). Leuven: KU Leuven/Policy in Sport & Physical Activity Research Group.

de Carvalho, M., Theodorakis, N., & Sarmento, J. (2011). Translation and Portuguese validation of the place attachment scale. *Variorum, 1*(4), 1-11.

Dietz-Uhler, B., Harrick, E., End, C., & Jacquemotte, L. (2000). Sex differences in sport fan behavior and reasons for being a sport fan. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 23*(3), 219-232.

Douvis, J. (2007). A Review of attendance and non-attendance studies. *Journal of Biology of Exercise, 3*, 5-20.

Gau, L., James, J., & Kim, J. (2009). Effects of team identification on motives, behavior outcomes, and perceived service quality. *Asian Journal of Management and Humanity Sciences, 4*(2-3), 76-90.

Giulianotti R. (1999). *Football - A Sociology of the global game*. Cornwall: Polity Press.

Giulianotti, R., & Robertson, R. (2004). The globalization of football: a study in the glocalization of the 'serious life'. *The British Journal of Sociology, 55*(4), 545-568.

Hair J., Black W., Babin B., & Anderson, R. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ, USA: Prentice-Hall.

Hall, J., & O'Mahony, B. (2006). An empirical analysis of gender differences in sports attendance motives. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship, 7*(4), 334-346.

Hammitt, W., Backlund, E., & Bixler, R. (2006). Place bonding for recreation places: conceptual and empirical development. *Leisure studies, 25*(1), 17-41. doi:10.1080/02614360500098100

Hayes, A. F., & Matthes, J. (2009). Computational procedures for probing interactions in OLS and logistic regression: SPSS and SAS implementations. *Behavior Research Methods*, *41*(3), 924-936.

Hill, B., & Green, B. (2000). Repeat attendance as a function of involvement, loyalty, and the sportscape across three football contexts. *Sport Management Review*, *3*(2), 145-162.

Howard, D., & Crompton, J. (2003). An empirical review of the stadium novelty effect. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 12*(2), 111-116.

Jones, K. (2008). Female Fandom: Identity, Sexism, and Men's Professional Football in England. *Sociology of Sport Journal, 25*, 516-537.

Kim, Y. K., & Trail, G. (2010). Constraints and motivators: A new model to explain sport consumer behavior. *Journal of Sport Management*, *24*(2), 190-210.

Kyle, G., Absher, J., & Graefe, A. (2003). The moderating role of place attachment on the relationship between attitudes toward fees and spending preferences. *Leisure Sciences, 25*(1), 33-50. doi:10.1080/01490400306552

Kyle, G., Graefe, A., Manning, R., & Bacon, J. (2004). Predictors of behavioral loyalty among hikers along the Appalachian Trail. *Leisure Sciences, 26*(1), 99-118. doi:10.1080/01490400490272675

Kyle, G., Mowen, A., & Tarrant, M. (2004). Linking place preferences with place meaning: An examination of the relationship between place motivation and place attachment. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 24*(4), 439-454. doi:10.1016/j.jenvp.2004.11.001

Lee, S., Jae Lee, H., Seo, W., & Chris Green (2012). A new approach to stadium experience: the dynamics of the sensoryscape, social interaction, and sense of home. *Journal of Sport Management, 26*(6), 490-505.

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

Mapfurno, T. (2014, October 8). Attendances Belgie. *European Football Statistics*. Retrieved from http://www.european-football-statistics.co.uk/index1.htm

Martens, S. (2012, June 12). 1 Jaar op de voetbalbond, een terugblik en... vooruitblik [1 Year at the football association, and a look back ... preview]. *Sporza.* Retrieved from http://sporza.be/cm/sporza/voetbal/1.1337672

Matsuoka, H., Chelladurai, P., & Harada, M. (2003). Direct and indirect effects of team identification and satisfaction on intention to attend games. *Sports Marketing Quarterly, 12*(4), 244-253.

McDonald, R., & Marsh, H. (1990). Choosing a multivariate model: noncentrality and goodness of fit. *Psychological Bulletin, 107*(2), 247-255. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.107.2.247

Moore, R., & Graefe, A. (1994). Attachments to recreation settings: the case of rail-trail users. *Leisure Sciences, 16*(1), 17-31. doi:10.1080/01490409409513214

Nanzer, B. (2004). Measuring sense of place: a scale for Michigan. *Administrative Theory & Praxis, 26*(3), 362-382.

Podsakoff, P., MacKenzie, S., & Lee, J. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*: 879-903.

Pope, S. (2011). 'Like pulling down Durham Cathedral and building a brothel': Women as 'new consumer' fans? *International Review for the Sociology of Sport, 46*(4), 471-487.

Scheerder, J., Decraene, M. & Laermans, R. (2007). De deelname aan vrijetijdssport [Participation in recreational sports]. In: R. Laermans (Ed.). *Cultuurparticipatie in meervoud. Empirische bouwstenen voor een genuanceerde visie op de cultuurdeelname in Vlaanderen* (Cultuurkijker), pp. 246-265. Antwerp: De Boeck.

Smaldone, D., Harris, C., Sanyal, N., & Lind, D. (2005). Place attachment and management of critical park issues in Grand Teton National Park. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 23*(1), 90-114.

Theodorakis, N., Dimmock, J., Wann, D., & Barlas, A. (2010). Psychometric evaluation of the team identification scale among Greek sport fans: A cross-validation approach. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 10*(3), 289-305. doi:10.1080/16184741003770180

Theodorakis, N., Wann, D., de Carvalho, M., & Sarmento, J. (2010). Translation and initial validation of the Portuguese version of the sport spectator identification scale. *North American Journal of Psychology, 12*(1), 67-80.

Tomlinson, M., Buttle, F., & Moores, B. (1995). The fan as customer: customer service in sports marketing. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, *3*(1), 19-36. doi: 10.1300/J150v03n01_03

Turner, J., & Tajfel, H. (1979). Social comparison and group interest in ingroup favouritism. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *9*(2), 187-204. doi:10.1002/ejsp.2420090207

Vandewalle, L., & Wauters, W. (2014, October 10). Voetvalfan smeekt om moderne stadions [Football fans beg for modern stadiums]. *Het Nieuwsblad*, p. 2.

Wakefield, K., Blodgett, J., & Sloan, H. (1996). Measurement and management of the sportscape. *Journal of Sport Management, 10*(1), 15-31.

Wakefield, K., & Sloan, H. (1995). The effects of team loyalty and selected stadium factors on spectator attendance. *Journal of Sport Management, 9*(2), 153-172.

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

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

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

Wann, D., Melnick, M., Russell, G., & Pease, D. (2001). *Sport fans – The psychology and social impact of spectators*. New York: Rouledge.

Westerbeek, H., & Shilbury, D. (1999). Increasing the focus on 'place' in the marketing mix for facility dependent sport services. *Sport Management Review, 2*(1), 1-23.

Williams, D., Patterson, M., Roggenbuck, J., & Watson, A. (1992). Beyond the commodity metaphor: Examining emotional and symbolic attachment to a place. *Leisure Sciences, 14*, 29-46.

Won, J., & Kitamura, K. (2006). Motivational factors affecting sports consumption behavior of K-league and J-league spectators. *International Journal of Sport and Health Science, 4*, 233-251. doi: 10.5432/ijshs.4.233

Why do they keep coming to the stadium? The relations between team identification, place attachment, and motives to become a fan, with soccer attendance

Author(s)	de Carvalho, M. [1,2], Boen, F. [3], Sarmento, J. P. [2], & Scheerder, J. [1]

Affiliation	[1] Policy in Sports & Physical Activity Research Group, Department of Kinesiology, University of Leuven, Belgium
	[2] Sport Management Department, CIFI[2]D, Faculty of Sport, University of Porto, Portugal
	[3] Physical Activity, Sports & Health Research Group, Department of Kinesiology, University of Leuven, Belgium

Data	Study 3

Status	Submitted for publication

Abstract

The first aim of this paper is to understand to what extent team identification (TI, i.e., the psychological connection that a fan feels to a club) predicts soccer attendance in a European context. Previous research about TI was conducted mainly outside Europe. The second aim of this paper is to understand if place attachment (PA), and the specific motives to become a fan predict soccer attendance. PA is the connection a fan feels towards the stadium of the club. The motives to become a fan are the reasons why someone initially became a fan of a club. The present study is the first to address the relations between TI, PA, motives to become a fan and soccer attendance. An online survey was completed by 4,482 Belgian fans (89% male). Hierarchical regression analyses indicated that TI and PA were significant predictors of attendance. The more fans identified with their club and with their stadium, the more games they attended. Moreover, becoming a fan because of "it is the club of my region", "family tradition" and "influence of others than family" was also positively related to the number of games attended. Becoming a fan because of "player(s) of the club" was negatively related to attendance.

Keywords

1. Introduction

Soccer has become a global cultural practice (Goldblatt, 2008). Nowadays, there are huge commercial interests from clubs, sponsors or "sugar daddies" in soccer. Paradoxically, the identification of fans with the clubs is mainly emotional by nature, and most of the times unrelated to financial aspects. Thus, not only economically, but also from a sociological and from a psychological perspective, soccer is a massive phenomenon (Giulianotti, 1999). Millions of fans across countries, languages, socioeconomic levels, and cultures continue following their club for the love of the game.

Team identification (TI) is defined as the psychological connection that a fan feels to a club (Wann & Branscombe, 1993). It is based on the Social Identity Theory (Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2002; Turner & Tajfel, 1979). The person sees the club as an extension of himself/herself, and acts accordingly (Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Fans not only identify with their clubs across several contexts, but they also behaviourally express their identification with the club by watching live or televised games, by chatting with their friends or posting or reading comments on the social networks, or by buying merchandising. TI has been linked with this so-called behavioural loyalty (Mahony, Madrigal, & Howard, 2000) in numerous studies. For instance, research has shown that TI is strongly and positively related to the impulsive purchase of licensed merchandising and the amount of money spent on it (Kwon & Armstrong, 2002; Wann, Bayens, & Driver, 2004). TI has also been found to positively predict attendance, for example, in North American basketball (Kim & Trail, 2010; Wann, et al., 2004; Wann & Branscombe, 1993), and Japanese soccer (Mahony, Nakazawa, Funk, James, & Gladden, 2002; Matsuoka, Chelladurai, & Harada, 2003; Won & Kitamura, 2006).

The first aim of this paper is to understand in what measure TI predicts soccer attendance. The fascination with this sport is evident in Europe, where the biggest leagues are based, and where soccer is by far the most popular sport, with increasing revenues every year (Battle, et al., 2014). Interestingly, previous studies that investigated to what extent TI is related to attendance were all

conducted outside of Europe. Therefore, we want to cover this research gap and replicate this research in the specific European context.

The second aim of this paper is to understand if two other factors predict soccer attendance: Place Attachment (PA), and the motives to become a fan. Several factors have been reported to be related to attendance, such as, for example, sociopsychological motives (e.g., Funk, Filo, Beaton, & Pritchard, 2009), broadcasting (e.g., Buraimo, 2013), sportscape (e.g., Yusof & See, 2008) or team performance and competitive balance (Levin & McDonald, 2009). This is a pioneering research, given that a model relating PA, or motives to become a fan, to attendance has not been tested before. Following, we elaborate on these two factors and on their possible relationship with attendance.

PA refers to the extent to which a person has an emotional, functional, cognitive, symbolic, spiritual and / or affective connection to a particular physical place, environment, or setting, at a particular time (Moore & Graefe, 1994; Smaldone, Harris, Sanyal, & Lind, 2005). The concept of PA has been used in recreational and natural settings, for example, national parks or ski resorts (Kyle, Absher, & Graefe, 2003; Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck, & Watson, 1992). In this context, research revealed that the more meaningful a destination was to the visitors, the less likely it would be substituted by another place (Williams, et al., 1992). Likewise, in a research conducted with recreational skiers, loyalty to the ski resort was significantly predicted by PA (Alexandris, Kouthouris, & Meligdis, 2006).

The concept of PA can also be brought to the context of professional team sports, as the attachment of the fans to their stadium. Most of the time, the stadium is a special place to the fans, and to some extent, the stadium of their preferred soccer club represents "home" as well (Charleston, 2009). For example, fans associate the stadium with their youth, they have pleasant memories of past experiences at the stadium, such as being there with their family and friends, or they have memories related to the club history or winning-record. Within soccer, the stadium is often referred to as "cathedral" and the place where the stadium is located as "holy ground" (Costa, 1997). The fact that

these sacred words are applied to the stadium of people's favourite club suggests an emotional link between the fan and the stadium, that goes beyond the relationship with the club itself. This connection might stimulate people to attend live games to experience this connection with the ground, in addition to their TI.

If we look to ourselves or to our friends or relatives, we will find countless stories about how people became a fan of a club. As an illustration of this point, Wann, Tucker, and Schrader (1996) interviewed sport fans and asked them to list the reasons why they became fans of a certain team – they found over 40 distinct categories, with the vast majority of the reasons only being listed by less than 10% of the fans. Although there are many reasons that can influence an individual's decision to start identifying with a certain club, the following four reasons have been referred to in the literature as the strongest ones: family influence or tradition, peer influence, the ranking of the team in the league and proximity to the club home stadium (Melnick & Wann, 2004, 2011; Wann, et al., 1996). Other motives referred to are the team's strategy of play, the media exposure of the team, the accessibility to the stadium, supporting for their school through their school team (Hirt & Clarkson, 2011), the talent/characteristics of individual players, and the team's history of success (Wann, et al., 1996).

Previous studies on the motives to become a fan of a club are scarce, and do not include the European context. More specifically, most of the research has been conducted in the USA, and has investigated the attachment of college students towards their university teams (e.g., Wann, et al., 1996). Besides, when focusing on professional sports, North American or Australian research include clubs that are being launched out of the blue without an historical background, or that are displaced to other cities or states as a franchise business (e.g., Greenwood, Kanters, & Casper, 2006; Lock, Taylor, & Darcy, 2011). However, in Europe, big university teams or franchises do not exist. Competition clubs are mostly traditional (several clubs, e.g., FC Barcelona or Arsenal FC, are more than hundred years old), are based in the community,

and rarely change place (Charleston, 2009). In fact, children are able to form preferences for sport clubs already in the early stages of their life (James, 2001), and this is how it happens to most European fans. Their commitment with the team, that is, TI, can vary in intensity throughout their lifespan, but ultimately, most fans start being a fan during their childhood or youth for some reason, and do not change clubs during their life (Sá & Sá, 2009).

The relationship between motives to become a fan and attendance is yet to be explored as well. In the current study, we want to find out if the motives to initially become a fan of a certain club are related to the frequency people attend live games of that club later in life. From a marketing perspective, it is of interest to know how the fans started their relationship with the club and to discover its relationship with the present attendance. For instance, if people became a fan for family tradition we expect them to currently attend more games at the stadium than people who became a fan because of some players at that time. This expectation is related to the fact that the family is usually more stable through the existence of a person than one specific player during a specific season.

If we can interpret the relative importance that the club, the stadium, and the origin of this relationship, have to the fans' attendance, we can understand the phenomenon of fandom in a much deeper and accurate way than has been shown so far. Overall, we hypothesise that TI, PA, and several motives to become a fan, such as "family tradition", are related to increased soccer attendance. In addition, the present study provides some evidence on TI, PA and motives to become a fan, in a European context.

2. Methods

2.1. Data collection

The present research was conducted in Belgium. The average number of live spectators in the first soccer league consisted of 11,836 people per game, during season 2013-14 (www.european-football-statistics.co.uk/). We focused on Dutch-speaking Belgium soccer fans. Most of the clubs (e.g., 12 out of 16, in the first Belgian league) are located in Dutch-speaking regions of the country.

Data were collected through a twenty minutes online survey. The link to the survey was spread on the web through e-mail, Facebook pages but also the official pages of clubs or fan clubs, and blogs of the clubs. A Flemish newspaper also published the link to the survey in its paper as well as its online edition. In this manner, instead of only reaching attendants around the stadium, we aimed to reach both attendants and non-attendants, who are fans as well. The survey (N = 4,482) was completed between November 15th 2012 and January 31st 2013.

2.2. Measures

Survey items measured (a) demographics – age, sex, civil status, employment status, and financial situation (5-point scale, 1 – *financially really difficult to live*, to 5 – *financially really easy to live*); (b) interest for soccer; (c) favourite professional soccer team; (d) age they became fans – any age from four years old; (e) minutes they took to their home stadium; (f) motives to become a fan – explained below; (g) the sport spectator identification scale – explained below; (h) the place attachment scale – explained below; (i) attendance – number of games attended at their home stadium, during the previous season.

2.2.1. Motives to become a fan

This scale comprised nine items to answer to the question "Why did you become a fan of this club?", for example, family tradition, ranking of club at the time, or club of the region, with 5-point scales (1 – n*ot at all* to 5 – *very much*); this question was not intended to be a scale, instead it was a collection of different motives to become a fan found in the literature (Greenwood, et al., 2006; Wann, Melnick, Russell, & Pease, 2001; Wann, et al., 1996), and also from a pilot study in which fans could answer to an open-answer question about their motives to become a fan (see: de Carvalho, Scheerder, Boen, & Sarmento, 2013).

2.2.2. The sport spectator identification scale (SSIS)

We used the SSIS (Wann & Branscombe, 1993) to assess levels of TI. The seven items were judged with 7-point scales (e.g., 1 – *not at all* to 7 – *very much)*, for example, "How strongly do you see yourself as a fan of your team?". This reliable and valid instrument has also been successfully used cross-culturally (Melnick & Wann, 2011; Theodorakis, Wann, de Carvalho, & Sarmento, 2010) to assess levels of TI. A Dutch version of the SSIS was achieved through the pilot study (de Carvalho et al., 2013).

2.2.3. Place attachment scale (PAS)

We used an adapted version of the PAS (Kyle, Mowen, & Tarrant, 2004) to assess levels of PA. This scale was brought to the context of professional soccer by de Carvalho, Theodorakis, and Sarmento (2011). In their work, the scale was adapted to examine the attachment to a stadium, substituting the wording related to recreational settings with wording related to soccer. However, due to the length of the current survey, we shortened the PAS for the current study. The *Affective attachment* dimension scored the highest average in the work of de Carvalho, et al. (2011). Based on the face validity of the items

we selected three items corresponding to the dimensions of *Affective attachment*, that is, current emotional connection with the stadium (e.g., "I have a strong emotional bond with stadium X"), and two items corresponding to the dimension of *Social bonding*, that is, items related to the meaning, the memories, and the nostalgia towards the place (e.g., "I associate special people in my life with stadium X"). The neighbourhood where the stadium is located is generally also a meaningful place for the fans (Westerbeek & Shilbury, 1999). Consequently, we added one item about the place where the stadium is located, namely "The place where stadium X is located means a lot to me". The six items were judged with 5-point scales (from 1 – *totally disagree*, to 5 – *totally agree*). A Dutch version of the SSIS was accomplished through the pilot study (de Carvalho et al., 2013).

2.3. Data analysis

The total sample (N = 4,482) was randomly divided into two split-half samples, in order to perform exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with half of the sample, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and data analysis with the other half. There were no statistical differences between the two split-half samples on a variety of basic demographics, neither on the *fanographics*, that is, fan related characteristics (Table 1). The proportion between male and female respondents is similar to other studies on soccer fandom (e.g., Charleston, 2009).

Table 1. Demographics and fanographics of the subsamples (N = 4,482)

	Half-sample 1 (n = 2,241)	Half-sample 2 (n = 2,241)	*P*
Demographics			
Age ($\bar{x}$ ± *SD)*	34.85 ± 15.31	35.35 ± 15.71	.28
Financial situation, 5-point scale ($\bar{x}$ ± *SD)*	3.64 ± 0.81	3.63 ± 0.81	.77
Sex (%)			.59
Male	89.0	89.5	
Female	11.0	11.5	
Civil status (%)			.32
Single	35.5	35.6	
Married	35.4	36.8	
Divorced / separated	2.9	3.8	
Widowed	0.5	0.5	
Living together	15.7	14.9	
In another relationship	9.9	8.5	
Employment status (%)			.45
Student	27.7	27.5	
Employed fulltime	56.9	55.9	
Employed part-time	3.7	3.2	
Unemployed	2.4	3.0	
Housewife / househusband	0.6	0.5	
Retired	8.7	10.0	
Fanographics			
Number of home games attended ($\bar{x}$ ± *SD)*	8.70 ± 7.75	8.71 ± 7.78	.99
Interest for soccer 5-point scale ($\bar{x}$ ± *SD)*	4.69 ± 0.56	4.69 ± 0.54	.91
Age to became a fan ($\bar{x}$ ± *SD)*	12.34 ± 9.34	12.19 ± 9.17	.58
Minutes to home stadium ($\bar{x}$ ± *SD)*	58.25 ± 46.19	58.71 ± 46.91	.74
Division in which their favourite club plays (%)			.08
First league	95.6	95.7	
Second league	3.3	3.8	
Lower divisions	1.0	0.5	

2.3.1. Exploratory factor analysis

We performed EFA and reliability analysis in SPSS 22.0, on the first split-half (n = 2,241), including the seven items of the SSIS and the six items of the PAS. The scree test, eigenvalues greater than one, the interpretability of the factors, and Cronbach's coefficient were used to define the factor structures (Table 2). As expected, two constructs were identified, namely TI and PA, explaining 61% of the variance.

Table 2. Factor loadings for EFA (*n* = 2,241) with the latent variables of team identification (TI), and place attachment (PA)

Item	($\bar{x} \pm SD$)	Factors TI	PA
TI5 – How important is being a fan of the team to YOU?	5.56 ± 1.35	.86	
TI2 – How strongly do YOU see YOURSELF as a fan of the team?	5.83 ± 1.08	.84	
TI3 – How strongly do your FRIENDS see YOU as a fan of the team?	5.67 ± 1.34	.77	
TI1 – How important to YOU is it that the team wins?	5.77 ± 1.15	.72	
TI4 – How closely do you follow the team?	6.24 ± .01	.70	
TI7 – How often do YOU display the team's name or insignia?	3.69 ± 1.91	.57	
TI6 – How much do you dislike the greatest rivals of the team?	4.31 ± 2.13	.54	
PA2 – I have a strong emotional bond to the X Stadium.	2.89 ± 1.22		.87
PA4 – The X Stadium means a lot to me.	3.11 ± 1.20		.84
PA3 – I really enjoy the X Stadium.	3.36 ± 1.21		.72
PA6 – The place where the stadium is located means a lot to me.	2.54 ± 1.27		.70
PA5 – I associate special people in my life with the X Stadium.	2.49 ± 1.24		.65
PA1 – I have memories of past experiences with family and friends in the X Stadium.	3.34 ± 1.30		.59
Eigenvalues		5.90	2.01
% variance		45.4	15.4
α		.86	.87
Number of items		7	6

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure (KMO) = .91. Bartlett's test of sphericity χ^2 (78) = 15339.24, p < .001

Extraction method – principal axis factoring, with oblimin rotation

Each item of the question related to the motives to become a fan scale was analysed individually, as there was no theoretical or empirical reason to perform an exploratory analysis with these items together, as we explained before. Besides, the correlations between items of the motives to become a fan were not high enough to perform an EFA (Table 3).

Table 3. Means and standard deviations of motives to become a fan (MBF), and correlations between motives (n = 2,241)

	($\bar{x} \pm SD$)	MBF1	MBF2	MBF3	MBF4	MBF5	MBF6	MBF7	MBF8
MBF1 – Family tradition	2.29 ± 1.48								
MBF2 – To go against the family tradition	1.20 ± 0.68	-.056[**]							
MBF3 – Ranking of the club	1.83 ± 1.13	-.086[**]	.075[**]						
MBF4 – Influence of others than family	2.20 ± 1.29	-.084[**]	.101[**]	.130[**]					
MBF5 – A memorable victory of the club	2.60 ± 1.40	-.065[**]	.081[**]	.350[**]	.172[**]				
MBF6 – The club came to my school	1.11 ± 0.51	.102[**]	.063[**]	-.002	.088[**]	.088[**]			
MBF7 – I was playing in the club at that time	1.17 ± 0.72	.051[*]	.024	-.054[*]	.017	-.027	.291[**]		
MBF8 – Player(s) of the club	2.68±1.45	-.092[**]	.034	.233[**]	.003	.388[**]	.066[**]	.036	
MBF9 – It is the club of my region	3.08±1.68	.124[**]	-.038	-.117[**]	.118[**]	-.084[**]	.134[**]	.148[**]	-.152[**]

Items measured on 5-points scales.

** p < .01 (2-tailed); * p < .05 level (2-tailed)

2.3.2. Confirmatory factor analysis

The remaining split-half sample (n = 2,241) was used for instrument confirmation analyses using AMOS 22.0. The CFA measurement model with the latent variables represented a good fit (Table 4). We dropped TI6 and PA1, given that the loadings of these items were lower than .6 (Hair, Black, Babin, & Rolph, 2010).

Table 4. Factor loadings for CFA (*n* = 2,241) with the latent variables of team identification (TI), and place attachment (PA), and model fit indices

Item	$(\bar{x} \pm SD)$	TI	PA
TI5 – How important is being a fan of the team to YOU?	5.62 ± 1.28	.91	
TI2 – How strongly do YOU see YOURSELF as a fan of the team?	5.88 ± 1.04	.80	
TI3 – How strongly do your FRIENDS see YOU as a fan of the team?	5.73 ± 1.26	.71	
TI1 – How important to YOU is it that the team wins?	5.81 ± 1.08	.66	
TI4 – How closely do YOU follow the team?	6.31 ± 0.92	.66	
TI7 – How often do YOU display the team's name or insignia?	3.74 ± 1.91	.62	
PA4 – The X Stadium means a lot to me.	3.13 ± 1.18		.88
PA2 – I have a strong emotional bond to the X Stadium.	2.95 ± 1.22		.85
PA6 – The place where the stadium is located means a lot to me.	2.56 ± 1.25		.68
PA3 – I really enjoy the X Stadium.	3.36 ± 1.21		.66
PA5 – I associate special people in my life with the X Stadium.	2.49 ± 1.25		.60
GFI			.98
AGFI			.96
CFI			.98
χ^2 (d.f)			240.1 (40)
χ^2/ df			6.0***
RMSEA			.05 (NS)
SRMR			.03

GFI = Goodness-of-fit index; SRMR = Standardised root mean square residual; RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation; AGFI = Adjusted goodness-of-fit index; CFI = Comparative fit index

*** p < .001

214

Table 5 shows the means and standard deviations of the factors, convergent validity (CR > .7, CR > AVE, AVE > .5), and discriminant validity (MSV < AVE, ASV < AVE) as well (thresholds by Hair, et al., 2010). We tested common method bias using a common latent factor (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Lee, 2003). The model presented no common method bias concerns.

Table 5. Factor correlation matrix (n = 2,241), convergent and discriminant validity, means, and standard deviations for scores of the latent variables team identification (TI), and place attachment (PA)

Measure	PA	TI	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	($\bar{x} \pm$ SD)
PA (5-point scales)	.74	-	.85	.55	.37	.37	2.90 ± 0.98
TI (7-point scales)	.61**	.75	.86	.57	.37	.37	5.51 ± 0.97

CR = Composite reliability; AVE = Average variance extracted, with square root of the AVE on the diagonal; MSV = Maximum shared variance; ASV = Average shared variance
** $p < .01$

2.3.3. Model specification

We used multiple hierarchical regressions to examine the relationship between TI, PA and motives to become a fan, with attendance (number of games attended during the previous season). In Step 1 we included demographic control variables, such as age, sex, and financial status; in Step 2 we added fanographic variables such as interest for soccer, minutes to home stadium, and age to became fans; in Step 3 we added TI, a known predictor of attendance; in Step 4 we added PA, to examine what is the added value of the attachment to the stadium in the prediction of attendance; and finally in Step 5 we added the motives to become a fan, with the same purpose.

3. Results

3.1. Fanographics and motives to become a fan

Results were analysed using the second split-half sample (n = 2,241). Fanographics for the second split-half are presented in Table 1. The fans included in this study were strongly interested in soccer, and became a fan around 12 years of age. They attended around nine home games during the previous season, and it took them about one hour to reach the stadium. These fans were moderately identified with their club's home stadium and strongly identified with the team (Table 5). Results for the motives to become a fan are presented in Table 3. The strongest motives for people to become fans were "it is the club of my region", "one or several players of the club", and a "memorable victory of the club". A second group of moderate motives to become a fan were "family tradition", "influence from others than family" and "ranking of the club by the time I became a fan". Finally, motives such "to go against the family tradition", "I was playing in the club at that time", or "the club came to my school when I was a kid", presented the lower averages.

3.2. TI, PA, and motives to become a fan as predictors of attendance

A significant model emerged for the prediction of attendance (Table 6). Demographic variables, including sex, age and financial status, did not introduce significant changes to the model. Fanographics, namely interest for soccer, age to become fans, and minutes to home stadium, accounted for 7% of the variance, with age to become fans being significantly and positively related to attendance, and minutes to the stadium being significantly and negatively related to attendance. With the introduction of TI in the third step of the model, the variance explained increased to 22%. In Step 4, PA was introduced and despite the fact that PA was a significant positive predictor of attendance, the total variance increased with only 1% to 23%.

216

Table 6. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses predicting attendance from demographic variables, fanographics, team identification (TI), place attachment (PA), and motives to become a fan (*n* = 2,241)

Predictor	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5
Step 1					
Sex	.04	.02	.05*	.06**	.07**
Age	-.04	-.03	-.04*	-.06**	-.05*
Financial status	.01	.00	.03*	.03	.02
Step 2					
Interest for soccer		.21***	.02	.02	.02
Age to become a fan		-.01	.06*	.06**	.07**
Minutes to home stadium		-.19***	-.19***	-.17***	-.09***
Step 3					
TI			.44***	.37***	.38***
Step 4					
PA				.13***	.11***
Step 5					
MBF1 – Family tradition					.07**
MBF2 – To go against the family tradition					-.03
MBF3 – Ranking of the club					-.05*
MBF4 – Influence of others than family					.07**
MBF5 – A memorable victory of the club					.02
MBF6 – The club came to my school					-.04*
MBF7 – I was playing in the club at that time					.05*
MBF8 – Player(s) of the club					-.07**
MBF9 – It is the club of my region					.11***
ΔR^2	.00	.07***	.15***	.01***	.03***
Total R^2	.00	.07***	.22***	.23***	.26***

The values are the standardised coefficients (β)

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

Finally, the motives to become a fan increased the variance explained in 3% to 26%, with some motives presenting a stronger relationship with attendance, for example, "it is the club of my region", "family tradition", "influence from others than family", and "one or several players of the club". In the final step of the model, financial status, interest for soccer, and the motives "to go against the family tradition", and "memorable victory of the club", failed to contribute significantly to the regression model.

4. Discussion

With this research, we had two distinct aims. On the one hand, we wanted to investigate if TI was a strong predictor of soccer attendance in a European context, as shown in other contexts such as North American basketball (Kim & Trail, 2010; Wann, et al., 2004; Wann & Branscombe, 1993) and Japanese soccer (Mahony, et al., 2002; Matsuoka, et al., 2003; Won & Kitamura, 2006). On the other hand, we wanted to explore if PA and the motives to become a fan were also predictors of attendance, independently of TI. Although previous research has related other factors, such as socio-psychological motives (Funk, et al., 2009) or sportscape (Yusof & See, 2008), with attendance, we wanted to focus on the emotional relationship of people with their club and with their home stadium, and on how this relationship started in the first place.

TI emerged as the strongest predictor of attendance, that is, the more fans identified with their team, the more games they attended. Our results substantiate theories that have incorporated TI as the stronger predictor of attendance. Wann and Branscombe (1993) and Wann, et al. (2004) used the SSIS to compare groups of strongly identified and weakly identified college students, and found out that the ones that were more strongly identified had a stronger desire to attend basketball games in the USA. More recent research has shown attachment to the team to predict 15% (Mahony, et al., 2002) and 21% (Kim & Trail, 2010) of number of games attended in Japanese soccer and women's professional basketball in the USA, respectively. Also Matsuoka, et al.

218

(2003) found that TI explained 17% of intention to attend future games in Japanese soccer. In these several studies, TI was the strongest predictor independently of other predictors, such as lack of success of the team, leisure alternatives, community pride, drama, player attachment and vicarious achievement. Our research adds on a European perspective, showing TI once more as the strongest predictor of attendance (15%) in Belgium soccer, above other predictors.

In addition to TI, and as hypothesised, PA and several motives to become a fan also emerged as significant predictors of attendance. However, comparing to TI, the change introduced on the attendance prediction by PA, or by the motives to become a fan, is rather small.

As we referred to before, for some people there is a mystical or magical feeling around the stadium (Pope, 2011). This connection with the stadium, that is shown in our research by a moderate PA (M = 2.9, in a 5-points scale) is only slightly related to attendance, as PA explains merely 1% of the variance in attendance. Even though people are connected to the stadium, and they feel home when they are there (Charleston, 2009), only marginally they attend more games because of that fact.

In addition to the concept of PA, we can discuss the concept of sense of place. The sense of place represents the belongingness people feel towards the city (Pope, 2011). This sense of place is represented in our research by the motive to become a fan "it is the club of my region". Interestingly, PA and the motive to become a fan "it is the club of my region" were both the stronger predictors of attendance after TI, predicting attendance in the same measure. In this manner, we can analyse that the city or region, and the smaller space where the stadium is confined, are seen as equally important to people, when they decide to attend a game. Supporting the team because it represents the school, a phenomenon found in USA (Hirt & Clarkson, 2011), did not emerge as a motive to support the team in our research. As we referred to before, in a European context people get attached to a club that belongs to a community, for example, a city or a

region, and not to a school, as competitive school sport does not have manifestation.

The motives to become a fan can be analysed in the light of the specific European context. Fans from different context present different reasons to become fans (Jones, 1997). For instance, in a North American study performed by Wann, et al. (1996), the fact that the parents were fans of that team was the most common reason listed by undergraduate students, followed by the talent and characteristics of the players, and by the fact that it is the club of their region or hometown. On the other hand, as in our research, originating from the home city of the club was the strongest reason for people to become fans of a professional American football franchise (Kolbe & James, 2000). In our sample, people live less than one hour of their home stadium, and the time they take to the stadium is negatively related to attendance, showing that living close to the stadium not only relates to the origin of TI but also to the behavioural loyalty that the fan shows towards the club. Further research is needed to identify if these results are context specific to Belgium, or if the importance of the region is a European tendency.

The motives to become a fan are distinct from the motives that make people attend games (Lock, et al., 2011). Some researchers mix them up in their theoretical models, referring to hedonic concepts such as entertainment, aesthetics, or escape, as motives to become a fan (e.g., Funk & James, 2004; Hirt & Clarkson, 2011). However, empirical research has shown that these concepts are motives to watch or to attend sports, to buy merchandising, or to develop and maintain an already existing identification, but not to start to identify with a club (e.g., Fink, et al., 2002; Neale & Funk, 2006). Wann, Ensor, and Bilyeu (2001) tried to empirically test these hedonic motives, assessed by the Sport Fan Motivation Scale (Wann, 1995), as motives to become a fan. Wann et al. took this scale, changed the content of the items into motives to become a fan without validating the scale, and divided the motives into intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, only based on the meaning of the items; as their only aim was to compare if people's attachment was stronger for intrinsic or extrinsic

motivations, they did not present the results for each motive. Therefore, there is no valid empirical data showing these hedonic motives as motives to become a fan.

4.1. Limitations

The sampling procedures presented some limitations for this study in terms of generalizability. The fact that we collected the data online was an advantage, because it allowed us to reach a huge number of people (n = 4,482), and people who are usually not included in this kind of research, namely the non-attendants, or people who are hardly ever attending. However, this online data collection also had disadvantages, because only people using internet were able to answer to our survey. Moreover, this is a convenience sample and is not representative for the Belgian population.

4.2. Marketing implications

From a theoretical standpoint, the model examined here provides a confirmation of the supremacy of TI as predictor of attendance, when compared with other factors, also in a European context. From a marketing perspective, the knowledge about the strong relative weight of TI, and the weaker relative weight of PA and motives to become a fan, provides sport managers and marketeers with a direction for their marketing strategies. Thus, also in European soccer, the key marketing action to increase the attendance numbers is to enhance TI. PA might be an important factor to enhance, when associated with actions which emphasise TI. For instance, associating the brand image of the club, such as the mascot, or the club symbolic animal, to the stadium or to the surroundings of the stadium, might enhance not only the PA but also the TI, and motivate people to attend more games.

Our results show that it is important for the clubs to highlight past victories of the club, but even more vital is the fact that the club is from the region of the

person. Therefore, clubs should include this sense of place in their marketing strategies to attract people to the stadium.

Finally, clubs should notice that in our research the motive to become a fan "one or several players" presented a negative relationship with attendance. This means that a star player in the club motivates people to become a fan at a certain point in time, for example, when fans were children and being faced with the decision of choosing a club, but later on, when the player leaves the club, the attendance numbers might not increase, on the contrary, they might diminish, because this relationship may not persevere over time.

4.3. Future research

This study showed that the focus of theoretical models predicting attendance should not be put in PA and motives to become a fan, as these were shown to be rather weak predictors of attendance. However, future research should focus on exploring the relationship between TI and PA, focusing on qualitative research to deepen the underlying sociopsychological connections between both concepts.

The success of the team is mentioned by the common sense as one of the main reasons to become a fan. However, in our research, an important victory of the club was only the third motive mentioned, and the ranking of the club was only the sixth motive mentioned to become a fan of a club. These results confirm the results obtained by Wann, et al. (1996), where success of the team was only the fifth reason mentioned. However, the same research showed that success of the team was the first reason to continue supporting a team, and the lack of success was the first reason to discontinuing identification with a certain team. Future research should focus on case-studies of teams with lack of success that still hold a huge number of fans and manage to have full stadiums during the entire season.

References

Alexandris, K., Kouthouris, C., & Meligdis, A. (2006). Increasing customers' loyalty in a skiing resort. The contribution of place attachment and service quality. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality, 18*, 414-425.

Battle, R., Bosshardt, A., Bridge, T., Hanson, C., Savage, J., Shaffer, A., Stenson, C., & Thorpe, A. (2014). All to play for. In D. Jones (Ed.), *Football Money League*. Manchester: Deloitte.

Buraimo, B. (2013). Attendance and broadcast demand for professional team sport. In L. Robinson, P. Chelladurai, G. Bodet & P. Downward (Eds.), *Routledge Handbook of Sport Management*. New York: Routledge.

Charleston, S. (2009). The English football ground as a representation of home. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 144-150.

Costa, A. S. (1997). *À volta do estádio - O desporto, o Homem e a sociedade*. Porto: Campo do Desporto.

de Carvalho, M., Scheerder, J., Boen, F., & Sarmento J. P. (2013). *What brings people into the soccer stadium? (Part 1) The case of Belgium from a marketing perspective* (Sport Policy & Management 18). Leuven: KU Leuven/Policy in Sport & Physical Activity Research Group.

de Carvalho, M., Theodorakis, N., & Sarmento, J. P. (2011). Translation and Portuguese validation of the place attachment scale. *Variorum, 1*, 1-11.

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

Funk, D., Filo, K., Beaton, A., & Pritchard, M. (2009). Measuring the motives of sport event attendance: Bridging the academic-practitioner divide to understanding behavior. *Sports Marketing Quarterly, 18*, 126-138.

Funk, D., & James, J. (2004). The fan attitude network (FAN) model: exploring attitude formation and change among sport consumers. *Sport Management Review, 7*, 1-26.

Giulianotti, R. (1999). *Football - A Sociology of the global game*. Cornwall: Polity Press.

Goldblatt, D. (2008). *The ball is round: a global History of soccer*. NY: Riverhead Books.

Greenwood, P. B., Kanters, M. A., & Casper, J. (2006). Sport fan team identification formation in mid-level professional sport. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 6*, 253-265.

Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., & Rolph, A. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ, USA: Prentice-Hall.

Hirt, E., & Clarkson, J. (2011). The psychology of fandom. In L. Kahle & A. Close (Eds.), *Consumer behavior knowledge for effective sports and event marketing*. New York: Routledge.

James, J. (2001). The role of cognitive development and socialization in the initial development of team loyalty. *Leisure sciences, 23*, 233-261.

Jones, I. (1997). A further examination of the factors influencing current identification with a sports team, a response to Wann et al 1996. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 85*, 257-258.

Kim, Y. K., & Trail, G. (2010). Constraints and motivators: A new model to explain sport consumer behavior. *Journal of Sport Management*, 190-210.

Kolbe, R., & James, J. (2000). An Identification and examination of influences that shape the creation of a professional team fan. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship, 2*, 23-38.

Kwon, H., & Armstrong, K. (2002). Factors influencing impulse buying of sport team licensed merchandise. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 11*, 151-163.

Kyle, G., Absher, J., & Graefe, A. (2003). The moderating role of place attachment on the relationship between attitudes toward fees and spending preferences. *Leisure sciences, 25*, 33-50.

Kyle, G., Mowen, A., & Tarrant, M. (2004). Linking place preferences with place meaning: An examination of the relationship between place motivation and place attachment. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 24*, 439-454.

Levin, M., & McDonald, R. (2009). The value of competition: competitive balance as a predictor of attendance in spectator sports. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship*, 7-24.

Lock, D., Taylor, T., & Darcy, S. (2011). In the absence of achievement: The formation of new team identification. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 11*, 171-192.

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

Mahony, D., Nakazawa, M., Funk, D., James, J., & Gladden, J. (2002). Motivational Factors Influencing the Behaviour of J. League Spectators. *Sport Management Review*, 1-24.

Matsuoka, H., Chelladurai, P., & Harada, M. (2003). Direct and Indirect Effects of Team Identification and Satisfaction on Intention to attend games. *Sports Marketing Quarterly, 12*, 244-253.

Melnick, M., & Wann, D. (2004). Sport Fandom influences, interests and behaviors among Norwegian University Students. *International Sports Journal, 8*, 1-13.

Melnick, M., & Wann, D. (2011). An examination of sport fandom in Australia: Socialization, team identification, and fan behavior. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport, 46*, 456-470.

Moore, R., & Graefe, A. (1994). Attachments to recreation settings: the case of rail-trail users. *Leisure sciences, 16*, 17-31.

Neale, L., & Funk, D. (2006). Investigating motivation, attitudinal loyalty and attendance behavior with fans of Australian Football. *International Journal of Sport Marketing & Sponsorship, 7*, 307-317.

Podsakoff, P., MacKenzie, S., & Lee, J.-Y. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 879-903.

Pope, S. (2011). 'Like pulling down Durham Cathedral and building a brothel': Women as 'new consumer' fans? *International Review for the Sociology of Sport, 46*, 471-487.

Sá, D., & Sá, C. (2009). *Sports marketing - As novas regras do jogo*. Porto: IPAM.

Smaldone, D., Harris, C., Sanyal, N., & Lind, D. (2005). Place attachment and management of critical park issues in Grand Teton National Park. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 23*, 90-114.

Theodorakis, N., Wann, D., de Carvalho, M., & Sarmento, J. P. (2010). Translation and initial validation of the Portuguese version of the sport spectator identification scale. *North American Journal of Psychology, 12*, 67-80.

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

Wann, D. (1995). Preliminary validation of the sport fan motivation scale. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues, 19*, 377-396.

Wann, D., Bayens, C., & Driver, A. (2004). Likelihood of attending a sporting event as a function of ticket scarcity and team identification. *Sports Marketing Quarterly, 13*, 209-215.

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

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

Wann, D., Melnick, M., Russell, G., & Pease, D. (2001). *Sport fans - The psychology and social impact of spectators*. New York: Rouledge.

Wann, D., Tucker, K., & Schrader, M. (1996). An exploratory examination of the factors influencing the origin, continuation, and cessation of identification with sports teams. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 82*, 995-1001.

Westerbeek, H., & Shilbury, D. (1999). Increasing the focus on 'place' in the marketing mix for facility dependent sport services. *Sport Management Review, 2*, 1-23.

Williams, D., Patterson, M., Roggenbuck, J., & Watson, A. (1992). Beyond the commodity metaphor: examining emotional and symbolic attachment to a place. *Leisure sciences, 14*, 29-46.

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

Yusof, A., & See, L. H. (2008). Sportscape Features and Team Quality: Implications on spectators' satisfaction and future attendance. *Journal of Global Business Management, 4*, 1-6.

What keeps people away from the stadium? Constraints on soccer attendance in Portugal

Author(s)	de Carvalho, M. [1,2], Boen, F. [3], Van Thielen, J. [1], & Scheerder, J. [1]

Affiliation	[1] Policy in Sports & Physical Activity Research Group, Department of Kinesiology, University of Leuven, Belgium
	[2] Sport Management Department, CIFI^{2}D, Faculty of Sport, University of Porto, Portugal
	[3] Physical Activity, Sports & Health Research Group, Department of Kinesiology, University of Leuven, Belgium

Data	Study 3, Portuguese sample

Status	In preparation for submission

Abstract

In the Portuguese culture, soccer is commonly considered as a religion (Costa, 1997). However, the attendance numbers are paradoxically quite low, with an occupation rate of the stadiums of only 46%, i.e., around 10,000 spectators/game, during season 2012-13 (Liga Portuguesa de Futebol, 2014). Only few studies have focused on the constraints on attendance, and some research has mixed up motives and constraints indistinguishably. Nevertheless, some constraints have been mentioned in literature, such as ticket pricing, game being televised, accessibility to stadium and parking availability, or low game quality (Douvis, 2007). This paper aims to understand the constraints on soccer attendance in Portugal, and to compare groups, namely men and women, and fans of the first league and of lower leagues. Moreover, this research aims to perform a segmentation of the fans, by conducting a cluster analysis based on those constraints on attendance. Portuguese fans (n=1,866) completed a twenty minutes online survey about soccer fandom. Descriptive and multilevel analyses using SPSS software version 22.0 were conducted. Four clusters emerged from this analysis: *(1) The 'tight-fisted' fan* – This cluster is constituted by fans for whom the money related issues are prominently more important than the other issues; *(2) The 'equally constrained' fan* – In which fans obtained average scores in all of the components of constraints; *(3) The 'no constraints' fan* – This cluster is constituted by fans who are not constrained on their attendance; *(4) The 'constrained by others than soccer' fan* – In which the higher scores appear in the components that are less related to soccer itself, and more with other issues, such as money, and bad sportscape and violence. Further results and marketing implications are discussed.

Keywords

Introduction

Soccer certainly holds a global appeal (Giulianotti, 1999), and there is a huge passion among its followers. For instance in Portugal, soccer is commonly considered as a religion (Costa, 1997) and children learn to distinguish the colours by the colours of the main clubs (Coelho and Tiesler, 2007). In Portugal, the country where this research is conducted, soccer is the most important sport both in terms of economic impact, as well as regarding active and passive participants (Correia and Esteves, 2007). However, the attendance numbers in the first league are quite low, with an occupation rate of the stadiums of only 39%, i.e., 10,217 spectators / game, during season 2013-14 (Liga Portuguesa de Futebol, 2014). Coelho and Tiesler (2007) even describe it as a paradox in the Portuguese society: despite the centrality and omnipresence of soccer, only a small number of spectators actually go to the stadiums.

This paradoxical situation can be identified in other European countries as well. Over the past twenty years sports event attendance expenditure has been declining as a percentage of total recreation expenditure (Mullin et al., 2007). In the last decade, European clubs struggle to fill their stadiums, and see a gradual drop in attendance over the years. For instance, the Italian and the French leagues lost an average of 2,000 spectators since 2009 (http://www.european-football-statistics.co.uk/attn.htm).

A drop in attendance is a negative evolution for the sports sector. Attendance is important for sports events and represents a significant revenue stream for sports venues and sporting associations, with subsequent economic benefits for cities and regions (Hall et al., 2010), and therefore also for the local community. Fans are extremely important for sport clubs, as they generate a large part of the clubs' income by attending games, buying merchandise, paying to watch games on television or on the Internet, and attracting sponsors. They also contribute to the atmosphere in sports stadiums, the identity of the teams, and what makes those teams attractive for others (Koenigstorfer et al., 2010).

232

This paper aims to understand the constraints on soccer attendance in Portugal. Specifically, we want to investigate the factors that prevent or inhibit a fan from attending games at the stadium (Kim and Trail, 2010). Extensive research has been conducted on the motives for attendance (Lock and Filo, 2012), in different contexts, comparing groups and segmenting consumers (e.g., Snelgrove et al., 2008; Funk et al., 2009; Fink and Parker, 2009; Robinson et al., 2004; Dhurup, 2010). Even though several authors called the attention to the fact that motives for attendance are not the same as the constraints on attendance (e.g., Tomlinson et al., 1995), much less attention has been given to the motives that people have not to attend soccer games at the stadium, and empirical data is scarce. Besides, the few empirical studies that have been conducted come from the USA (Kim and Trail, 2010; Kim and Chalip, 2004; Trail et al., 2008), or from Australia (Lock and Filo, 2012), and fail to have into account the European soccer context. In Europe, the structure of the sports system is very different from the North American(Alexandris and Tsiotsou, 2012). Soccer clubs are mainly community based and rarely change places (Charleston, 2009). Moreover, in Europe people start being fans during their childhood or youth for some reason, and are not very likely to change clubs during their lifespan (Sá and Sá, 2009). While in Australian research, researchers state that preference for a team is developed through attendance (Lock and Filo, 2012), in European culture, attendance might be developed through team preference (Sá and Sá, 2009). More specifically, the preference for a club usually comes first, as a result of the influence of family or friends, at a young age, and often the fan starts attending only later, or not at all. This European soccer culture might be associated with specific constraints on attendance. With this research, we intend to cover this gap in research and investigate the attendance constraints in Europe.

Second, this research aims to perform a segmentation of the fans, by performing a cluster analysis based on those constraints on attendance. Different characteristics have been used to segment sport fans (Ross, 2007). Still, segmentation of soccer fans based on demographic variables, such as age, sex, income, needs to be supplemented with sector specific variables that

reflect the nature of the sport (Tapp and Clowes, 2002). Segmentation based on the motives to attend sports has already been performed (Quick, 2000). However, when we want to understand why the fans are not attending games at the stadium, then segmentation based on constraints cannot be neglected. By identifying the specific constraints on attendance of different groups of fans, the clubs can understand and target people, based on their reasons not to be at the stadium, and persuade them to do so.

Theoretical framework

This study aims to perform a segmentation of soccer fans based on their constraints on attendance. In this theoretical framework, we first give an overview about the constraints on sport attendance. Afterwards, we present a summary about segmentation research that has been performed in sport consumption.

Constraints on attendance

Several researchers have mentioned constraints on attendance, but only few of them conducted empirical research to support their hypotheses. In many cases, research has been performed about motives for attendance, and the authors infer that motivators and constraints are the opposite extremes of the same continuum. However, this may not be the case for all the factors. For instance, while a televised game might be a reason to stay at home, it does not mean that if the game is not televised, the person will attend the game. Therefore, motives and constraints should be studied separately. Next, we present an overview of constraints on attendance referred to in the literature.

Financial issues, in particular the price of the tickets and the total cost of the experience, including transport and food, are referred to as one of the most important constraints on attendance (Douvis, 2007; Tomlinson et al., 1995). Nowadays, across Europe, movements of fans gather to complain about how

their beloved game turned into a business. For instance, the "football without fans is nothing" movement in England fights for the clubs to find a way to lower the prices of the tickets that from the perspective of the movement are currently unbearable (http://www.fsf.org.uk/blog/view/Football-Without-Fans-Is-Nothing). For some countries, such as Portugal, the country where this research is conducted, soccer tickets are very expensive relatively to the income of its inhabitants and prices are therefore a reason not to attend (Coelho and Tiesler, 2007). Ticket prices of first league Portuguese soccer, ranging from 10 to 75 euros are really high, compared to the gross domestic product, or with the minimum wage in Portugal, which is less than 600 euros (http://www.tradingeconomics.com/portugal/minimum-wages). Besides, the unemployment rate has been higher than 15% since 2012, and a lot of workers are underpaid. Therefore, we hypothesise that money issues are the strongest constraint for attendance in Portugal.

In an essay about the low attendance rates in Portugal, Coelho and Tiesler (2007) referred to the expensive tickets as the most common way of explaining it. Another argument presented by these authors is the fact that the game is being played on television. The authors support the substitution effect, also referred by García and Rodríguez (2002), which states that people substitute the live experience by the televised experience, because it is cheaper, more comfortable (especially in case of bad weather), and because the schedules of the games are inconvenient for the fans (e.g., games being played on Sunday or Monday night, or even during midweek, as requested by the broadcasting companies). Inconvenient schedules were also referred by Zhang et al. (1995) as a constraint on attendance. Also Tomlinson et al. (1995) reported that television broadcasting was a constraint on attendance in several team sports, in the USA, while Villar and Guerrero (2009) concluded the same in an economy study in Spanish soccer. In another economy related study in English soccer, broadcasting live had a small negative effect on gate revenue for the best performing clubs and a much larger negative effect for the worst performing clubs (Cox, 2012). By contrast, Winfree (2009) states that television could not have a dramatic effect on gate attendance, because when a match is

not broadcasted, attendance rates are not much higher. Confirming this perspective, Lera-López et al. (2012) found a complementary effect of television broadcasting, i.e., a positive relationship between sports attendance in general and watching sports programmes on TV, in Spanish soccer.

Team identification has been shown to positively and strongly predict attendance (e.g., Kim and Trail, 2010; Wann et al., 2004; Won and Kitamura, 2006). Similarly, a lack of team identification has been referred to as a constraint on attendance in the study of Lock and Filo (2012). In their research, Lock and Filo explain that this lack of team identification can be of two kinds: a cognitive disassociation or a cognitive apathy. In cognitive disassociation, people have a negative perception of the group, in this case, of the club, and they do not want to associate with their values or characteristics, e.g., bad management, not sharing the values of soccer. In cognitive apathy, the individual sees no value in identifying or disidentifying with the group, e.g., is not interested in soccer, or lacks information about the club.

Other constraints have been mentioned in literature, but most of them without an empirical confirmation. Those factors include alternative leisure activities or alternative sport entertainment (Coelho and Tiesler, 2007; Trail et al., 2008), bad weather (García and Rodríguez, 2002; Trail et al., 2008), lack of success of the team or poor performance (Trail et al., 2008; Kim and Trail, 2010; Douvis, 2007; Coelho and Tiesler, 2007), family or work commitments (Tapp and Clowes, 2002; Trail et al., 2008), lost interest (Tapp and Clowes, 2002), sportscape factors, i.e., related to the conditions of the stadium, such as location of the stadium, accessibility to stadium and parking availability, poor facilities and service, problems with safety and with security (Trail et al., 2008; Douvis, 2007; Wakefield et al., 1996), lack of knowledge and lack of someone to attend with (Kim and Trail, 2010), and concentration of power among the top clubs (Coelho and Tiesler, 2007).

Segmentation studies in sport marketing literature

In the present research, we focus on fan segmentation. Segmentation, i.e., the process of identifying well-defined clusters of consumers, has not only been used to identify distinct groups, but also to develop marketing strategies that are designed to these groups (Ross, 2007). Cluster analysis has been used in sport marketing research, but also in different fields, such as for instance sports participation (e.g., Taks and Scheerder, 2006). Throughout the times, different characteristics have been used to segment sport fans (Ross, 2007; Alexandris and Tsiotsou, 2012).

Demographic and socioeconomic characteristics, such as sex, age, residence, household income are the classical variables used in market segmentation in general, and have been frequently used in spectator segmentation (Bouchet et al., 2011; Greenwell et al., 2002; Zapalac et al., 2010). Although these variables are very important to get to know the consumers, many other characteristics are also relevant to provide a more precise profile of the fans, when it comes to understanding aspects of the decision-making process, such as the decision to attend, e.g., psychographic variables such as personality, values and lifestyle characteristics, product usage patterns, attitudes towards products, benefits pursued, and attitudes towards marketing strategies (Ross, 2007; Bouchet et al., 2011; Greenwell et al., 2002). Next, we present several examples of different analysis performed in order to segment sport consumers.

Hunt et al. (1999) were the first ones to segment fan categories. According to the source of motivation and to the behaviour exhibited by different types of fans, they established an attachment continuum with *temporary, local, devoted, fanatical,* and *dysfunctional fans*. Their work was not based in empirical data and intended to be a first step on the fan segmentation.

Some research performed segmentation based on motives to attend games or follow a team. Quick (2000) divided the fans in five categories: (1) the *aficionados* are the fans who seek quality performance; (2) the *theatre goers*, who seek entertainment and want competitive balance; (3) the *champ followers*,

to whom the loyalty is related to the winning record of the team; (4) the *passionate partisans*, always strongly identify with the team; (5) and the *reclusive partisans*, strongly identified with the team, but do not often attend. While the three first categories have rational motives to keep following, the two last ones have irrational reasons for it. Tapp and Clowes (2002) divided the fans into *repertoire fans*, who regularly watch matches not involving their team, and *one club fans*, who are only following their club.

Tapp and Clowes (2002) also divided the fans based on the number of games they attend during one season. The *casual fans* attended one to nine games, the *regular fans* attended 10 to 18 games, and the *fanatics* attended more than 18 games. From a marketing perspective, the *fanatics* would attend supporter evenings, would like to receive regular information, and were more oriented to the winning record than to the entertainment; the *regulars* did not have soccer as a priority in their lives, and were more likely to be glory hunters; and finally, the *casuals* feel less part of the community, and were more interested in the entertainment dimension.

Giulianotti (2002) performed one of the most well-known segmentations of soccer fans. The author proposed a theoretical model about four types of soccer fans, according to their type of identification with the club: (1) the *supporters*, with a more traditional and deep relationship with the club, with a grounded identity; (2) the *fans*, a more consumer and market related identity, but still very strong, (3) the *followers*, with a traditional but cool relationship with the club; (4) and the *flaneurs*, who were the cool consumers, with a cosmopolitan identity and virtual relations. However, it should be noted that this segmentation was also not based on empirical data.

Biscaia, Correia, Menezes et al. (2012) segmented members of the club based on their perception of service quality and on their behavioural intentions, and found three clusters: (1) the occasional, with an intermediate perception of service quality, and the lowest repurchase intentions; (2) the die-hard, with the worst perception of service quality, but the stronger repurchase intentions; and

the weekend lovers, with the best perception of service quality, but lower repurchase intentions than the die-hard fans.

Alexandris and Tsiotsou (2012) empirically analysed Greek soccer fans, and segmented them into two segments of high and low team identification. The highly attached fans also had high scores in the self-expression and team involvement variables. Greenwell et al. (2002) also performed segmentation of minor league hockey fans in USA, based on demographics and on team identification. In this case, highly identified customers were less critical of the core product and to the facilities.

Other authors segmented the fans based on psychological characteristics, such as loyalty to the team (Funk and Pastore, 2000). Bouchet et al. (2011) constructed the sporting event experience search scale based on their own qualitative work (Bourgeon and Bouchet, 2001), and by performing a confirmatory factor analysis classified fans as *aesthetes*, *interactives*, *supporters*, or *opportunists*. In the same way, Mahony et al. (2000) segmented fans based on the psychological commitment to team scale, and named the categories as *low loyalty*, *latent loyalty*, *spurious loyalty* and *high loyalty*.

Pons et al. (2006) constructed the orientation toward a sporting event scale, classifying fans into three dimensions of *sensation seeking*, *cognition seeking*, and *socialisation seeking*. Then they formed four clusters based on the fans' scores in the scale: the *social fans*, the *super fans*, the *experiential fans*, and the *fans by default*.

Ross (2007) used cluster analysis to identify segments of spectators based upon the brand associations held for a professional basketball team, from NBA. Respondents were segmented into two groups only, based upon their perceptions of the sport brand, in this case, the club. Specifically, cluster one included individuals having more frequent and positive thoughts about their team, while cluster two included people scoring lower in brand associations such as commitment, team history or social interaction. Each cluster could be further distinguished based upon gender, educational level and household

income. Women, people with lower education and with a lower household were associated to cluster one.

Mullin et al. (2007) emphasised the importance of having into account the attendance habits of the fans, when performing segmentation. However, a lot of research performed so far in the field of sport consumption segmentation is psychologically and theoretically oriented, and much less related to the attendance and consumption habits. Specifically, so far no research has been performed based on the non-attendance habits of the fans. Moreover, while the sport marketeers have little or no control over the core product (Tapp and Clowes, 2002), they might have control over the way the club communicates with the fans, according to their attendance habits, e.g., according to their constraints on attendance.

In the present research, we aim not only to identify clusters according to the constraints of the fans on attendance, but also to understand different relevant characteristics of the fans of those clusters. More specifically, we want to differentiate the clusters based on some demographic characteristics, such as sex, age, and financial status, as well as fanographic variables, i.e., fan related characteristics (de Carvalho et al., 2014), such as interest for soccer, age fans became fans, level of the club they are fans of (i.e., first league or lower leagues), number of home games attended, and minutes they travel to the stadium. Finally, we also use team identification and place attachment to further distinguish the clusters. Team identification is the extent to which a fan feels psychologically connected to a team (Wann and Branscombe, 1993). Place attachment is the psychological connection a person has to a place, in this case, to the home stadium of their team (Moore and Graefe, 1994; de Carvalho et al., 2011).

Methods

Data collection

The present research was conducted in Portugal. Data were collected through a 20 minutes online survey, which was spread on the web through e-mail, Facebook pages but also the official pages of clubs or fan clubs. A Portuguese newspaper (*Jornal Record*) also published the link to the survey on the paper and on the online version. In this manner, instead of only reaching attendants around the stadium, we aimed to have a broad perspective, by reaching both attendants and non-attendants. The survey was online from November 15th, 2012 to January 31st, 2013.

Sample

In total, 1,866 people completed the survey. A preliminary analysis of the demographic characteristics of the sample showed that 59% of the respondents were male, with an age range from 11 to 68 years old ($\bar{x}_{age}$ = 25.8, SD = 9.3), and a moderate financial situation (5-point scale, 1 – *financially really difficult to live*, to 5 – *financially really easy to live*; $\bar{x}_{financial\ situation}$ = 3.2, SD = 0.8). Regarding their marital status, 62% were single, 19% were in a relationship, and 17% were married or living together. Finally, 61% of the respondents were students, and 29% were employed fulltime.

Measures

The survey included measures of: (a) demographics; (b) interest for soccer (5-point scale, ranging from 1 – *not interested at all*, to 5 – *very much interested*); (c) favourite professional soccer team; (d) age they became fans – any age from four years old; (e) minutes they took to their home stadium; (f) attendance – number of home games attended at their home stadium, during the previous

241

season; (g) the sport spectator identification scale – explained below; (h) the place attachment scale – explained below; (i) constraints on attendance scale – explained below.

Sport spectator identification scale (SSIS)

We used the Portuguese version of the SSIS (Wann and Branscombe, 1993; Theodorakis et al., 2010) to assess levels of TI. The seven items had to be rated on 7-point scales (ranging from, e.g., 1 – *not at all* to 7 – *very much)*, for example, "how strongly do you see yourself as a fan of your team?". The SSIS with the seven final items measuring the TI, showed a high reliability by the means of the Cronbach's Alpha (α = .91).

Place attachment scale (PAS)

We used an adapted version of the PAS (Kyle et al., 2004) to assess levels of PA. This scale was tailored to the context of professional soccer and translated into Portuguese by de Carvalho et al. (2011). Based on the face validity of the items, we selected three items corresponding to the dimensions of *Affective attachment*, that is, current emotional connection with the stadium (e.g., "I have a strong emotional bond with stadium X"), and two items corresponding to the dimension of *Social bonding*, that is, items related to the meaning, the memories, and the nostalgia towards the place (e.g., "I associate special people in my life with stadium X"). The neighbourhood where the stadium is located is generally also a meaningful place for the fans (Westerbeek and Shilbury, 1999). Consequently, we added one item about the place where the stadium is located, namely "the place where stadium X is located means a lot to me". The six items had to be judged on 5-point scales (ranging from 1 – *totally disagree*, to 5 – *totally agree*). The PAS measuring PA with 6 items showed a high reliability (α = .89).

Constraints on attendance scale (CAS)

For the CAS, participants had to answer the question "when you decide not to go to a soccer game, to what extent do the following motives / reasons affect

your decision to not attend?". The items (e.g., "lack of interest", "game being played on TV", or "lack of time") were rated on 5-point scales (ranging from 1 – *not at all* to 5 – *totally*). There was also an extra item, named "other", in which people could add an extra important reason not to attend.

We constructed this scale based on the constraints referred to in the literature and on a pilot study, performed with Portuguese high school students (n = 215). More specifically, we used 21 items derived both from existing research (Correia and Esteves, 2007; Douvis, 2007; Hall et al., 2009; Kim and Trail, 2010), and from an open answer question presented on the pilot study, asking the motives of the participants to attend soccer games. Face validity and content validity of the scale was finally assessed by experts.

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed on the 21 items of the CAS, with oblimin rotation. The KMO measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .91. Bartlett's test of sphericity, $\chi 2$ (210) = 16281.47, p < .001, indicated that the correlations between the items were sufficiently large for EFA. An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each component in the data. Based on the scree plot, the eigenvalues, and the reliability of the sub-scales, we extracted four components explaining 59% of the variance in total. Items clustering around the same component suggested that Component 1, with 5 items, included items referring to poor level of play and organisational issues; Component 2, with six items, included items related to disinterest and disidentification from soccer; Component 3, with three items, included items referring to money issues; and Component 4, with five items, included the motives related with violence bad and sportscape. All these subscales showed good (α > .70) to high (α > .80) reliability, as displayed in Table 1. We performed cluster analysis based on these four components. The item "lack of time / being too busy / work reasons", and also the item "bad weather conditions", did not load strongly on any of the four components. Therefore, these items were included separately in further analyses.

Data analysis

Descriptive and multilevel analyses were conducted using SPSS software version 22.0. We performed a cluster analysis (K-means) to identify sport fans with different levels and different attendance constraints. Unlike other statistical methods for classification, it makes no prior assumptions about differences in the population (Ross, 2007). By contrast, cluster analysis is a data analysis tool that sorts different objects into groups in a way that the degree of association between them is the greatest (Alexandris and Tsiotsou, 2012). The components of the CAS found in the EFA were included in a K-means cluster analysis. Finally, we conducted a logistic regression for each cluster, to determine the main characteristics of each cluster, i.e., to construct a profile of each cluster based on sex, age, financial status, interest for soccer, age fans became fans, level of the club they are fans of (i.e., first league or lower leagues), number of home games attended, minutes they travel to the stadium, team identification and place attachment.

Results and discussion

Fanographics and constraints on attendance

As can be seen in Table 2, the fans included in this study were strongly interested in soccer, became a fan really soon in life, at around six years of age, and attended around five home games during the previous season. These fans were strongly identified with their team and club's home stadium.

For the question "when you decide not to go to a soccer game, to what extent do the following motives / reasons affect your decision to not attend?", the results showed that "money related issues" was on the top of the ranking of the attendance constraints (Table 1).

Table 1 *Factor loadings for EFA with oblimin rotation of the CAS (n = 1,866)*

Items	$\bar{x}$ (SD)	Components			
		Bad level of play & organisational issues (1)	Disinterest & disidentification from soccer (2)	Money related issues (3)	Violence & bad sportscape (4)
Bad ranking or winning record / disappointment with the team	1.90 (1.16)	.644			
Lack of attractiveness / quality of soccer / bad opponent	2.37 (1.36)	.623			
Bad atmosphere (not enough people at the stadium / not cosy enough)	1.95 (1.19)	.611			
Bad schedules / we only know the schedules too late	2.86 (1.43)	.590			
Nobody to go with / Disinterest of friends or family	2.36 (1.34)	.417			
Bad weather conditions (cold / rain / cold and rain)	2.94 (1.38)				
Lack of time / being too busy / work reasons	**3.17 (1.39)**				
It's a waste of time	1.58 (1.02)		-.890		
Lack of interest	1.87 (1.21)		-.760		
Soccer mentality (too much money involved / no fair-play / corruption / too much attention to soccer)	2.20 (1.34)		-.584		
The kind of people that attend	2.00 (1.21)		-.523		
Soccer is boring, in general	1.85 (1.20)		-.423		
The game being played on TV	2.57 (1.38)		-.348		
Expensive tickets / too expensive tickets	**4.02 (1.22)**			.748	
Lack of money / alternative activities to spend money with	**3.56 (1.32)**			.637	
Expensive drinks / food / trip / all together	2.83 (1.52)			.454	
Crowded / unsafe / chaotic stadium	2.62 (1.49)				-.866
Violence at / around the stadium / hooliganism	2.84 (1.54)				-.790
Bad stadium conditions	2.26 (1.40)				-.749
Bad accessibility (not enough parking / no public transports or too expensive / difficult to reach)	2.50 (1.40)				-.458
Ugly stadium / bad architecture of the stadium	1.64 (1.01)				-.436
Eigenvalues		7.78	1.74	1.53	1.25
% of variance		37.1	8.30	7.27	5.93
α		.78	.82	.70	.87
Number of items		5	6	3	5
$\bar{x}$ (SD) components		2.29 (0.94)	2.01 (0.89)	3.47 (1.07)	2.37 (1.12)

Note: Factor loadings < .40 were suppressed to assist the screening

The individual items scoring a higher average were "expensive tickets / too expensive tickets", "lack of money / alternative activities to spend money with", and "lack of time / being too busy / work reasons". Therefore, according to the respondents, money and time are the most important reasons that keep them away from the stadium, in line with our expectations. Also Cardoso, Correia and Biscaia (2014) found that alternative leisure and sport activities were constraints on attendance, in Portuguese fans. Despite the fact that we do not know with which activities the fans are busy with, besides work, we can relate to the fact that people have alternative leisure and entertainment activities that substitute the soccer fandom (Coelho and Tiesler, 2007). On the contrary to previous research (Trail et al., 2008), bad weather was not the strongest constraint, and not even one of the strongest ones. The answers for the extra item "other" were sporadic. However, the reason that was referred in a more frequent way was "too far from home / too much time to get to the stadium" (n = 44). A lot of respondents who are living all over the country are fans of the three big clubs, namely FC Porto, Benfica, and Sporting Lisbon, that indeed can be located really far from their homes. Accordingly, it took the fans on average about one hour and a half to reach their home stadium (Table 2), and about 40% take more than one hour to reach it. There is a huge variation on the time people take to reach their home stadium.

Table 2   *Fanographics (n = 1,866)*

Fanographics	$\bar{x}$ (SD)	%
Number of home games attended	5.08 (6.76)	
Interest for soccer (5-point scale)	4.11 (1.04)	
Age to became a fan	6.38 (4.55)	
Minutes to home stadium	94.40 (96.14)	
Team identification (SSIS – 7-point scale)	4.93 (1.33)	
Place attachment (PAS – 5-point scale)	3.29 (1.04)	

Division in which their favourite club plays	
First league	96.0
Second league or lower	4.0

We performed a group comparison between fans of the first league and of lower leagues, and between men and women. Significant differences are presented in Table 3. In accordance to previous research, financial constraint was predicted by gender, as men were less likely than women to report that cost is a constraint (Kim and Chalip, 2004). In a minor league North American hockey team, women were less critical of the team's performance than men (Greenwell et al., 2002). On the contrary to previous research, women did not give less importance to performance than men. According to previous research, women are more worried with violence and sportscape when they decide not to attend (Tapp & Clowes, 2002). Previous research did not compare fans of the first league and of the lower leagues. Disidentification & disinterest for soccer, and money related issues were found to be more important for fans of the first league. Interestingly, people consider themselves fans, they have a strong team identification ($\bar{x}$ team identification = 4.9, SD = 1.3), but feel disconnected with the sport itself, showing that in Portugal, to be a fan of a club, people do not must be big fans of soccer at the stadium.

Table 3 *Group comparisons (1ˢᵗ league vs. lower leagues and men vs. women)*

Component	$\bar{x}$ (SD)	$\bar{x}$ (SD)	Differences
	1ˢᵗ league fans	Lower league	
Disidentification & disinterest for soccer (2)	2.02 (0.89)	1.75 (0.81)	t (1738) = 2.49* 1ˢᵗ league fans give more importance to these factors when they decide not to attend
Money related issues (3)	3.49 (1.07)	3.02 (1.14)	t (1784) = 3.58*** 1ˢᵗ league fans give more importance to the price when they decide not to attend
	Men	**Women**	
Disidentification & disinterest for soccer (2)	1.93 (0.85)	2.12 (0.93)	t (1433) = 4.17 *** Women have more into account these factors, when they decide not to attend
Money related issues (3)	3.37 (1.10)	3.62 (1.01)	t (1639) = Women give more importance to price when

247

	4.82 ***	they decide not to attend
Bad sportscape & Violence (4)	2.23 (1.11) 2.57 (1.11) t (1748) = 6.19 ***	Women are more worried with violence and sportscape when the decide not to attend

*p<.05; *** p<.001, two-tailed.

Cluster analysis

To identify sport fans with kind and levels of constraints on attendance, we used cluster analysis (k-means) on the CAS. Cluster analysis is a way to identify like-minded individuals (Ross, 2007). We extracted four clusters of fans based on their constraints on attendance. We tested between groups and within groups' differences, using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Cluster means were found to be significantly different on the four components of constraints on attendance, indicating that all the four components of constraints on attendance contributed to the cluster formation (Table 4).

Table 4   *Cluster centres and ANOVA (n = 1,866)*

Component	Cluster (n)				F
	1 (496)	*2* (409)	*3* (341)	*4* (404)	
Bad level of play & organisational issues (1)	1.76	2.27	1.60	3.44	752.83***
Disinterest & disidentification from soccer (2)	1.52	2.15	1.40	2.95	500.84***
Money related issues (3)	3.82	3.80	1.84	4.05	991.21***
Violence & bad sportscape (4)	1.48	2.91	1.43	3.69	1693.13***

*** p < .001

Based on the mean score of the components of constraints on attendance, we named the four clusters as follows: *(1) The 'tight-fisted' fan* – This cluster is constituted by fans for whom the money related issues are prominently more important than the other issues; *(2) The 'equally constrained' fan* – In which fans obtained average scores in all of the components; *(3) The 'no constraints' fan* – This cluster is constituted by fans who are not constrained on their

attendance; (*4) The 'constrained by others than soccer' fan* – In which the higher scores appear in the components that are less related to soccer itself, and more with other issues, such as money, and bad sportscape and violence.

Marketing implications

Knowledge of constraints on attendance it is essential because poor attendance might reflect that constraints are more salient to the fans than motivators (Kim and Trail, 2010).

In fact, in every cluster we found, there are structural constraints, i.e., interfering factors that are typically environmental and situational based, and include substitutes or alternatives to sport attendance. This is the type of constraints in which the marketeers have more control about and can overcome with their management and marketing plans (Trail et al., 2008).

In this research, costs were, on average, rated as a significant constraint. As Douvis (2007) and Kim & Trail (2010) reported, we found that ticket cost was a constraint on attendance. This suggests that income-based segmentation may allow event marketers to reach those who are least likely to feel constrained by event costs. Effective event marketing may also be accomplished through a lower level of perceived constraint on the prices, especially in a country such as Portugal, with an economical crises going on. This means that perhaps these constraints can be attenuated by a better marketing communication with the fans.

Ferreira & Bravo (2007) reminds that ticket price might not influence consumer behaviour, but it must be kept in mind that total cost, with food, beverages and merchandise included, might be more important. Food prices are often too expensive and managers of soccer clubs might adopt pricing objectives that result in at least some food prices that are more competitive with outside alternatives (Wakefield & Sloan, 1995). Bernstein (2011) stated that soccer is tribal and its fans do not shop around for the cheapest team in town. On the

short term higher prices might even lead to higher revenues (Winfree, 2009). However, setting lower ticket prices will be compensated by more expenses on other products in the stadium (Miller, 2009).

However, solving problems with price related issues would particularly attract people from Cluster 1.

The increased safety and the problem tackling of hooliganism have significantly increased the share of women in soccer stadiums (Tapp & Clowes, 2002). Clubs should enhance this improvement, if they want to attract women to the stadium. In this case, a safe stadium would also attract people from Cluster 2 and from Cluster 4. Once more, communication might be the key, as people going less to the stadium are the ones complaining more about security and safety issues, maybe because of is spread by the media.

People from Cluster 3 are the less constrained. This does not mean that they attend to every game. It might be important to attract these people, the enhancement of the positive side, of the motives to attend. They are not constrained, but they might be not motivated to attend as well. In this case, special actions with the team, or side activities before and after the games, might attract them to the stadium.

Limitations and future research

This is a non-representative, convenience sample. Even though the sample had a considerable number of participants, these people were self-selected by their participation online. Therefore, data might have been biased by their general interest for soccer.

We cannot forget that constraints interact with strength of motivation for the participation decision (Kim and Trail, 2010). Future research should aim finding clusters that include both constraints and motives for attendance.

References

Alexandris K and Tsiotsou R. (2012) Segmenting soccer spectators by attachment levels: a psychographic profile based on team self-expression and involvement. *European Sport Management Quarterly,* 12: 65-81.

Battle R, Bosshardt A, Bridge T, et al. (2014) All to play for. In: Jones D (ed) *Football Money League.* Manchester: Deloitte.

Bernstein J. (2011) Ticket prices about to tumble? You're having a laugh! Retrieved September 15, 2014 from http://www.newstatesman.com/sport/2011/06/football-laugh-season-fans.

Bhattacharya C and Elsbach K. (2002). Us versus them: the roles of the organizational identification and disidentification in social marketing initiatives. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 21 (1): 26-36.

Bouchet P, Bodet G, Bernache-Assollant I, et al. (2011) Segmenting sport spectators: construction and preliminary validation of the sporting event experience search (SEES) scale. *Sport Management Review*, 14 (1): 42-53.

Bourgeon D and Bouchet P. (2001) La recherche d'expériences dans la consommation du spectacle sportif. *Revue Européenne de Management du Sport,* 6: 1-47.

Biscaia R, Correia A, Menezes VG, et al. (2012) Members' segmentation, service quality and behavioral intentions : A case study of a professional team. *Revista Intercontinental de Gestão Desportiva,* 2 (suplement): 34-44.

Cardoso J, Correia A and Biscaia R. (2014) Influência das restrições na lealdade dos espectadores de futebol : Sport Lisboa e Benfica. *Revista Brasileira de Ciências do Esporte*, 36 (1): 141-154.

Charleston S. (2009) The English football ground as a representation of home. *Journal of Environmental Psychology,* 29 (1*)*: 144-150.

Coelho JN and Tiesler NC. (2007) The paradox of the Portuguese game: The omnipresence of football and the absence of spectators at matches. *Soccer & Society,* 8: 578-600.

Correia A and Esteves S. (2007) An exploratory study of spectators' motivation in football. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing,* 2 (5/6): 572-590.

Costa AS. (1997) À volta do estádio – O desporto, o Homem e a sociedade. [Around the stadium – Sports, Mankind, and society]. Porto: Campo das letras.

Cox A. (2012) Live broadcasting, gate revenue, and football club performance: some evidence. *International Journal of the Economics of Business,* 19: 75-98.

de Carvalho M, Scheerder J, Boen F, et al. (2014) What brings people into the soccer stadium? (Part 2) The case of Portugal from a marketing perspective. Leuven: University of Leuven.

de Carvalho M, Theodorakis N and Sarmento JP. (2011) Translation and Portuguese validation of the place attachment scale. *Variorum,* 1: 1-11.

Dhurup M. (2010) Motivational variables that influence fan attendance in domestic rugby matches. *African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation and Dance,* 16: 204-220.

Douvis J. (2007) A Review of attendance and non-attendance studies. *Journal of Biology of Exercise,* 3: 5-20.

Ferreira M and Bravo G. (2007) A multilevel model analysis of professional soccer attendance in Chile 1990-2002. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship,* 8 (3): 254-271.

Fink J and Parker H. (2009) Spectator motives: Why do we watch when our favorite team is not playing? *Sports Marketing Quarterly*, 18: 210-217.

Funk D, Filo K, Beaton A, et al. (2009) Measuring the motives of sport event attendance: Bridging the academic-practitioner divide to understanding behavior. *Sports Marketing Quarterly,* 18: 126-138.

Funk D and Pastore D. (2000) Equating attitudes to allegiance: the usefulness of selected attitudinal information in segmenting loyalty to professional sports teams. *Sports Marketing Quarterly,* 9: 175-184.

García J and Rodríguez P. (2002) The determinants of football match attendance revisited: empirical evidence from the Spanish football league. *Journal of Sport Economy,* 3: 18-38.

Giulianotti R. (1999) *Football - A Sociology of the global game,* Cornwall: Polity Press.

Giulianotti R. (2002) Supporters, Followers, Fans, and Flaneurs: A Taxonomy of Spectator Identities in Football. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues,* 26: 25-46.

Greenwell TC, Fink J and Pastore D. (2002) Perceptions of the service experience: using demographic and psychographic variables to identify customer segments. *Sport Marketing Quarterly* 11: 233-241.

Hall J, O'Mahony B and Vieceli J. (2009) A model of predictors of attendance at major sporting events. *ANZMAC 2009.* Melbourne: 1-9.

Hall J, O'Mahony B and Vieceli J. (2010) An empirical model of attendance factors at major sporting events. *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 29: 328-334.

Hunt K, Bristol T and Bashaw RE. (1999) A conceptual approach to classifying sports fans. *Journal of Services Marketing,* 13: 439-452.

Kim N-S and Chalip L. (2004) Why travel to the FIFA World Cup? Effects of motives, background, interest, and constraints. *Tourism Management,* 25 (6): 695-707.

Kim YK and Trail G. (2010) Constraints and motivators: A new model to explain sport consumer behavior. *Journal of Sport Management,* 24 (2): 190-210.

Koenigstorfer J, Groeppel-Klein A and Schmitt M. (2010) "You'll never walk alone" – How loyal are soccer fans to their clubs when they are struggling against relegation? *Journal of Sport Management,* 24: 649-675.

Kyle G, Mowen A and Tarrant M. (2004) Linking place preferences with place meaning: An examination of the relationship between place motivation and place attachment. *Journal of Environmental Psychology,* 24: 439-454.

Lee J-H, Kim H-D, Ko YJ, et al. (2011) The influence of service quality on satisfaction and intention: A gender segmentation strategy. *Sport Management Review,* 14: 54-63.

Lera-López F, Ollo-López A and Rapún-Gárate M. (2012) Sports spectatorship in Spain: attendance and consumption. *European Sport Management Quarterly,* 12: 265-289.

Liga Portuguesa de Futebol (2014) Estatísticas. Liga Portuguesa de Futebol. Retrieved October 11, 2014 from http://www.ligaportugal.pt/oou/estatisticas/espectadores/clube/20132014

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

Mahony D, Madrigal R and Howard D. (2000) Using the psychological commitment to team (PCT) scale to segment sport consumers based on loyalty. *Sports Marketing Quarterly,* 9: 15-25.

Miller P. (2009) Subsidized monopolists and product prices: the case of Major League Baseball. *Applied Economics*, 41 (25): 3249-3255.

Moore R and Graefe A. (1994) Attachments to recreation settings: the case of rail-trail users. *Leisure sciences,* 16: 17-31.

Mullin B, Hardy S and Sutton W. (2007) *Sport Marketing,* Champaign: Human Kinetics.

Pons F, Mourali M and Nyeck S. (2006) Consumer Orientation Toward Sporting Events. *Journal of Service Research,* 8: 276-287.

Quick S. (2000) Contemporary sport consumers: some implications of linking fan typology with key spectator variables. *Sport Marketing Quarterly,* 9: 149-156.

Robinson M, Trail G and Kwon H. (2004) Motives and Points of Attachment of Professional Golf Spectators. *Sport Management Review,* 7 (2*)*: 167-192.

Ross S. (2007) Segmenting sport fans using brand associations: a cluster analysis. *Sport Marketing Quarterly,* 16: 15-24.

Sá D and Sá C. (2009) *Sports marketing – As novas regras do jogo,* Porto: IPAM.

Snelgrove R, Taks MT, Chalip L, et al. (2008) How Visitors and Locals at a Sport Event Differ in Motives and Identity. *Journal of Sport & Tourism,* 13: 165-180.

Taks M and Scheerder J. (2006) Youth sports participation styles and market segmentation profiles. Evidence and applications. *European Sport Management Quarterly,* 6: 85-121.

Tapp A and Clowes J. (2002) From ``carefree casuals'' to ``professional wanderers'' Segmentation possibilities for football supporters. *European Journal of Marketing,* 36: 1248-1269.

Theodorakis N, Wann D, de Carvalho M, et al. (2010) Translation and initial validation of the Portuguese version of the sport spectator identification scale. *North American Journal of Psychology,* 12: 67-80.

Tomlinson M, Buttle F and Moores B. (1995) The fan as a customer: customer service in sports marketing. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing,* 3: 19-36.

Trail G, Robinson M and Kim YK. (2008) Sport Consumer Behavior: A Test for Group Differences on Structural Constraints. *Sports Marketing Quarterly,* 17: 190-200.

Villar JG and Guerrero PR. (2009) Sports attendance: a survey of the literature 1973-2007. *Rivista di diritto ed economia dello sport,* V: 111-151.

Wakefield K, Blodgett J and Sloan H. (1996) Measurement and management of the sportscape. *Journal of Sport Management,* 10: 15-31.

Wakefield K and Sloan H. (1995) The effects of team loyalty and selected stadium factors on spectator attendance. *Journal of Sport Management,* 9 (2): 153-172.

Wann D, Bayens C and Driver A. (2004) Likelihood of attending a sporting event as a function of ticket scarcity and team identification. *Sports Marketing Quarterly,* 13: 209-215.

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

Westerbeek H and Shilbury D. (1999) Increasing the focus on 'place' in the marketing mix for facility dependent sport services. *Sport Management Review,* 2: 1-23.

Winfree J. (2009) Fan substitution and market definition in professional sports leagues. *Antitrust Bulletin,* 54: 801-823.

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

Zapalac R, Zhang J and Pease D. (2010) Understanding women's collegiate volleyball spectators from the perspectives of sociodemographics, market demand and consumption level. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship*, 11 (4): 320-343.

Zhang J, Pease D, Hui S, et al. (1995) Variables affecting the spectator decision to attend NBA games. *Sports Marketing Quarterly,* IV: 29-39.

V.   GENERAL DISCUSSION

1. Summary of the main findings

1.1. Main findings reported in the papers

This research included three main studies, each one of them with different objectives. Study 1 and Study 2 were groundwork for Study 3, the main study. Figure 1 shows a schematic overview of the three studies.

Figure 1. Schematic overview of the three studies included in the PhD

Study 1
Literature review
Portuguese sample (n = 161, 70.2% males)
Data collection: survey around the stadium
Translation from English to Portuguese and validation of the SSIS and of the PAS

Study 2
Belgian (n = 173, 81.5% males) and Portuguese (n = 188, 50.5% males) samples
Data collection: survey in high schools
Predictors of soccer attendance in youngsters

Study 3
Belgian (n = 4,482, 89% males), and Portuguese (n = 1,866, 59% males) samples
Data collection: online survey
Predictors of soccer attendance
Constraints on soccer attendance

Following, we shortly describe the frame and aim of the studies, and we present a summary of the main findings of each study.

In Study 1, we conducted a literature review that established the theoretical background for this doctoral thesis. Furthermore, we performed a translation

from English to Portuguese, and elaborated a Portuguese validation of (i) the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS) in order to measure team identification (TI), as well as of (ii) the Place Attachment Scale (PAS) in order to measure place attachment (PA) to the home stadium of the team. The study consisted of spectators who attended a soccer game between two professional league teams in Portugal. Results indicated that the Portuguese version of both scales were reliable and valid instruments for use by researchers in Portuguese-speaking countries attempting to assess sport team identification and place attachment, respectively.

Study 2 comprised the expansion of the specific survey about sport fandom and soccer attendance, and the translation to Dutch. It was also the aim of this part to investigate soccer attendance habits and motivations among young Belgian and Portuguese fans, in this case, high school students. Study 2 worked as a pilot study both for the Belgian and the Portuguese contexts of Study 3. Data were collected in high schools of Aveiro, Portugal, and Leuven, Belgium, with 16-19 year old youngsters with different attendance habits, as we reached attendants and non-attendants by means of the educational system. Belgian students were three times more likely to attend games than the Portuguese students. Lifestyle emerged as the strongest predictor of soccer attendance for youngsters, and not TI, as previous research showed among adults. TI was also a significant predictor for Belgian young fans, but not for the Portuguese ones. Time people need to get to the stadium showed a negative relationship with attendance among Belgian students, but not among Portuguese students. Financial status presented a positive relationship with attendance for Belgian students, but not among Portuguese students. From our findings it was clear that sex and age were not predictors of attendance for youngsters.

Study 3 aimed to investigate the soccer attendance habits and motivations among Belgian and Portuguese fans, based on the pilot study (Study 2) and by means of an online survey data collection. Moreover, the establishment of the relationship between TI, PA, attendance and constraints on attendance, was

also aimed. Finally, the investigation about the origin of TI, this is, the investigation about why fans began to support their team at the beginning, was also included.

For the Belgian sample, results revealed that TI and PA were significant predictors of attendance. Specifically, the more fans identified with their club and with their stadium, the more games they attended. Moreover, becoming a fan because of "it is the club of my region", "family tradition" and "influence of others than family" was also positively related to the number of games attended. Becoming a fan because of "player(s) of the club" was negatively related to attendance. Age to become fans was significantly and positively related to attendance, and the time people need to get to the stadium was significantly and negatively related to attendance. The strongest motives for people to become a fan of their team were "it is the club of my region", "one or several players of the club", and a "memorable victory of the club". Moreover, fans with a stronger TI, fans with a stronger PA, and younger people were less constrained by the sportscape when deciding not to attend a game. Finally, PA partially mediated the relationship between TI and sportscape as a constraint on attendance.

For the Portuguese sample, we focused on the analysis of the constraints on attendance. Results showed that the item of "money related issues" was on the top of the ranking of the attendance constraints. The individual items scoring a higher average were "expensive tickets/too expensive tickets", "lack of money/alternative activities to spend money with", and "lack of time/being too busy/work reasons". Therefore, according to the respondents, money and time are the most important reasons that keep them away from the stadium. On the contrary to previous research, bad weather was not the strongest constraint, and not even one of the strongest ones. In the cluster analysis, we extracted four clusters of fans based on their constraints on attendance. Based on the mean score of the components of constraints on attendance, we named the clusters as follows: *(1) The 'tight-fisted' fan* – This cluster is constituted by fans for whom the money related issues are prominently more important than the

other issues; *(2) The 'equally constrained' fan* – In which fans obtained average scores in all of the components; *(3) The 'no constraints' fan* – This cluster is constituted by fans who are not constrained on their attendance; *(4) The 'constrained by others than soccer' fan* – In which the higher scores appear in the components that are less related to soccer itself, and more with other issues, such as money, and bad sportscape and violence.

1.2.   Additional findings

Within the framework of this PhD research, we collected a huge amount of data that, so far, could not be included in the seven papers. For instance, in Study 3, we collected data from fans and from non-fans, but the papers only focused on the fans. Moreover, also with data from Study 3, we performed group comparisons between women and men, fans of the first league and fans of lower leagues, and frequency of attendance. These comparisons are reported in two *Sport Policy & Management Publications* (de Carvalho et al., 2013; de Carvalho et al., 2014). For more details and results we refer to these studies. However, we would like to include in this PhD thesis, the most important findings. The figures are presented as follows: Table 1 includes results from the Belgian sample, and Table 2 includes results from the Portuguese sample.

Table 1. Additional findings for the Belgian sample (adapted from de Carvalho et al., 2013)

Group	Results
Non-fans	▪ Significantly older, mostly women, and have a better financial situation
	▪ Soccer is still their favourite sport to watch / attend, followed by cycling
	▪ Attended 2.5 soccer games last season, but most of them did not attend any game
	▪ Only ¼ would not attend soccer games anyway
	▪ Would attend more if the tickets were cheaper, if the soccer in Belgium would be more attractive, if sportscape would be better, and if there were offers or promotions

Fans	▪ Fans from 12 years old, and for 23 years; became fans of that team because it was the club of their region, saw a significant victory, or because of some players
	▪ Strongly identified with the team and moderately identified with the home stadium (they take 1 hour to get to the stadium)
	▪ Attended games to support the team, for the soccer, for a derby, for the live experience
	▪ Think that the tickets and the overall experience is too expensive, claim lack of time to attend games and complain about the schedules
	▪ Would go more with better soccer, and if the sportscape conditions improved
Fans of the 1st league	▪ Slightly more identified with the team than the fans of lower leagues
	▪ Attended 9 home games and 2 away games during previous season
	▪ Live further from their home stadium than the fans of lower leagues
	▪ Level of play is more important in their decision to attend, than for the fans of lower leagues; and money issues are crucial in their decision not to attend
	▪ Demand for cheaper tickets, better level of play and better sportscape, especially, conditions around the stadium
Fans of lower leagues	▪ More identified with the home stadium than the fans of the 1st league
	▪ Attended 9 home games and 4 away games during previous season
	▪ Demand for cheaper tickets, better level of play and better sportscape, specially, conditions inside the stadium
Men	▪ More interested in soccer, fans since a younger age, and for a longer time
	▪ Became fans of the team because it was the club of their region, because of some players, and because they saw a memorable victory
	▪ Organisational issues, such as lack of time, or the game is being televised, and bad level of play keep the men away from the stadium in a stronger way
	▪ To attend more, they demand for cheaper tickets; for them, better sportscape, better level of play, and good players, are more important than for women
Women	▪ More attached to the stadium than men
	▪ Became fans of the team because it was the club of their region, because of some players, and for family tradition
	▪ To attend more, they demand for cheaper tickets; for them better sportscape inside of the stadium, marketing related measures, such as offers and promotions, and special prices for groups, are more important than for men
People attending more	▪ Have a stronger interest for soccer, have stronger TI and PA, dedicate more time to the team / week, fell safer at the stadium, and attend games to support the team, for the soccer, for the excitement and for the fun, for the live experience, and to escape

Table 2. Additional findings for the Portuguese sample (adapted from de Carvalho et al., 2014)

Group	Results
Non-fans	▪ Strongly disconnected from soccer (low interest for soccer and more than half of the non-fans would not attend a soccer game anyway) ▪ 2/3 are women ▪ Soccer is still their favourite sport to watch / attend, followed by gymnastics ▪ Attended 0.4 soccer games last season, but most of them (80%) did not attend a single game ▪ Would attend more if the tickets were cheaper, if the clubs would improve the safety, and if the soccer in Portugal would be more attractive
Fans	▪ Fans from 6 years old, with 90% being fans already before 12 years old; became fans because of family tradition, because it was the club of their region, or because they saw a significant victory ▪ Strongly identified with the team and moderately identified with the home stadium (they take 1,5 hour to get to the stadium) ▪ Attended games to support the team, for the soccer, for a derby, for the live experience; 33% did not attend a single game ▪ Think that the tickets and the overall experience is too expensive, claim lack of money and of time to attend games ▪ Would go more if the tickets were cheaper, if there were offers and promotions, and if there were special prices for groups
Fans of the first league	▪ Attended 5 home games and 1 away game during previous season; take 1h30 to get to their home stadium ▪ Money related issues are more important and crucial in their decision to attend and not to attend, than for the fans of lower leagues ▪ Disinterest and detachment from soccer are the strongest reasons for them not to attend ▪ Demand for cheaper tickets, offers or promotions, and special prices for groups
Fans of lower leagues	▪ More identified with soccer, the team, and the home stadium than the 1st league fans; much more are members of the club ▪ Attended 9 home games and 4 away games during previous season, much more than the 1st league fans ▪ Live closer from their home stadium than the fans of the 1st league (20 minutes) ▪ Demand for cheaper tickets, special prices for groups, and better management
Men	▪ More interested in soccer, fans since a younger age and for a longer time; attended more home and away games ▪ Sociopsychological motives, such as supporting the team or the live experience,

	are the most important for; sportscape is also more important for men
	▪ Expensive prices, organisational issues, and bad level of play keep the men away from the stadium
	▪ To attend more, they demand for better prices overall; significantly more than women, they demand better level of play, good and famous players, and a better management
women	▪ Cheap tickets and cheap total price are the most important for women in their attendance decision, and even more than for men
	▪ Expensive tickets, violence and bad sportscape, and disinterest and detachment for soccer keep women away from the stadium, even significantly more than men
	▪ To attend more, they demand for better prices overall
	▪ Significantly more than men, they demand offers and promotions, and safety
People attending more	▪ Have a stronger interest for soccer, have stronger TI and PA, dedicate more time to the team / week, live closer to the stadium, are less constrained by violence and bad sportscape when deciding to attend a game at the stadium

2. *Marketing implications*

This doctoral thesis includes a variety of data that can be useful for clubs and institutions, from a marketing perspective. Therefore, we think that this section has a solid value within the context of this doctoral thesis.

Convincing marketing actions need to be taken in order to bring more people into the stadium, considering that currently sport fans are overwhelmed with other consumption offers as well (Shank, 2009). This is because, from the perspective of the club, an empty stadium also means less money that flows from the game itself, or from the sponsors. In that case, less capital can be used with players, coaches, youth teams, or improvements in the community. Besides, the world soccer phenomenon, with social repercussions would not exist without the fans.

Clubs should be specific in their quest for attendees, i.e., each segment should be targeted in a particular way. It goes without saying that the chosen strategies should vary according the aims and the budget of each club or service provider.

A club can adopt several measures at the same time, or choose only some of them, depending on the money it can spend, and depending on the professional expertise it has inside of the club, i.e., marketeers and managers. Either way, the fans should get convinced that the money is worth spending in a soccer game at the stadium, compared to the big consumption offer of other entertainment activities, such as other sports, cinema, arts, TV, videogames, or Internet.

Research must meets practice. The club should be sensitive to the problems or proposals of the fans, and to research such as the present one. A further factor for the success of Euro2004 can be seen in the effective cooperation between research and police practice (Schreiber & Stott, 2012). Also a systematic relationship system, not only with the database of the fans, but also with special features for different kind of fans is advised. Selecting which information to send to the fans, and the kind of communication based on their profiles, is the next step (Buhler & Nufer, 2010). This process can be accomplished with the use of customer relationship management software. Smaller clubs can opt for simpler solutions, such as manually grouping the fans according to their needs.

When it comes to the **sportscape,** the situation of both countries is actually completely different. As presented in Chapter II, Sub-chapter 4, Belgium has old and small stadiums, while Portugal has big, recently built or renewed stadiums that suffer with empty stands. Belgian people complained more about the bad sportscape and they demanded improvements in this area, while in Portugal there were almost no complaints about the sportscape. When asked what has to be changed in Portuguese soccer, Portuguese people focused largely on the **money related issues.** For them, the tickets and the overall experience are too expensive, and therefore they asked for cheaper tickets (74%), offers and promotions (37%), and special prices for groups (36%). The recently built or renewed stadiums were very expensive for the clubs and for the cities, and at the moment they are still being paid by the supporters as well, by paying the expensive tickets. Given the current economic situation of the country, it is

difficult for people to attend games at the stadium, even if they really want it. Portuguese people did not actually complain about sportscape, bad level of play, or lack of side entertainment. They just complained that they do not have enough money to attend games. Clubs should start improving their marketing strategies related to price. Frequently giving free tickets without differentiation is not a good strategy. It shows that the club is desperately looking for fans at the stands, and that should not be the message coming from the club (Buhler & Nufer, 2010). The message should show that the club cares about the person as a fan, and their partners, children, or friends. For instance, clubs can sell two tickets for the price of one, for two people to go together to the games (e.g., 'take your wife with you', or 'take your children with you'), or for the same person to attend two games (e.g., 'attend this game and get another game for free').

Fans that live further from the stadium have, as we found in Study 2 and Study 3, more difficulties to go to the games, whether because they do not have time to travel to the game, or because of money related issues, such as total price of travel, food, and ticket to attend. It is not just the time the activity takes, but also the time that it takes to engage in it (Rein et al., 2006). For those fans, special packs could be defined, in order to make the offer more attractive (e.g., 'bring a friend for free if you live further than...'). Integrating transportation considerations into all facility design plans is also essential (Rein et al., 2006). However, forcing all the fans to travel in a certain bus when they want to attend away games (the *combiregeling* in Belgium obliges fans to travel to some away games, which are considered of high risk, in an organised bus, not allowing them to travel in their private transportation) cannot be the only solution, as several respondents of our survey showed unpleasantness for it. On the other hand, if the fans live in the surroundings of the stadium, they can be informed on short notice if there are still available tickets for the match (Buhler & Nufer, 2010).

Non-fans rarely attend games, as we have shown in this thesis. We also found that people became fans of their club especially due to their father and also to their friends, mostly during their childhood. The fact that the club was the club of their city or region was also a big plus point to become a fan. Reaching youth early in the child development, imprints the club on the child's memory channel, and increases the potential for creating and enduring fandom (McNeal, 1992; Rein et al., 2006). Therefore, clubs should find strategies to attract the local youngsters to be their fans, through their father and friends specially. Some examples of good practices are presented as follows (Buhler & Nufer, 2010). Borussia Dortmund, from the German Bundesliga, invites youngsters from eleven to sixteen years old with a discounted price, to a special section on their standing terrace, where the number of fans is limited, to avoid squeezes. In addition, they are sometimes invited to play in the field before the actual game. Babysitting services are becoming also more common in several clubs, allowing the parents to comfortably attend the game, and connecting the children to the club since a young age. Another example is the German Bundesliga club Hannover 96, which gives a discount to fathers or mothers that bring their children to the stadium.

Men complain more, but they are more passionate. Measures of the *reasons not to go to the games* scored always higher with men in our research. This means that men complain more. Nevertheless, they are the ones attending more, and they cover a big number of the fans. We think they still attend more, because their passion is stronger. Increasing the passion for soccer with women might be a solution to attract them to the stadium.

One of the motives that keep people away from the stadium, especially the older ones, is the fear for **violence or problems with safety** at the stands, either in the Belgian or the Portuguese sample. In our survey, people referring that the clubs should improve safety inside and around the stadium were, in average, fifteen years older than the ones that did not refer to it. Despite the great stadium conditions in Portugal, especially in the 1st league stadiums, 20% of people still have some issues with the violence inside and around the

stadium. We should analyse the violence matters carefully. We should notice that soccer fan behaviour is not a synonym of violence anymore (Murad, 2007). We agree with Murad when he states that fan violence in soccer, occurs quantitatively and qualitatively at a lower level. Besides, this small number of violence incidents is possible to be easily seen on TV, while other kind of violence is hidden inside doors. The media pay much attention to it, and every small incident turns into a newspaper headline. Moreover, they report the incidents as if they are the most common occurrence, while in fact, these are rare incidents. In this manner, people suffer more with the threat of violence, than with the violence itself. It is the role of the clubs, federation, service providers in general, and even of the media, to change this image of violence in the Portuguese soccer. With a better image of soccer with respect to violence related issues, more people might consider going to the stadiums, namely, those that are looking for a peaceful and nice experience at the stadium. Although it was not our aim to study the specific issue of violence and safety, we articulate some examples to prevent, diminish or control this problem. Findings support that there is a connection between low-profile policing and non-violent norms among crowds attending international tournaments (Schreiber & Stott, 2012). According to data collected on the Euro2004, the European championship of soccer, held in Portugal, a "friendly but firm" low-profile approach might be a solution. A ticketing process that has into account the distribution of fans of both clubs in the stands, a smooth organization of the entrances and ways out of the stadium, avoids dissatisfaction at first. The study of Schreiber and Stott suggests that a key feature of the approach at Euro2004 was the fact that police officers (both plainclothes and uniformed police) were embedded within the crowd, enabling them to monitor and react to emerging problems at an early stage. As such, they were able to deal with events before they escalated and therefore potentially to avoid initiating the group-level dynamics known to be responsible for rioting at previous international tournaments in Europe.

A better level of play was requested. The low level of play is also a general criticism of the participants, especially from Belgium. Some would state that a way of turning the sport into a more attractive activity would be changing some rules of the sport itself, or of the competition. For instance, a team could get extra points if they would win with a three goals difference. However, this is an issue that demands a lot of discussion and long-term decisions. Shorter-term strategies could involve buying new players or hiring a new coach. However, these are decisions that have to account with a lot of money as well. Therefore, clubs could implement two kinds of cheaper strategies. In one hand, improve their youth teams, so these young athletes can reach the senior team with more quality. There should be a shift on the way clubs see the youth teams. Parallel to what happens in marketing, where attracting a new client is more expensive than keeping the current clients (Brito et al., 2006), it might be cheaper for the clubs to invest in their own youth teams, than buying adult players all the time. On the other hand, a certain attractive model of game is also a possible way of calling the attention of some people (e.g., more attacking, more aesthetic). People might be looking for a group to identify with, and they might be attracted by a certain *personality* of the brand, in this case, of the club (Aaker, 1997).

3. Limitations and future research

We started this thesis by explaining that it was not our main aim when collecting data from two countries, to compare the results of the samples from the two countries as if it was an actual comparison between the entire countries. Belgium and Portugal are similar in several aspects, such as the number of inhabitants or the average number of spectators at the soccer stadiums. However, the samples are not representative for the respective countries, when it comes to socio-demographics (e.g., sex, age) or fanographics (e.g., interest for soccer, number of fans of clubs represented). In this manner, we could not generalise results for the entire country, but we could establish sound relationships.

Another limitation of this research is the fact that we did not incorporate in our survey and in our models, the role of the social media in the current fandom culture. Facebook pages, blogs, official website of the club, online gaming, are some of the most used tools to be close to the fans and to attract them to the stadium. Future research should incorporate social media in their models. This issue is even more important in a world that is constantly changing online, and where clubs or players have thousands of fans in continents others than the one they play. Fans can also be part of the decisions of the club (Buhler & Nufer, 2010). Customers are increasingly gaining power and taking control over and within organisations (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009). An illustrating example of extreme power given to sport fans is the Ebbsfleet United (for more information about this case, check Chapter 2, Section 5.). Future research should focus on ways to get fans involved, and on the effects of fans' involvement is the club's management and success.

In our research we found that for youngsters from Belgium and from Portugal, lifestyle was more prominent in predicting attendance than TI. However, it is unclear if this happened because youngsters are different in their motives to attend, or if society is changing in their fandom culture, and this lifestyle factor will be more significant as time goes by. Future research should replicate this research with other samples of young fans.

A segment that is becoming really important for clubs is the VIP corporate segment. Although we did not include it in our research, because it was difficult to reach this segment in particular, future research should focus on the importance of VIP clients to the clubs, and on the relationship of the clubs during match days with corporations and stakeholders.

Future research should focus on the other side of the relationship, i.e., on the supply side, such as the clubs, the federations, and the cities. We know what fans want, but what are the clubs doing at the moment? In which fields can they improve? Which are the management models that are being used, and which marketing strategies are being adopted? Are clubs doing the best they can with their resources and context?

Most of the times, the stadiums are totally, or at least partially, built with public resources. Either way, the stadiums should be planned thinking about their short-term, medium-term and long-term future use. Empty stadiums are a public issue, because they are often directly or indirectly financed by the taxpayers. Parameters such as number and kind of fans that are already visiting the stadium, potential clients, number of games per year, number of non-soccer activities per year, size and economic situation of population, cultural and sport competitors, and accessibility, should be included when planning the stadium construction. A lack of strategic thought when planning and building sport facilities for, for instance, big tournaments, such as European or World championships, frequently leads to huge expenses that cannot be covered by a reduced rate of use of the facility. Future research should also focus on the ideal dimensions of the stadiums, i.e., optimal number of seats, which kind of seats, parking places, and others, according to each context, club and/or city. This research should be based on indicators such as (1) the size of population of the country and/or of the region, (2) the number of fans, (3) the socioeconomic situation of the population and of the fans, (4) the history and the future of the club, regarding their financial situation, ranking and short-term and long-term objectives, (5) the kind of use of the facility, e.g., soccer games only, multisport, or multifunctional arena, and the kind of activities organised, (6) and the available budget. This criterion research could assist the decision makers when planning the new stadiums, or renewing the older ones.

We would like to wrap up this section with a limitation that is also an added value of this PhD thesis: the huge amount of data collected allowed us to establish some innovative, interesting and pioneering relationships. However, it was also difficult to conduct some choices.

4. Final considerations

As a conclusion, we would like to enhance the three most important contributions of this PhD research. First, previous research did not distinguish between younger and older fans. Consequently, it was believed until now that TI was the main predictor of attendance for people of all ages. One of the main theoretical contributions of this PhD research is that it brought to light that youngsters may have other motives to attend soccer games, such as lifestyle enclave, that are more important than TI in predicting live sport attendance.

Moreover, this PhD research adds the concept of PA to the prediction of attendance, and shows that it is deeply related to TI. This relationship has not been shown before. It also increases the knowledge about the meanings of places in leisure research in general.

Finally, this PhD research has shown another relationship that so far has not been established theoretically, even though the common sense would state it: the more identified people are with their team and their stadium, the less importance they attribute to a rather poor sportscape when they decide not to attend a soccer game at the stadium.

Sport marketing strategies should be based both on the work of scientists who conduct sound research using modern marketing science, as well as on the work of field experts that complete it with creative ideas (Shank, 2009). In our research, our aim was to collect and analyse data, interpret it from a scientific and from a practical perspectives, bringing light to the theories about sport consumption, fan behaviour and soccer attendance, but also making it useful to the sport community. Finally, we are happy to say that we agree with the famous quote "Football without fans is nothing": this PhD was about the soccer fans, and it was performed by a soccer fan. We hope that our work turns out to be valuable, not only for the scientific audience, but to the service providers that are soccer related as well, and that, at the end, it can benefit the sport fans.

5. References

Aaker, J. (1997). Dimensions of brand personality. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 37(3), 347-356.

Binkhorst, E., & Den Dekker, T. (2009). Agenda for co-creation tourism experience research. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 18*(2-3), 311-327.

Brito, C., Ramos, C., & Carvalho, P. (2006). *Parcerias no negócio electrónico*. Porto: Sociedade Portuguesa de Inovação.

Buhler, A., & Nufer, G. (2010). *Relationship marketing in sports*. Oxford: Elsevier.

de Carvalho, M., Scheerder, J., Boen, F. & Sarmento J. P. (2013). *What brings people into the soccer stadium? (Part 1) The case of Belgium from a marketing perspective* (Sport Policy & Management 18). Leuven: KU Leuven/Policy in Sport & Physical Activity Research Group.

de Carvalho, M., Scheerder, J., Boen, F. & Sarmento J. P. (2014). *What brings people into the soccer stadium? (Part 2) The case of Portugal from a marketing perspective* (Sport Policy & Management 19). Leuven: KU Leuven/Policy in Sport & Physical Activity Research Group.

McNeal, J. (1992). *Kids as customers: a handbook of marketing to children*. New York: Lexington Books.

Rein, I., Kotler, P., & Shields, B. (2006). *The elusive fan: reinventing sports in a crowded marketplace*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Schreiber, M., & Stott, C. (2012). Policing international football tournments and the cross-cultural relevance of the social identity approach to crowd behaviour. *Police Practice and Research, 13*(5), 407-420.

Shank, M. (2009). *Sports Marketing - A Strategic Perspective* (4th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson International Edition.

VI. APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Letters to schools, in Portuguese and in Dutch – Study 2

O que leva as pessoas ao Estádio de futebol?

Estudo de Doutoramento em Marketing desportivo

Caro/a Diretor/a,

O futebol desempenha um papel importante na nossa sociedade. Muitas pessoas estão directa ou indirectamente, de uma forma ou de outra, envolvidas com o futebol, como apaixonados, adeptos ou espectadores. Por outro lado, toda a gente conhece e/ou convive com alguém que acompanha o futebol de perto.

Este questionário faz parte de um estudo de doutoramento sobre os motivos que levam ou não as pessoas aos estádios de futebol. Neste sentido, queremos encontrar quais os factores que, duma perspectiva sociológica e psicológica, influenciam a assistência a jogos ao vivo.

Este estudo pretende comparar os jovens de duas cidades, Aveiro (Portugal) e Leuven (Bélgica), relativamente à assistência a jogos de futebol no estádio. Assim vimos por este meio pedir o apoio da sua Escola para realizar este estudo. A vossa cooperação é fundamental na operacionalização deste estudo. O instrumento do estudo é um questionário on-line. Apenas vos pedimos que nos permitam motivar os vossos alunos do 11° e 12° anos e dos 2° e 3° anos dos cursos profissionais, quer sejam adeptos de futebol ou não, para preencherem o questionário em casa. Concretamente, pedimos que coloquem o link para o questionário on-line (http://faber.kuleuven.be/enquete/futebol) na intranet da vossa escola e que enviem um e-mail aos alunos do 11° e 12° anos e dos 2° e 3° anos dos cursos profissionais, convidando-os a participar no estudo. Se possível, gostaríamos de ir pessoalmente a cada sala de aula e explicar em cerca de 5 minutos o propósito do estudo e a forma de participação.

Realçamos que o preenchimento do questionário por parte dos alunos é anónimo. Todos os dados serão tratados de forma confidencial e para fins exclusivamente científicos.

Agradecemos desde já a sua colaboração!

Para qualquer esclarecimento, entre em contacto com Mariana de Carvalho (mariana.decarvalho@faber.kuleuven.be).

Prof. Dr. José Pedro Sarmento
Dra. Mariana de Carvalho
Faculdade de Desporto da Universidade do Porto - Gabinete de Gestão Desportiva (Portugal)

Prof. Dr. Jeroen Scheerder
Prof. Dr. Filip Boen
Dr. Mart Buekers
KU Leuven, FaBeR - Departement Bewegingswetenschappen (België)

279

Wat brengt mensen naar het voetbalstadion?

Onderzoek naar het bijwonen van voetbalwedstrijden

Beste Directeur,

Voetbal speelt een belangrijke rol in onze samenleving. Heel wat mensen zijn dan ook rechtstreeks of onrechtstreeks, van ver of van dichtbij betrokken bij het voetbal, bijvoorbeeld als fan, als toeschouwer of kent wel iemand die fan of toeschouwer van een voetbalploeg is.

Deze vragenlijst is een onderdeel van een doctoraatsstudie over de motieven van mensen om al dan niet naar het stadion te gaan om een voetbalwedstrijd bij te wonen. Op deze manier willen we te weten komen wat de factoren zijn die vanuit een sociologisch en psychologisch perspectief een invloed hebben op de aanwezigheid van mensen in het stadion.

Het onderzoek vergelijkt de jongeren van twee steden, Leuven (België) en Aveiro (Portugal), met betrekking tot het bijwonen van voetbalwedstrijden. Daarvoor hadden we graag de medewerking van uw school gevraagd. Deze medewerking is uiterst belangrijk voor ons onderzoek. We gebruiken een online vragenlijst om de data te verzamelen. Met uw steun en toestemming zouden wij de leerlingen van het 5de en 6de leerjaar van uw school, of ze nu voetballiefhebber zijn of niet, willen motiveren om de vragenlijst thuis online in te vullen. Concreet zouden wij u willen vragen om de link naar de vragenlijst (http://faber.kuleuven.be/enquete/voetbalfan) op het Intranet (*Smartschool* of *Blackboard*) van uw school te plaatsen én een mail naar elke leerling van het 5de en 6de leerjaar te sturen waarin u ze uitnodigt om aan dit onderzoek deel te nemen. Indien mogelijk, zijn wij uiteraard bereid om persoonlijk naar elke klas te gaan en de leerlingen in maximaal 5 minuten het doel van de studie uit te leggen en aan te geven hoe ze kunnen deelnemen.

We benadrukken dat het invullen van de vragenlijst door de leerlingen op anonieme wijze gebeurt. Alle gegevens zullen bovendien vertrouwelijk worden behandeld en uitsluitend voor wetenschappelijke doeleinden worden aangewend.

Alvast bedankt voor uw medewerking!

Indien u nog vragen zou hebben, kan u contact opnemen met Mariana de Carvalho (mariana.decarvalho@faber.kuleuven.be).

Prof. dr. Jeroen Scheerder

Prof. dr. Filip Boen

Prof. dr. Mart Buekers

dra. Mariana de Carvalho

KU Leuven, FaBeR, Departement Bewegingswetenschappen (België)

Prof. dr. José Pedro Sarmento

Faculdade de Desporto da Universidade do Porto, Gabinete de Gestão Desportiva (Portugal)

Dhr. Mohamed Ridouani

Schepen van Onderwijs van de stad Leuven

Appendix 2. Survey of Study 3

Note – The survey was an online survey; in this manner, this document represents the content of the survey, but not the template that was presented online.

This questionnaire is divided in 3 parts:

- The **FIRST PART** is about you, your interest for **soccer** and your profile as a **soccer fan (or not)**;
- The **SECOND PART** asks about your **live attendance habits and soccer consumption choices**;
- The **THIRD PART** contains some questions about your **background**.

There are no "right" or "wrong" answers, simply be honest in your responses.

NUMBER	QUESTION AND ANSWER
	FIRST PART

NUMBER	QUESTION AND ANSWER
1	Are you interested in soccer? (*Choose one number from 1 to 5*) **Not interested at all** 1 2 3 4 5 **Very much interested**
2	Do you consider yourself as a fan of a specific soccer club? **YES** ☐ **NO** ☐ **If YES questionnaire goes on to Q3; If NO questionnaire goes to another set of questions of second part, then 3ʳᵈ part is again the same (explain to Jos)**
3	Of which club are you a soccer fan? (*Choose 1 club, your favourite club*) Anderlecht ☐ KAA Gent ☐ Bergen ☐ Beerschot ☐ Kortrijk ☐ OH Leuven ☐ Cercle Brugge ☐ Lierse ☐ Standard ☐ Charleroi ☐ Lokeren ☐ Waasland Beveren ☐ Club Brugge ☐ Mechelen ☐ Zulte Waregem ☐ Genk ☐ Other: _____
4	Since what **age** are you a fan of this club? Since _____ **years old.**
5	To what extent did the following items influence you to **become a fan** of this club? Choose the number that best corresponds with your opinion:

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all	**A bit**	**In between**	**Much**	**Very much**

	1	2	3	4	5
Family tradition	1	2	3	4	5
To go against the family tradition	1	2	3	4	5
Ranking of the club by that time	1	2	3	4	5
Influence of others than family	1	2	3	4	5

The fact that I saw an important victory of the club		1	2	3	4	5
The club came to my school when I was a kid		1	2	3	4	5
I was playing in the club		1	2	3	4	5
Other: _____		1	2	3	4	5

6

Who was/were the person/s that **most influenced** you to become a fan of this club? (*you can choose more than 1 option*)

Father ☐	Brother/s / Sister/s ☐	Teacher / Coach ☐
Mother ☐	Grandfather / Grandmother ☐	Friend/s ☐
Other: _____		None ☐

7

Are you a member of the club (Portuguese) / of a fan club of the team (Belgian)? **YES** ☐ **NO** ☐

8

Please answer the following questions based on your feelings for the **team** listed above (Question 3). In each one of the items, choose one number from 1 to 7.

a. How important to YOU is it that the team listed above wins?
 Not important 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 **Very important**

b. How strongly do YOU see YOURSELF as a fan of the team listed above?
Not a fan at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 **Very much a fan**

c. How strongly do your FRIENDS see YOU as a fan of the team listed above?
Not a fan at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 **Very much a fan**

d. During the season, how closely do you follow the team listed above via ANY of the following: a) in person or on television, b) on the radio, c) television news or a newspaper, or d) the Internet?
 Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 **Almost everyday**

e. How important is being a fan of the team listed above to YOU?
Not important 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 **Very important**

f. How much do you dislike the greatest rivals of the team listed above?
Do not dislike 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 **Dislike very much**

g. How often do YOU display the team's name or insignia at your place of work, where you live, on your clothing or on your car?
Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 **Always**

9

The following questions are related to your bound **to the stadium** of the team you referred to in Question 3 (**X Stadium**).

Choose the number that best corresponds with your opinion:

1	2	3	4	5
Totally disagree	Disagree	I don't agree or disagree	Agree	Totally agree

I have a lot of fond memories of past experiences with family and friends in the X Stadium.	1	2	3	4	5
I have a strong emotional bond to the X Stadium.	1	2	3	4	5
I really enjoy the X Stadium.	1	2	3	4	5
The X Stadium means a lot to me.	1	2	3	4	5
I associate special people in my life with the X Stadium.	1	2	3	4	5
The place where the stadium is located means a lot to be	1	2	3	4	5

SECOND PART – FAN ONLY

10

This question focuses on your opinion about the items **in your life**.

Choose the number that best corresponds with your opinion:

1	2	3	4	5
Totally disagree	Disagree	I don't agree or disagree	Agree	Totally agree

Attending soccer games at the stadium is part of my lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5
It is a tradition to attend soccer games at the stadium in my family	1	2	3	4	5
It is a tradition to attend soccer games at the stadium in my group of friends	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy being with family at the stadium	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy being with friends at the stadium	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy being with other fans and part of the crowd at the stadium, I feel like I belong to a group or tribe	1	2	3	4	5
It is important meeting/networking with people that can help me in my professional life at the stadium	1	2	3	4	5
I get a success feeling when the team I'm supporting wins	1	2	3	4	5
I get a failure feeling when the team I'm supporting loses	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy guessing the plays that are going to happen next during the soccer game	1	2	3	4	5
I feel that my presence at the soccer games is important to the team I'm supporting (either economically, or sentimentally)	1	2	3	4	5
I like to follow the rituals of the soccer game at the stadium, I feel that I belong to a group or a tribe.	1	2	3	4	5
A soccer game at the stadium is good entertainment for me	1	2	3	4	5
I feel that I can escape from the reality when I attend a soccer game at the stadium	1	2	3	4	5
I feel relaxed when I attend a soccer game at the stadium	1	2	3	4	5
I feel that I can let go my emotions when I attend a soccer game at the stadium	1	2	3	4	5
I feel that a soccer game can be too exciting or stressing	1	2	3	4	5
I like to celebrate special occasions (birthdays, holidays or others) attending a soccer game at the stadium	1	2	3	4	5

11	Do you have a **season ticket** for the home games of your team? **YES** ☐ **NO** ☐
12	How many official home games of the first team of your club did you attend at the stadium during the last season? _____ **home games.**
13	How many official away games of the first team of your club did you attend at the stadium last season? _____ **away games.**
14	How much time, **in minutes**, does it take to get from your home to being seated at the stands to attend a game, at the home stadium of the first team of your club? Please **include** time travelling to the game, parking (if applied), entering the stadium, and **exclude** leisure time, like being in the bar with friends or shopping before the game. _____ **minutes.**

15	On average, how many hours do you dedicate to your club, during a week (including going to the stadium, seeing games, news or Teletext on TV, at home or at the bar, chatting or surfing on the internet, reading newspapers, talking with friends, etc.)? (*Choose 1 option*) | **0 – 1 h**	**>1h – 3h**	**> 3h – 6h**	**> 6h**	

16	This question intends to understand the reasons that take you to the stadium to attend to a live soccer game. We want to know: why are you going? **When you decide to go to a soccer game, to what extent do the following motives/reasons affect your decision to attend?** Choose the number that best corresponds with your opinion:

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all	**A bit**	**In between**	**Much**	**Very much**

	1	2	3	4	5
A good atmosphere at the stadium	1	2	3	4	5
To support my team from close	1	2	3	4	5
To be with friends at the stadium / to go with friends / to do something with friends	1	2	3	4	5
For the soccer itself / liking soccer / for the game	1	2	3	4	5
For the excitement / for the "adrenalin"	1	2	3	4	5
A special game (derby / decisive / important / international / final)	1	2	3	4	5
To see the players live / for the players (famous players / good players)	1	2	3	4	5
Special actions with the team (for example: autograph session / interaction of players with audience)	1	2	3	4	5
For the fun / for amusement / for diversion / for pleasure	1	2	3	4	5
Free entrance	1	2	3	4	5
For the live experience / prefer seeing soccer live	1	2	3	4	5
Good quality / attractive soccer	1	2	3	4	5
Previous good performances of my team					
Free entrance / if I get a ticket for free	1	2	3	4	5
Low price of the tickets (cheap / cheaper than usual / promotions with the price of the ticket)	1	2	3	4	5
Special marketing actions (for example: free consumptions, like drinks or food / offers during the game / entertainment before the game or during the break / after party)	1	2	3	4	5
Knowing someone that plays/played in the team / playing or having played in the team	1	2	3	4	5
Good stadium conditions (for example: comfortable seats / clean stands and toilets / no waiting lines / good service quality / good screens / good	1	2	3	4	5

sound / good view to the field of play)					
Beautiful stadium / Pretty architecture of the stadium	1	2	3	4	5
Accessibility (enough parking / public transports / easy to reach)	1	2	3	4	5
Safety (easy movement in the stands and corridors / not too much crowded / peaceful environment)	1	2	3	4	5
Feeling of belonging (to be part of something big / to share the moment with the crowd / to interact with other fans)	1	2	3	4	5
To escape (to do something else / to relax / to be away from home / to let the stress go / to get away from the routine)	1	2	3	4	5
To be with family at the stadium / to go with family members / to have family moments	1	2	3	4	5
Other(maximum 5 words): _____	1	2	3	4	5

17

This question intends to understand the reasons that keep you away from the stadium to attend to a live soccer game. We want to know: why you are not going?

When you decide to not go to a soccer game, to what extent do the following items affect your decision to not attend?

Choose the number that best corresponds with your opinion:

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all	A bit	In between	Much	Very much

Expensive tickets / too expensive tickets	1	2	3	4	5
Expensive drinks / expensive food / expensive all together	1	2	3	4	5
Bad accessibility (not enough parking / no public transports or too expensive / difficult to reach)	1	2	3	4	5
Violence at/around the stadium / hooliganism	1	2	3	4	5
Crowded/unsafe / chaotic stadium	1	2	3	4	5
Bad stadium conditions (for example: uncomfortable seats / dirty stands and toilets / waiting lines / bad service quality / bad screens / bad sound / bad view to the field of play)	1	2	3	4	5
Ugly stadium / bad architecture of the stadium					
Lack of time / being too busy	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of money / alternative activities to spend money with	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of attractiveness / quality of soccer	1	2	3	4	5
Soccer is boring, in general	1	2	3	4	5
Bad weather conditions (cold / rain / cold and rain)	1	2	3	4	5
It's a waste of time	1	2	3	4	5
Nobody to go with / Disinterest of friends or family	1	2	3	4	5
The game being played on TV	1	2	3	4	5
The kind of people that attend	1	2	3	4	5
Soccer mentality (too much money involved / no fair-play / corruption)	1	2	3	4	5
Bad ranking or winning record / disappointment with the team	1	2	3	4	5
Bad atmosphere (not enough people at the stadium / not cosy enough)	1	2	3	4	5
Bad schedules	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of interest	1	2	3	4	5
Other (maximum 5 words): _____	1	2	3	4	5

18

What could the club improve to make you **attend more**? Choose the **3 most important** measures that the club could take.

Better stadium conditions (better seats and stands / better toilets / less waiting lines / improved service quality / better screens and sound)	
Better conditions around the stadium (more parking / more or cheaper public transports / better accessibility)	

	Improve safety around and inside stadium (less violence)	
	Cheaper tickets	
	Special prices for groups (friends and family)	
	Offers / promotions	
	More side entertainment	
	Media exposure and information	
	Better management	
	Play better soccer (attractive / better quality)	
	Hire good/famous players	
	Better ranking	
	Nothing, I'm already going often	
	Nothing, I won't go anyway	
	Other (maximum 5 words): _____	

SECOND PART – NON FAN ONLY

12	How many official games did you attend at the stadium last season? _____ **soccer games**.
17	
18	

THIRD PART

With these items we just want to get to know you better.

The information you give here is confidential and won't be used for promotional actions.

19	Year of birth: _____
20	Sex: Male [ ] Female [ ]
21	City where you were born: _____
22	Educational status: (ADAPTED TO EACH LANGUAGE) No education [ ] Primary school [ ] Basic school (+) [ ] High school (+) [ ] College [ ] University [ ]

291

23	Marital status: Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced / Separated ☐ Widowed ☐ Living together ☐ In a relationship ☐
24	Employment status: Still a student ☐ Employed full time ☐ Employed part time ☐ Unemployed ☐ Housewife/househusband ☐ Retired ☐
25	Profession:
26	Financially, how is it to live at your home? (*Choose one number*) **Really difficult** 1 2 3 4 5 **Really easy**
27	In general, what are your **3 favourite sports to attend/watch**? 1st Favourite sport: _____ 2nd Favourite sport: _____ 3rd Favourite sport: _____
28	How many times do you practice sports during a week (*choose 1 option*)? Less than 1 time / week 1 time /week 2-4 times / week More than 4 times / week
29	Which sport/s do you **practice**? 1st sport: _____ 2nd sport: _____ 3rd sport: _____
30	If you want to be informed of the results of this study, please leave your e-mail: _____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION!