



THE PREDICTION OF BEHAVIORAL LOYALTY  
FROM TEAM IDENTIFICATION AND PLACE  
ATTACHMENT AMONG PORTUGUESE SPORT FANS

*A study conducted with Futebol Clube do Porto fans*

Study submitted in fulfillment of the requirements  
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KEYWORDS: SPORT FAN, SPORT CONSUMER, BEHAVIORAL LOYALTY, TEAM IDENTIFICATION, PLACE ATTACHMENT.

***The man who has no imagination has no wings***

**Muhammad Ali**

***Aim high, start small and stay real***

**Wells**

**Ao meu avô Carvalho**



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## Abstract

Sport consumption is increasingly becoming a significant issue in sport marketing and sport management – two areas with a broad development in the last decades (Chelladurai, 2001). The desire to understand the behavior of sport consumers is a long term objective of the professionals of sports marketing (Stewart *et al.*, 2003). In Portugal, the research in this area is still in a beginning stage. Therefore, the current investigation is composed of two parts.

In the first part, the present study extended the use of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS) and the Place Attachment Scale (PAS) to Portuguese sports 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 provided evidence for the validity and reliability of the scale used.

In the second part, the research tested the impact of level of team identification and place attachment on behavioral loyalty of fans in professional sports, namely, in soccer. A sample of 161 individuals was questioned outside the stadium. In the questionnaire, besides answering to the SSIS and to the PAS, people were asked about various important fan behaviors: (a) number of games attended in the last season, (b) number of years being a fan of that team, and (c) number of hours dedicated to the team during a week.

Descriptive analysis revealed some significant data: men dedicate significantly more time to the team than women; men are fans since a younger age than women; men identify significantly more with the team than women; the study suggests that there is a strong positive correlation between team identification and place attachment. Regression analysis revealed that level of team identification and level of place attachment were not predictors of behavioral loyalty.

Implications for management and research are discussed.

Keywords: Sport fan, Sport consumer, Behavioral loyalty, Team identification, Place attachment





## Resumo

O consumo desportivo está progressivamente a tornar-se um tema de estudo muito importante dentro do marketing e gestão desportivos – duas áreas com um desenvolvimento alargado nas últimas décadas (Chelladurai, 2001). O desejo de compreender o comportamento dos consumidores desportivos é já um objectivo antigo para os profissionais do marketing desportivo (Stewart *et al.*, 2003). Em Portugal, a pesquisa nesta área encontra-se ainda em estado embrionário. Assim, a presente investigação é composta por duas partes. Na primeira parte, o estudo alargou a utilização da Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS) e da Place Attachment Scale (PAS) para os adeptos portugueses, através da comprovação das propriedades psicométricas e da validade intercultural das escalas traduzidas. Os resultados da análise factorial confirmatória e dos coeficientes alpha providenciaram evidências para a validade e fiabilidade da escala utilizada. Na segunda parte, a pesquisa testou o impacto do nível de identificação com a equipa e do nível de identificação com o estádio, na lealdade comportamental de adeptos no desporto profissional, nomeadamente, no futebol. Uma amostra de 161 indivíduos foi questionada à porta do estádio. No questionário, além de responderem à SSIS e à PAS, as pessoas foram questionadas acerca de comportamentos como adeptos: (a) número de jogos assistidos no estádio na época anterior, (b) número de anos como adeptos dessa equipa, e (c) número de horas dedicadas por semana à equipa. A análise descritiva revelou dados significativos: comparativamente com as mulheres, os homens dedicam mais tempo à equipa da qual são adeptos, são-no desde uma idade mais jovem e identificam-se mais com a equipa; o estudo sugere ainda que existe uma correlação positiva bastante forte entre identificação com a equipa e com o estádio. A regressão linear revelou que o nível da identificação com a equipa ou com o estádio não predizem significativamente a lealdade comportamental. Implicações para a gestão desportiva e futuros estudos são discutidas.

Palavras-chave: Adepto desportivo, Consumidor desportivo, Identificação com a equipa, Identificação com o estádio



## Résumé

La consommation sportive est de plus en plus une question importante dans le marketing et la gestion sportive - deux domaines qui se sont largement développés au cours des dernières décennies (Chelladurai, 2001). Le désir de comprendre le comportement des consommateurs sportifs est un objectif à long terme des professionnels du marketing sportif (Stewart et al., 2003). Au Portugal, la recherche dans ce domaine en est encore à l'état embryonnaire. Par conséquent, la présente enquête est composée de deux parties. Dans la première partie, la présente étude étend l'usage de Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS) et de Place Attachment Scale (PAS) pour les supporters de sports portugais, à travers l'expérimentation/analyse des propriétés psychométriques et la rigueur inter-culturelle des échelles traduites. Les résultats de l'analyse de confirmation du facteur alpha et les résultats fournissent des éléments de preuve de la validité et de la fiabilité de l'échelle utilisée. Dans la deuxième partie, la recherche a examiné l'impact du niveau d'identification avec l'équipe et le degré d'attachement à l'endroit en ce qui concerne les comportements de loyauté des supporters dans le sport professionnel, à savoir, dans le football. Un échantillon de 161 individus a été interrogé à l'extérieur du stade. Dans le questionnaire, en plus de répondre à la SSIS et à PAS, les gens ont été questionnés sur des différents comportements en tant que supporters: (a) le nombre de matchs suivis au cours de la dernière saison, (b) nombre d'années en tant que supporter, et (c) le nombre d'heures consacrées à l'équipe pendant une semaine. L'analyse descriptive a révélé quelques données importantes: les hommes consacrent beaucoup plus de temps à l'équipe que les femmes, les hommes sont supporters depuis un plus jeune âge que les femmes, les hommes s'identifient plus nettement avec l'équipe que les femmes, l'étude suggère qu'il existe une forte corrélation positive entre l'endroit/stade de l'identification avec l'équipe et l'attachement à l'endroit. L'analyse de la régression a révélé que le niveau d'identification avec l'équipe et le niveau d'attachement à l'endroit ne donnent pas des indices de prévision des comportements de fidélité. Les implications pour la gestion et pour des recherches futures sont discutées.

Mots clés: Supporteur, Consommateur sportif, Loyauté comportemental, identification avec l'équipe, attachement à l'endroit



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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Sport moves mountains: mountains of people (supporters, athletes, spectators, managers, directors, businessmen, agents, workers from a whole kind of jobs and others); millions of minutes of sport events, games, parallel activities, television transmissions and amazing or shocking headlines; and millions of Euros or Dollars, moving from hand to hand, in a more or less, depending on the circumstances, sportive, clean and serious situation.

Nowadays, sport is an economic sector (Viseu, 2006). People are surrounded by the sport industry, without not even noticing (Pitts & Stotlar, 1996). More and more, it is becoming a profitable and money-making activity and less and less local and voluntary. The professionalization of the sector is taking place, maximizing its socio-economic role. Companies use sports to increase their prestige and the sales of their products.

In most of the European countries, soccer is largely ahead of the other sports, when it comes to attendance, news generated in sport magazines, journals or generalist journals, and money around it – clubs like Manchester United (246.4 million euro income in 2004/05) or Real Madrid (275.7 million euro income in the same season) are true companies, much more than only teams (Deloitte, *cit.* Viseu, 2006). The sport industry is larger than many established industries (Chelladurai, 2001).

Already in 1996, Pitts and Stotlar reported that the size of the sport industry in the United States of America was 47.3 billion dollars in 1986, which jumped to 50.2 billion dollars in 1987 and to 63.1 billion dollars in 1988, ranked the 22<sup>nd</sup> industry, larger than the automobile industry. They predicted that an average growth rate of 6.8 percent, the industry would grow to be worth 139 billion dollars. As noted, this figure was surpassed even in 1995 according to Meek (1997). After that date, the sport industry kept growing (Chelladurai, 2001), and even if it reaches a plateau in the future it is a big industry as it stands now. All products, people and business that organize, facilitate, produce or promote

sports, fitness, recreation or leisure activities or enterprises composes today's sport industry (Pitts & Stotlar, 1996).

Thus, sport consumption is becoming increasingly a significant issue in sport marketing and sport management – two areas with a broad development in the last decades (Chelladurai, 2001). Sports consumption, in all its forms, is, step by step, acquiring an increasing value for the sport manager and for the marketing department of the private or public sport companies, clubs, sport organizations, associations or federations. The sport marketing professionals have to identify the kind of consumer they have, so that they can adapt their campaigns, products and services to each specific group.

The desire to understand the behavior of sport consumers is a long term objective of the professionals of sports marketing (Stewart *et al.*, 2003). A better comprehension about 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 team or sport. This picture can provide evidence for the sport marketers and managers in the design of a Team or Club Marketing plan.

The article Understanding Sport Consumers (2007) refers to different ways of consuming sports: going to a game or a sports event, listening to the radio or seeing sports episodes on TV, playing a sport or a game (as a professional, amateur and recreationist) or, at last, buying sports equipment or merchandising. Recently, with the new technologies growth, also playing in a fantasy game or league or engaging in an on-line sport chat room.

Several models have been elaborated and improved since the brief time that people are starting to pay attention to this important issue – more and better information can be found. For instance, validated questionnaires can be located in several languages about the motives that make people (fan or sport spectator) consume, and, in particular, the passive sport consumption – attend a game or sports event.

Therefore, a study in this area of knowledge is undeniably relevant and it has importance in all kind of sports, but it acquires much more importance in this country if the issue is the national passion: the soccer. Sá & Sá, in 1999, state that sport is one of the conciliatory social issues because everyone, rich or poor, man or woman, old or young, likes sports. Referring to this idea, this author also refers to a popular Portuguese sentence that says “One man can change party, job or wife, but he can never change clubs.”

The mean occupation of the Portuguese stadiums in the 2007/2008 season is only around 40%, which means only something like 12 thousand spectators per game. Even in the bigger clubs like Sport Lisboa e Benfica (43 thousand spectators / game), Futebol Clube do Porto (38 thousand spectators / game) or Sporting Clube de Portugal (30 thousand spectator games) attendance is really low (Liga Portuguesa de Futebol Profissional, 2008a) – and that is something that the marketers want to change in Portugal. To know how to do it, they must first know the reasons that take people into the stadium.

In Portugal, the studies in this area are in an embryonic stage and because this is an interesting and useful issue, with good evolution perspectives, it can be considered as being really important to be studied.

With this work we hope to improve the knowledge about the profile of the Portuguese supporter and to understand better what takes people to the stadium. To achieve this goal, we are going to use the concepts of Loyalty, Team Identification (TI) and Place Attachment (PA), adapted to the professional team sport context – these concepts are profoundly studied and related through the study.

## 1.1. OVERVIEW

This work is mainly composed of a Literature review (chapter number two), in which the Sport management field is crossed, through the concepts of Sport management, Sport marketing and Sport industry. Next, going into the deepest concepts related to the research specific field: Sport consumption, namely, in Portugal; and the Professional sports, specifically the Soccer in Portugal. Finally, the concepts of place attachment, loyalty and team identification are exploited, parallel to the analysis to the actual panorama of study, with an attempt to acutely understand the field of the scales used in this investigation.

The third chapter contains an exhaustive description of the methodology used that is the description of the loyalty questions, the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS) and the Place Attachment Scale (PAS). In this chapter it can be found also a deep explanation about the process of translation, the sampling and the study context.

The fourth chapter is dedicated to the presentation and discussion of the results. First, a descriptive analysis of the data is performed: age, sex, profession, behavioral loyalty questions, team identification data and place attachment data, including the several dimensions, is analyzed. Afterwards, a linear regression to predict behavioral loyalty from team identification and place attachment is conducted. A discussion with the literature review is also made.

The fifth chapter, with the main conclusions and some considerations about the limitations and practical implications of this study, gives a whole representation of the labor conducted.

Finally, the references and the appendix, where the questionnaire used to perform this study can be found.

## **1.2. OBJECTIVES**

The main objectives of this study are:

- ❖ To translate the SSIS and the PAS into Portuguese and the examination of the cross-cultural generalizability of the factor structure and psychometric properties underlying responses to the translated SSIS and the PAS;
- ❖ To study the loyalty, team identification and place attachment of Portuguese fans, particularly, of the Futebol Clube do Porto fans;
- ❖ To find what brings the fans into the stadium by examining the role of team identification and their attachment to the stadium;
- ❖ To predict behavioral loyalty from team identification and place attachment among Portuguese fans.

## **1.3. HIPOTHESIS**

Based on the literature review, the established hypotheses were:

- ❖ H1: The team identification scale and the place attachment scale can be translated, validated and applied to the Portuguese reality;
- ❖ H2: Behavioral loyalty is predicted from team identification;
- ❖ H3: Behavioral loyalty is predicted from place attachment, namely, from the four dimensions of place attachment (place dependence, social bonding, affective attachment and place identity).

#### 1.4. TERMINOLOGY AND ABBREVIATIONS

Soccer – Depending on the geographic place of the world, the sport played with eleven against eleven players in a grass field, with 120 X 90 meters is called *soccer* or *football*. In this study it was decided to use the word *soccer* to define this sport.

Place attachment – PA

Place dependence – PD

Social bonding – SB

Affective attachment – AA

Place identity - PI

Team identification – TI

Place attachment scale – PAS

Sport Spectator Identification Scale – SSIS

Futebol Clube do Porto – FCP

## **2. LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1. TOWARDS A DEFINITION OF SPORT MANAGEMENT**

#### **2.1.1. SPORT MANAGEMENT**

Over the years, a varied range of authors have been trying to understand and define the sport management field.

It is important that the sport management and sport marketing people understand the concept of sport as it is used in the field of sport management. That way, the several specialists are talking the same language when they gather to develop this new flourishing field.

Starting with the words “sport” or “sports” in the expression *sport(s) management* or *sport(s) marketing*: the name of the area must be really well defined. While the plural refers to a diverse and uncoordinated series of segments that have a little commonality, the singular refers to a homogeneous entity, since it is a collective noun and a more all-encompassing concept (Pitts & Stotlar, 1996) – therefore, in this work, the singular is going to be used. The term *sport management* or *sport marketing* therefore implies a much broader concept.

The field definition is really important in any area, but especially when it is a new ground of investigation and works. As in other new fields of knowledge, sport management is constantly being challenged to find its own definition and space as a scientific area. While Management is the process of achieving organizational goals with and through other people within the constraints of limited resources (Chelladurai, 2001), several authors have been working and helping in the Sport management definition (Mullin, 1980; Hardy, 1987; Chelladurai, 1992a; Pitts, 2001).

Despite there is no convergent definition of sport management, because they show a fragmented view of sport management, some authors have good definitions as a starting point. Chelladurai, in 1985, defined sport management as “management of those organizations whose major domain of operation is sport and physical activity” (p. 4). Before that, in 1980, Mullin defined a sport manager as “a person whose job entails planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling to be performed within the context of an organization whose primary or predominant product or service is sport and sport-related. In the same way, Slack defines a sport organization as a “social entity involved in the sport industry; it is goal directed with a consciously structured activity system and a relatively identifiable boundary” (p. 5, 1997, *cit.* Pitts, 2001). To Parks and Zanger (1990), sport management is “an area of professional endeavor in which a wide variety of sport and fitness related careers exists” (p. 1). Finally, Pitts and Stotlar (1996) define it as “all the people, activities, businesses, and organizations involved in producing, facilitating, promoting, or organizing sports, fitness and recreation products” (p. 2).

Although the sportive practice has been managed at least since the first Olympics, only in the beginning of the 80's sport management was defined as an academic field (Costa, 2006). Concomitant with the popularity of the sports management degree programs in the universities all over the world, several scholarly associations have also been formed: North American Society for Sport Management, European Association for Sport Management, Sport Management Association of Australia and New Zealand, Japanese Society for Sport Management, Japanese Society of Sports Industry, Indian Association for Sport Management and Asian Association for Sport Management (Chelladurai & Turner, 2005).

In 1985 the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) was founded and in 1987 the first number of Journal of Sport Management (JSM) was published (Parks & Olafson, 1987). Since then, the sport management has evolved in an extreme way. Sport Marketing Quarterly (SMQ) was first



published in 1992b and the International Journal of Sport Management (IJSM) was launched in 1999 (Chelladurai, 2001). In Europe, after the European Association of Sport Management's inauguration, the European Journal of Sport Management (EJSM) was immediately a fact.

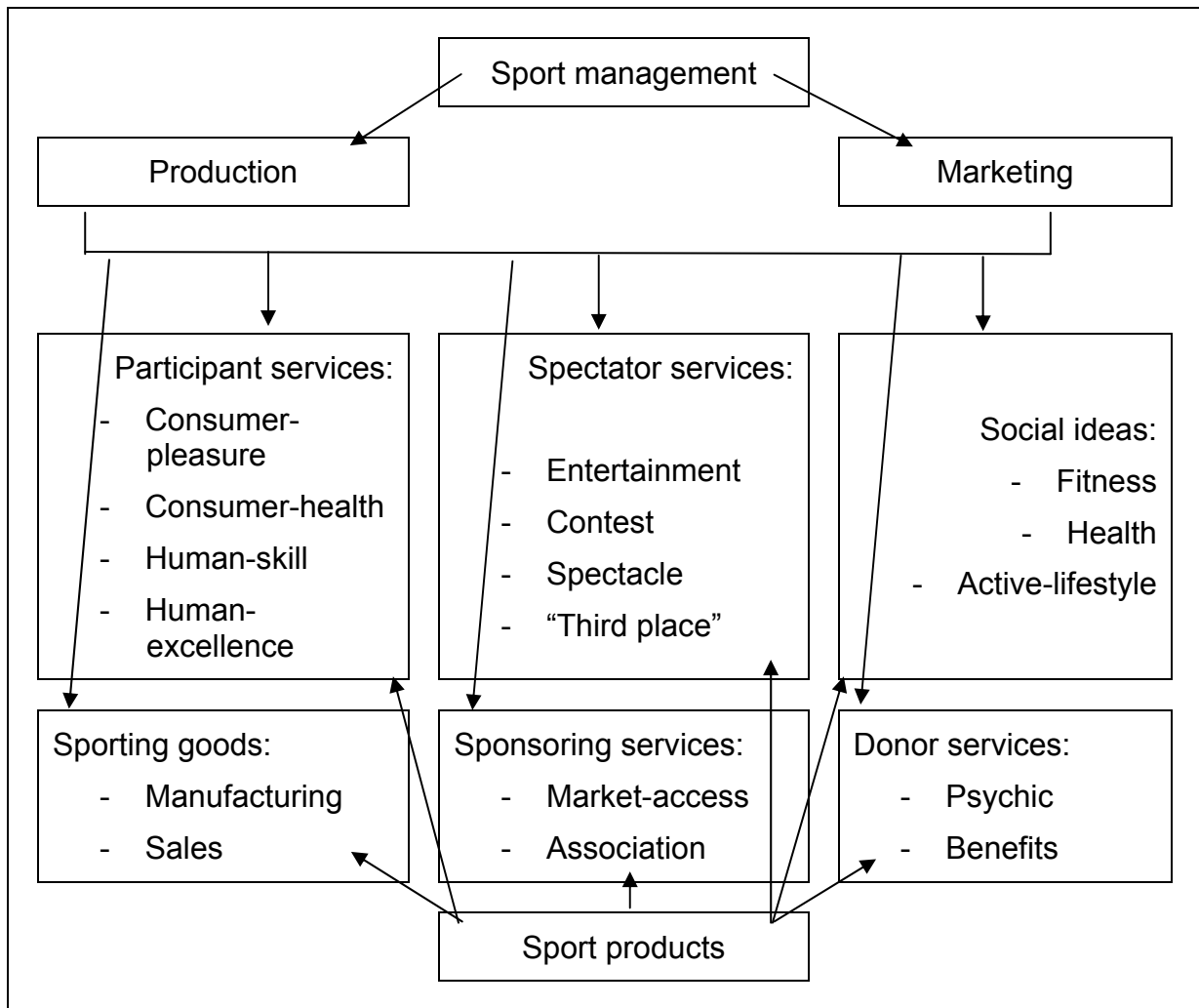
Chelladurai and Turner also stated, in 2005, that, in addition, other scholarly journals are published in the field: the International Journal of Sport Management in North America (IJSMA); the European Sport Management Quarterly (ESMQ) and the International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship (IJSMS) in Europe; and the Sport Management Review (SMR) in Australia and New Zealand.

In Portugal, the Associação Portuguesa de Gestão de Desporto (APOGEST) was founded in 1996 and its Journal was published the first time in January 2004 (Costa, 2006).

The number and types of organizations, around the world, whose main sphere of action is sport and physical activity, have multiplied over the last decades (Chelladurai, 2001) – health clubs, professional sport teams, nonprofit organizations, youth sport leagues, municipal recreation departments, universities and Olympic associations and committees. Other organizational contexts also work in the sport domain: educational, legal and political fields, among others. Plus, the sport management related jobs are spreading: event management, facility management, ticketing operations, licensing operations, legal issues, scheduling of facility, equipment, games and activities, tournament operations, parking operations, marketing operations, public relations, personnel management and budgeting and accounting.

Sport management is concerned with both the production and marketing of various sport services (Chelladurai, 2001) and it was born from earlier fields of administration of physical education or athletics. This author presents a draw with the relation between sport management and sport products (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Relation between sport management and sport products.



*(Adapted from Chelladurai, 2001)*

Chelladurai, in 2001, developed each one of these items, explaining each one of them and relating them all. This author also noted that other significant products such as sport tourism, advertising, and endorsement flow from the primary products and contribute much to the sport industry. He also states that some factors (human resources, technologies, support units and contextual factors) must be coordinated in the production and marketing of sport products.

To emphasize both product and marketing of sport products, as well as the essential nature of management as coordination, a definition of sport management was proposed by Chelladurai, in 1994: “a field concerned with the coordination of limited human and material resources, relevant technologies,

and situational contingencies for the efficient production and exchange of sport services” (p. 15).

The functions of Sport management are, of course, the same ones from the general Management, but applied to Sports. The managerial functions that are worth emphasizing are: planning, organizing, leading and evaluating. Chelladurai, in 2001, resumes the brief definitions of those functions, which in Sports are also a way of coordination:

- ❖ “Planning includes setting goals within constraints, selecting activities to achieve goals, and establishing policies and procedures to carry out those activities.” (p. 96);
- ❖ “Organizing involves creating jobs, grouping them, establishing relationships among them, and establishing a formal authority structure.” (p. 96);
- ❖ “Leading is the process of influencing members to achieve organizational goals. It is an interpersonal process in which the manager and member(s) interact directly.” (p. 97);
- ❖ “Evaluation is measuring performance of individuals, units, and the total organization and comparing it to the standards set in the planning process” (p.98).

The definition of management implies that the diversity in resources, personnel, activities and associated technologies needs to be coordinated – diversity underlies management. Besides, to be an effective manager, one needs to own technical skills (an understanding of the methods, procedures and techniques), human skills (interpersonal skills), and conceptual skills (the ability to see the organization as a whole). According to Mintzberg, in 1975 (*cit.* Chelladurai, 2001), in performing these functions, the manager fills the interpersonal (figurehead, leader, liaison), informational (monitor, disseminator, spokesperson) and decisional (entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, negotiator) roles.

### 2.1.2. SPORT MARKETING

Sport managers know that sport consumers have to be matched with the sport products – for that, today's marketers noticeably need a rational, coherent system (Mullin *et al.*, 1993). That may be called sport marketing. The origin of sport marketing remounts to 1824, when William Fuller had a tactic to promote boxing in Charleston, in the United States of America (Pitts & Stotlar, 1996).

According to Mullin *et al.*, "Sport marketing consists of all activities designed to meet the needs and wants of sport consumers through exchange processes. Sport marketing has developed two major thrusts: the marketing of sport products and services directly to consumers of sport, and marketing of other consumer and industrial products or services through the use of sport promotions." (1993, p. 6). Using this line of thoughts, Sá and Sá, in 1999, stated that sport marketing is the whole of actions and performances produced to satisfy the needs, expectations and preferences of the sport consumer. Also according to Pitts and Stotlar, in 1996, sport marketing is "the process of designing and implementing activities for the production, pricing, promotion and distribution of a sport product to satisfy the needs or desires of consumers and to achieve the company's objectives" (p. 80).

All those definitions lead to a simple conclusion – Sport marketing has some unique aspects that have to be noticed by the marketers, so that they can operate the best way (Mullin *et al.*, in 1993):

- ❖ Many sport organizations simultaneously compete and cooperate – few sport organizations can exist in isolation;
- ❖ Due to the salience of sport and to the strong personal identification they experience, sport consumers often consider themselves experts – few decisions in sport go without notice or comment by the media or by

consumers and no other business is viewed so simplistically and with such personal identification by its consumers;

- ❖ Consumer demands tends to fluctuate widely – each sport form tends to have an annual life cycle and spectator sport fans are especially prone to quick changes in interests.

Although no factor by itself is overwhelming, and although some factors are not unique to sport, the combination of factors does provide a unique challenge for sport marketers, which demands a significantly different approach.

Each sport product can be really complex, and can have a bundle of elements: the game form itself, the event and its stars, the ticket, the organization, the facility, the equipment, clothing and novelties, the related services and the personnel and processes (Mullin *et al.*, 1993). They also reunited some of the characteristics of this sport product:

- ❖ The sport product is invariably intangible, ephemeral, experiential and subjective – each fan and each active participant creates a different illusion, even equipments can't only be pieces of steel, graphite or leather;
- ❖ The basic sport product is simultaneously produced and consumed. It is a perishable commodity that must be presold, and there are no inventories – sport consumers are typically also producers, they help create the game or event that they simultaneously consume; day-of-game sales alone are not enough, because inclement weather or some other factor may diminish gate sales – pre-selling, especially of season-ticket programs or early memberships guarantees a minimum revenue;
- ❖ Sport is in general publicly consumed, and consumer satisfaction is invariably affected by social facilitation – only a few sports (predominantly the ecological sports) can be undertaken by a single person; consequently sport marketers need to recognize the role that social facilitation plays – special programs and promotional plans need to be developed that

maximize the enjoyment and satisfaction of the group, with special promotions aimed at each demographic segment;

- ❖ The sport product is inconsistent and unpredictable – people produce sport, and people are inconsistent; besides, every game is different; a lot of factors (weather, injuries, momentum, the reaction of the crowd and the records and standings of the two teams at the time they play) affect the outcome of the game and consequently the excitement and satisfaction experienced by the fan; participant sport is no different;
- ❖ The sport marketer has little or no control over the composition of the core product and frequently has only limited control over product extensions – the product changes every day (the coaching staff, the players, the schedules, are always changing);
- ❖ A greater percentage of the marketing emphasis must be placed on the product extensions rather than on the core product – the sport marketer can't promise something he can't deliver;
- ❖ Sport is both a consumer and an industrial product – while a consumer good is a product consumed by an end user, a industrial product is a product used by a manufacturer in the production of another product; sport is produced as an end product for mass consumer (spectators and participants) and are also used by business and industry (events and athletes sponsoring), as a mean of reaching their own consumers;
- ❖ Sport has an almost universal appeal and covers all elements of life – geographically, demographically, socio-culturally; in this way, it can also be associated with many aspects of life: relaxation and entertainment, exercise, eating and drinking, sex, gambling, physical violence, social identification, vicarious gratification, economic and legal environment, religion and finally business and industry.

Based in others authors, Mullin *et al.*, in 1993, drew the bundle of characteristics of the sport product. The sport product is unique, and the sport marketer must understand why a consumer prefers a sport product to other type of product:

- ❖ Core benefits (Health, Entertainment, Social);
- ❖ Generic sport form (Game, Rules, Play, Facilities, Physical skill, Equipment);
- ❖ Marketing mix (Place, Price, Product, Promotion, Public relations).

Mullin *et al.*, in 1993, also talk about the Marketing mix in sports. Once the marketer has identified a product position or concept to which marketing efforts will be applied, the next and most crucial stage of the marketing process is to decide on the full marketing mix, the blend of the four major elements of marketing: the product, the price, the place and the promotional plan – the four P's. Moreover, for sport, one should add an additional P: public relations (Magrath, 1986) – the public relations specialist must aggressively and professionally pursue both media and community relations.

When it comes to the price of sport, Mullin *et al.*, in 1993, state that:

- ❖ It is difficult to price the individual sport product unit by traditional job costing – pricing the sport product is often based on the marketer's sense of consumer demand (for certain seats, times of day or privileges) because it 's really difficult to account for "possible" use of a seat, a shower or a toilet;
- ❖ The price of a sport product itself is invariably quite small in comparison to the total cost paid by the consumer of sport products – lot of times they have to pay parking tickets, fees, etc.;

- ❖ Indirect revenues are frequently greater than direct operating revenues – products as food, beverages, merchandising, personal services or even signage, may take a greater significance;
- ❖ Many sport programs have rarely been required to operate on a for-profit basis – many sport organizations can rely on significant revenue from outside sources because at almost every level of sport, outside financial support exists.

Pricing decisions are often crucial to the success of any marketing program. Price is the most visible element of the marketing mix and it is the easiest to change. Because of that, it is also the most abused.

The strategies to establish the price of a sport product is often related with its positioning (Sá & Sá, 1999). The “psychological” price gains a big importance – the answer to the question “How much is the consumer willing to pay?” is still the starting point for the final definition of a price.

Following, other factors that can influence the consumer’s decision to buy are: what the consumer can afford to pay, if what the consumer gets for the money is of value, if the consumer thinks she or he is getting “a good deal”, friend’s attitudes, family influences, how the product compares to another similar product in terms of features and other factors and the product’s warranty and extended services (Pitts & Stotlar, 1996).

Concerning to place, Mullin *et al.*, in 1993, gathered some of the key dimensions of facility location: accessibility, parking, surrounding area and geographical location. Further, relatively to the facility image, there are also some important factors: appearance of the facility, offered amenities, personnel and consumer opinion. All the little things matter (Sá & Sá, 1999): the chairs, the locker rooms, the toilets, the walls, the ticket office – everything can be a positive or a negative experience. The place of distribution cannot be changed as easily as the price of the product or service (Stotlar, 1993).



The marketing mix concept of promotion has to be made clear to everybody. Promotion is what the general public thinks is marketing and that is because the promotions are what the public sees (Pitts & Stotlar, 1996). People also think that advertisement is all that is in the promotion of a product, but of course this is not the case. Promotions are especially designed to get a person's attention and include advertisement and other activities (for instance, a gift, sweet or drink, that a company gives to everybody attending to a certain game).

Despite that, when it comes to the promotion of sport, Mullin *et al.*, in 1993, state that:

- ❖ The widespread exposure that the mass media has given to sport has resulted in a decreased emphasis on sport marketing – sport has not been forced to emphasize marketing and promotion to the same level as have other industries, instead, sport has been able to rely upon publicity as its major promotional tool;
- ❖ Because of the visibility that sport enjoys, many business wish to associate with sport – sport provides a great promotional vehicle and the target of each sport is different; sponsorship revenue is being used more and more by the astute marketers.

Anyway, why should a company promote a product? According to Pitts and Stotlar, in 1996, some of the reasons are:

- ❖ Promotion establishes an image – of the product and of the company;
- ❖ Promotion can reposition the image of a faltering product – if a product is gaining a poor reputation, the sport marketer can turn around the image of the product;
- ❖ Promotion creates awareness for new products – if the people do not know a product, they will not buy it, so, a new product has to be promoted;
- ❖ Promotion alerts the consumer to sales – the communication of this kind of different activities is really important for the consumer;

- ❖ Promotion tells the consumer where your business is located – although this sounds like a simple message, and it is, the consumer needs to know where the business is located.

In marketing theory, promotion is an umbrella term for any of the following activities:

- ❖ Advertising – any paid presentation in the various media (television, radio, newspapers, magazines, billboards, outdoor advertising and direct mail print);
- ❖ Personal selling – any face-to-face sales presentation;
- ❖ Publicity – any free exposure in the media;
- ❖ Sales promotions – short-term incentives to encourage sales, such as giveaways and limited-time memberships.

About market segmentation, the bridge between managerial analysis and managerial action, Mullin *et al.*, in 1993, state that marketers who adopt a consumer orientation are able to recognize market segments in which consumers are grouped into clusters of similar backgrounds or responses – marketing theorists have a typically considered four bases for segmentation:

- ❖ Demographic information – age, sex, income, education, profession and location of residence;
- ❖ Psychographic information – lifestyle factors such as activities, interests and opinions;
- ❖ Product usage rate – heavy, medium and light user;
- ❖ Product benefits – product attributes or benefits that are most important to the consumer, and consumers' perceptions regarding the major benefits of the product and its competitors;

- ❖ According to Pitts and Stotlar (1996), media preferences also influence the segmentation – information about the consumers concerning what they watch on TV, what they listen to on the radio and what magazines and newspapers they read.

Segmentation is truly central to the notion of knowing one's consumers, for segmentation recognizes that consumers vary along a variety of dimensions that the marketer may use to form the basis of specialized strategies. Therefore the marketing information system should examine the possible bases for meaningful segmentation of the marketplace.

Pitts and Stotlar, in 1996, stated that the main purpose of segmentation is specialization, this is, focusing a certain kind of consumer, and design the marketing mix to a specific group of people. The mass marketing is becoming smaller and smaller and, as sport industry grows, more areas aim to different consumers comes up. For instance, there is such a variety of people participating in sport activities that equipment is becoming more customized.

And, if the issue is attending to Soccer games, Mullin *et al.*, in 1993, defined categories for the spectators: "big usage" (annual place, going with the team to every place), "medium usage" (club member, attending to all the home games), "regular usage" (attending to some home games), "little usage" (going to one or two games in one season), "external consumer" (does not go to the games but follows in the media), "indifferent" (knows the product but does not follow or uses) and, finally, "not interested" (someone that never tried and does not want to try).

Finally, people should not forget that the notion of control will move sport marketing from a land of wishful thinking to a territory of meaningful management. There is a huge need to control the marketing function, from research into potential consumers and their needs, to market segmentation, to product position, to the marketing mix, to sponsorships and, finally, to evaluation of success (Mullin *et al.*, 1993).

### 2.1.3. SPORT INDUSTRY

The main question of the next chapter is “why do people consume sport?”

To consume sport, people need the sport products. In the chapters before, the sport product was described and analyzed. But the first conclusion that can be taken of this question is that a sport industry exists – industry is, according to Sá and Sá (1999), a group of organizations that produce services and products, close to each other and capable of substituting each other. Pitts and Stotlar (1996) defined the sport industry as “the market in which the products offered to its buyers are sport, fitness, recreation, or leisure-related and may be activities, goods, services, people, places or ideas” (p. 3). As was said before, they also define it as all products, people, and businesses that organize, facilitate, produce or promote sports, fitness, recreation, or leisure activities or enterprises. The research of Pitts *et al.* (1994) shows that the sport industry includes a wide variety of sport-oriented products and buyers. The product offerings include sports, fitness, recreation, or leisure activities and their related goods and services. The buyers include businesses and consumers from all populations.

This industry is very large, varied and a lot of factors influence its growth and development. The sport marketer must understand how these factors affect the product or business so that he can find decisions and strategies that can be developed to reach the success. Pitts and Stotlar, in 1996, found a roll of factors that consequently influence the sport consumption, since the past until the present and towards the future:

- ❖ Increase in the number of new and different sport, fitness and recreation activities;
- ❖ Increase in the number of same sports offered;
- ❖ Increase in the number and type of sport magazines & trade magazines;

- ❖ Increase in leisure time;
- ❖ Increase in mass media exposure;
- ❖ The fitness boom of the 1970's;
- ❖ Increase in number and type of facilities, events and participation;
- ❖ Increase in an expansion of sport related goods and services for the variety of market segments;
- ❖ Increase in the number and type of professional level sport, fitness and recreational activity;
- ❖ The movement from single-purpose to multi-purpose facilities;
- ❖ Increase in sport for the diversity of populations;
- ❖ Increase in sponsorship & funding of sport from the general business community;
- ❖ Increase in endorsement;
- ❖ Increase in sport education;
- ❖ Increase in profits;
- ❖ Increase in technology in sport related goods, services & training;
- ❖ Enhancement of sport as a consumer product;
- ❖ Increase in marketing and marketing orientation in the sport industry;
- ❖ Increase in competency of management of sport;
- ❖ The globalization of sport and the global market for sport.

Sport industry is only a small part of the leisure industry, but it has a lot of different participants who can be classified in varied segments. In Table 1, based on the kind of relation established with the consumer, the components of the sport industry can be found.

Table 1: Components of the sport industry.

<b>Sport events and competitions organizers</b>	<b>Equipment and services providers</b>	<b>Control, evaluation and support of other sport organizations</b>
<b>Associations</b>	Health clubs	Federations
<b>Clubs</b>	Tennis clubs	Sponsors
<b>Local government</b>	Equipment companies	Media
<b>Private societies</b>		Media & communication companies

(Adapted from Mullin et al., 1993)

The services within the sports industry can also be classified in different categories (Chelladurai & Turner, 2005):

- ❖ Participant services – those services where the clients engage physically in some form of sports or physical activity offered by an agency; participant services are the largest and most significant set of services offered;
- ❖ Spectator services – referring to the provision of sports as entertainment; spectator services are based on the excellence achieved by contestants in a sport, and that excellence is encouraged by participant sports labeled pursuit of excellence – In essence, spectator sports is a consequence of participant sports;
- ❖ Sponsorship services – referring to the provision of some kind of resources by an external agency to a sports entity (e.g., a sporting event, a sports team, a sportsperson, or a sports organization) in return for an association with that entity, which, in turn, can be exploited for commercial purposes;
- ❖ Donor services – involves receiving a resource from a donor in exchange for psychic benefits, such as the altruistic feeling of having supported a

worthy venture or the egoistic and personal gratification in being recognized as a donor; these psychic benefits are self-administered by the donors themselves, and a donation may activate both altruistic and egoistic benefits simultaneously;

- ❖ Social ideas – some sports organizations are engaged in promoting social objectives, such as fitness and health through physical activity.

Further, concession, licensing, and sponsorship services are functions of spectator sports. Other services, which are not described in this scheme, also facilitate spectator sports (such as parking and traffic control).

#### **2.1.4. SPORT TOURISM**

Tourism is another 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).

Gibson, in 2003, in the article *Sport Tourism: An Introduction to the special issue* resumes some interesting data. Since 1993, under the auspices of the Sport Tourism International Council, a private organization in Canada, the *Journal of Sport Tourism* has provided an online source of information. Over the last ten years, a number of specialist 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.

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

- ❖ Spatial dimension: Individuals must leave and eventually return home;
- ❖ Temporal dimension: The travel is temporary;
- ❖ Relationship: The purpose of travel must be sports related.

Gibson (1998) defines as well 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;
- ❖ Spectating at 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.



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.

Tourism has temporal and spatial dimensions, which can also be found in sports. The temporal dimension of tourism can best be considered relative to the short, medium and long term (Higham & Hinch, 2003).

When it comes to the second mentioned, 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 (Williamns, *et al.*, 1992).

In the touristic context, and also in the sport tourism context, the concept of place is really important. Sport can also determine the construct that a person has of a certain place. Later on, in chapter 2.4., the concept of sport tourism and the related concept of place attachment will be studied carefully.

The core elements of sport as a tourism attraction are summarized in Table 2.

*Table 2: The core elements of sport as tourism attraction.*

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

*(Adapted from 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. 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.

## **2.2. SPORT CONSUMPTION**

In the beginning of this chapter the main question remains: “why do people consume sport?”

Sport marketers have been looking for an understanding of the behavior of sport consumers (Stewart *et al.*, 2003). While some studies give an overemphasis to social and psychological traits, identifying important motivational and behavioral differences, other studies also focus on the cultural and economic context in which behaviors 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.

Afterwards, a distinction between a sport fan and a sport consumer is going to be exposed. Following, a major analysis of the sport consumer and of the sport consumption, that include the more recent theories. Finally, a representation of the Portuguese consumption is shown, with some interesting and important data.

### **2.2.1. DISTINCTION BETWEEN SPORT FAN AND SPORT CONSUMER**

When people think about a “sport fan” or “sport spectator” several contents can come into view: some people could think about happy and psychologically stable persons, that have an hobby, which is attending and supporting sports, with the family and friends; on the other hand, some people think that sport fans or spectators have extreme behaviors, always drinking beer and finding problems where they don't exist and unaware about the social issues and important tribulations (Wann *et al.*, 2001b).

A crucial first step in understanding sport fandom is to define and classify those people involved in the consumption of sport.

When it comes to the use of the terms “sport fan” or “sport spectator” or supporter there is a lot to say. Although some authors use the two words in an indifferent way, others usually distinguish them. This partition between the two definitions is useful from the theoretical point of view. It clarifies the concepts and makes them clearer, also to the workers on the field, like the marketers and managers, that have to know that two kinds of people can be found watching games – people with different needs and wishes.

“Sport fan” is an enthusiastic follower of a team, athlete, sport or sport product (Wann *et al.*, 2003), while a “sport spectator” can watch and observe, but from a less emotional point of view (Sloan, 1989, *cit.* Trail *et al.* 2003). Sport spectators, which can also be called “Sport consumers” (Wann *et al.*, 2003), are those individuals who enthusiastically witness a sporting event in person or through some form of media. Some sport fans rarely witness sporting events in person, while some spectators have little interest in identifying with a favorite sport team or player.

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 marketer should organize, for instance, autograph sessions. To fans that like to be informed about their club – the club can communicate through the web page or 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 sell what the fans want (Trail *et al.* 2003). Sport fans can be described as “individuals with an abiding interest in sport” (Wann *et al.*, 2001b, p. 2).

The spectators are totally different. They want to see a quality show, appreciate the skills, the game aesthetics and to increase their knowledge about the sport. This individual is much more influenced in his consumption decisions by things like the price of a certain product, accessibility or commodity of a game, and he 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 *et al.* 2003). Wann

*et al.*, in 2001b, described them as “those persons who actually witness an event.” (p. 3).

Of course, the terms “fan” and “spectator” are not mutually exclusive. A person can be one or both of them. But the distinction between fans and spectators is important to sport marketers mainly.

There can be also made a distinction between lowly and highly identified sport fans (Wann *et al.*, 2001b). Or, as Wann and Branscombe called them before: the fair-weather and the die-hard fans (1990). In a sport event, several kinds of fans can be found: some 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. On the other hand, the die-hard fans can be found also: they appear to be immersed in the contest, they are dressed and/or painted in their team’s colors, they clap and yell for their team and they see nothing else besides of the game or contest.

These examples contrast the various levels of team identification found among sport fans. About this issue, team identification, chapter 2.5 will develop bigger considerations.

### **2.2.2. SPORT CONSUMERS AND SPORT CONSUMPTION**

The part that participants or spectators play nowadays in sports changes every day to a bigger action in the event (Sá & Sá, 1999). The bigger sport offer of today also changed the behavior towards consumption.

Sport consumers differ a lot: fans values, attitudes and behaviors are quite varied (Sá & Sá, 1999; Meir, 2000). Some supporters are passionate and fanatical; not all of them are fanatical in the same way; others use their team to confirm their personal identity; some are totally loyal; others are aware of the

club history or are resistant to changes that may threaten team values and practices (Stewart *et al.*, 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 *et al.*, 2001b). Finally, some of them like to consume sports live, on TV or through other media; and some buy sports products regularly or occasionally (Stewart *et al.*, 2003).

Viseu *et al.* (2002) state that the sport consumption can be active or passive. The first mentioned is related to physical and sports activities, the second is connected to live attendance in the stadiums or sports facilities, to media attendance (via radio, TV or newspaper) and to a sports life style (a sport self-image). As can be seen, it is not possible to totally draw the lines between the several types of consumption (for instance, using some kind of sport shoes can be related with an active consumption – practicing some sport – or with a sportive life style).

Another distinction divides the consumers into direct and indirect consumers: direct sport consumption involves one's person attendance or participation at a sporting event; indirect sport consumption involves one's contact to sport through some form of mass media (television, 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 (Wann *et al.*, 2001b). 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.

Although there are innumerable studies, theories and models that attempt to get into the mind of the consumer, the factors that influence this behavior may be considered either environmental or individual (Mullin *et al.*, 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 behavior of firms in the sport industry.

Individual factors include one's attitudes, perceptions, learning, motivations, and stage in the family circle, as well as the very complex process of consumer decision making itself.

Anyway, according to Sá and Sá, in 1999, the motivations and expectations of the sport consumption of each person are influenced by three concepts: socialization, involvement and compromise. The sport socialization is what makes people internalize and develop capacities, attitudes and actions towards the sport role they can play. The involvement is what makes people dedicate themselves to what they choose to do in sports. And finally the compromise is the frequency and duration of involvement with the form of consumption chosen.

According to Viseu *et. al* (2002), the individual sport consumption is affected by the following classic determinants:

- ❖ Incomes, 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 the sports goods;
- ❖ The time you are living;
- ❖ The sports offer.

The same author states that when it comes to group sport consumption, it is defined by:

- ❖ The distribution of the outcomes inside the group;

- ❖ The number of potential sport consumers in a region, country, etc.;
- ❖ The country's national income.

Finally, when it comes to the general consumption, there can be found:

- ❖ The offer of the sports goods or other goods;
- ❖ The information that can be accessed about sports goods and services and about other consumption goods;
- ❖ The past consumption of sports goods and general goods;
- ❖ The economic evolution perspectives;
- ❖ The saturation point of the sport market and other markets;
- ❖ The legal and institutional scope.

About attendance, already in 1983, Schofield stated that it is influenced by economic, demographic and game attractiveness variables.

Therefore, there is a vast complexity of behaviors and attitudes towards sports products. Thus, an effective segmentation can reveal the distinct preferences and needs identify the loyalty and commitment source and enhance the differences in the consumption patterns (Funk *et al.* 2003a).

In short, a sport consumers' typology allows the sport marketers the refining of their activities, the remake of the sports products, the price monitoring, their variations and adjustments in society, the place and plan campaigns amendment and, on the whole, adjust and refine the process to each sports client (Stewart *et al.* 2003).

Several models, proposed by distinct studies, with different approaches, have been defined, providing a rich and varied analysis of the sport consumption. Initially, the dualistic typologies, putting different consumers in apart poles (young – old; modern – old fashion; etc.), were the most common. Nowadays, it



is known that these dual approaches may be seen as a point of departure to the drawing of versatile sport consumption models. Above all, sports marketers may have the notion that it is impossible to establish a sport consumer archetype, because of the huge variety of values, attitudes and interdependent behaviors that can be found (Holt, 1995). The sport consumption is multi-factorial and is much more than, for instance, “going to a game – attending to the game – coming back home” (Stewart *et al.* 2003).

In fact, it is important to understand that the models defining the sports consumer may not only bring to attention what consumers do but also what they think. The emotional bond with a certain sport, club or sport product becomes more complex as the issue is deeply explored (Stewart *et al.* 2003). Thus, the studies in this area of knowledge must be multidisciplinary, transversal and longitudinal. Above all, the sport marketers may choose sport consumption models that fit their tactical intentions.

Across times, there were a lot of attempts of creating an instrument to characterize the psychological motives that take people to sports. Several recent past studies identified motivational and behavioral important differences but they give slender explanations about the real behavior of the sports consumers (Stewart *et al.* 2003). These studies are usually mainly focused in the social and psychological traits of the sports consumer but they do not focus enough on the social and economic context where the behaviors take place. Besides, they rarely explain how fans move from one segment to another or how the relation between the consumer and a certain sport product starts.

According to the previous thoughts, some attempts of instruments are going to be exposed.

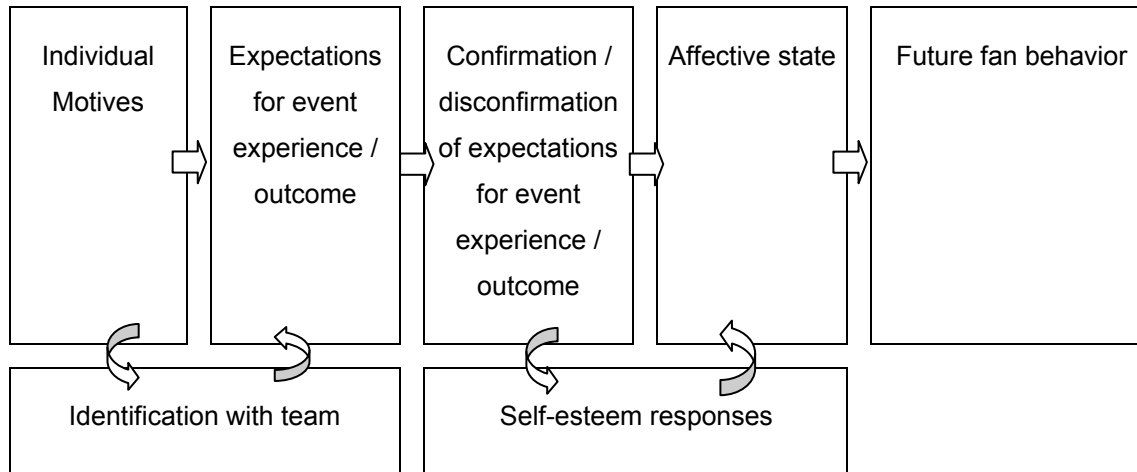
Wann *et al.*, in 1999b, validated the “Sport Fan Motivation Scale” (SFMS, that was designed only by him in 1995) to measure eight factors known as influencing the fans behavior – eustress, self-esteem, escape, entertainment, economic (gambling), aesthetic, affiliation and family – it was considered a good starting point but it had some methodological problems (validity concerns like content validity, discriminator validity and criterion validity).

In 2000, Trail *et al.* presented a theoretical model proposing a predictive relation between the motives and the actual behavior of fans and sport spectators. According to these authors, the consumer behaviors of the sport spectators could be predicted through a six factor interaction: motives, level of identification, expectations, confirmation or disconfirmation of the expectations, self-esteem responses and the affective state of the individual. They hypothesized that each factor functioned sequentially, having direct or indirect consequences on the factors that followed in the model (Figure 2).

For instance, the motivation of an individual was hypothesized to directly influence the expectations of the individual to the event, or, at the same time, also indirectly, through the identification with a team. Subsequently, the individual’s expectations about the event, including winning or losing, would be either confirmed or disconfirmed by the individual’s perception of the experience, which would affect, positively or negatively, the self-esteem and the affective state. From the development of this whole process, results a future sport consumption decision.

The next part provides a brief analysis of the model’s components – the Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC) was developed from a review of sport sociology literature and from an evaluation of the scales proposed by Wann (1995) and other studies.

Figure 2: Theoretical Model of Sport Spectator Consumption.



(Trail et al. 2000)

Trail *et al.* (2000) proposed a model for the individual motives, the MSSC, which includes nine motives, most of them based on social and psychological needs, for being a sports fan or consumer: vicarious achievement, acquisition of knowledge, aesthetics, social interaction, drama/excitement, escape (relation), family, physical attractiveness of participants and quality of physical skill of the participants. Trail *et al.* (2000) suggested that spectators attend games due to one, or a combination, of these motives. Identification with the team was defined for the same authors as the orientation of the individual to other objects, people or groups that result in feelings of close attachment. Zillmann *et al.* cited by Trail *et al.*, in 2003, stated, about the third step of the model, that the expectations can be about the outcome of the game, the style of playing or the competitiveness or level of enjoyment of the teams. Trail *et al.* (2000) also suggested that expectations confirmation or disconfirmation would influence the affective state of the individual directly, and, consequently, the sport consumption behavior (e. g., intention to attend, intention to purchase merchandise, intention to support the team). Also relatively to self-esteem, Trail *et al.* (2000), hypothesized that expectations disconfirmation would influence the affective state of the individual indirectly through self-esteem maintenance

behaviors. They suggested that both basking in reflected glory (BIRGing) and cutting off reflected failure (CORFing) comprise self-esteem responses. The first mentioned allows people to build self-esteem through the association of successful others, whereas the last mentioned allows individuals to maintain existing levels of self-esteem by distancing themselves from unsuccessful others (Wann & Branscombe, 1990). This is, fans often publicize their commitment to a highly successful team and derogate or minimize their connection with an unsuccessful team. Using this model, in 2003, the same authors concluded that 11% of the intentions of the sports consumers can be explained by the factors included in this model. But, because different fans consume different sports for different reasons, the factors may be used to segment the sport fans.

Trail and James, in 2001, worked from the model of Trail, Anderson and Fink (2000) to suggest nine motives for sport consumption – 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 purpose of this study was to extend the development of an instrument to assess fan motives that were more valid and reliable than previous scales. This model was found to be a psychometrically sound scale.

In 1999, Milne and McDonald created and in 2002, MacDonald *et al.* improved an instrument, the Motivations of the Sport Consumer (MSC), that wanted to measure the motives of either the participants or the spectators, based in twelve factors – risk taking, stress reduction, aggression, affiliation, social facilitation, self-esteem, competition, achievement, skill mastery, aesthetics, value development and self-actualization – the critic to this attempt was that there was a big difference between the motives of the participants and the spectators and so they could not be studied together in the same model.

Also in 2002 and 2003b, Funk *et al.* examined how individual difference factors could be used to explain various levels of consumer support for a specific *sport* property. The study extended the Sport Interest Inventory (SII), originally from 2001, in order to enhance the understanding of consumer motives in relation to *sport* in general and women's competitive *sport* in particular. After that, in 2006, Ridinger and Funk again, used it to look at gender differences through the lens of sport spectators.

The new technologies are always influencing other areas of knowledge, and sport issues did not escape to internet. The internet has become a significant tool for sport marketing and to sports, teams and athletes spread all over the world. Seo and Green, in 2008, tried to develop a valid, reliable instrument to measure motivation for sport online consumption: The Motivation Scale for Sport Online Consumption (MSSOC). The final scale consisted of 10 dimensions of motivation: fanship, interpersonal communication, technical knowledge, fan expression, entertainment, economy, pass time, information, escape and support.

The sport consumption can also be related with sponsorship. The effectiveness of sponsorship is significantly higher when it comes to more involved supporters with the sponsored activity (Bennett, 1999; Madrigal, 2001; Meenaghham, 2001; Pitts & Slattery, 2004; Quester, 1997). A superior involvement of the consumer with the activity is also related to a larger awareness about it (Meenaghham, 2001).

This knowledge about the specific sport also leads to a better recognition of the sponsor, and to the establishment, in the mind of the supporter, of relations between the values of the activity (team or sport) with the sponsoring brand. This allows the sponsor to reach the primary marketing objectives of fame and image of the brand.

Sponsors are aware that the knowledge about a brand increases with their larger investment (Vale, 2007). But they want to be sure that the sponsoring is going to work with the largest number of people they can reach. Therefore sponsors will increase their sponsoring with clubs with more supporters and consumers. This means that the clubs need to worry about having a bigger attendance, not only because of their own profits but also because of the sponsoring they can get.

A loyal, die-hard fan is important not only for attendance, television ratings and the purchase of licensed merchandise, but loyal consumers also ideally transfer their allegiance to the products and services promoted by corporate sponsors during sporting events (Burnett *et al.*, 1993; Sebastian & Bristow, 2000).

Sport consumption behavior as a multiple disciplinary ground must maintain the focus on reaching out to utilize concepts, data and problem-solving strategies from other fields of knowledge: anthropology, sociology, psychology or others, can provide new and bright angles from which to view issues in sport (Funk *et al.*, 2003a).

### **2.2.3. SPORT CONSUMPTION IN PORTUGAL**

In a analysis of the few sports consumption studies made in Portugal until now, it can be identified that, in the last decades, there existed a sudden increase of the sport consumption through television, radio stations or newspapers, although, on the other hand, a diminish of sports participation – in fact, in the late 90's the rate of sport participation was the lowest ever in the country, only 23% according to Viseu (2006) and 27% according to Marivoet, (2000, 2001).

Despite that, Marivoet (2000), in a study about the “Portuguese population sport patterns” confirmed that, in 1998, young people between 15 and 19 years were the more sportive group – 51% of the people with that age practices some sport, especially at school. Still, the older people are, the less they practice.

Reinforcing the shown data, Marivoet, in 2001, considers that, although the sportive practice happens in the reverse order of the age (the older people are, the less they are into sports), the differences between the two genders is bigger as soon as age goes ahead – as time goes by, women are less and less into sports than men.

Concerning to the differences between genders, there are a lot of studies. Only to show some examples, Desbordes *et al.* (2001) assert that, in France, men attend more to games and sport events and read sports newspapers more than women. Also in Portugal, according to Férin (2002), the women interest is lower in things like reading sport newspapers (or attending to sport events. In his study, he reached some interesting conclusions:

- ❖ In 40% of people that read sport newspapers, only 9% are women;
- ❖ Women like to go to sport events less than the masculine gender;
- ❖ Men have higher participation rates in associative issues – more men are athletes, coaches but also head or members of sport institutions;
- ❖ Men who practice some sport, do it more hours / week than the women;
- ❖ Men pay less to practice than women.

Maria, in 2001, in a study performed also in Portugal, had other interesting findings:

- ❖ Most people are more interested in watching sports (live or at home, on TV) than on practicing it;
- ❖ There is a bigger percentage of men and young people interested in sports (watching or practicing) than women or older people.

When it comes to spending, Portuguese families spend an average of 5% of their annual revenues on sport activities and leisure. Clothes and sports shoes cover a lot of the consumption (Viseu, 2002): individually, 31.5% are of those

materials, 18.8% are spent in dislocation to the place where people sport, 17% in contributions to profit organizations and 12.1% in contributions to non-profit organizations. Families have almost the same percentages; however, in family, people spend more money on non-profit organizations.

The importance of the media in sports cannot be forgotten also (Sá & Sá, 1999). The number of hours of sport on TV increased during the past decades. Besides, since 1998, Portugal has a thematic channel, dedicated only to Sports – the fact of this TV channel is a paid channel reveals the importance of sport on the Portuguese people lives. On the other hand, the sport newspapers, and there are three big ones in this country, have a 300.000 people market.

### **2.3. PROFESSIONAL SPORTS AND PROFESSIONAL SOCCER IN PORTUGAL**

Carvalho, in 2007, refers that with the “Lei de Bases do Sistema Desportivo (LBSD)”, Law n.º 1/90, from 13 January, we identified, for the first time in the Portuguese judicial system, a border between the professional and non-professional sports. Therefore, we could find, for the first time, a specific contract regimen for professional sports: an allusion to the creation of sport societies or specific rules to the clubs in professional competitions and also a reference about the creation of professional leagues. At the present, in the “Lei de Bases da Actividade Física e do Desporto (LBAFD)”, Law n.º 5/2007, from 16 January, the framework law cares a lot about the separation between the professional and non professional sports, through the relations between the professional leagues and the sports federations.

Apart from other issues, and without being an innovation, the public financing to the professional sports is now, in this new base law, the main and dignified subject of point 2 of the 46<sup>th</sup> article – it is forbidden to clubs in professional competitions to get financial support from the state, government or local



authority. The only exception to this is the financial support to build or improve sports infrastructures that are going to be used in sport competitions with public interest.

To the clubs and their marketers, this base law has some serious consequences about how to earn, spend and apply money to sustain and improve the sport activities of the club and to manage the profits. Nowadays, the clubs with professional sports have to define and affect strategies to get all the money they can by themselves, not waiting for governmental help.

According to the Portuguese state law, three sports (Soccer, Basketball and Handball) have a professional status in Portugal.

Soccer is the most popular sport in Portugal, with the larger number of participants and followers. From 1996 until 2003, the average number of people playing this sport was 110000 (Instituto do Desporto de Portugal, 2005) and in the season 2007/2008, more than three million people attended Soccer games in Portugal (Liga Portuguesa de Futebol Profissional, 2008a).

Portuguese soccer is organized into four national divisions, two of them professional – the first and second league – and the other two not professional (Federação Portuguesa de Futebol, 2008; Liga Portuguesa de Futebol Profissional, 2008b). In these two professional leagues 32 teams play, from all over the country, including the islands (Madeira and Açores).

The Liga Portuguesa de Futebol Profissional exists since 1978 and was founded to gather the clubs that were playing in the highest level in Portugal in an association that would speak for all, to increase their power and their voice. One of the main goals of this professional organization, among others (bring youth to soccer, more games, more competition, higher incomes, more stakeholders, more party and more solidarity), is “to bring more people into the stadiums” (Liga Portuguesa de Futebol Profissional, 2008c).

## 2.4. PLACE ATTACHMENT – INSIDE THE CONCEPT

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). Leisure behavior in outdoor recreation contexts is, that way, also explained by the concept of place attachment. Place meanings have been widely studied in many different fields of knowledge. So, as previewed in chapter 2.1.4., this concept is going to be studied, but trying to adapt it to the professional team sports context.

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 *et al.* (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 *et al.* (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 *et al.* (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.

Now, an analysis to some studies about place attachment and its concepts is going to be made. 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 user’s 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.

In other study, Alexandris *et al.* (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 the 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 *et al.*, 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 respondents were more accepting of fees, whereas place identity was generally associated with negative views of fees. Smaldone *et al.* (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 (Williams *et al.*, 1992; Moore & Graefe, 1994). 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 *et al.* (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).

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 decade, positioning themselves after the work of Hidalgo and Hernandez (2001), Low and Altman (1992), Miligan (1998), Jorgensen and Stedman (2001), Eisenhauer *et al.* (2000), among others. Subsequent to examine the concepts of place dependence and place identity and analyze the studies around place attachment, Kyle *et al.* (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. Moore & Graefe, 1994; Kyle *et al.*, 2004b).

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 operationalized 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. Low & Altman, 1992; Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001): neighbors and friends.



## 2.5. TEAM IDENTIFICATION AND RELATED ISSUES

Social identification has been studied profoundly through the times. This concept comes from the social sciences and it has been brought to sports by a deep need of comprehensiveness of some sport issues. Social identity is defined as an individual's self-concept derived from perceived membership of a social group (Hogg & Vaughan, 2002, cit. Kwon *et al.*, 2007). Individuals classify themselves as members of a social group and identify in-group members from out-group members.

Sport identification is a particular instance of social identification whereby the object to which the person identifies herself is a particular sport (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008).

In 2001, Funk and James, emphasized in a model of different levels of psychological connection that an individual might identify with a team, an individual as an athlete or the overall sport, this is, to sum up, the concept of sport identification. Nevertheless, much of the sport related identification literature has focused on teams.

Wann and Branscombe, in 1993, refer to the concept of team identification as the level of connection or concern of a person with a team. That way, team identification 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 (Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann *et al.*, 2001a). This term also refers to a fan's loyalty to a specific player.

Hence, team identification is the social identity that a group of people have in common in relation to their favorite team (Kwon *et al.*, 2007). Madrigal referred in his study about the effects of Social Identity, in 2001, that the affiliation with a certain group is motivated by a desire of an individual to be distinguished from other social groups. This desire is expressed, for instance, in consumption of

merchandising of the team or attendance to the games – the more someone is identified with a team or sport, the more this behavior is showed.

Wann and Branscombe, in 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 behavioral, affective and cognitive reactions among sport spectators were used for this construction. This scale is used in this work. With the SSIS team, identity is evaluated as a unidimensional construct.

Here and James (2007) criticized this scale and developed the TEAM\*ID, a multi-dimensional team identity scale based on social identity theory. The authors state that assessing team identity as a multi-dimensional construct would provide a better understanding of the components which individuals associate or identify themselves with, and the manner by which the different elements comprising team identity may relate to each other.

Team identification has been used in several studies as a determinant of sport consumers' behaviors such as game attending or game watching (Trail, Anderson & Fink, 2000) and licensed apparel buying and wearing behavior (Kwon & Armstrong, 2002). Wann & Branscombe (1993) have noted the importance of identification in attendance decisions. Wann *et al.* (2004) found that highly identified persons were more interested in attending the event than less identified persons. More than that, highly identified fans have been found to attend more games (Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wakefield, 1995). Accordingly, theorists interested in explaining the factors involved in attendance decisions have incorporated team identification into their models (e. g. Trail, *et al.*, 2000).

Anyway, research indicates that team identification is not a function of the location or outcome of a team's most recent game (Wann, 1996; Wann *et al.*, 1994). Rather, fans tend to report highly consistent levels of identification from game to game and from season to season – 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 *et al.*, 2001a). 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. Madrigal (2001) also mentioned that high identification can be dangerous, because a fan can relate the team failure as being his failure.

Because of the amplified meaning highly identified fans place on their team's performance, their affective, cognitive and behavioral reactions tend to be quite extreme (Wann *et al.*, 2001a). They feel a strong psychological connection to a team, sport or athlete (Wann *et al.*, 2001b). 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 compete (Branscombe & Wann, 1992; Wann *et al.*, 1998);
- ❖ Are particularly likely to shout encouragement to their team and to direct harassment toward opponents (Wann *et al.*, 2001c)
- ❖ Display a more ego-enhancing pattern of attribution for the team's successes (Wann & Branscombe, 1993);
- ❖ Feel that sport spectating 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 *et al.*, 2001a);
- ❖ Are more likely to believe that fans of the team they are identified with possess special qualities (Wann & Branscombe, 1993);
- ❖ Report higher level of vigor and self-esteem and lower level of tension, depression, anger, fatigue and confusion (Wann *et al.*, 1999a);
- ❖ Exhibit greater willingness to invest larger amounts of time and money watching the team play (Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann *et al.*, 2004).

Analyzing all these information, it can be observed that sport fans with high team identification levels are clearly the target consumers for spectator teams (Greenwood *et al.*, 2006).

And what is the origin of the team identification?

A study by Wann *et al.* (1996) indicates that, although there are a lot of reasons to first identify with a particular team, some of them are outstanding. The most common reason listed was that one's parents were supporters of the team (parental and family influence); the second greatest influence was the talent and characteristics of the players. The success of the team was only the fifth most commonly mentioned reason. But they found that the prevailing reason for continued identification with a team was success quantified by the won/loss record. On the contrary, Jones (1997) argued that geographical reasons were the most dominant reason for continuing to support a team. Fink *et al.* (2002a) found vicarious team achievement to be the greatest motivator for team identification. Greenwood *et al.* (2006) found however, that the strongest predictor of sport fan team identification was the variable "players and coaches talent" and the second strongest predictor was being a native or a resident in the area. Dimmock and Grove, in 2006, found that preferences for sport teams were significantly related to the preferences of family and friends. For what can be seen, the results vary with the situations where the studies are conducted.

## 2.6. THE CONCEPT OF LOYALTY IN SPORTS

The concept of loyalty in sports has received a great deal of attention from marketing academics and practitioners (Neale & Funk, 2006).

Funk and James (2001) defined loyalty as a highly developed attitude that is persistent, resistant to change, creates biases in cognitive processing and provides a guide to behavior. This also suggests that some consumers might be considered irrational consumers, who have committed themselves to an organization despite a possible lack of product-related motivational constructs. In the sport context, it happens a lot, because many fans continue supporting their team, despite of the lack of on-field success or star players.

More recently, in 2008, and according to Heere and Dickson, loyalty is “longitudinal in nature and should be regarded as the result of interaction between negative external changes in the environment and the individual’s internal level of commitment” (p. 227). On the other hand, the same authors state that commitment is “a construct that is cross-sectional in nature and is internal to the individual” (p. 227).

Loyalty has been described as both unidimensional and multidimensional, with two independent dimensions: behavioral and attitudinal (Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978, *cit.* Neale & Funk, 2006). For example, Backman and Crompton (1991) used attitudinal and behavioral scores to segment respondents in their study of golf and tennis participants. According to the answers of the participants they used a two-dimensional matrix to distinguish four discrete levels of loyalty (Figure XXXXXXXX). The resulting four-quadrant matrix was useful to classify participants into specific groups by weak or strong attitudes and high or low behavioral consistency. Following Day’s (1969) earlier characterization (*cit.* Mahony & Madrigal, 2000), those demonstrating strong psychological attachment, this is, high attitudinal loyalty, as well as active participation, this is,

high behavioral loyalty, were placed in the upper left quadrant, labeled “High (true) loyalty” and so on, as can be seen in the Figure 3. Latently loyal consumers often express a strong desire to participate, but may lack the means (e. g. money, time, equipment). 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 3: Loyalty Model

		Psychological commitment	
		Strong	Weak
Behavioral consistency	High	<b>High (true) Loyalty</b>	<b>Spurious Loyalty</b>
	Low	<b>Latent Loyalty</b>	<b>Low (Non) Loyalty</b>

(Backman & Crompton, 1991)

Bauer *et al.*, in 2005, reunited, from other authors, six activities constituting behavioral loyalty in the team sport context:

- ❖ Attending the favorite club’s games live in the stadium;
- ❖ Watching the favorite club’s games on TV;
- ❖ Consuming other club-related media;
- ❖ Purchasing club merchandise;
- ❖ Wearing the colors and/or logo of the favorite club;
- ❖ Participating in discussions about the favorite club.

Misunderstanding still exists, regarding the use of terms to measure apparently similar constructs such as attachment, allegiance, commitment and loyalty. Within the sport marketing field Mahony *et al.* (2000) were the first to develop an instrument to measure team loyalty – the Psychological Commitment to Team scale (PCT). They proposed that the psychological commitment process of a fan toward a team should be considered in terms of four stages: awareness, attraction, attachment and allegiance.

Previous research outside the sport fan literature has shown that individuals who are emotionally involved devotees to a particular product or service are far more likely to repurchase that product or service and to evaluate the brand or the experience more positively (e. g. Havitz & Howard, 1995). In sports, the ability to create fan loyalty is important because the heterogeneous nature of the service provided and because of the organization's dependence on the team's performance (Funk & Pastore, 2000; Mahony *et al.*, 2000).





### **3. METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1. INSTRUMENTS**

This research was sustained with several concepts of the sport marketing and the sport tourism in general and the sport consumption and fandom, particularly. The instrument, in a form of a questionnaire (Appendix 1), was constituted by:

- ❖ Three demographic questions (Sex, Age and Profession);
- ❖ Loyalty related questions;
- ❖ The Sport Spectator Identification Scale;
- ❖ The Place Attachment Scale.

##### **3.1.1. LOYALTY**

In this questionnaire three questions about behavioral loyalty were included, in order to understand this concept and relate it with team identification and place attachment.

Following Nassis *et al.*, 2007, loyalty was measured based on spectator's consumption and habits with the club, this is, behavioral loyalty, with three items with open-ended format answer:

- ❖ For how long they are fans of that club;
- ❖ How many games they attended last season in the Dragon stadium (used by several authors, e. g. Kwon *et al.*, 2005; Neale & Funk, 2006)
- ❖ How much time they spend with the club during a week, in hours.

### 3.1.2. SPORT SPECTATOR IDENTIFICATION SCALE (SSIS)

To assist the accurate assessment of team identification, Wann and Branscombe (1993) developed and strongly validated the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS).

Numerous studies used this scale and verified the scale's reliability and sound psychometric properties.

The SSIS contains seven items with response options ranging from 1 to 8. Higher numbers represent greater levels of team identification. To determine the level of identification the seven items must be answered. Participants targeted the team that they were supporting when completing the SSIS.

The seven items assess the individual's perceptions of:

- ❖ Being a fan of the particular team;
- ❖ The importance of winning;
- ❖ The degree to which the individual sees him/her as a fan of that team;
- ❖ The extent to which his/her friends view him/her as a fan;
- ❖ How closely the individual follows the progress of the team;
- ❖ How often the fan displays or wears team memorabilia or team apparel;
- ❖ To which degree the individual dislikes his/her respective team's principal rivals (Wann & Branscombe, 1993).

Wann *et al.*, in 2001b, stated that, in general, summing all the responses, scores less than 18 indicate a low level of identification, while scores higher than 35 suggest a high level of identification; individuals scoring between 18 and 35 are classified as moderately identified.

### 3.1.3. PLACE ATTACHMENT SCALE

This concept 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.

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

Place dependence was measured with four items; affective attachment with five items; place identity with five items; and social bonding with four items. A five-point Likert-type scale (strongly disagree = 1 to strongly agree = 5) was used for all the dimensions.

The questionnaire was adapted to the professional team sports context, and precisely to soccer, to be used relatively to a 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".

## **3.2. SAMPLE AND STUDY CONTEXT**

### **3.2.1. SAMPLE**

During the development of this study, there existed a translation phase of the questionnaires and a field research with the application of the translated scales. To the different stages of this research diverse samples were required:

- ❖ First of all, a sample with 20 individuals, that had to answer to the translated scales, and to check if all the Portuguese language was understandable and comprehensible – in this group of people, each person should be a fan of one team, no matter what team
- ❖ Secondly, a sample with 36 individuals that had to answer to the questionnaires in English and Portuguese with a distance of one month between the two languages (half of them first answered in English and the other half first in Portuguese) – in this group of people, besides being a fan of a team, the individuals had to know the English language, and for that, they were tested
- ❖ Finally, a sample with 161 individuals, questioned around the Dragon Stadium with the following conditions – they had to be F. C. Porto fans, to have the ticket for the game that was happening that day and to be over 18 years old.

### **3.2.2. STUDY CONTEXT**

For this study, Futebol Clube do Porto and the Dragon Stadium were used for convenience and because it would be an interesting club to study, given that it has an incredible story and great results in the last decades, in the country and internationally. This club, founded in 1893, is the present national champion. Besides that, the club won a lot of honors in the last years.

In the last season, 2007/2008, 579 481 people attended the home games of this club (Liga Portuguesa de Futebol Profissional, 2008a).

The Dragon Stadium was built in 2003 and it provides space for around 51 000 spectators, quick and easy accessibilities, in close proximity to *Antas* Metro Station. It is a new and modern stadium, with a lot of comfort and entrances that allow a really quick flowing off (Futebol Clube do Porto, 2008a).

### **3.3. TRANSLATION AND ADAPTATION TO PORTUGUESE LANGUAGE**

#### **3.3.1. MEASURES**

To translate the SSIS and the PAS, the seven-step methodology developed by Vallerand (1989) as described in the physical activity domain by Banville et al. (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.

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 Ph. D. in sport sciences who independently translated the SSIS and the PAS from English to Portuguese; after that, translators W and Z, also specialists, translated it back to English.

The goal of step two was to compare the re-translated and the original items of SSIS and 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).

In step three, the final experimental version was distributed to a sample of 20 people with similar characteristics to those of the target population (Banville *et al.*, 2000) to provide a first feedback on the translated scale. 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.

Further, the concurrent validity of the SSIS and the PAS responses was examined through Pearson's correlations between the original and the translated scales.

The test-retest reliability of the translated SSIS and PAS was examined by having half of the participants completing the Portuguese version first and one month later the English version, and parallel, the other half responding to the English version and one month later to the Portuguese version (Banville *et al.*, 2000). Test-retest reliability was determined through the intra-class correlation coefficient.

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 factor structure and measurement invariance of SSIS responses were examined, between the translated and the original versions of the instrument. To examine the factorial validity of the Portuguese version of SSIS (SSIS-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  $\chi^2$  statistic ( $\chi^2$ ), 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).

A similar approach was used to measure the factorial validity of the Portuguese version of the Place Attachment Scale.

### **3.3.2. SCALE TRANSLATION AND PRE-TEST OF THE EXPERIMENTAL VERSION**

A comparison of the two translated versions (translator X and Y) revealed differences in two of the seven items of the SSIS and in seven of the 18 items of the PAS. Following Banville *et al.* (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 seven Portuguese items of the SSIS and 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 SSIS and PAS items.

Next, the final experimental version was distributed to a 20 people sample ( $M$  age= 30,  $SD$  =4,3), with similar characteristics to those of the target population (Banville *et al.*, 2000). The only characteristic they needed to have, was “to consider themselves a fan 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.

### **3.3.3. CONTENT VALIDITY AND CONCURRENT VALIDITY**

Content validity was secured by the committee members who examined whether each translated item and the corresponding original item were identical in meaning.

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 *et al.* (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 *et al.* (2006).



All participants, except two (who scored eight), scored individually higher than 12 in this scale (maximum 20). Subsequently, they answered both versions of the SSIS and the 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.

#### **3.3.4. STUDY RELIABILITY AND FACTORIAL VALIDITY**

Pearson's correlation between the original and the translated version revealed high coefficients, indicating high concurrent validity for the translated SSIS and PAS. In the SSIS, Pearson's correlation revealed a coefficient of .86, which shows a high concurrent validity for the translated SSIS. When it comes to 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 sufficient correlation. Test-retest reliability and the internal consistency of the scale were assessed.

For SSIS-p, results indicated an acceptable fit of the model to the data: S-B  $\chi^2 = 41.26$ ,  $df = 29.95$ ,  $p < .001$ , S-B  $\chi^2 / df = 2.02$ , CFI = .940, RMSEA = .055, 90% RMSEA CI = .000 - .010. For the Portuguese version of the Place Attachment Scale, results indicated an acceptable fit of the model to the data: S-B  $\chi^2 = 204,91$ ,  $df = 113$ ,  $p < .001$ , CFI = .901, RMSEA = .071, 90% RMSEA CI = .055 - .086.

### 3.4. PROCEDURES

#### 3.4.1. DATA COLLECT PROCEDURES

The data were collected on the 24<sup>th</sup> August, at the game *Futebol Clube do Porto - Belenenses*, with 38.423 spectators (Futebol Clube do Porto, 2008b).

Three hours and a half before the start of the game, people were questioned outside the stadium, if they had a ticket to the game and if they were Futebol Clube do Porto fans.

In this study, as in the study of Dietz *et al.* (2000), a sport fan is defined as someone who considers him/herself to be a fan of the team. In other words, sport fandom is a self-defining phenomenon. Therefore, they were only fulfilling the questionnaire if they previously answered yes to the question “Are you a fan of Futebol Clube do Porto?”

If they were Futebol Clube do Porto fans and if they wanted to participate, they were kindly asked to fulfill the questionnaire. If so, they answered the questionnaire with one of the six experienced interviewers. These interviewers had a previous briefing where they were told all the information they needed – they should be kind and polite, people should be asked all the questions and give an answer to each question (not leave questions undone) and they should not influence the answers. People took around ten minutes to answer it. Because it was a summer game, a lot of immigrants were there which might be the cause for some unexpected or unusual answers.

A total of 170 questionnaires were distributed and 161 (n= 161) of them were collected back, resulting in a response rate of 95 percent. The nine questionnaires missing were of people who said yes in the beginning but then they could not fill it in until the end because they had to leave or because they could not understand some questions (for instance immigrants or older people).

### **3.4.2. DATA ANALYSES**

This study was constituted by two important parts: the translation of the scales and the field study. The measures and data analysis used to the translation of the SSIS and the PAS were already shown and profoundly studied.

In the field study the statistic procedures used were, for the descriptive study, descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, comparison of means t-test and correlation) and to the predictive study, the linear regression.

For this analysis, the statistical program SPSS 15.0 program has been used.



## **4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

In this chapter, and for a better comprehension of the following results, a sample characterization will first be conducted. After that, the analysis to the loyalty, team identification and place attachment data will be performed. Finally, the relation between team identification and loyalty, and the relation between place attachment and loyalty will be established.

### **4.1. DESCRIPTIVE STUDY**

#### **4.1.1. SAMPLE CHARACTERIZATION**

To characterize the sample, the participants were asked in the first part of the questionnaire about their age, sex and professional situation.

The sample of this study was consists of 161 participants; some of them were emigrants, because in Portugal, in August, a lot of people come back to visit the original country and they have the habit of following their team by, for instance, attending a game.

The minimum age (Table 3) in this sample was 18 years old (it was established since the beginning that the questionnaires would only be fulfilled by people over 18 years old) and the maximum age was 70 years old. The mean age was 34.04 years old (SD=13.2).

The sample of this study (Table 4) was constituted by 113 male participants (70.2%) and 48 female participants (29.8%). This distribution represents what normally happens when it comes to attendance – men attend sports twice times as much as women (e. g. Ridinger & Funk, 2006; James & Ridinger, 2002).

Table 3: Sample characterization – age.

	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
<b>Age</b>	161	18	70	34.04	13.2

Relatively to the profession of the participants (Table 4), we used the classification used by Oliveira, in 2003, distributing the people into five categories: student, self-employed, employee, unemployed and retired. This was an eclectic sample. More than half of the sample (60.9%) is an employee, working in varied places as factories, companies, schools, state services or stores as, for instance, construction workers, factory workers, teachers, secretaries or accountants. Almost 20% is still studying and around 10% work on their own (sellers or company owners, most of them). The other 10% is distributed between retired and unemployed people. Because the sample is so varied, it was decided not to analyze the data by profession, because even inside the category “employee” the differences are huge.

Table 4: Sample characterization – gender and professional situation.

		<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Gender</b>	<b>Men</b>	113	70.2
	<b>Women</b>	48	29.8
<b>Professional situation</b>	<b>Student</b>	30	18.6
	<b>Self-employed</b>	17	10.6
	<b>Employee</b>	98	60.9
	<b>Unemployed</b>	8	5.0
	<b>Retired</b>	8	5.0

#### 4.1.2. LOYALTY DIMENSIONS

When it comes to behavioral loyalty, and the data collected about it, a descriptive study can also be made. The data can be analyzed in Tables 5 and 6. Table 5 contains the mean values, as so the minimum and maximum values, while Table 6 contains the frequencies, which were categorized so that the distribution can be observed in a deeper way.

*Table 5: Loyalty descriptive statistics 1.*

	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
<b>Number of games attended last season in the dragon stadium</b>	161	0	21	5.92	7.6
<b>Hours/week with FCP</b>	161	0	40	5.96	6.6
<b>Number of years as a fan</b>	161	5	63	31.15	13.4

As referred before, some of the fans questioned were emigrants, and this fact can influence the distribution of the loyalty data. For instance, to a lot of the fans, this was the first time in the stadium, because they do not live in this country. Therefore, the category “number of games attended last season in the Dragon stadium” loses all the meaning, because they did not attend a single game because they could not, even if they wanted. In any case, besides the minimum “games attended last season” was zero, the maximum was 21, which was the total number of games played last season by FCP in their own stadium. The mean value of this category was 5.92 (SD=7.6). In addition to emigrants, people attending zero to two games last season (more than 50%) were, for instance, family members or friends, reunited to see a summer game, while being in holidays.

Table 6: Loyalty descriptive statistics 2.

		N	%
<b>Number of games attended last season</b>	<b>0 – 2</b>	86	53.4
	<b>3 – 5</b>	23	14.3
	<b>6 – 8</b>	12	7.5
	<b>9 – 11</b>	6	3.7
	<b>12 – 14</b>	1	0.6
	<b>15 – 17</b>	5	3.1
	<b>18 – 21</b>	28	17.3
	<b>Hours/week with FCP</b>	<b>0 – 1.5</b>	13
<b>2 – 3.5</b>		42	37.2
<b>4 – 5.5</b>		36	22.4
<b>6 – 7.5</b>		15	9.3
<b>8 – 10</b>		18	11.2
<b>12 – 40</b>		19	11.8
<b>Since when are you a fan?</b>	<b>Since always</b>	95	59.0
	<b>Since child</b>	50	31.1
	<b>Since teenager</b>	11	6.8
	<b>Since a few years</b>	5	3.1

Relatively to “hours/week dedicated to FCP” (M=5.96, SD=6.6), it can be seen that almost 80% of the sample dedicates until 7.5 hours to the club during a week. This time includes reading newspapers, watching TV, checking the internet sites, and others, about the team. Almost whole the sample dedicates at least some time and almost 40% of the questioned people dedicates between 2.0 and 3.5 hours following the team.



Finally, when it comes to “number of years as a fan” one thing has to be made clear: almost all the FCP fans are fans since they were born or since they remember (some people answered “since I remember” what was transformed to being a fan since they were 3 years old) and that fact can be seen comparing the mean value of time being a fan, 31.15 (SD=13.4) and the age mean value, 34.04, which is really close. Portuguese people are fans of a team because their parents were fans of the same team. This fact follows the research of Greenwood *et al.*, in 2006, which found parents and/or family to be one of the biggest reasons to become a fan of a certain team.

Because of that fact, maybe this is not the best measure of behavioral loyalty: even the fair-weather fans are fans since a long time ago in their lives. Anyway, there still exists around 10% of people in this sample that is a fan of the team only since they were teenagers or since a few years ago. The minimum amount of years being a fan was 5 years and the maximum was 63 years.

#### 4.1.2.1. Analysis factor: sex

When it comes to the number of games attended, males (M=6.41; SD=7.7) and females (M=4.77; SD=7.1) mean scores comparison shows that they did not differ in the games attended last season question,  $F(1,161)=2.37$ ;  $p>.05$ . Dietz *et al.*, in 2000, reached the same conclusion.

Relatively to the hours spent with the team during a week, males (M=6.75; SD=7.4) and females (M=4.10; SD=3.8) differed significantly,  $F(1,161)=4.33$ ;  $p<.05$ . As previously showed (Dietz *et al.*, 2000), men dedicate significantly more time to the team of which they are fans, than women. Also Fink *et al.*, in 2002b, found that women were less likely to utilize the print media to get information about the team and were less likely to track statistics.

Finally, to compare the means between sexes relatively to the question “number of years as a fan” the values in years that were found could not be analyzed by

themselves, because they are relative to the age of the person. Hence, a factor between the age and the number of years was found. This means that a person that is a fan since he or she was born, has the score 1, the maximum score. Consequently, after the mean comparison, it was found that males ( $M=.94$ ;  $SD=.01$ ) and females ( $M=.86$ ;  $SD=.03$ ) differ significantly,  $F(1,161)=18,5$ ;  $p<.05$  if the issue is being a fan for a certain time. In this way, men are fans since a younger age than women. No studies were found according or not to this data.

#### 4.1.2.2. Analysis factor: age

When the analysis factor is the age of the respondents, data in Table 7 suggests that there is no significant correlation between age and number of games attended last season ( $r=-.10$ ;  $p>.05$ ) or number of hours spent with the team during a week ( $r=.016$ ;  $p>.05$ ). This data is contrary to the findings of Moore and Graefe, in 1994. They found that user's frequency of trail use is related to their age.

A strong positive correlation between age and number of years as a fan exists ( $r=.906$ ;  $p<.01$ ), what was expected and is explained in the chapter 4.1.2.1.

Table 7: Correlation between age and loyalty dimensions.

	Number of games attended last season	Hours/week FCP	Number of years as a fan
<b>R Spearman</b>	-.10	-.016	.906**
<b>Sig</b>	.904	.838	.000

\*\* Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

### 4.1.3. TEAM IDENTIFICATION DIMENSION

Relatively to team identification, the total score can vary between 7 and 56. In this sample, the minimum range was 15 and the maximum range was 56 (Table 8). Only one individual, a female, scored low in team identification, with a score of 15 points. Another individual, a male, scored 18 but the rest of the sample scored between 27 and 56, what means that, in general, this is a highly identified sample with Futebol Clube do Porto. This fact can also be seen by the mean value ( $M= 46.7$ ;  $SD=7.2$ ).

*Table 8: Descriptive statistics of SSIS.*

	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
<b>Total score SSIS</b>	161	15	56	46.67	7.22

When it comes to each individual item (Table 9), the ones where the sample scored higher were question 1 (about the importance of the team's victory), question 2 (about how strongly the individual considers him/ herself a fan) and question 5 (about the importance of being a fan). The questions where the sample scored less were question number 6 (about the biggest rivals) and question 7 (about wearing the name or the colors of the club in clothes or others).

Table 9: Descriptive statistics of SSIS items.

Question	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mean	7.5	7.1	6.8	6.8	7.4	5.9	5.1
SD	.94	1.37	1.46	1.36	1.19	2.24	2.20
Minimum	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	8	8	8	8	8	8	8

#### 4.1.3.1. Analysis factor: sex

As in past research (Dietz *et al.*, 2000) an independent sample t-test showed that males (n=113; M=47.65; SD=6.1) and females (n=48; M=44.38; SD=8.9) differed in their identification with the team,  $F(1,161) = 9.61$ ;  $p < .05$ . Males identify significantly more with the team than females.

#### 4.1.3.2. Analysis factor: age

Using the age as a comparison factor, no significant correlation was found between age and team identification ( $r = .115$ ,  $p > .05$ ). This fact shows that independently of the age of the individual, the team identification, in this sample, is high.

#### 4.1.4. PLACE ATTACHMENT DIMENSIONS

Place bonds vary with individual interaction with the environment or with past experiences and memories. Like the grand Teton National Park (Smaldone *et al.*, 2005), the Dragon Stadium is a place that holds a multitude of meaning for visitors including emotional and social meanings.

When people were asked, some of them were saying that if the questions were about the older stadium, the Antas Stadium, they would choose higher scores – specially the older people. Antas Stadium was the Futebol Clube do Porto stadium until 2004, when it was substituted for the Dragon Stadium (Futebol Clube do Porto, 2008c). Anyway, people showed that they were already attached to the new stadium also because Futebol Clube do Porto has been winning a lot too in the Dragon Stadium.

Relatively to place 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, the minimum range was 37 and the maximum range was 89 (Table 10). 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 is highly attached with the place, 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 10: Descriptive statistics of PAS and dimensions.

	<b>N</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
<b>Total score PAS</b>	161	37	89	68.70	11.51
<b>Total score PD</b>	161	8	20	14.1	2.4
<b>Total score SB</b>	161	4	20	14.8	3.8
<b>Total score AA</b>	161	11	25	21.1	3.3
<b>Total score PI</b>	161	5	25	18.7	4.6

Relatively to the questions individually, Table 11 shows the mean value of each one. The questions that scored higher were the questions E, K, L and N (affective attachment), and the questions A (place dependence) and D (social bonding). The questions scoring lower points were the questions B and C (Place dependence) and the question Q (social bonding).

Table 11: Descriptive statistics of PAS items.

PAS questions	Mean	SD	Dimension
A	4.72	.49	PD
B	3.42	.35	PD
C	3.37	.15	PD
D	4.11	.13	SB
E	4.06	.03	AA
F	3.58	.26	PD
G	3.59	.21	PI
H	3.67	.13	PI
I	3.93	.09	PI
J	3.63	.09	PI
K	4.65	.65	AA
L	4.29	.89	AA
M	3.85	.13	PI
N	4.22	.90	AA
O	3.93	.12	AA
P	3.61	.19	SB
Q	3.32	.34	SB
R	3.76	.23	SB

4.1.4.1. Analysis factor: sex

Although previous studies found place attachment differences between sexes (Nanzer, 2004), in our study males (M=68.65; SD=11.2) and females (M=68.79; SD=12.4) did not differ in their place attachment with the stadium,  $F(1,161)=.992$ ;  $p>.05$ . In Table 12 the mean comparison between the several dimensions is presented.

Table 12: Place attachment mean comparison according to gender.

		<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig</b>
<b>Place dependence</b>	F	48	14.31	2.41	.04	n. s.
	M	113	14.00	2.36		
<b>Social bonding</b>	F	48	15.50	3.93	.30	n. s.
	M	113	14.50	3.73		
<b>Affective attachment</b>	F	48	20.77	3.71	2.31	n. s.
	M	113	21.29	3.10		
<b>Place identity</b>	F	48	18.21	5.04	1.01	n. s.
	M	113	18.86	4.42		



#### 4.1.4.2. Analysis factor: age

In a study about place attachment to Michigan, the oldest age groups and those with the longest term of residence in the state recorded the highest levels of place attachment (Nanzer, 2004). This fact was not shown in this investigation.

Using the age as a comparison factor, it can be found that there is no significant correlation ( $r=.057$ ,  $p>.05$ ) between age and place attachment. This fact shows that independently of the age of the individual, the place attachment, in this sample, is varied, but mostly high. In Table 13, the different dimensions correlated with age can be seen – as before, there is no significant correlation.

Table 13: Correlation between age and place attachment dimensions.

	PI	AA	SB	PD
<b>R Spearman</b>	.071	-.045	.036	.138
<b>Sig</b>	.374	.574	.654	.081

#### 4.1.4.3. Analysis factor: team identification

When the analysis factor is the team identification of the respondents, the data in Table 14 suggests a strong positive correlation between team identification and place attachment dimensions, what happens also with the total place attachment scale ( $r=.496$ ;  $p<.01$ ). After this research, it would be really interesting conducting studies having this relation as a starting point.

Table 14: Correlation between team identification and place attachment dimensions.

	PI	AA	SB	PD
<b>R Spearman</b>	.391	.547	.386	.289
<b>Sig</b>	.000**	.000**	.000**	.000**

\*\* Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

## 4.2. PREDICTIVE STUDY

### 4.2.1. PREDICTING LOYALTY FROM TEAM IDENTIFICATION

Opposite to a considerable amount of studies (for instance, Kwon *et al.*, 2005 and Nassis *et al.*, 2007, showed team identification to predict cognitive, affective, conative and behavioral dimensions of sport spectatorship), in this research, linear regression analysis showed that team identification did not predicted to a considerable extent important fan behaviors: number of years as a fan, number of hours dedicated to the team during a week and number of games attended last season.

Relatively to the number of years as a fan, the percentage of variations coming from team identification is really low, only 2% (Adjusted R Square = .017). This value is not even significant ( $p > .05$ ).

When it comes to number of hours dedicated to the team, it can be seen that team identification only determines 8% of the variations (Adjusted R Square =

.084;  $p < .05$ ). Anyway, this is the dimension of loyalty best predicted by team identification in this research.

Finally, relatively to the number of games attended last season, only 4% of the variation is determined by team identification (Adjusted R Square = .035;  $p < .05$ ). On the other hand, team identification was found to predict attendance in the studies of Swanson *et al.* (2003). As such, according to their studies, finding ways to increase team identification among a greater number of fans would show results in higher levels of attendance. Higher team identification was also related to higher attendance in the investigations of Wann & Branscombe (1993) and Wakefield (1995).

#### **4.2.2. PREDICTING LOYALTY FROM PLACE ATTACHMENT**

Loyalty to an organization is increasingly determined by social and place attachment (Inalham & Finch, 2004). Alexandris *et al.* (2006) investigated the contribution of place attachment on the prediction of customers' loyalty and found that place attachment predicted a significant amount of variance in skier's loyalty. It has been reported by Kyle *et al.*, 2003b that an individual's emotional and functional attachment to a specific recreational place is related to behavioral loyalty.

But, like in the chapter 4.2.2., and contradictory to a substantial quantity of investigations in this area, in this research, linear regression analysis showed that place attachment, and the several dimensions place identity, place dependence, social bonding and affective attachment, did not predicted to a considerable extent important fan behaviors: number of years as a fan, number of hours dedicated to the team during a week and number of games attended last season.

Relatively to the number of years as a fan, the percentage of variations coming from place attachment is really low, below 1% (Adjusted R Square = .003). This value is not even significant ( $p > .05$ ).

When it comes to number of hours dedicated to the team, it can be seen that place attachment only determines 3% of the variations (Adjusted R Square = .029;  $p < .05$ ).

Finally, relatively to the number of games attended last season, only 3% of the variation is determined by place attachment (Adjusted R Square = .031;  $p < .05$ ). Anyway, this is the dimension of loyalty best predicted by place attachment in this research. In other studies, the frequency of use was positively related to place attachment (Moore & Scott, 2003).

If the several dimensions of place attachment are analyzed, the results are similar to the ones that were found with all the dimensions together in the concept of place attachment, this is, not significant predictions are found.

Some studies also tried to find this relation is the opposite way: place identity can be predicted by how long users have been associated with the trail (Moore & Graefe, 1994) and place dependence can be predicted by frequency of use (Moore & Graefe, 1994; Williams *et al.*, 1992).

## 5. CONCLUSION

The current study achieved the following conclusions:

- ❖ The team identification scale and the place attachment scale can be translated, validated and applied to the Portuguese reality; hence, the H1 was demonstrated; however, because of the results of the SSIS and the PAS were extremely high, it is considered that the scales are not sensitive enough to the Portuguese reality;
- ❖ Men dedicate significantly more time to the team of which they are fans of than women;
- ❖ Men are fans since a younger age than women;
- ❖ Men identify significantly more with the team than women;
- ❖ Men and women did not differ significantly relatively to attendance to games and place attachment, including all the dimensions (place dependence, place identity, affective attachment and social bonding);
- ❖ There are no significant age differences when it comes to team identification and place attachment;
- ❖ Relatively to behavioral loyalty, the age is not related to attendance or to number of hours dedicated to the team during the week but exists a strong positive correlation between age and number of years as a fan;
- ❖ The study suggests that there is a strong positive correlation between team identification and place attachment;
- ❖ Linear regression analysis revealed that level of team identification and level of place attachment were not significant predictors of behavioral loyalty; therefore, the H2 and H3 were not confirmed.

## **5.1. LIMITATIONS AND STRENGTHS OF THE STUDY**

The fact of using a convenience sample is a limitation of this study, since it limits the statistical relevance and the result generalization to the entire club or to other clubs. Because it was a summer game, some emigrants were attending the game and they were part of the sample – these fans are not typical fans, because they could not attend other games even if they wanted because they do not live in the country; even though, it was decided to keep them in the sample because in this case they were sport consumers, like all the other attendees. Anyway, in the future, maybe studies should eliminate occasional fans of the sample.

This study was limited because it was based on one small sample in one game. Doing single shot studies is avoided: instead, studies should be built under programmatic lines of research (Funk *et al.*, 2003a).

One strength of this study was that it was defined that a sport fan was any person perceiving him/herself as a sport fan. Another strength was to do it on the field, in the naturalistic setting (Funk *et al.*, 2003b).

## **5.2. PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS**

The translated version of the SSIS and the PAS may be employed by sport marketers to determine levels of team identification among Portuguese speaking sport fans and to identify the Attachment they have to the stadium. Team identification is a central variable in sport marketing research, since it could assist sport marketers to develop various marketing strategies such as Market segmentation (Mahoney *et al.*, 2000), ticket-pricing strategies (Reese & Mittelstaedt, 2001), sponsorship programs (Swanson *et al.*, 2003), and communication strategies (Kwon & Armstrong, 2004).

Based on several authors and on previous experiences, it can be concluded that several activities can be developed to increase place identity: organization of events, involvement of people in the events, promotion of fun activities, improving service quality (many studies say). To increase place dependence there are also some actions that can be performed: ask people what they need in the stadium, associate with shopping centers for instance, ensuring the quality of the existing services and facilities, improve parking places and accessibilities, respecting the needs and wants of the costumers.

### **5.3. RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

In a time of economic world crisis, like the one that the world is living nowadays, the sport marketers have to try to predict the future of the sport industry (Mahony & Howard, 2001). Future research should focus on the economic consequences of the crisis on the behavioral loyalty, like attendance or merchandising sales.

The field of sports management has grown rapidly. Within a short period, journals have been launched in specialized topical areas such as sports marketing, sports sponsorship, and sports tourism. Further, new associations have sprung up to cater to experts in these specialized fields within sports management. Although all this growth is encouraging, this is still a fledgling field. To be recognized as an established field, sports management has to generate its own body of knowledge. So far, we have been borrowing theoretical frameworks from other fields such as sociology, psychology, economics, organizational theory, and organizational behavior. Given the enthusiasm, enterprise, and expertise of the emerging scholars in the field, however, the growth of the field into a recognized and respected field is assured (Chelladurai & Turner, 2005).

There is a need for more effective, innovative and creative sports marketing techniques. Sport marketing has been retarded for years because sport organizations have been able to gain revenue through artificial means. Professional teams have rarely been encouraged to operate on a sound marketing basis. But, from now on, the simple “selling of sport” approach will not be sufficient.

The future sport marketing genius will be a scientist who conducts sound research, analyses data using modern marketing science and uses specialists hired for specific functions of the marketing effort, completed with creative ideas.



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## 7. APPENDIX

# QUESTIONÁRIO

## FACULDADE DE DESPORTO DA UNIVERSIDADE DO PORTO

Caro/a participante:

Este questionário faz parte de um estudo que está a ser realizado, na Faculdade de Desporto da Universidade do Porto, pela aluna Mariana Carvalho e orientado pelo Professor Nikos Theodorakis. O estudo está a ser realizado no âmbito do Mestrado de Gestão Desportiva, na área do Marketing Desportivo, mais precisamente, no Desporto Profissional e nomeadamente do Futebol Profissional. Por favor, responda a todas as questões da forma mais verdadeira possível. Não há respostas certas ou erradas, apenas a sua opinião sincera nos interessa.

Agradecemos desde já a sua participação.

### PRIMEIRA PARTE

Sexo:            Feminino \_\_\_\_            Masculino \_\_\_\_

Idade: \_\_\_\_\_            Profissão: \_\_\_\_\_

### SEGUNDA PARTE

**Instruções:** Por favor mencione o seu clube preferido na linha abaixo (referente ao Futebol em Portugal).

Clube: \_\_\_\_\_

1. A quantos jogos da sua equipa assistiu na época anterior, no estádio? \_\_\_\_\_
2. Qual a duração do seu envolvimento com a sua equipa, por semana (exemplo: número de horas a assistir a jogos na televisão ou no estádio, número de horas a ler jornais desportivos ou a assistir a notícias na televisão, etc.)? \_\_\_\_\_
3. Há quantos anos é fan desta equipa? \_\_\_\_\_

Agora, por favor, responda às questões com base nos seus sentimentos relativamente ao clube mencionado, numa escala de 1 a 8. Não existem respostas erradas ou certas, expresse simplesmente os seus sentimentos.

1. Quão importante é para si que a equipa listada acima ganhe?

Pouco importante    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    8    Muito importante

2. Quão fortemente se avalia enquanto adepto do seu clube?

Não sou adepto    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    8    Sou um forte adepto

3. Quão fortemente o avaliam os seus amigos enquanto adepto do seu clube?

Não adepto    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    8    Forte Adepto

4. Durante a época, com que proximidade segue o seu clube através dos seguintes meios: a) pessoalmente ou via televisão, b) por rádio, c) pelas notícias televisivas ou jornais, ou d) ou via Internet?

Nunca    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    8    Quase todos os dias

5. Qual a importância de ser adepto da equipa listada acima para si?

Nada importante    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    8    Muito importante

6. O que pensa sobre os maiores rivais do seu clube?

Não me desagradam    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    8    Desagradam-me muito

7. Com que frequência utiliza o nome e o emblema do seu clube no seu local de trabalho, em casa ou na sua roupa?

Nunca    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    8    Sempre

## TERCEIRA PARTE

As questões que se seguem estão relacionadas com a ligação ao estádio do Clube que assinalou anteriormente. O estádio está assinalado como “Estádio X”.

Responda segundo os seguintes itens:

1 – Discordo totalmente

2 – Discordo

3 – Não concordo nem discordo

4 – Concordo

5 – Concordo totalmente

a. O Estádio X é o local ideal para assistir aos jogos de Futebol de que eu gosto.	1	2	3	4	5
b. Existem muitos outros lugares que podem substituir o Estádio X.	1	2	3	4	5
c. Comparativamente com o Estádio X existem poucas alternativas satisfatórias.	1	2	3	4	5
d. Posso um grande conjunto de boas memórias com a família e amigos no Estádio X.	1	2	3	4	5
e. Tenho uma ligação emocional muito forte com o Estádio X.	1	2	3	4	5
f. Não imagino um outro local para assistir a jogos de Futebol.	1	2	3	4	5
g. Sinto o Estádio X como parte de mim.	1	2	3	4	5
h. Sinto um profundo sentimento de pertença pelo Estádio X.	1	2	3	4	5
i. Identifico-me com o Estádio X.	1	2	3	4	5
j. Sinto que a minha identidade se reflecte no Estádio X.	1	2	3	4	5
k. Eu realmente gosto do Estádio X.	1	2	3	4	5
l. O Estádio X diz-me muito.	1	2	3	4	5
m. Visitar o Estádio X revela muito do que eu sou.	1	2	3	4	5
n. Fico mais feliz quando visito o Estádio X.	1	2	3	4	5
o. Visitar o Estádio X permite-me libertar tensão acumulada.	1	2	3	4	5
p. O tempo despendido no Estádio X reforça a ligação com a minha família e meus amigos.	1	2	3	4	5
q. Associo o Estádio X a pessoas especiais da minha vida.	1	2	3	4	5
r. Visitar o Estádio X permite-me passar tempo com a minha família e meus amigos.	1	2	3	4	5