

MODEL OF SPECTATOR SPORT CONSUMPTION

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Trail, G. T., & James, J. D. (2011, Aug.). Model of spectator sport consumption. American Marketing Association Summer Marketing Educators Conference. San Francisco, California

There is a disconcerting lack of holistic understanding about the components and processes of spectator sport consumption. Very few researchers have proposed models to explain cumulative aspects of spectator sport consumption, and those that have (e.g., Trail, Anderson, & Fink, 2000) have not proposed models that are extensive enough (i.e., do not include a variety of factors that are known to influence consumption). Thus, we are proposing a comprehensive model to explain why people consume spectator sport. We propose that there are four main aspects that comprise the sport consumption process: motivation, activation, external constraints, and post-consumption reaction/evaluation (see Figure 1). Motivation (internal motivators) consists of the individual's personality, personal needs, values, and goals. Activation is the perception of the product (awareness, interest, and evaluation). External constraints are factors (or reasons) that prevent an individual from participating and enjoying some activity. Post-consumption factors consist of the confirmation or disconfirmation of expectancies, affect/satisfaction, self-esteem maintenance or building behaviors, and repatronage intentions.

We base our proposed model on a variety of different theories because no one, single, theory sufficiently explains spectator consumption behavior, although there is overlap among the theories. We use self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2008), Means-End-Chain Theory (MEC - Gutman, 1982), attitude theory (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993), the theory of planned behavior

(Ajzen, 1991), self-esteem theory (Cast & Burke, 2002), and satisfaction theory (Oliver, 1977). We also base aspects of the model on empirical research on sport spectator behavior and the initial research by Trail and colleagues (Harrolle, Trail, Rodriguez, & Jordan, 2010; Trail et al., 2000; Trail, Anderson, & Fink, 2005; Trail, Fink, & Anderson, 2003).

We propose that culture influences both the motivation for spectator sport consumption and the activation of spectator sport consumption. Culture includes “shared beliefs, attitudes, norms, roles, and values found among speakers of a particular language who live during the same historical period of a specific geographic region” (de Mooij, 2004, p. 26). Trail, Harrolle, and James (2010) organized culture into four dimensions: shared contexts, shared cognition, shared affect, and shared behaviors, based on Naylor’s (1997) definition of culture and previous research on the components of culture. These dimensions of culture impact both the motivation of the individual to consume spectator sport and the activation of the sport product referent to the individual. Gutman (1982) in his initial proposal of the Means-End Chain (MEC) Theory suggested that culture influences personality and values which interact with product choices to influence consumption behavior. Specifically, the MEC model is “a model that seeks to explain how a product or service selection facilitates the achievement of desired end states” (p. 60). Thus, we propose that culture influences motivational factors such as personality, values and goals, and also influences how individuals learn and perceive the spectator sport product directly, in addition to indirectly through motivators.

Motivation for behavior is guided by the aforementioned personality, needs, values, and goals. As James and Trail (2010) noted, personality can be viewed as the “unique pattern of enduring thoughts, feelings, and actions that characterize a person” (Bernstein, Penner, Clarke-Stewart, & Roy, 2006, p. 540) or “those inner psychological characteristics that both determine

and reflect how a person responds to his or her environment” (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004, p. 120). The inner characteristics are traits, attributes, qualities, and mannerisms that distinguish one person from another. Within the social-cognitive approach to personality, personality is “seen as the patterns of thinking and behavior that a person learns” (Bernstein et al., 2006, p.555). Personality and needs interact to influence personal values and goals.

Gordon (1975) defined needs as a "deficit state of the organism that recurs periodically and that has a specific requirement for its satisfaction" (p.8) and suggested that they are divided into two categories: those that are psychologically based and those that are physiologically based. Deci and Ryan (2008) in their self-determination theory suggest that needs and individual differences (personality) influence personal (life) goals. Furthermore, as Rokeach (1979) noted, psychological needs and culture are the primary influencers of values.

Rokeach (1973) defined a value as "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence" (p. 5). Values also shape attitudes toward events, objects, and persons (Rokeach, 1973). In addition, Kahle (1983) suggested that values guide an individual's decisions, and Keeney (1994) noted that values are the "driving force of our decision making" (p. 33). This indicates that values are quite likely to influence the activation process, which is supported by Gutman's (1982) MEC theory, as he proposed that values influence product consumption, which is predicated on awareness, interest, and evaluation of the product.

Values also influence personal goals. Jolibert and Baumgartner (1997) noted that personal goals are cognitions that correspond to the objectives of the individual. Goals are influenced by values and by the culture within which the individual exists. Bandura (1989) suggested that personal goals can be motivators for behaviors and Roberts and Pirog (2004)

noted that goals influence consumer behavior through processing information about the product (the activation process) and creating an attitude about the product. Thus, we hypothesize that motivators, consisting of personality, needs, values, and goals will influence attitude formation both directly and indirectly through activation.

As James and Trail (2010) noted, the activation (decision-making) process starts with perception. Perception is the process of acquiring, selecting, interpreting, and organizing sensory information (c.f. Bernstein, Penner, Clarke-Stewart, & Roy, 2006; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004). In relation to consumer behavior, “perception is an interpretation process through which consumers make sense of their environment” (James & Trail, 2010, p. 6). Perception is comprised of the awareness of a product, interest in the product, and evaluation of the product. People perceive a message from the media or through social interactions. These perceptions interact with how people learn, which determines how people become aware of the product. Once people are aware of the product, they start to evaluate the product’s characteristics to determine the relevance of the product. This evaluation interacts with the internal motivators and also influences the individual’s attitude toward the product.

Attitude toward the product is the primary determinant of whether or not people intend to consume the product. Eagly and Chaiken (1993) defined attitude as a “psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor” (p.1). Most attitudes are learned, although there may be exceptions. In the theory of planned behavior Azjen (1991) proposes that attitudes predict intentions, which in turn predict behavior. However, Azjen also suggests that attitudes are only one component, the other two being, subjective norms and behavioral control. We view subjective norms, “the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior” (Azjen, 1991, p. 188), as representative of the influence of culture

on intentions. We also regard perceived behavioral control, “the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior” (p. 188), as referring to potential constraints preventing the behavior or the intentions to consume the spectator sport product, in this specific case, because Azjen notes that perceived behavioral control reflects “anticipated impediments and obstacles” (p. 188). Thus, we hypothesize that attitudes toward the sport product do lead to intentions to consume the sport product; however, we propose that there are external factors that constrain people from both intending to consume and actually consuming the product.

In general, constraints are defined as factors (or reasons) that prevent or prohibit an individual from participating and enjoying some activity (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Specific to spectator sport consumption behavior, external constraints are defined as social or environmental aspects that prevent or decrease the likelihood of the individual performing sport spectator consumption behavior (Kim & Trail, 2010). Kim and Trail (2010) found that external constraints did decrease attendance, even after controlling for motives and internal constraints. In addition, Trail, Robinson, and Kim (2008) also found external (structural) constraints had an effect on attendance and Kim and Trail (2011) found that external constraints influenced attendance intentions.

After an individual consumes a product (e.g., attends a game), expectancies about the experience are either confirmed or disconfirmed in either a positive or negative way. Oliver (1977) was one of the first people to examine different post consumption aspects and investigate the relationships among expectancies and satisfaction. A primary tenet of his satisfaction theory was that (dis)confirmation leads to satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the product. If the individual was satisfied then he or she would purchase the product again. This confirmation or disconfirmation of expectancies also creates an emotional response in the individual, which may

then lead to self-esteem building or maintenance behaviors. These relationships have been supported within the realm of spectator sport research, as Trail et al. (2005) found that (dis)confirmation of expectancies explained about 36% of the variance in affect/satisfaction. Harrolle, Trail, Rodriguez, and Jordan (2010) provided additional support for this relationship, explaining approximately 64% of the variance in affect/satisfaction in two different samples. Furthermore, Trail et al. (2005) and Harrolle et al. (2010) found that affect/satisfaction explained 25% and 15% of the variance in self-esteem behaviors such as Basking in Reflected Glory (BIRGing) and Cutting Off Reflected Failure (CORFing).

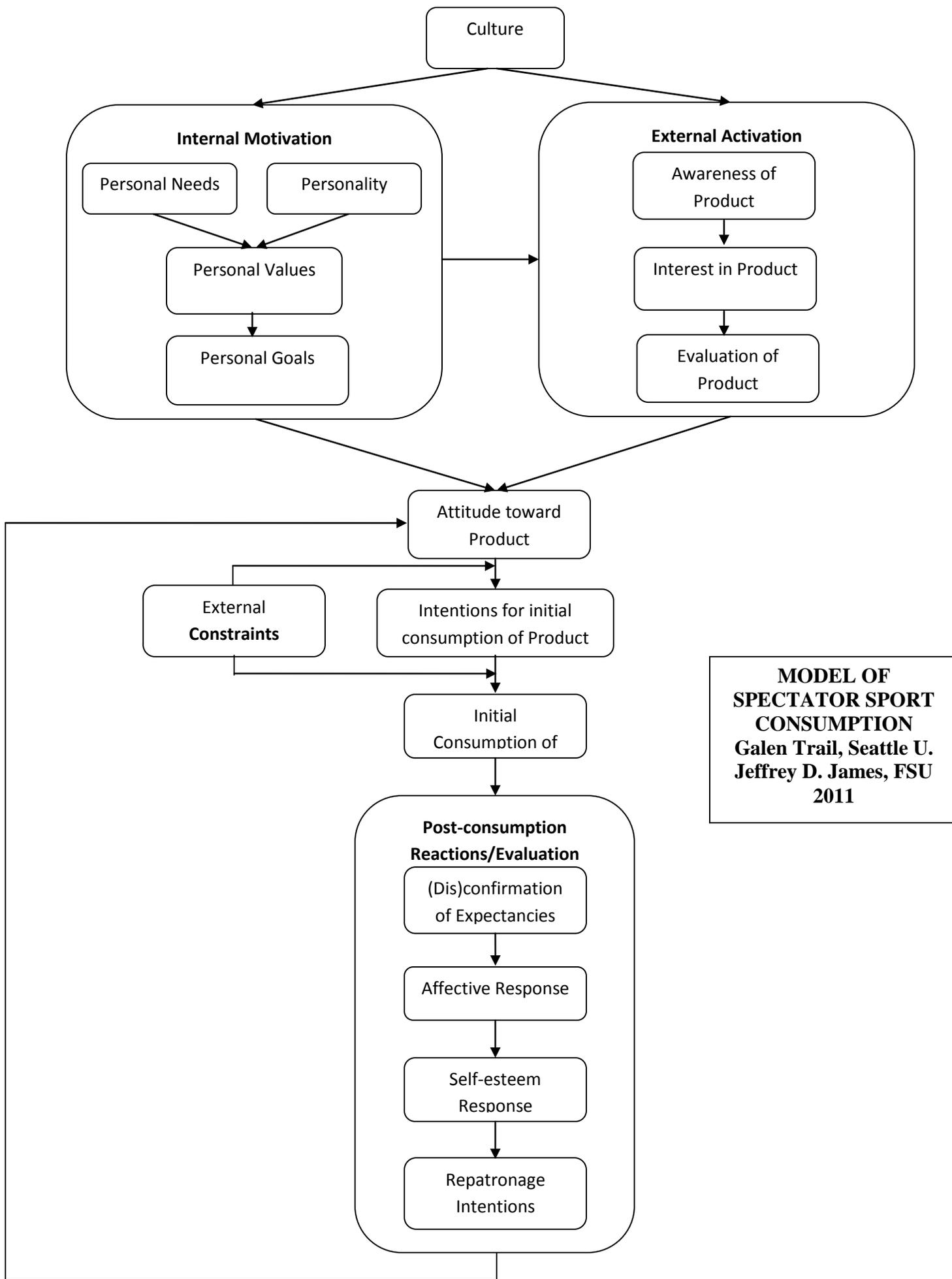
Self-esteem behaviors are based on self-esteem theory (Cast & Burke, 2002). Rosenberg (1990) noted that self-esteem typically refers to an individual's overall positive evaluation of the self and may be based on the idea of achievement motivation from James (1890). People seem to have a need for achievement (Maslow, 1943), but may not be able to achieve as much as they would like to on their own, so they try to achieve vicariously (Sloan, 1989). Within sport, these behaviors have been termed BIRGing (Cialdini, Borden, Thorne, Walker, Freeman, & Sloan, 1976) and CORFing (Snyder, Lassegard, & Ford, 1986). Trail et al. (2005) found that self-esteem behaviors explained about 49% of sport spectator behavioral intentions, and Harrolle et al. (2010) found similar results in repatronage intentions. In total, the proposed model provides a holistic understanding about the components and processes of spectator sport consumption.

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Cited as:

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