

An Examination of Predictors of Watching Televised Sport Programming

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The current investigation examined percentages of viewing time for six different types of televised sporting events: events involving a favorite team, events involving a moderately supported team, events involving a rival of a favorite team, events involving neither a rival nor a preferred team, sport news shows, and sport documentaries. Four variables were examined as predictors of percentage of time spent viewing the six forms of sport programming: biological sex, level of sport team identification, level of general sport fandom, and level of involvement in fantasy sports. Results from 448 college students revealed several significant findings, including team identification as a predictor of watching a favorite team's games and sex as a predictor of watching sport news programming (men had higher percentages than women).

With the popularity of sport television and the large sums of money at stake in terms of advertisement sales (e.g., a single commercial spot for the 2011 Super Bowl cost as much as \$3 million), it is not surprising that sport science and marketing professionals have attempted to better understand sport television viewing patterns and motivations (Raney, 2006). For instance, Mahony and Howard (1998) examined sport television viewing preferences as a function of the teams involved. They found (perhaps not surprisingly) that fans reported a greater desire to watch a game involving a favorite team relative to a contest involving teams they did not follow. Wann, Friedman, McHale and Jaffe (2003) revealed that the majority of fans view sport television viewing as a social activity, preferring to watch sport programming with others.

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North American Journal of Psychology, 2013, Vol. 15, No. 1, 179-194.
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In this investigation, our aim was to extend previous research by further investigating the televised sport viewing habits of fans. The current work had two main purposes. The initial focus examined the percentage of time individuals watch various forms of televised sport programming. We chose to examine percentages of sport viewing time dedicated to six different forms: events involving a favorite team, events involving a moderately supported team, events involving a rival of a favorite team (i.e., a rival team playing a non-preferred team), events involving neither a rival nor a preferred team (i.e., non-involved games), sport news shows (e.g., SportsCenter), and sport documentaries. Participants reported viewing behaviors separately for the forms of live competitions because research indicates that motivational patterns and viewing preferences can be different for games involving different teams (Fink & Parker, 2009; Lee & Armstrong, 2008; Mahony & Howard, 1998; Mahony & Moorman, 1999). Hence, it was necessary to get independent percentages for the different types of games.

The second focus examined several predictors of percentage of time spent viewing the sport programs. We examined the impact of four predictors: sex, level of team identification, level of sport fandom, and level of involvement in fantasy sports. As for sex, studies have found that men are more likely to be deeply involved in sport than women (Dietz-Uhler, Harrick, End, & Jacquemotte, 2000; Wann, 2002) and men typically report more frequent viewing than women of many forms of televised sporting events (Lee & Armstrong, 2008).

The second predictor variable, team identification, concerns the extent to which a fan feels a psychological connection with a team (Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann, Melnick, Russell, & Pease, 2001). Level of identification is a predictor of many fan behaviors, including aggression (Wann, Carlson, & Schrader, 1999), belief in sport curses (Wann & Zaichkowsky, 2009), and attendance (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998). Team identification is also a significant predictor of sport television viewing (Bernache-Assollant, Bouchet, & Lacassagne, 2007; Fisher, 1998) and sport television viewing preferences (Mahony & Moorman, 1999).

The third predictor was level of sport fandom. Sport fandom concerns the extent to which an individual considers him/herself a fan and identifies with the role of sport fan (Wann, 2002). Although team identification and sport fandom are positively correlated (Wann, 2002; Wann & Weaver, 2009; Wann & Zaichkowsky, 2009), they are separate constructs. Specifically, team identification involves how much a fan identifies with a specific team and sport fandom involves a fan's interest in a sport. One can be a highly involved sport fan without necessarily having a favorite team, and vice versa. It is possible that team

identification and fandom will predict viewing for different events. That is, although team identification might predict percentage of time watching a favorite team (and perhaps a rival team), level of fandom may predict viewing of other programs such as sport news shows and documentaries.

The fourth predictor was level of involvement with fantasy sports. Fantasy sports involve “leagues” of fans who draft professional or college players to construct their “team.” The fantasy team’s performance is determined by the players’ actual statistical performances. Fantasy leagues can involve many different sports (e.g., baseball, basketball, NASCAR) but football tends to be the most popular (Sager, 2006). Although there are several fan motives for participation in fantasy sports (Lomax, 2006), two common motives are “ownership” and “achievement” (Spinda & Haridakis, 2008). The ownership motive involves control of a team while the achievement motive concerns a sense of accomplishment felt when one’s team does well. Because fantasy sports typically involve current player performances and team “owners” initiate numerous transactions (e.g., trades, dropping or signing players, etc.), keeping up-to-date with the actual sport can be critical for successful team ownership. Consequently, persons involved in fantasy sports may spend a relatively larger proportion of their sport viewing time on news programs to acquire information necessary for the success of their fantasy teams.

Before discussing the specific hypotheses of the study, an overview of the methodology is in order. Because we were interested in sport television viewing patterns, we had to choose between several different operational definitions. For instance, we could have assessed absolute amounts of sport television viewing, such as the number of hours per week persons watched games, sport documentaries, and so forth. However, we chose instead to assess percentages of overall sport viewing time for each of the target programs. That is, we investigated what proportion of sport television viewing time was devoted to various types of programs. Essentially, this allows one to answer the question, “When you watch televised sport, what do you tend to watch?” For instance, consider an individual (Person A) who watched two hours of sport television in a week, all of which was dedicated to watching her favorite basketball team play. Thus, 100 percent of this individual’s sport television viewing was dedicated to a contest involving her favorite team. Now consider a second individual (Person B) who watched ten hours of sport television programming in a week: two hours of a game involving his favorite team, two hours of a game involving a rival, two hours of a game involving neither a favorite nor a rival, two hours of a sport documentary, and two hours of sports news. If one simply summed the

number of hours spent watching a favorite team play on television, these two persons would have the same score (i.e., two hours). But it is clear that their televised sport viewing patterns are quite different. Although they may have both spent the same amount of time watching a favorite team, Person A spent all of her sport viewing time on this one type of event. Consequently, we felt that assessing percentages painted a more accurate picture of the sport television viewing patterns we were interested in investigating.¹

Research Question and Hypotheses

As noted above, the preliminary focus examined the percentage of time individuals watch various forms of sport programming on television. Due to an absence of literature in this area, we examined this focus with the framework of a research question that asked, "What percentage of their sport television viewing time do persons spend on various types of sport programming?" With respect to the second focus (predictors of time spent viewing sport programming), based on the aforementioned literature, the following hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis 1. The first pair of hypotheses involved participant sex. It was expected that men (relative to women) would spend a greater percentage of their sport television viewing time watching sport news programming (H1A) and sport documentaries (H1B). These predictions were based on the aforementioned research indicating that men tend to be more involved in sport as fans than women (e.g., Dietz-Uhler et al., 2000; Lee & Armstrong, 2008) and these programs would likely be of special interest to involved fans.

Hypothesis 2. The second series of hypotheses targeted team identification. It was predicted that identification would be a significant positive predictor of percentage of time spent watching contests involving a favorite team (H2A) and contests involving a rival team (H2B). These hypotheses stem from literature indicating that identification predicts sport viewing (Bernache-Assollant et al., 2007; Fisher, 1998) and that identification is related to perceptions and dislike of rivals (Luellen & Wann, 2010; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Thus, highly identified fans were expected to watch games involving a favorite to root for that team and games involving rivals to root against them, a pattern consistent with the Disposition Theory of Sport Spectatorship (Bryant, 1989). Further, it was hypothesized that identification would be a significant negative predictor of percentage of time spent watching contests that do not involve either a favorite, moderately liked, or rival team (H2C). We expected highly identified fans would report that most of their viewing time was dedicated to games important to their preferred teams (i.e., games involving this team or a rival). Consequently, they

would have little time left (as indicated by small percentages) to watch non-involved games.

Hypothesis 3. The next pair of hypotheses concerned level of sport fandom. It was hypothesized that fandom would be a significant positive predictor of percentage of time spent viewing sport news programming (H3A) and sport documentaries (H3B). The logic employed here was similar to that involving sex described above. That is, we expected persons with higher levels of involvement as a fan to be more likely to watch these types of programs.

Hypothesis 4. The final hypothesis (H4) concerned level of involvement with fantasy sports. It was predicted that fantasy sports involvement would be a significant positive predictor of percentage of time spent watching sport news programming. This hypothesis was based on the notion that persons with higher levels of fantasy league involvement should be more likely to seek out sport information that is readily available in news programs.

METHOD

Participants

The original sample contained 569 students from undergraduate courses at one of five universities. However, 44 participants returned unusable questionnaires (e.g., did not list a favorite team, left items blank, had percentage totals that did not sum to 100) and were dropped from the sample. Furthermore, 77 participants reported that they had not watched sport on television in the past seven days.² This resulted in a final sample of 448 persons (252 men; 196 women) with a mean age of 21.25 years ($SD = 3.35$).

Materials and Procedure

Upon entering the testing session and providing their consent, participants received a questionnaire packet containing five sections. The first section contained demographic items assessing age and sex. The second section contained the *Sport Fandom Questionnaire* (SFQ; Wann, 2002). The SFQ is a five-item Likert-format inventory designed to assess the extent to which an individual identifies with the role of sport fan. Response options range from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 8 (*strongly agree*) and items are scored so that higher numbers indicate greater levels of fandom. This measure has documented reliability and validity (Wann, 2002) and has been used successfully in a number of studies (e.g., Partridge, Wann, & Elison, 2010; Wann & Weaver, 2009). A sample item on the SFQ reads, "I consider myself to be a sport fan."

The third section of the packet contained the *Sport Spectator Identification Scale* (SSIS; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Participants

were asked to list their favorite sport team and to target this team when completing the scale. The SSIS has been used in a number of studies involving sport fans, has strong reliability and validity (Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann et al., 2001). The SSIS contains seven Likert-type items with response options ranging from 1 (*low identification*) to 8 (*high identification*). Thus, higher numbers represent greater identification. A sample item reads, "How strongly do you see yourself as a fan of (the team listed above)?"

The fourth section was developed specifically for this study. It was designed to assess the percent of time respondents devoted to various types of programming when watching sport on television. Participants read:

"We are interested in the television viewing behaviors of sport fans. Thus, we would like you to consider the televised sporting events and shows you have watched in the last week (7 days). Please write in percentages of television viewing to the following types of programs. Please ensure that your total viewing percentages equal 100. Please read through this list of options first to become familiar with the options. Remember, this is only about your sport television viewing, not about your viewing of other programming. IF YOU HAVE NOT WATCHED ANY SPORT TELEVISION IN THE PAST WEEK (7 DAYS), PLEASE SKIP TO ITEM 7."

Participants were presented with six options, each of which was followed by a blank space for participants to indicate their percentage. These six options were:

1. Sporting events (games/competitions) involving a team of which you are a die-hard fan (i.e., a game/competition involving one of your favorite teams).
2. Sporting events (games/competitions) involving a team you support, but of which you are NOT a die-hard fan (i.e., a game/competition involving a team you moderately support and thus, were mildly rooting for).
3. Sporting events (games/competitions) involving a rival of one of your favorite teams (but not your favorite team, i.e., a rival team playing another team).
4. Sporting events (games/competitions) involving NEITHER a rival of one of your favorite teams NOR a team you support (i.e., a game/competition involving two teams, neither of which you particularly like nor dislike).
5. Sport news shows (e.g., SportsCenter, ESPN News).
6. Sport documentaries (e.g., shows about former teams and players).

Following these six items was an additional reminder instructing participants to ensure that their listed percentages summed to 100.

The final section contained a single item assessing involvement with fantasy sports. Respondents were to circle which of the following responses best indicated their involvement with fantasy sports: (1) Not at all involved, I never play fantasy sports; (2) Slightly involved, I play fantasy sports occasionally but do not follow my team closely; (3) Moderately involved, I usually play fantasy sports and try to keep up with them somewhat; (4) Highly involved, I almost always play fantasy sports and keep up with the teams regularly; (5) Die-hard fantasy sports involvement, I play multiple fantasy sports (sometimes more than one team at once), keep up with the teams on a regular basis, and consider fantasy sports one of my biggest hobbies.

After the completion of the questionnaire packet (approximately 15 minutes), the participants were debriefed and excused from the testing session.

RESULTS

The seven items comprising the SSIS were combined to form a single index of team identification (Cronbach's $\alpha = .92$) and the five items comprising the SFQ were combined to form a single index of fandom ($\alpha = .93$). Means for the variables appear in Table 1. Correlations among the predictor variables appear in Table 2.

TABLE 1 Means and Standard Deviations for the Predictor & Dependent Variables for the Final Sample of 448 Participants

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Predictor Variables		
Fantasy Sport Involvement	1.91	1.28
Team Identification (SSIS)	42.42	10.90
Sport Fandom (SFQ)	30.39	8.82
Dependent Variables (Forms of Sport Television) ^a		
Games with Favorite Teams	25.23 _a	21.74
Games with Moderate Teams	15.69 _b	15.02
Games with Rival Teams	8.33 _c	8.49
Games with Neutral Teams	15.04 _b	19.29
Sport News	29.05 _a	22.44
Sport Documentaries	6.66 _c	10.89

Notes: ^aScores for the dependent variables are percentages. For the Forms of Sport Television, means with a common subscript are not significantly different ($p < .0033$).

The preliminary focus of the current investigation was on the research question, "What percentage of their sport television viewing time do

persons spend on various types of sport programming?" Thus, the initial series of analyses (paired samples *t*-tests) examined the percentages of time spent watching the six forms of sport television programming. Because of the large number of comparisons ($n = 15$), a Bonferroni adjustment was made, resulting in an alpha level of .0033. The results of these analyses are located in the subscripts appearing in Table 1. As revealed in the table, sport news programming and games involving a favorite team were most frequently watched (29.05% and 25.23%, respectively) and games involving a rival team and sport documentaries were least likely to be watched (8.33% and 6.66%, respectively). Games involving moderately supported teams (15.69%) and games involving neither a favored team nor a rival (i.e., non-involved games, 15.04%) were watched at moderate rates.

TABLE 2 Correlations among the Predictor Variables

	1	2	3	4
Sex (1)	--			
Fantasy Sport Involvement (2)	-.51*	--		
Team Identification (SSIS) (3)	-.37*	.41*	--	
Sport Fandom (SFQ) (4)	-.44*	.46*	.78*	--

Notes: Sex was coded 1 = male; 2 = female. * = $p < .01$.

The second focus examined potential predictors of watching the various forms of televised sport programming. Thus, a series of six standard regressions were conducted. For each regression, the predictor variables were participant sex, level of sport fandom (SFQ scores), level of identification with one's favorite team (SSIS scores), and involvement with fantasy sports. The dependent variables were percentages of watching the six forms of sport programming. The first analysis examined predictors of percentage of time spent watching games involving a favorite team. The combined effect of the four predictor variables was significant, $F(4, 443) = 5.66, p < .0001$ ($R = .221$; adjusted $R^2 = .040$). With respect to independent contributions to watching a favored team, as hypothesized (H2A), team identification ($t = 2.45, p < .02$; $Beta = .170$) accounted for a significant proportion of the unique variance. Specifically, persons with higher levels of team identification reported greater percentages of time spent watching a favorite team. Sex ($t = 3.41, p < .001$; $Beta = .184$) also accounted for a significant proportion of unique variance, as women reported greater percentages of time spent watching a favorite team. Involvement in fantasy sports ($t = -0.92, p > .35$; $Beta = -0.052$) and level of sport fandom ($t = -0.79, p >$

.40; $Beta = -0.056$) did not account for a significant proportion of the unique variance.

The second analysis examined predictors of percentage of time spent watching games involving a moderately supported team. The combined effect of the predictors was not significant, $F(4, 443) = 0.75, p > .50$ ($R = .082$; adjusted $R^2 = -.002$). None of the predictor variables accounted for a significant proportion of unique variance (all t s < 1.00 , all p s $> .40$).

The next analysis examined predictors of percentage of time spent watching games involving a rival team. The combined effect of the four predictor variables was significant, $F(4, 443) = 5.03, p < .001$ ($R = 0.208$; adjusted $R^2 = 0.035$). With respect to independent contributions, sex ($t = 2.70, p < .01$; $Beta = 0.146$), sport fandom ($t = 3.70, p < .001$; $Beta = 0.264$), and team identification ($t = -2.28, p < .03$; $Beta = -0.158$) accounted for a significant proportion of the unique variance. With respect to team identification, although this predictor was significant, the results were opposite of what was predicted (H2B), as persons with *lower* levels of team identification reported *greater* percentages of time spent watching a rival team. As for sex and sport fandom, women and persons with higher levels of sport fandom reported greater percentages of time spent watching a rival team. Involvement in fantasy sports did not account for a significant proportion of unique variance ($t = 1.40, p > .15$; $Beta = 0.079$).

The fourth analysis examined predictors of time spent watching games involving neither a supported team (favorite or moderate) nor a rival team (i.e., non-involved games). The combined effect of the four predictor variables was significant, $F(4, 443) = 6.61, p < .001$ ($R = .237$; adjusted $R^2 = .048$). With respect to independent contributions, only team identification ($t = -2.42, p < .02$; $Beta = -0.167$) accounted for a significant proportion of the unique variance. As hypothesized (H2C), persons with lower levels of team identification reported greater percentages of time watching these games. Sex ($t = -0.11, p > .90$; $Beta = -0.006$), level of sport fandom ($t = -1.18, p > .20$; $Beta = -0.084$), and involvement in fantasy sports ($t = -0.17, p > .85$; $Beta = -0.009$) did not account for a significant proportion of unique variance.

Next, we examined predictors of time spent watching sport news programming. The combined effect of the four predictor variables was significant, $F(4, 443) = 13.83, p < .0001$ ($R = .333$; adjusted $R^2 = .103$). With respect to independent contributions, as hypothesized (H1A), sex ($t = -3.99, p < .001$; $Beta = -0.208$) accounted for a significant proportion of unique variance. Specifically, male participants reported a greater percentages of time spent watching sport news programming. However, contrary to expectations, neither sport fandom (H3A; $t = 0.91, p > .35$; $Beta = 0.063$) nor involvement in fantasy sports (H4; $t = 0.73, p > .45$;

$Beta = 0.004$) accounted for a significant proportion of the unique variance. Team identification also did not account for a significant proportion of unique variance ($t = 1.76, p > .05; Beta = 0.118$).

The final analysis examined predictors of percentage of time spent watching sport documentaries. The combined effect of the four predictor variables was significant, $F(4, 443) = 3.06, p < .02$ ($R = .164$; adjusted $R^2 = 0.018$). With respect to independent contributions, only team identification ($t = -2.37, p < .02; Beta = -0.165$) accounted for a significant proportion of unique variance. Specifically, greater percentages of time spent watching sport documentaries were reported by persons with lower levels of team identification. Contrary to predictions, neither sex (H1B; $t = -1.70, p > .05; Beta = -0.093$) nor sport fandom (H3B; $t = 0.06, p > .90; Beta = 0.005$) was a significant predictor. Involvement in fantasy sports also did not account for a significant proportion of unique variance ($t = -0.21, p > .80; Beta = -0.012$).

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current investigation was to increase our understanding of patterns of sport television viewing. Participants reported percentages of time spent watching various types of televised sport programming and the initial focus involved a comparison of the percentages. The results revealed that games involving a favorite team and sport newscasts accounted for the largest percentages of viewing time. The lowest percentage of viewing time involved games with a rival and sport documentaries. It is interesting that participants reported spending approximately three times more of their viewing time on games involving a favorite than games involving a rival. Research indicates that fans often have multiple favorite teams (Grieve et al., 2009), and presumably each of these favorites has one (or more) rival teams. Thus, the disparity in percentages is interesting. Two potential explanations for the inconsistency present themselves. First, perhaps fans are simply more interested in watching a favorite team play than in watching a rival. Although fans enjoy it when rivals lose (Bryant, 1989), this enjoyment may not translate into a desire to spend one's limited sport viewing time on these games. Second, perhaps the lower percentages for rival contests (and documentaries) were a function of the fact that these types of television programs occur less frequently than other types. For instance, consider a fan whose favorite team is the local university team. This fan may have the opportunity to watch many of the team's road games on television through local stations. However, these stations are far less likely to cover a large portion of rival teams' games. Thus, fans may want to watch the favorite and rival games equally, but due to differential

viewing opportunities, they devote a greater percentage of their viewing time to games involving a favorite team.

Another interesting finding was that fully 15% of viewing time was dedicated to non-involved games. Recently, Fink and Parker (2009) conducted an examination of the motivation patterns underlying fans' reasons for watching games involving a favorite team and games not involving a favorite. They found that, relative to watching a game not involving a favorite team, when watching a game featuring a favorite team, persons reported higher levels of achievement, knowledge, and physical skill motives. Given that we found such a large percentage of viewing time dedicated to non-involved contests, the Fink and Parker study is extremely valuable. That is, sport marketers need to be mindful of motivational patterns for non-involved games, particularly given that fans allot 15% of their sport television viewing time to these programs.

The second focus examined predictors of viewing percentages. Hypotheses 1A and 1B targeted sex, predicting that men would spend a greater percentage of their sport television viewing time watching sport news programming (H1A) and sport documentaries (H1B). H1A was supported while H1B was rejected. Thus, men reported allotting a large percentage of their sport viewing time to sport news shows. This finding reflects the idea that men are more deeply involved in sport fandom than women (Dietz-Uhler et al., 2000; Wann, 2002). The in-depth player, team, and league information presented in these shows should be of particular interest to male fans. However, this logic and pattern of effects was not found for sport documentaries. Perhaps such programs offer stories that are equally compelling to male and female fans alike. That is, although sport news programs offer high-level details on statistics, game analysis, and similar information that would be most attractive to hardcore fans (who are more likely to be male), sport documentaries often focus on life stories beyond the sport. Research targeting sport fan motivation substantiates this logic. That is, although sex differences in sport fan motivation have been found (Wann & Waddill, 2010), research has failed to find differences in drama motivation, i.e., attraction to an event because of "drama and suspense" (Ridinger & Funk, 2006, p. 166). If men and women do not differ in their level of drama motivation, it is reasonable that they did not differ in time spent watching sport documentaries.

The next series of hypotheses investigated team identification. Hypothesis 2A predicted identification would be a significant positive predictor of percentage of time spent watching contests involving a favorite team. This hypothesis received strong support. Thus, the current data extended previous research indicating that team identification predicts amount of sport television viewing (Bernache-Assollant et al.,

2007; Fisher, 1998). That is, not only does identification predict frequency of consumption (e.g., hours per week, see Theodorakis & Wann, 2008), but also percentages of sport television viewing.

A second hypothesis stated that identification would be a significant predictor of time spent watching contests involving a rival team. Although identification predicted rival game consumption, the pattern of effects was opposite of expectations, as highly identified fans spent a lower percentage of their viewing time on contests involving a rival. Perhaps highly identified fans actively avoid such events (i.e., choose to spend their sport television viewing time on other programs), a line of reasoning consistent with social psychological research indicating that persons often attempt to avoid outgroup members (Paladino & Castelli, 2008). Thus, their dislike for the rival team (and desire to avoid it) outweighs their interest in watching and rooting against the rival. However, similar to the logic described above, it is also possible that these fans simply have fewer opportunities to watch rivals team compete.

The third hypothesis predicted that identification would be a negative predictor of percentage of sport viewing time spent watching contests that do not involve a supported or rival team (i.e., non-involved games). This hypothesis was supported. Combining this finding with support for Hypothesis 2A, it is clear that highly identified fans would rather spend their sport viewing time on games they care about as opposed to games that do not involve a favorite.

The third set of hypotheses examined fandom. We expected that level of fandom would be a significant positive predictor of percentage of time spent viewing sport news programming (H3A) and sport documentaries (H3B). However, these hypotheses were not supported.

The final hypothesis (H4) predicted that fantasy sports involvement would be a significant positive predictor of percentage of time spent watching sport news programming. However, this prediction was also not supported. In fact, level of involvement with fantasy sports was not a significant predictor of percentage of time spent viewing any of the various forms of television sport programming. Perhaps this indicates that fantasy sports participants seek out information via many types of sport programs. It is also possible that given the nature of the activity, respondents may have searched for information regarding their fantasy team's "performance" through the Internet, print media, and/or wireless devices, thus reducing the need to use sports programming as their primary informational source. As Dwyer and Kim (2011) note, the Internet does play a significant role in all aspects of the fantasy sports experience. Thus, marketers may want to look at the findings from both these studies to help guide their own efforts when trying to specifically reach the fantasy sports consumer with their campaigns.

A few potential limitations of the current research and suggestions for future work warrant mention. First, the current study tested a rather homogeneous sample of undergraduate college students. Consequently, the findings reported above should be replicated with samples containing both older and younger participants to increase the generalizability of the results. In addition, the current investigation did not focus on potential differences across sport. Research indicates that fans follow different sports (and different types of sports) for different reasons (Wann, Grieve, Zapalac, & Pease, 2008). It stands to reason that spectators may also have differential viewing patterns for various sports. For example, fans following aggressive team sports may report that a greater proportion of their time is spent following rival games while fans following stylistic individual sports may report greater percentages of time watching other forms of sport television (e.g., documentaries). Future researchers could test for such effects by replicating the research reported above while assessing and incorporating the participants' favorite sports.

Finally, the operational definition of sport television viewing needs further examination. In the current investigation, we assessed percentages of overall sport viewing time for each of the sport programs. However, as we highlight in Footnote 1, we believe that other methodologies also have advantages not found in the current study. In particular, the methodology used above does not account for the amount of sport viewed by the participants (e.g., 100% of sport viewing could be 2 hours a week or 22 hours per week). Future researchers are encouraged to replicate the current study by assessing amount of hours viewed, rather than percentages. Although these two operational definitions are most likely correlated, they are not identical. Such a replication may shed light on some of the hypotheses that were not supported here (e.g., assessing hours watched may lead to significant relationships between level of fandom and fantasy sport participation and viewing of sport news programs). A combination of these two (and other) methodologies would be of great use to marketers interested in televised sport viewing patterns among fans.

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Footnotes

¹This is not meant to imply that other methods of operationalizing amount of televised sport viewing are not useful. Certainly, assessing minutes/hours spent viewing various types of sport programming would be informative and others have even utilized Likert-scales to assess viewing frequency (Lee & Armstrong, 2008). Indeed, we believe these alternate ways of assessing sport viewing practices are also useful to sport marketing professionals and it would be wise to replicate the current study with different operationalizations of sport television viewing.

²As one would likely expect, a series of analyses of variance found that those who had watched sport on television reported higher levels of team identification ($M = 42.42$; $SD = 10.90$), sport fandom ($M = 30.39$; $SD = 8.82$), and involvement with fantasy sports ($M = 1.91$; $SD = 1.28$) than persons who had not watched sport on television (identification $M = 29.12$; $SD = 11.62$; fandom $M = 17.20$; $SD = 8.92$; fantasy sports $M = 1.09$; $SD = 0.33$), $F_{\text{identification}}(1, 523) = 95.96, p < .0001$; $F_{\text{fandom}}(1, 523) = 146.48, p < .0001$; $F_{\text{fantasy sports}}(1, 523) = 31.21, p < .0001$.

Note: Portions of this research were presented at the Annual Sport Psychology Forum, Bowling Green, KY (February, 2011).

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**Fonte: North American Journal of Psychology, Vol. 15, Issue 1, p 179-194. 16p. Mar. 2013 [Base de Dados].
Disponível em: <<http://web.ebscohost.com/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?vid=5&sid=a5da2e8e-162e-45a9-9fb0-0165b8c565b3%40sessionmgr104&hid=28>>. Acesso em: 05 Abr. 2013.**

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