How You Like Me Now?
The Influence of Athlete Behavior on Fan Group Dynamics and Sports Consumption

by

Sean Pradhan

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
(Kinesiology)
in the University of Michigan
2017

Doctoral Committee:

Associate Professor Dae Hee Kwak, Chair
Professor Phoebe C. Ellsworth
Associate Professor Sean Laraway, San José State University
Associate Professor David J. Moore

Sean Pradhan

seanprad@umich.edu

ORCID iD: 0000-0003-0957-9816

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my family:

To my Mom, Ranjna:

Thank you for always worrying about me. Your endless love and prayers have helped me make it through this journey. I know life has not always been easy for us and we have much to accomplish. I know you will be immensely overjoyed to know that I am coming home. Mom, I hope I have made you proud.

To my Dad, Dilip:

Pop, we lost you too soon. I am deeply saddened that you were not able to read my dissertation and see me finish my doctoral studies. I know that you would have been so happy and proud of me. Even though you may not be with us physically, I know you will always be watching us from above. You will always remain in my heart.

To my younger brother, Kris:

I know times have been tough, but I will always be there for you. As your older brother, I promise to guide you throughout your own life and educational journey. I will make sure you find the right path that you want to take.

To my soon-to-be in-laws, Cherry, Henry, and Bianca:

Your love and support throughout my time in Michigan has been incomparable. You have all been blessings in my life and I am so delighted to be a part of your family.

To our dogs, Shadow the German Shepherd and Sasha the Siberian Husky:

Thank you for always putting a smile on my face. Your goofy antics constantly kept me in good spirits even through the worst of times.

To my eternal love and soon-to-be wife, Sherrie:

I am so lucky to have you in my life and I could not have achieved this dream without you. When I asked you to join me on this expedition to Michigan, I know it was one of the hardest things we had to do. Now that I have finished my work here, I hope we can enjoy a wonderful life together.

To all of you, this one's for you…

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my advisor, Dr. Dae Hee Kwak, for his support and guidance throughout my doctoral studies. You enabled me to conduct the research that I wanted and helped shape experiments that provided not only theoretical contributions, but also pragmatic ramifications to the field. Your trust in me to perform research on my own and work at the breakneck pace I desired is tremendously appreciated. Thank you, Dae Hee, for allowing me to be the researcher I wanted to be.

Many thanks to Dr. David Moore for serving on my dissertation committee. You continually supported my ideas and constantly commended my efforts. I will always remember your words of not letting anything hinder myself from striving for greatness as "it's always better to ask for forgiveness than to ask for permission." Your student-driven mindset benefitted me greatly and I thank you for that. Furthermore, I would like to thank Dr. Phoebe Ellsworth for your valuable comments and forward thinking while serving on my dissertation committee. Your feedback was always appreciated and your expertise in social psychology considerably enhanced my own frame of thinking.

A special thanks to Dr. Sean Laraway and Dr. Susan Snycerski for their support, guidance, and praise throughout this process. Sean, your membership on my dissertation committee was truly cherished. You have been an awesome mentor, colleague, and friend to me over the course of my graduate education. I am honored to

have had the chance to work with you all throughout not only my Master's degree, but also my doctorate.

I would also like to thank all my friends for their encouragement to pursue my dreams and to persevere even when it was difficult. Your friendship throughout the years has truly been a blessing. A colossal thank you to my family for their love and support all through my life and education. I love you all. Mom and Kris, I worked hard to complete this degree for us and I must thank you for allowing me to focus on my studies even during the toughest times. Pop, not a day goes by that I do not miss you. Losing you was the hardest thing I ever experienced, but I thank you for letting me choose my own path and supporting me throughout my doctorate, even until the end. I will always treasure your memory and do my best to embody your unrelenting work ethic to make you proud. Cherry, Henry, and Bianca, thank you for helping our family grow. I am so lucky to have in-laws that are so respectful and loving. You have all been so supportive of my studies and I appreciate all you have done for us.

Last but certainly not least, thank you to my incredible and beloved soon-to-be wife, Sherrie. This journey in Michigan truly challenged us, but now that it is over I can definitely say it was worth it. We experienced a great deal together that made our relationship even stronger. I am blessed to have you in my life and I know that calling you my wife someday will make me the luckiest man to have ever lived. You are my everything and you inspired me to get through this for us. This is just the first step in our life journey together and well, we made it through one of the hardest parts, babe. I hope I can give you the life together that we always wanted. Thank you for everything, Sherrie, I really could not have done it without you. I love you and I will always love you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF IMAGES

LIST OF APPENDICES

ABSTRACT

Within sports, membership in a fan base often constitutes an attachment to a team and its various personnel. As part of a presumed ingroup, sports fans will go about evaluating their favorite teams and players based on several factors, such as team or athlete performance and off-the-field behaviors by such athletes. Although a vast set of literature within sport management has reported that fans exhibit partiality towards their favorite teams, research in social psychology and group dynamics has presented evidence to dispute this occurrence. This body of work has contended that people in a group will operate using *subjective group dynamics* (SGD), wherein norms and values are actively considered in group appraisal. Complementary research has offered the manifestation of a *black sheep effect* (BSE), or ingroup extremity, particularly when members deviate from norms or standards of the group. In a similar vein, this dissertation challenges the prevalent notion of fans' enduring support for their favorite teams and examines numerous correlates of such behavior.

Through five main studies, this dissertation investigates the impact of athlete behavior, group membership, player status, rivalry, and regret on evaluative judgments, identity threat, purchase decisions, product choices, and social media behaviors. Study 1 gauged the role of ingroup extremity when a team's expectations, or norms of performance by an athlete, are violated, providing evidence to support ingroup derogation among fans. Expanding upon these results, Study 2 offered an assessment

of the BSE in determining how fans go about supporting and derogating an ingroup or outgroup athlete based on performance, while furthering the application of these concepts to purchase decisions and social media intentions. Our second experiment offers partial support of the BSE, wherein fans exhibit a proclivity to derogate deviant ingroup and outgroup athletes to the same extent. Using a multi-method approach integrating both quantitative and qualitative methods, our third experiment tested how rivalry and membership (i.e., player) saliency operate to amplify specific aspects of fan behavior, social media intentions, and product choices. Study 3 reveals ingroup and performance biases among fans as well as the function of team identification as a guide for team-licensed merchandise selections. Study 4 examined how evaluations of deviant performance- and moral-related behavior by athletes can be affected by various moral reasoning strategies utilized by fans. Our fourth experiment demonstrates similar biases as established in Study 3 and also illustrates the amplified use of moral rationalization over other moral reasoning strategies.

Using the findings from our first four studies as a foundation, we introduce a novel concept to the field (i.e., *black sheep regret* [BSR]) and complete this dissertation with a field study (Study 5A) and an experimental investigation (Study 5B). Although Study 5A did not support BSR in a naturalistic context (i.e., on social media), Study 5B provides data to verify its occurrence in fans. Ultimately, Study 5B produces rationale for the inconclusive results within social media settings, explained by a potential effect of *black sheep perpetuance* (BSP). Taken together, this dissertation discusses its theoretical contributions and offers pragmatic implications and future directions for sport managers and practitioners within the sport industry. Ultimately, the current composition

highlights the importance of multidisciplinary approaches in exploring various components of specific group behavior in fans, as well as in the larger milieu of human behavior itself.

CHAPTER I

Introduction

The late, great Lawrence “Yogi” Berra, Hall of Fame catcher and manager for the New York Yankees and Mets, once said: “you can observe a lot by just watching” (as cited in Berra, 2009, p. 4). In this case, Berra, with one of his many legendary *Yogisms* (Snyder, 1991), was referring to the intricacies of the game of baseball. Simply put, players and fans alike can identify a great deal about the sport by looking more deeply into the minute details of the game. Although used in the context of baseball, this Yogism can be applied to the vaster setting of human behavior itself. For example, researchers can more accurately identify the processes of specific outcomes by closely examining the motivating factors behind such behavior (e.g., how an individual’s perceived value of a sport influences sport spectatorship; McDonald, Milne, & Hong, 2002). Considering this, Berra’s sentiments can extend beyond merely baseball and may potentially relate to all sports.

Likewise, sports fans are often caught in a myriad of scenarios in which they must observe the performance or actions by athletes of their favorite teams after various events and then go on to judge these individuals. These occurrences are not only limited to on-field actions by the athlete, but they may also pertain to off-the-field behaviors. In fact, a song by The Heavy, a rock band from the United Kingdom, can be applied to this precarious situation for fans. Their song, titled “How You Like Me Now?,”

truly illustrates the indirect question that athletes, following their various behaviors, seem to be posing to sports fans. Often times, fans will reflect their responses to these queries through their own unique sets of behaviors, whether they involve support, disassociation, or even consumption.

Sports-Related Expenditures

Within the North American sports marketplace, millions of fans spend billions of dollars on items related to their favorite teams, such as jerseys, shirts, shoes, sweatshirts, hats, and other accessories. Most recently, PricewaterhouseCoopers (2016) has reported that sports fan consumers spent over $13.8 billion on sport category goods in 2015. These products include clothing, footwear, and equipment related to the four major professional sports leagues, those being: the National Basketball Association (NBA), National Football League (NFL), National Hockey League (NHL), and Major League Baseball (MLB). In view of these expenditures, purchases related to a sports team can become substantial on a game-by-game level.

According to Team Marketing Report (2016a), Fan Cost Indices (FCI) across the major North American sports leagues have been on the rise annually. Given the “herd mentality” of sports fans (Wawrytko, 2001), these FCIs are computed using the cumulative expense of four average-priced tickets to a sporting event, two draft beers, two soft drinks, four hot dogs, parking for the event, programs/guides for the event, as well as team-related accessories (Team Marketing Report, 2016a). In general, the average North American sports fan should expect to spend approximately $219.53 to $502.84 per game, dependent on his/her sport of choice (Team Marketing Report,

2016b, 2016c). Considering this, these costs can amount to thousands of dollars over a season (see Figure 1 for FCIs across the professional sports leagues).

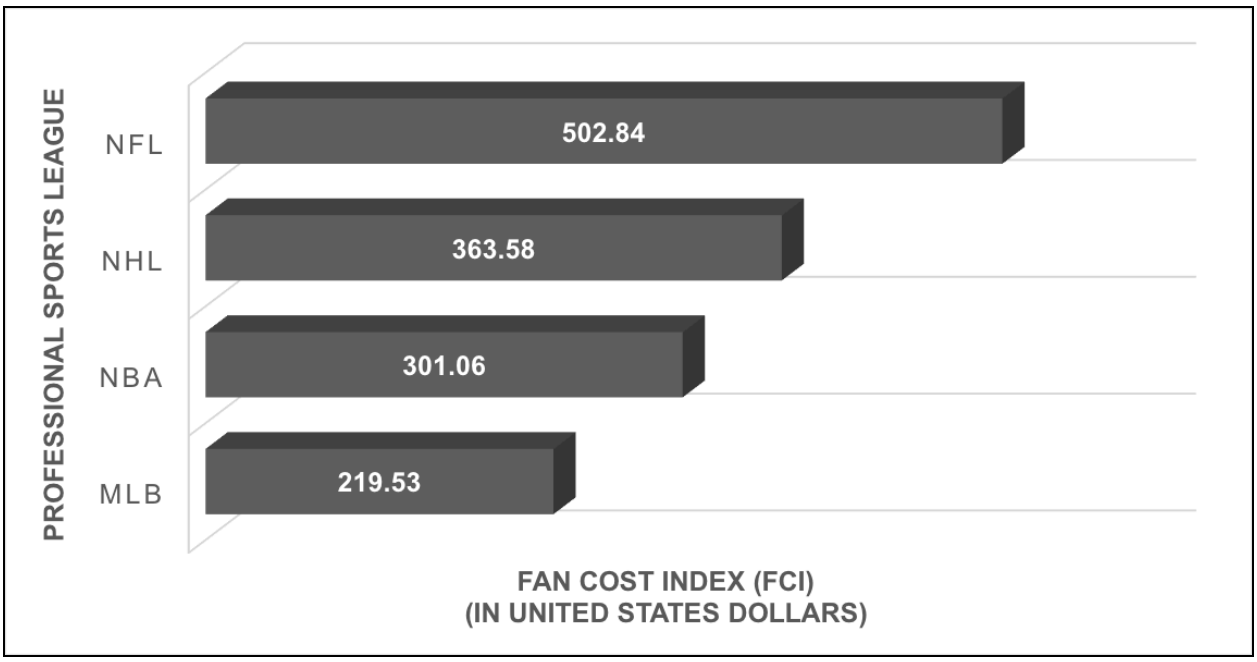


Figure 1. Fan cost indices across the four major North American professional sports leagues. Source: Team Marketing Report (2014, 2016a, 2016b, 2016c).

Fan Behavior

Numerous scholars within the field of sport management have attempted to pinpoint the motivation behind these consumer choices. Research has identified that these consumption behaviors may be guided by a variety of components, including but not limited to geographic location (Jones, 1997), family ties (Hunt, Bristol, & Bashaw, 1999; Jones, 1997), consumer involvement (Funk & James, 2001), expectations of team performance, actual team performance, as well as talent of the roster (Ngan, Prendergast, & Tsang, 2011). However, a key feature that has been determined as one of the most influential motivating factors for not only consumer behaviors, but also other supportive activities has been the level of emotional involvement that fans feel toward

the team. Within a sports context, this attachment has been termed *team identification* (Wann & Branscombe, 1993).

In many cases, sports fans perceive that they are part of the team that they follow. This is often a phenomenon of many group contexts involving not only sports, but also politics (Duck, Hogg, & Terry, 1995), religion (Tipton, 2016), and ties to a nation (Mummendey, Klink, & Brown, 2001). In situations like these, fans believe that they possess some sort of locus of control over the team (End, Eaton, Campbell, & Kretschmar, 2003). Typically, this is exhibited through various game-watching behaviors, such as wearing one's hat a certain way during a game (e.g., a "rally cap," in which fans wear their hats inside-out; Neale, 2006), donning one's favorite shirt, jersey, or other team-related gear on game day (Fanatics, 2016), or perhaps even drinking a certain type of beer when viewing such events (Eastman & Riggs, 1994). These superstitious behaviors (Tobacyk & Shrader, 1991), or rituals (Dionisio, Leal, & Moutinho, 2008), are often a result of the inherent attachment that fans feel toward the team. Although this innate attachment influences fan behavior, the athletes that compose such teams often serve as representations for the fans who follow them.

As alluded to previously, fans symptomatically seek out or avoid teams due to both on-field (i.e., performance-related) as well as off-the-field actions by athletes (e.g., moral transgressions; Lee & Kwak, 2015a). As a consequence, professional sports teams and corporations face various conundrums regarding their respective player and endorser operations. One particular problem revolves around how the signing, acquisition, and/or retention of certain players will affect the opinions and sports consumption behaviors of fans. More specifically, the actions of players, whether those

be on-field or off-the-field, play a large role in how fans go about evaluating players and consuming both individual- and team-related goods, which may consist of team-related apparel (e.g., team shirts and player jerseys), tickets to games, and/or subscription services. As such, when athletes stray away from team norms (e.g., providing unrelenting support for teammates, punctuality, respect for coaches and staff, or productivity on-field and off-the-field; Munroe, Estabrooks, Dennis, & Carron, 1999), fans must make cognitive appraisals (Garcia-Prieto & Scherer, 2006). As a result, fans may either engage in supportive or pejorative tactics directed toward certain deviant players as a means to justify their fanship or cope with any *cognitive dissonance* (i.e., mental apprehension due to conflict concerning one's beliefs and actual occurrences in the environment; Festinger, 1957), generated by the athlete.

Conventional thinking in sports has proposed that fans tend to excuse violations of certain team norms, such as poor on-field performance, by means of an *ingroup favoritism effect* (Rees, Haslam, Coffee, & Lavallee, 2015), or collective support and bias for their ingroup. Frequently, behaviors like these function to uphold the identity of the fan (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998). Given the evidence suggesting ingroup favoritism, existing research has delved into simply how these biases operate within different types of fans. As a case in point, using a field setting of a college basketball game, Wann and Grieve (2005) have shown that when fans perceive a threat to their identity, they tend to exhibit higher levels of ingroup favoritism. However, it is worth noting that this effect occurred equally for both fans of the winning as well as the losing team.

Nevertheless, in some cases, as opposed to supporting players in the face of failure, fans may actively derogate them by providing harsh evaluations of the player's

performance. For instance, fans may go about “trolling” (i.e., the offensive usage of media to mortify others; Youmans & York, 2012) players on social media sites, such as Facebook, Instagram, Snapchat, or Twitter, by posting negative comments filled with expletives on player pages and associated accounts. In relation, extant research in social psychology and group dynamics has attempted to describe the methods by which group members go about supporting or derogating fellow ingroup members. Pivotal work in this area has developed two phenomena to describe these processes: *subjective group dynamics* (SGD) and the *black sheep effect* (BSE).

Contributions and Purpose

Through our research into the group dynamics of sports fans within this dissertation, we hope to demonstrate and extend the underlying psychological mechanisms that drive both supportive and derogatory tactics within fans. Although present research in sport management as well as applications of social psychology into sports have shown fans’ susceptibility toward ingroup favoritism of athletes (Murrell & Dietz, 1993; Wann & Cottingham, 2015; Wann & Grieve, 2005), we intend to challenge these notions and illustrate the effects of ingroup vilification of an athlete that violates expectations. In studying SGD and the BSE, we also plan to employ behavioral manifestations of the phenomena by using both product choices and social media scenarios to describe their connection to sports consumption behavior. In other words, purchasing the team’s merchandise or commenting a certain way on social media may operate to preserve fans’ identities. However, such research into how fans alter purchase behaviors and social media activities based on athlete performance is relatively sparse.

Given the existing literature on brand loyalty support of the team itself (Bristow & Sebastian, 2001; Ngan et al., 2011), we seek to differentiate team-level purchases from individual-based (i.e., athlete) consumption. Using ingroup and outgroup situations, we aim to examine how fans translate perceptions of a target athlete toward purchase behaviors and activities related to consumption of specific athlete related items (e.g., player jerseys, accessories, and other types of apparel). In describing this phenomenon, we intend to distinguish consumers of generic products from sport fan consumers.

Thus, the principal intention of this dissertation is to provide evidence for the processes of critical evaluation of athletes by fans. Overall, we seek to establish how both on-field (e.g., performance) and off-the-field (e.g., moral actions) behaviors by athletes can explain the effects of player following through extended manifestations of SGD and the BSE via outlets, such as social media. We also aim to examine the effects of post-transgression behaviors by athletes and demonstrate how regret by sports fans can spur reevaluations and reconsideration of ingroup derogation, various social media behaviors, as well as consumer choices through our introduction of *black sheep regret* (BSR). By and large, we hope our results will motivate meticulous inspection of various societal phenomenon in not only sports, but also other contexts to amalgamate different theoretical frameworks in explaining and testing such human behavior.

Overview of Studies

Initially, we will test for the presence of SGD and the BSE within group situations using two studies involving scenarios of athlete recruits. Our first study will attempt to illustrate the presence of ingroup derogation, posing situations of both high and low performance by a target athlete. Furthermore, we intend to examine how threats to the

identity of the fan can be activated by low-performing group members. Our second experiment will also present similar performance situations. However, we will manipulate the group membership of the target athlete in order to detect and differentiate the BSE in fans. Expanding upon these findings, Study 3 will provide a delineation of the saliency of both the outgroup as well as the group member themselves as a means to uncover more potent triggers of derogation. Specifically, we will introduce a comparison for the effects of rivalry on such evaluations and fan behaviors by comparing the ingroup to a direct adversary (i.e., a rival) along with a non-rival outgroup. In addition, our third experiment will offer an assessment of the status of the group member by exploring the role of player status (i.e., elite or low-profile) in exactly how fans consider the positioning of the athlete amongst the competition.

Building off this, Study 4 will delve into the variations in a group member's actions by simultaneously examining deviancy through performance and moral behaviors. Consequently, we intend to connect concepts from the literature in moral psychology to how fans process unscrupulous athlete behaviors using an assembly of *moral reasoning strategies*. Finally, we will conduct a two-part fifth experiment to provide evidence to introduce BSR. In achieving this, these studies will (a) provide ecological support from a field study of social media behavior and (b) confirm our findings using experimental methods. In performing our field experiment, we intend to provide sustaining evidence for how SGD, the BSE, as well as operations related to the process of ingroup derogation function in everyday life through a content-based investigation of social media behaviors by fans following activities by an athlete. Furthermore, given that actions by athletes typically do not occur in a vacuum, we seek

to offer opportunities for individuals to reconsider their evaluations and behaviors following novel information about an athlete. Herein, we seek to advance the application of *regret theory* and the BSE in the context of sports so as to illustrate the influence of succeeding actions on consumer choices and other actions. Figure 2 provides the framework for our studies.

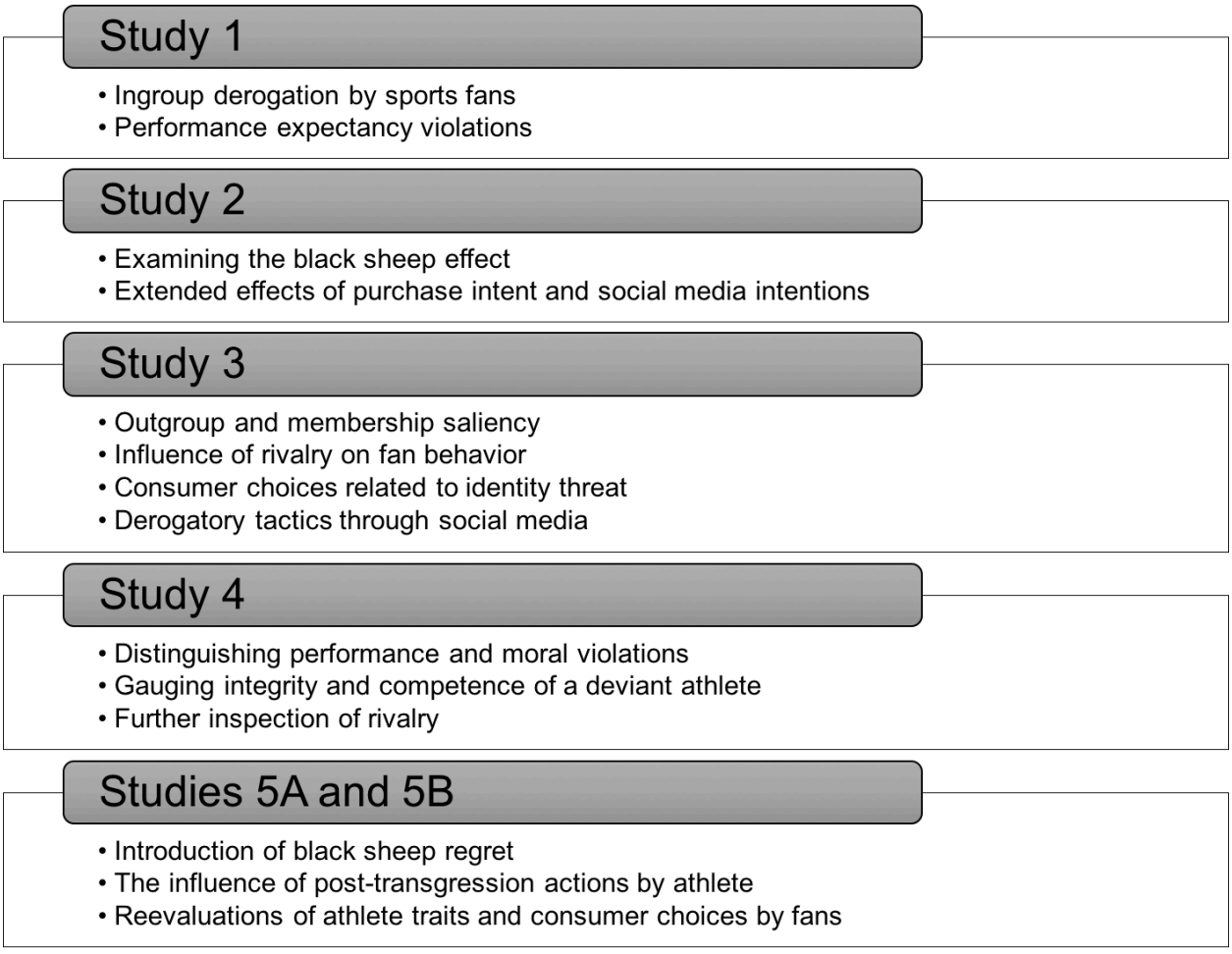


Figure 2. Overview of dissertation.

CHAPTER II

Study 1

Subjective Group Dynamics in Sports Settings:

Initial Evidence of Ingroup Derogation

Introduction

Social Identity Theory

Human identity is the most fragile thing that we have, and it's often only found in moments of truth. – Alan Rudolph

Identity is truly a delicate mechanism. It serves as an indicator of an individual's affiliation and can be affected by a number of variables in the environment, such as social change (e.g., movements toward gender equality; Cramer & Westergren, 1999), individual health (Hagger, Anderson, Kyriakaki, & Darkings, 2007), and family (Fiese, 1992). The way people construct their identities is engrained in the attachments they hold to various entities. Research in psychology has attempted to explain the phenomenon by which people go about assembling these external identities. Tajfel and Turner (1979) have proposed *social identity theory* (SIT), which postulates that individuals engage in social categorization which in turn leads to identification with a group. Accordingly, individuals create classifications of the ingroup (i.e., consisting of members with similar characteristics or beliefs as their own) and outgroups (i.e., comprised of members with different features and attitudes in relation to the ingroup).

Recurrently, outcomes of this social identity involve comparisons with other groups. Extant research on this framework has widely accepted the notion of ingroup biases. This ingroup favoritism effect has been studied in a plethora of settings ranging from situations concerning racial minorities (Rudman, Feinberg, & Fairchild, 2002) to judicial biases in legal court systems (Shayo & Zussman, 2010). Regardless of the setting, ingroup favoritism functions to bolster the status of the ingroup when compared to an outgroup. However, these biases have also been found to be heightened by a series of elements. One key aspect that may greatly influence the relationship between social identity and eventual ingroup biases may be threats to the identity itself.

Identity Threat

The collected works in social psychology on the matter of identity threat have provided various contexts in which endangerment of the social identity can be kindled. Branscombe, Ellemers, Spears, and Doosje (1999) offered a classification scheme to characterize four types of social identity threat. They proposed that identity threat functioning within intergroup contexts may stem from issues involving member *categorization*, *distinctiveness*, *acceptance*, as well as *values* of the overall social identity (see Table 1 for a summary of the types of identity threat and related features). Categorization threats entail the labeling of individuals against their will. In certain contexts, individuals respond with resistance to such categorizations and may even attempt to emphasize other facets of their social identity. For example, in political situations, individuals of an inferior party may not want to be categorized as followers of that party (Branscombe et al., 1999), but may rather seek to present themselves as supporters of a certain charity as a means to preserve their identities.

With respect to distinctiveness, threats to such constructs may impede or diminish the uniqueness of the group itself. In this case, distinctiveness threats may take the form of generalizations of the group, such as in race (e.g., equating all people of Asian descent as solely Asian) or as new followers of a recently successful sports team (i.e., becoming a “cookie-cutter,” or *bandwagon fan*, due to the team’s prominence; Dalakas, Madrigal, & Anderson, 2004). An additional threat identified in this classification scheme concerns threats toward acceptance, wherein the individual perceives that his/her position in the group is being undermined. With acceptance threats, group members feel as if the ingroup is rejecting or devaluing their membership. Accordingly, this may occur in scenarios involving initiation rituals, as in fraternities or sororities, wherein individuals must engage in a specific set of behaviors or activities in order to gain acceptance or maintain their position in the group (Branscombe et al., 1999).

Ultimately, another source of identity threat may originate from the emasculation of one of the group’s core values. For instance, the authors underscored two main potential values of interest, those being: competence and morality. At these junctures, group members who perceive threats to competence (e.g., involving abilities as an athlete) or morality (e.g., amongst religious groups) may attempt to accentuate these details in their social identities through various actions. In fact, Branscombe et al. (1999) provided a potential factor that may predispose certain individuals to respond to not only value threats, but also categorization, distinctiveness, and acceptance threats. They have noted that such responses may be dictated by the extent to which an individual identifies with the group.

In situations involving such threats, individuals with lower identification to the group are expected to emphasize their inimitability, utilize hierarchies as categories, or if all else fails, even disidentify with the group. Alternatively, highly identified group members tend to denigrate outgroups or emphasize their individuality within the group when under threat. Taken together, each form of identity threat and responses to such endangerments appears to simply function to safeguard or sustain one's social identity. Although research in psychology has offered useful triggers of various defense mechanisms against identity threat, these behavioral responses may also be shaped by the dynamics within intergroup relations themselves. In other words, interaction with the outgroup may activate other functional responses that similarly operate to protect the individual's social identity as well as the collective group's identity.

Table 1

Types of Identity Threat and Responses to Threat

Threat	*Description*	*Response*
1. Categorization	Imposition of category labels against group member's will	(a) Disassociation from category
2. Acceptance	Membership within group may be belittled or at risk	(a) Maintenance of membership within group
3. Distinctiveness	Group membership, or group itself, may be undistinguishable	(a) Emphasis of uniqueness of group
4. Value	Core group value(s) may be undermined	(a) Disidentification with group (b) Derogation of outgroup

Note. Adapted from Branscombe et al. (1999).

Theoretical Background

Subjective Group Dynamics

Given the evidence to suggest the innate desire for the positive maintenance of social identity (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Tajfel, 1974), the existing literature in group relations has attempted to describe the operation by which individuals simultaneously uphold their social identity and critically judge deviant group members. Pivotal exploration into this matter by Marques, Abrams, Paez, and Martinez-Taboada (1998b) has produced a theoretical framework to illustrate such occurrences, termed *subjective group dynamics* (SGD). SGD illustrates that individuals seek to differentiate others on both a category- and normative-level. In doing so, people attempt to classify others using group membership labels (e.g., ingroup or outgroup) and establish the perceived observance of category norms (e.g., males displaying masculinity and females exhibiting femininity; Marques et al., 1998b; see Figure 3 for a model of SGD as presented in prior research). These classifications and eventual judgments stem from two types of expected norms, those being *descriptive* and *prescriptive* norms.

In group dynamics, Marques, Paez, and Abrams (1998a) have stipulated that descriptive norms revolve around social indicators that make contrasts between groups apparent. For example, descriptive norms may include gender, ethnicity, brand names, or logos of sports teams. Conversely, prescriptive norms involve required behavior by ingroup members that serves to positively foster social identity. In the context of groups, prescriptive norms may imply specific traits or behaviors that group members are expected to reflect (e.g., integrity, competence, discipline, or high performance in tasks). As Marques et al. have shown, when ingroup members deviate from such norms, or

even adopt ideal standards of the outgroup, they tend to be maligned. However, when members adhere to group norms, this research has observed an elevation in both the image of the ingroup member as well as the outgroup member who follows the ingroup norm.

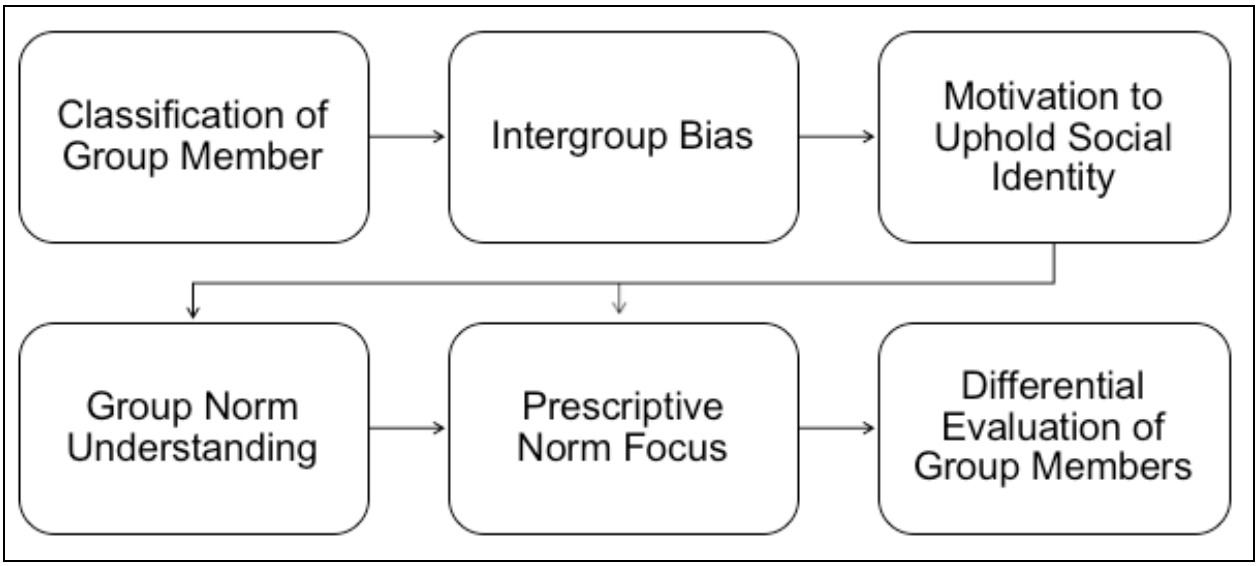


Figure 3. Streamlined model of subjective group dynamics. Adapted from Abrams and Rutland (2008).

Triggers of SGD. SGD offers an interesting perspective into the idiosyncrasies of group behavior directed toward both the ingroup and outgroup. However, one key facet of SGD, akin to SIT and mechanisms that may activate threat, involves the level of identification to the group. As past literature has noted, group identification can influence the manner in which ingroup members evaluate other ingroup members as well as representatives of an outgroup (Brewer, 1999; Castano, Yzerbyt, Bourguignon, & Seron, 2002; Castano, Yzerbyt, Paladino, & Sacchi, 2002). Similar to findings from Marques et al.'s (1998a) examination of favorability of ingroup norms, Abrams, Marques, Bown, and Henson (2000) have shown that higher identification with the

ingroup can increase favorability of not only other ingroup members, but also outgroup members who abide by norms of the ingroup. Simply, ingroup members may judge outgroup members who engage in pro-norm behavior more propitiously in comparison to deviant outgroup members who violate norms (Abrams et al., 2000).

Relatedly, Abrams, Rutland, and Cameron (2003) emphasized that assessments of group members may be guided by a *SGD identification hypothesis*, wherein stronger ties to the group will give rise to an amplified desire to uphold group norms. In fact, these evaluations of pro-normative behaviors of ingroup members as well as those of the outgroup can be heightened by this identification to the group. This occurrence has been termed the *identity moderation hypothesis* (Abrams et al., 2003). As such, subjectivity in group relations has been found to be greatly influenced by identification with the group. Similarly, in the realm of sports, SGD may present an applicable construct in describing fan behavior. In fact, normative behaviors amongst group members, as reflected by athletes of a team, could be explained by the processes of SGD in sports fans.

Team Identification

From a social psychological viewpoint, group identification brings about the development of SGD and also influences the extent to which group members make judgments about both the ingroup and outgroup. For years, sports scholars have studied the construct of group identification in fans. Some of the earliest work by Wann and Branscombe (1993) has established that this form of group identification in fans, termed *team identification*, can be defined as the psychological connectedness that a fan feels toward a team. Accordingly, team identification has been linked to various

outcomes, such as higher feelings of community (Branscombe & Wann, 1991), increased satisfaction (Matsuoka, Chelladurai, & Harada, 2003), and more subjective feelings toward the team (i.e., an ingroup favoritism effect; Wann & Branscombe, 1995). Remarkably, Branscombe and Wann (1991) note that team identification can even serve as a proxy for traditional family attachment.

Although prior research has shown that fans tend to have more favorable attitudes toward ingroup fans compared to those of the outgroup (Wann & Branscombe, 1995), a limited scope of research has examined how players, as groups members, are perceived within the group. However, one investigation conducted by Wann, Koch, Knoth, Fox, Aljubaily, and Lantz (2006) has examined fans' impressions of a potential member of the team. Using a scenario manipulating the performance of a college basketball recruit, the authors found that more highly identified fans tended to provide more positive evaluations of the player when he was perceived as being a potential ingroup member than an outgroup player. Wann et al. also investigated how negative connotations of the potential ingroup player could influence fan evaluations. However, the researchers did not find any significant effects of the target team (i.e., group) or team identification.

Although the authors highlighted that their manipulation may not have been effective and that ingroup extremity was canceled out by *balance theory* (Heider, 1958), we may point to the target group of the athlete as an additional shortcoming. Seeing as Wann et al. (2006) utilized a highly salient outgroup (i.e., Duke University, a fierce rival of the ingroup University of Kentucky), they may have provided an overt provocation to fans. Thus, coming in contact with a player from a highly salient outgroup may have

triggered other effects within fans, such as identity preservation due to threat stemming from an active rival (Jetten, Postmes, & McAuliffe, 2002). In other words, rival groups who serve as impediments to the goals of the ingroup (e.g., national championships) may aggravate fans to a higher degree than less salient outgroups. Thus, we argue that the outgroup of the target is a key factor in determining simply how fans will evaluate other players.

Purpose and Research Hypotheses

Taking these notions into account, in Study 1 we attempt to provide preliminary evidence of ingroup derogation within sports fans. Our intention is to demonstrate how performance expectations can influence how fans perceive members of their identified team. In particular, our first experiment examines how violations of performance expectations can affect the evaluation of an athlete on various traits and the perceived level of threat experienced by the fan. Thus, given the evidence to suggest support for pro-norm and derogation of anti-norm behaviors by ingroup members (Abrams et al., 2000, 2003; Marques et al., 1998a, 1998b) as well as findings regarding identity threat (Branscombe et al., 1999), we propose the following hypotheses (see Figure 4 for an illustration):

> **H_{1a}:** Fans will more favorably evaluate ingroup athletes who confirm performance expectations (i.e., ingroup favoritism) than those who violate them (i.e., ingroup derogation).
>
> **H_{1b}:** Fans exposed to performance violations will perceive greater levels of identity threat.

H_{1c}: Fans with higher levels of team identification will display greater ingroup biases and will perceive greater threat.

H_{1d}: Team identification will moderate the relationship between expectancies and both performance evaluations as well as perceptions of threat, further contributing to higher levels of these constructs.

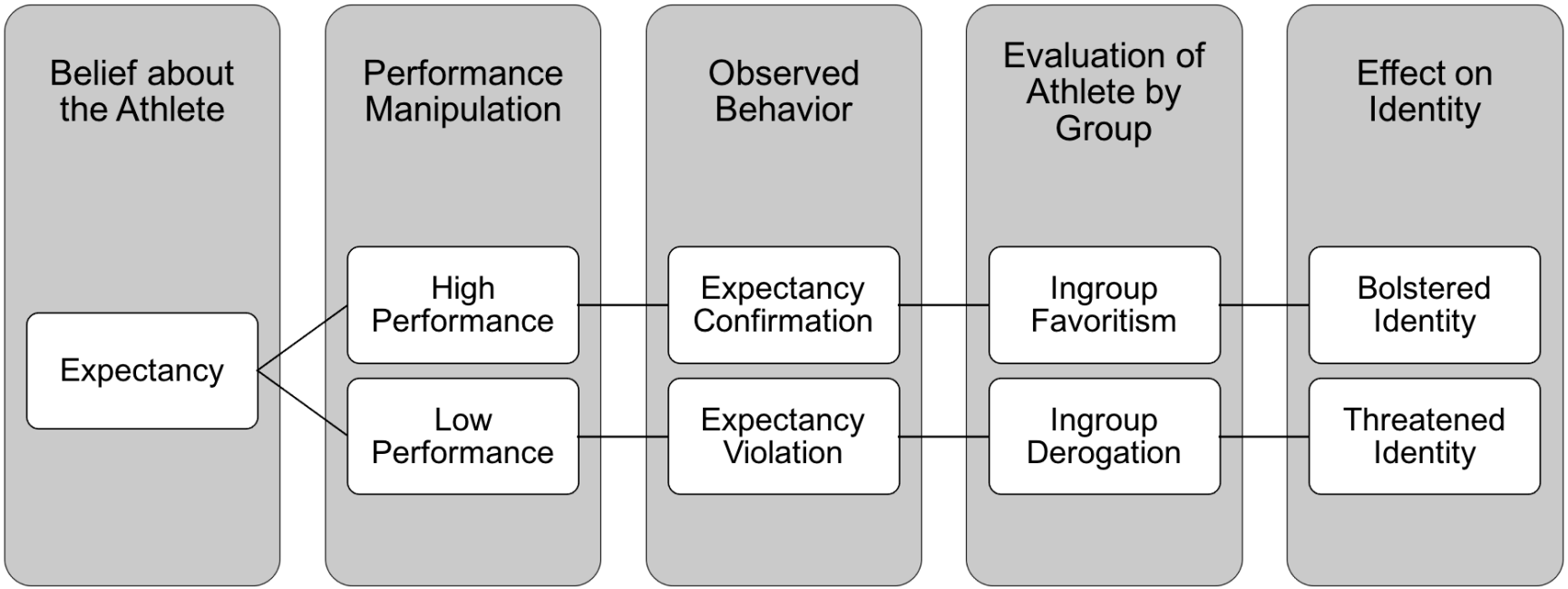


Figure 4. Framework for Study 1.

Method

Participants and Design

Our first experiment featured a between-subjects design with one main manipulated variable (i.e., *performance expectancy*) with two levels: confirmation (high performance) and violation (low performance). For preliminary consideration, we conducted a power analysis to determine the necessary sample size. According to G*Power, in order to achieve a medium effect size (ES) of .25 with power ($1 - \beta$) of .80 and an alpha (α) level set to .05 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007), we required approximately 128 participants. We recruited a sample of self-identified college football fans from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Previous research on the reliability and validity of data obtained from MTurk workers has shown that such participants provide quality data for research (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Kausel, Culbertson, Leiva, Slaughter, & Jackson, 2015). In addition, prior work has also illustrated that MTurk workers offer a closer representation of the United States population than data acquired from university students (Behrend, Sharek, Meade, & Wiebe, 2011; Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010; Stewart, Ungemach, Harris, Bartels, Newell, Paolacci, & Chandler, 2015).

Individuals recruited from MTurk were offered $0.50 for their participation. Subjects completed a screening procedure to determine fanship, wherein they indicated if they were fans of college football. Overall, a total of 224 individuals participated in Study 1. However, due to participant dropout and incomplete data, the comprehensive responses of 206 subjects (139 male, 67 female; M_{age} = 34.97, SD_{age} = 12.06) were

used in our analyses. Table 2 provides a summary of the demographic characteristics of our sample.

Potential subjects were not contacted directly. Participation in our study was completely voluntary and participants were able to withdraw at any time. All studies featured in this dissertation were approved by the respective Institutional Review Boards (IRB) at the University of Michigan (i.e., Studies 1 through 5B) and San José State University (i.e., Studies 5A and 5B). All procedures utilized across these experiments adhered to the ethical guidelines instituted by these committees (see Appendix A for each of the IRB approval letters).

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics for Study 1 Sample

Characteristic	*n*	%
Gender		
Male	139	67.5
Female	67	32.5
Age		
18-29	83	40.3
30-39	72	35.0
40-49	25	12.1
50-59	14	6.8
60-69	9	4.4
70-79	2	1.0
80-89	1	0.4
Ethnicity		
Asian American/Pacific Islander	17	8.3
Black/African American	12	5.8
Caucasian/White	164	79.6
Hispanic/Latin American	8	3.9
Multiracial	5	2.4
Highest Level of Education		
High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent	20	9.7
Some college credit, no degree	34	16.5
Trade/technical/vocational training	2	1.0
Associate's degree	16	7.8
Bachelor's degree	100	48.5
Master's degree	27	13.1
Professional degree	3	1.5
Doctorate degree	4	1.9
State of Residence		
Alabama	5	2.4
Arizona	2	1.0
Arkansas	2	1.0
California	28	13.6
Colorado	5	2.4
Connecticut	1	0.5
Florida	17	8.3
Georgia	4	1.9
Illinois	6	2.9
Indiana	4	1.9
Iowa	5	2.4
Kentucky	5	2.4
Louisiana	4	1.9
Maine	2	1.0
Maryland	4	1.9
Massachusetts	2	1.0
Michigan	10	4.9
Minnesota	2	1.0
Mississippi	2	1.0
Missouri	5	2.4
Nebraska	4	1.9
Nevada	1	0.5
New Hampshire	1	0.5
New Jersey	1	0.5
New Mexico	1	0.5
New York	7	3.4
North Carolina	12	5.8
North Dakota	1	0.5
Ohio	13	6.3
Oklahoma	2	1.0
Oregon	4	1.9
Pennsylvania	9	4.4
South Carolina	2	1.0
Tennessee	6	2.9
Texas	17	8.3
Utah	2	1.0
Virginia	4	1.9
Washington	1	0.5
West Virginia	2	1.0
Wisconsin	1	0.5

Procedure

Participants completed our first study online through Qualtrics Survey Software. Prior to beginning the study, participants indicated their fanship toward a college football team from a list of all the Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS) schools (see Table 3 for identified teams). In addition, participants also noted if they were above the age of 18. If subjects met our inclusion criteria, they viewed a consent form detailing the provisions of our study (see Appendix B). Following subjects' consent to participate, they then indicated the most credible source for sports as well as college football and recruiting news. The credibility of a potential source for this article to be used in Study 2 and beyond was assessed using a pool of selected sports sources (see Appendix C). Subsequently, participants reported how strongly they felt connected to their favorite team using the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS; Wann & Branscombe, 1993).

Participants were then randomly assigned to one of our two performance expectancy conditions, either the expectancy confirmation (high performance) or violation (low performance) conditions. Our main stimulus was a fictitious news article about a hypothetical five-star high school quarterback recruit, named James Wendell, who had committed to the participants' selected favorite team. The news article also presented the top-10 quarterback recruit statistics for the current season. In addition, it described the target athlete's performance through his last few games and his performance during his team's championship game. Following this description, participants were shown the statistics for the game. The report's content and player's statistics were manipulated to reflect either high or low performance (see Appendix D for our stimuli).

Following this, participants completed a series of dependent measures about the target athlete. These measures were presented in a random order, with the sequence of questions also randomized to control for order effects (Davis & Bremner, 2006). Participants completed a measure of evaluative traits (Davidson & Lickona, 2007; Seider, Gilbert, Novick, & Gomez, 2012), the Competence-Based Trust scale (CBT; Ferrin, Kim, Cooper, & Dirks, 2007), and two measures of self-identity threat (Dietz-Uhler, End, Demakakos, Dickirson, & Grantz, 2002; Murtagh, Gatersleben, & Uzzell, 2012). In addition, we included a set of manipulation checks to assess the perceived performance of the athlete, expectations for a five-star recruit, perceived group membership, and image congruence of the athlete with the subject's favorite team using the *Ingroup-Outgroup Overlap* dimension of the Overlap of Self, Ingroup, and Outgroup scale (OSIO; Schubert & Otten, 2002). Subjects then reported the types of plays that signal high and low performance, rated the perceived believability of the report, and provided thoughts about the study (see Appendix E). Lastly, participants completed a demographic questionnaire (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity; see Appendix F) and were thanked for their participation.

Table 3

Reported Favorite College Football Teams Within Study 1 Sample

University	*Count*	*%*	*University*	*Count*	*%*
Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical University	2	1.0	University of California, Santa Barbara	1	0.5
Alabama State University	3	1.4	University of Central Florida	3	1.4
Auburn University	3	1.4	University of Cincinnati	2	1.0
Ball State University	1	0.5	University of Connecticut	1	0.5
Baylor University	1	0.5	University of Delaware	1	0.5
Brigham Young University	1	0.5	University of Florida	11	5.3
Clemson University	1	0.5	University of Georgia	3	1.4
Eastern Illinois University	1	0.5	University of Houston	1	0.5
Florida State University	1	0.5	University of Iowa	5	2.4
Georgia Institute of Technology	2	1.0	University of Kentucky	2	1.0
Grambling State University	1	0.5	University of Memphis	2	1.0
Harvard University	2	1.0	University of Miami	3	1.4
Houston Baptist University	1	0.5	University of Michigan	10	4.8
Indiana University	1	0.5	University of Minnesota	2	1.0
Iowa State University	1	0.5	University of Missouri	2	1.0
Louisiana State University	3	1.4	University of Nebraska-Lincoln	3	1.4
Michigan State University	7	3.4	University of Nevada, Reno	1	0.5
Mississippi State University	1	0.5	University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill	4	1.9
North Carolina State University	1	0.5	University of North Carolina at Charlotte	1	0.5
North Dakota State University	1	0.5	University of North Carolina at Greensboro	1	0.5
Ohio State University	17	8.2	University of Notre Dame	4	1.9
Ohio University	1	0.5	University of Oklahoma	2	1.0
Oklahoma State University-Stillwater	2	1.0	University of Oregon	5	2.4
Pennsylvania State University	3	1.4	University of Pittsburgh	3	1.4
Rutgers University	1	0.5	University of South Carolina	2	1.0
San Diego State University	2	1.0	University of South Florida	1	0.5
Stanford University	2	1.0	University of Southern California	5	2.4
Syracuse University	1	0.5	University of Tennessee	6	2.9
Texas A&M University	2	1.0	University of Texas at Austin	8	3.9
University at Albany, SUNY	1	0.5	University of Washington	2	1.0
University at Buffalo	2	1.0	University of Wisconsin-Madison	2	1.0
University of Alabama	12	5.8	Villanova University	1	0.5
University of Arizona	1	0.5	Virginia Commonwealth University	1	0.5
University of Arkansas	3	1.4	Virginia Tech	2	1.0
University of California, Berkeley	3	1.4	Washington State University	1	0.5
University of California, Davis	1	0.5	West Virginia University	4	1.9
University of California, Los Angeles	9	4.3	Total	207	100.0

Measures

Team identification. We obtained a measure of team identification using a modified version of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). The SSIS is a 7-item questionnaire that uses a 7-point Likert-type scale to measure how strongly fans feel connected to their favorite team. One example item taken from the scale reads: “How important is being a fan of the (selected university team) to you?” For this item, the response format is as follows: 1 = *not at all important* to 7 = *very important*. For data analysis, items were averaged to create an overall score of team identification. Higher scores on this scale indicate stronger identification with a team, whereas lower ones indicate weaker identification. Appendix G lists the items for the SSIS.

Trait evaluation. Akin to classic research of SGD (Marques et al., 1998a, 1998b), we employed a measure of evaluation using various performance-based traits identified in prior research (Davidson & Lickona, 2007; Seider et al., 2012; see Appendix H). We selected seven traits for participants to rate performance. Some examples of these traits include: *competence*, *intelligence*, *diligence*, and *dependability*. Participants rated the target athlete using a 7-point semantic differential scale (1 = *not at all [conjugated selected trait]* to 7 = *very [conjugated selected trait]*). Scores were averaged across items prior to data analysis. Higher scores on this measure denoted greater perceived possession of the trait within the target athlete. Lower ratings indicated that the traits were less characteristic of the athlete.

Competence. We measured perceived competence of the target athlete using the Competence-Based Trust (CBT) scale used in Ferrin et al. (2007). The CBT is a

4-item measure that utilizes a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*) to assess proficiency and capability in a position. Items were modified to direct statements toward the target athlete (i.e., James Wendell), sport (i.e., football), and position (i.e., quarterback). One example of a modified item taken from this measure reads: “James Wendell is a very capable quarterback.” For analysis, we averaged responses across the scale to generate a composite score for competence. Participants scoring higher on this measure tended to perceive greater competence of the target athlete, whereas those who scored lower indicated that the target athlete was ill-suited at his current position. The items for the CBT are provided in Appendix I.

Self-identity threat. Participants were also posed with the scenario of assuming that the target athlete would begin the season as the starting quarterback for their favorite team. As such, we captured a measure of threat using two main scales. We first used a revised version of the Self-Identity Threat (SIT) scale (Murtagh et al., 2012). The SIT is a 4-item survey, using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*) to gauge how threatened people feel about various events. For example, an item taken from this measure is: “It makes me feel less competent as a fan of (selected university team).” For this measure, items were averaged for analyses. The SIT scale is illustrated in Appendix J.

Identity threat. We further assessed identity threat by using four modified items employed in Dietz-Uhler et al. (2002; see Appendix K). Participants reported how they felt on three main emotional states: *comfort*, *bother*, and *threat*, assuming that the target athlete would begin the season as the starting quarterback of the subjects’ favorite team. Responses to these items were captured using a 7-point semantic differential

scale (1 = *not at all [conjugated emotional state]* to 7 = *very [conjugated emotional state]*). One revised example item is: “How comfortable would you feel?” We also measured if fans believed their favorite team should abandon the target athlete using the following item: “(Selected university team) should ask James Wendell to revoke his commitment to the team.” Participants indicated their response to this item using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*). Responses were averaged to create a single score for the emotional state of the fan. Greater scores on these measures signaled higher perceived threat, and lower scores indicated less threat.

Performance rating and expectations. As manipulation checks, we gauged how participants rated the target athlete’s performance with one item using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *far short of expectations* to 5 = *far exceeds expectations*). This item is provided in Appendix L. In addition, we also assessed the expectations for a 5-star recruit using another item responded to using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*). Appendix E lists the item for the expectations of a 5-star recruit. Manipulations of performance were deemed successful if participants rated the performance and expectations of the target athlete as higher in the expectancy confirmation condition compared to the violation condition.

Group membership and image congruence. As additional manipulation checks, we evaluated how strongly subjects felt that the target athlete was a part of their favorite team using one question rated on a 7-point semantic differential scale (1 = *not at all part of the team* to 7 = *very much a part of the team*). In addition, the degree to which individuals felt that the image of the target athlete overlapped with that of their

favorite team was assessed using the Overlap of Self, Ingroup, and Outgroup (OSIO) scale's dimension of *Ingroup-Outgroup Overlap* (Schubert & Otten, 2002), as also used in Carlson and Donavan (2013). This measure employs circular figures that progressively intersect with the text of the target athlete and favorite team within the images. Subjects indicated how strongly they felt the athlete overlapped with their favorite team's image using a 7-point labeled, pictorial scale (1 = *far apart* to 7 = *complete overlap*; see Appendix M). Participants responded to both these measures prior to and after exposure to stimuli. For analysis, difference scores between the initial and subsequent measurement of group membership and image congruence were calculated. Higher scores on these measures illustrated that fans perceived the athlete as a more integral part of their favorite team, whereas lower scores indicated a perception of irrelevance to the team.

Results

Descriptive Statistics and Initial Analyses

For the purposes of identifying the most credible news outlet in developing our stimuli for our subsequent studies (i.e., Studies 2 through 5B), we examined the frequencies of the reported credible news sources. Overall, in both a general sports and college football recruiting setting, ESPN was the most frequently reported credible source for general sports news and college football and recruiting information (see Tables 4 and 5). Taking this into account, we chose to implement ESPN as the primary news outlet for our subsequent experiments.

Table 4

Reported Credible Sources for Sports News

Source	*Count*	*%*
ABC Sports	2	1.0
Associated Press (AP)	10	4.8
BBC Sports	2	1.0
CBS Sports	11	5.3
Deadspin	5	2.4
ESPN	134	64.7
Google Sports	5	2.4
NBC Sports	5	2.4
Other	4	1.9
Reuters	3	1.4
Rivals	1	0.5
SB Nation	2	1.0
Sporting News	3	1.4
Sports Illustrated	11	5.3
USA Today	2	1.0
Yahoo! Sports	6	2.9

Table 5

Reported Credible Sources for College Football Recruiting News

Source	*Count*	*%*
ABC Sports	3	1.4
Associated Press (AP)	12	5.8
BBC Sports	2	1.0
CBS Sports	6	2.9
Deadspin	3	1.4
ESPN	88	42.5
Google Sports	5	2.4
MaxPreps	15	7.2
NBC Sports	6	2.9
Other	3	1.4
Reuters	5	2.4
Rivals	35	16.9
SB Nation	2	1.0
Sporting News	7	3.4
Sports Illustrated	7	3.4
USA Today	4	1.9
Yahoo! Sports	3	1.4

Internal consistency. The reliability of the scales employed in our first study were assessed using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Based on Nunnally's (1970) alpha criterion of .70 for adequate consistency, all our measures generated sound reliability (see Table 6 for reliability coefficients and descriptive statistics).

Table 6

Reliability Coefficients and Descriptive Statistics for Measures Used in Study 1

Scale	*Items*	*M*	*SD*	*α*
Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS)	7	5.49	0.96	.88
Competence-Based Trust (CBT)	4	4.72	1.84	.97
Trait Evaluation (TE)	7	4.81	1.50	.95
Self-Identity Threat (SIT)	4	2.46	1.41	.90
Identity Threat (IT)	4	3.26	1.74	.87

Manipulation Checks

To determine the effectiveness of our manipulations, we compared the ratings of performance, expectations, group membership, and image congruence between the expectancy confirmation and violation conditions. Following appropriate corrections for violations in the homogeneity of variance assumption using the Welch test, our analyses verified the effective manipulation of our independent factor. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed that subjects in the expectancy confirmation condition (n = 104; M_{EC} = 4.50, SD_{EC} = 0.62) rated the target athlete's performance as significantly better, $F(1, 185.18) = 789.76$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .80$, than did participants in the violation condition (n = 102; M_{EV} = 1.58, SD_{EV} = 0.85).

An additional ANOVA verified that participants in the confirmation condition (M_{EC} = 6.41, SD_{EC} = 0.84) provided significantly higher ratings of expectations, $F(1, 204) = 5.99$, $p = .02$, $\eta^2 = .03$, for the target athlete than did those in the expectancy violation condition (M_{EV} = 6.09, SD_{EV} = 1.05). Furthermore, the difference in membership ratings were significantly disturbed, $F(1, 180.28) = 42.99$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .18$, by the expectancy violation condition (M_{EV} = -0.97, SD_{EV} = 1.61), wherein subjects rated the athlete as less a part of the team compared to subjects in the confirmation condition (M_{EC} = 0.30, SD_{EC}

= 1.12). Lastly, the differences in the image congruency of the athlete significantly changed, $F(1, 165.79) = 50.23$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .20$, following the expectancy violation condition ($M_{EV} = -1.25$, $SD_{EV} = 1.77$) in comparison to the confirmation condition ($M_{EC} = 0.19$, $SD_{EC} = 1.07$).

Hypothesis Testing

In order to test our hypotheses (H_{1a-1d}), we performed a series of multiple regression analyses using the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) method of estimation. In doing so, we sought to evaluate both the individual effects of expectancies and team identification as well as the moderating effects of team identification on our outcome measures. All predictors were mean-centered prior to analysis to relegate multicollinearity (Aiken & West, 1991). To perform our moderation analysis, we employed the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences' (SPSS) PROCESS macro developed by Hayes (2012). This macro enables the estimation of simple slopes to determine the significance of interactions in the manner of the OLS regression procedures outlined by Aiken and West (1991). We estimated 95% confidence intervals using bootstrapped bias-corrected accelerated (BCa) adjustments based on 10,000 samples. This resampling iteration has been deemed as being appropriate in providing a consistent and bias-corrected confidence interval by previous work (Hayes, 2013; Hayes & Krippendorff, 2007). Table 7 provides a summary of our regression analyses.

As expected, the main effects for expectancy on trait evaluation, competence-based trust, and both self-identity threat and identity threat yielded support for H_{1a} and H_{1b}. Subjects exposed to performance violations rated the target athlete as significantly worse on trait evaluation and competence whilst perceiving higher threat

than did those presented expectancy confirmations. However, the main effects for team identification predicted significantly higher ratings of trait evaluation and competence-based trust; threat outcomes were not affected by team identification, thereby only providing partial support of H_{1c}. Ultimately, our test of H_{1d} for the moderating effect of team identification on expectancies provided partial support for this prediction. Although team identification did significantly contribute to competence-based trust and perceptions of identity threat following performance violations, it did not influence outcomes related to trait evaluation and self-identity threat following such exposure. Figure 5 illustrates the results of our moderation analyses.

Table 7

Moderation Analysis Results for Study 1

Outcome	*Predictor*	*B*	*SE*	*t*	*BCa 95% CI*
Trait Evaluation (TE)	Team Identification	0.21*	.08	2.73	[0.06, 0.36]
(R^2 = .51)	Expectancy	-2.12***	.15	-14.35	[-2.41, -1.83]
	Team Identification × Expectancy	-0.13	.15	-0.83	[-0.43, 0.18]
Competence Based Trust (CBT)	Team Identification	0.32***	.08	3.73	[0.15, 0.48]
(R^2 = .61)	Expectancy	-2.81***	.16	-17.37	[-3.13, -2.49]
	Team Identification × Expectancy	-0.37*	.17	-2.17	[-0.70, -0.03]
Self-Identity Threat (SIT)	Team Identification	-0.18†	.10	-1.80	[-0.38, 0.02]
(R^2 = .07)	Expectancy	0.64***	.19	3.36	[0.26, 1.01]
	Team Identification × Expectancy	0.28	.19	1.40	[-0.11, 0.67]
Identity Threat (IT)	Team Identification	-0.05	.09	-0.54	[-0.23, 0.13]
(R^2 = .50)	Expectancy	2.40***	.17	13.84	[2.06, 2.74]
	Team Identification × Expectancy	0.54**	.18	2.99	[0.18, 0.90]

Note. Unstandardized coefficients are provided. †p < .10. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

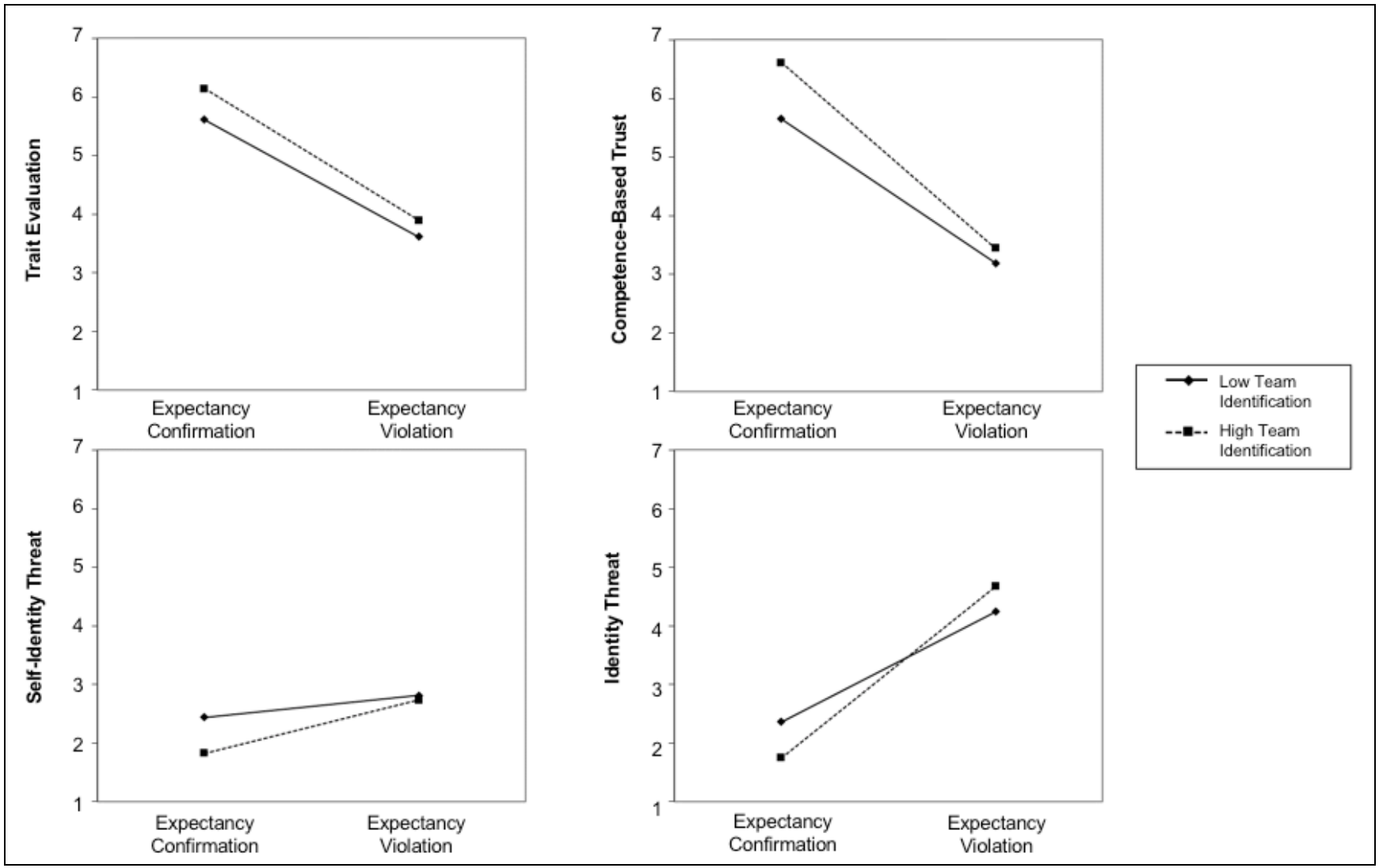


Figure 5. Interaction effects between team identification and expectancy condition on the outcome measures.

Discussion

Findings and Theoretical Implications

The principal intention of Study 1 was to investigate the corollaries of performance expectations on processes involving SGD within settings implicating an ingroup athlete. Consistent with prior research on SGD (Marques et al., 1998a, 1998b), the deviancy of the athlete, as captured by poor performance, was met with harsh criticism of performance-based traits and competence as a player. In fact, fans exposed to low performance experienced greater threat to their identities. Drawing from past literature on identity threat, fans may have perceived low performance by the athlete as a threat to one of the group's core values (i.e., competence; Branscombe et al., 1999). Borrowing from an incident in the sports world, one practical explanation of this core value has been eloquently and clearly expressed by former New York Jets head coach, Herman Edwards. During a post-game press conference in 2002, Edwards provided an applicable response to an inquiry on the purpose of sports (Farrar, 2002):

> This is what's great about sports. This is what the greatest thing about sports is. You play to win the game. Hello? You play to win the game. You don't play it to just play it. That's the great thing about sports. You play to win, and I don't care if you don't have any wins. You go play to win. When you start tellin' me it doesn't matter, then retire. Get out! 'Cause it matters.

Edwards later supplemented his previous impression with an explanation of his remark during a radio interview stating that (Farrar, 2002):

> You have an obligation as a player – as an athlete at any level – and it doesn't matter what sport it is. When you sign on, you sign on. You prepare that week to go win.

In a similar vein, we could infer that many fans hold this same sentiment. Given our experimental scenario in which the target athlete failed to perform and eventually lost the game for his team, fans suitably responded to this violation of the value of winning by reporting higher levels of threat and engaging in derogation of the deviant athlete. From an empirical standpoint, as previous work by Schmitt and Branscombe (2001) has noted, because the athlete did not meet the prototypical demands, or norms, of the team, fans perceived this as a threat to their identity. As Marques and colleagues (1998b) have elucidated, the athlete violated one of the central prescriptive norms of the fan base (i.e., successful performance and winning), which successively upset the fans' inherent aspiration to vindicate their fanship of their identified team, or membership within the group. In other words, the unexpected performance by the athlete created an imbalance in the fans' proclivity to maintain a positive sense of self, or social identity (Marques & Paez, 1994). In particular, however, this maintenance of positivity is uniquely threatened when the group member poses a threat to the identity of the ingroup as a whole and may be even more polarized when individuals are highly identified with the group (Branscombe, Wann, Noel, & Coleman, 1993).

In considering team identification as a variable, even though highly identified fans provided generally higher evaluations of the athlete's traits and perceived competence along with identifying less danger to their fan identities following situations of successful athlete performance, our presentation of low performance was able to upset these

outcomes in such highly identified fans. Using team identification as a moderator of ingroup evaluation, we found that this construct significantly increased identity threat and further decreased the perception of competence. Although self-identity threat and identity threat were not significantly affected by the level of team identification alone, we did witness a marginally significant upsurge in self-identity threat in combination with the performance outcomes. In line with prior work on SGD, our results may be explained by the identity moderation hypothesis (Abrams et al., 2003), which could have brought fans to provide even greater evaluations of the athlete. Accordingly, fans with higher team identification tended to support the ingroup member who satisfied values of high performance and competence. Furthermore, these findings also support the SGD identification hypothesis (Abrams et al., 2003), wherein greater identification to the team brought about an increased desire to retain group norms. Consequently, this process may have guided more favorable evaluations of traits and perceived competence of the athlete in the presence of pro-normative behaviors.

The findings of our study contribute to both the existing body of literature in social psychology, as well as sport management. Our results from Study 1 offer extended evidence to support the application of SGD in sports contexts. Although prior work has reported that fans operate using ingroup biases (Wann & Branscombe, 1995; Wann & Dolan, 1994; Wann & Grieve, 1995; Wann et al., 2006), we provide evidence to counter this phenomenon following non-normative behavior, thereby substantiating an ingroup derogation effect (i.e., a primary component of SGD). Although fans did evaluate the target athlete more propitiously following scenarios involving high performance and perceive less threat to their identities, these outcomes were altered by the presence of

poor performance and failure. In other words, fans sought to preserve their social identities when they perceived a threat to the group's core value (Branscombe et al., 1999).

Accordingly, these outcomes were manifested through derogation, as also found in previous research within group relations (Marques et al., 1998a, 1998b; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Thus, our results deliver a more complete embodiment of the processes of fan behavior. By examining both mechanisms involving identity threat and evaluative judgments, Study 1 impacts the existing body of the sport management literature by providing conceptual and situational antecedents that may affect the processes of ingroup attitudes. Most importantly, however, the current study advances the application of a multidisciplinary approach in studying the group behaviors within fans through the assessment of psychological theory in a sports context.

Practical Implications

Sport managers and practitioners may find the results of Study 1 useful in developing advertising campaigns or producing team merchandise. Seeing as our findings illustrate processes of ingroup derogation and heightened identity threat following poor performance, managers may be able to consider our results in light of commercials for the team. In doing so, these practitioners could depict athletes with more consistent levels of performance in such advertisements. Although our study may only allow for immediate reactions by fans due to the brief exposure to stimuli and the limited interval of the athlete's performance (i.e., over the course of a few games and one season), managers could also be more vigilant in selectively offering specific team-related paraphernalia.

For example, when distributing apparel, game programs, or even box office tickets (which often include the images or the likeness of various players), managers could maximize profits by carefully electing to display athletes who have most recently performed at a high level. Case in point, in the midst of the 2011-12 NBA season, New York Knicks point guard Jeremy Lin experienced a stretch of dominant play over the course of approximately 10 consecutive games on the court (Hughes, 2017). Accordingly, the managers and personnel for the Knicks were able to leverage Lin's newfound glory and increased media attention by offering related merchandise, specialized game tickets, and associated accessories.

In the wake of "Linsanity," the Knicks were able to realize actual monetary gains owing to their successful marketing campaign of Jeremy Lin. As such, the value of the Knicks team ownership stock saw an increase of approximately 6.2% during that span (Tuttle, 2012). This instance of effective advertising and marketing is simply one possibility that our results could offer practitioners within organized sports. By highlighting short-term, illustrious performances, managers may be able to produce a sense of "hype" (i.e., profuse publicity to incite interest; Simpson, 2015) in fans, given the immense boosts to the social identity and favorable evaluations of current players.

Limitations

The results of our study provide promising insight into the conditions in which fans experience threat and engage in athlete denigration; however, we were limited by the presentation of an overtly fictitious article. It is possible that some fans in Study 1 did not accept the article's statements as true due to the simplistic format of the report. Even though we did have the foresight to account for this in Study 2 and beyond, this

limitation to ecological validity may have reduced the effects of our stimuli for some participants, even though the global manipulation checks validated the function of our stimuli. In addition, the use of merely an ingroup athlete may not portray the comprehensive effects of SGD in the context of sports. Seeing as SGD involves intergroup contexts, the depiction of outgroup situations must be posed to distinguish the derogatory tactics utilized by fans.

Another limitation that could have encumbered our study may have been the inclusion of an exceedingly heterogeneous sample. Given that our sample was comprised of fans of a wide variety of FBS universities, our study may not have been able to control for the underlying differences amongst the various fan bases. It is quite conceivable that fans of the different teams may display varying levels of support for their favorite teams' players. For instance, fans of a team from a "Power Five" conference (e.g., the Atlantic Coastal [ACC], Big Ten [B1G], Big 12, Pac-12, or Southeastern Conferences [SEC]) could have higher expectations of performance for their identified teams (i.e., in this context, gaining eligibility for one of the more prominent college football bowl games) than fans of teams from non-automatic qualifying (NAQ) schools.

Thus, several of the marginal results following the tests of the main effects and moderation analyses could be explained by a lack of fan stability in our sample. Taking this into account, it may be worthwhile to account for the effects of fan variance through the selection of a more harmonized group (e.g., fans of one specific team). Furthermore, although we are able to draw upon our results to offer various suggestions for managers, the absence of an actual consumptive measure may limit the potency of

our findings. Considering this, it may be essential to empirically evaluate various purchase behaviors in fans to provide data-driven evidence to support our claims.

Concluding Points

Taken together, the preliminary evidence for ingroup derogation and heightened threat to fan identity as revealed in Study 1 provides ample groundwork to introduce and confirm various factors implicated in SGD within sports. To be specific, our findings elucidate the conditions by which fans engage in derogation tactics directed toward athletes of their ingroup. Although we have provided data to suggest performance as a factor influencing such ingroup evaluations, further study into the broader spectrum of group dynamics is necessary to make more substantial conclusions regarding the effects of performance on outcomes related to competence and identity threat. In addition, other potential consequences must be considered in fan behavior. Given that fans may utilize performance as an impetus for other following and supportive behaviors (Matsuoka et al., 2003; Sloan, 1989), we must consider how not only evaluative judgments and social identity elements are affected, but also how consumptive behaviors may be influenced.

In fact, some interesting avenues for potential investigation may lie within the purchase decisions of sports fans and intentions related to other outlets of communication (e.g., social media). Nevertheless, the lack of group manipulation must be addressed in order to further our suppositions into how group relations constructs may be applied in sports contexts. Accordingly, we seek to remedy this issue and other ecological concerns in Study 2. In doing so, we intend to utilize an empirical

manipulation of the ingroup and outgroup in addition to employing a credible source for the report on a target athlete in our presentation of stimuli.

CHAPTER III

Study 2

The Black Sheep Effect in Sports

Introduction

As Study 1 demonstrated, SGD plays a large role in how individuals perceive threats toward their identities as members of a sports fan base. In addition, results from our first experiment illustrate that fan group dynamics also influence how individuals go about evaluating other ingroup members (i.e., in this case, players). However, one pertinent issue that must be addressed is how both normative and deviant individuals of the ingroup may be evaluated in comparison to those of the outgroup. Although the principles of SGD propose that normative behavior directs the evaluations of various group members, there may be an underlying derogatory process within fans that acts as a defense mechanism. That is, fans may be intrinsically motivated to uphold the ingroup when normative behaviors are observed, while simultaneously possessing an inclination to less favorably evaluate the outgroup.

As SIT has described, ingroup favoritism may simply transpire as a means to preserve the social identity. However, group members may perceive deviations from normative behaviors (e.g., high performance) by fellow ingroup members as an even greater threat to their social identities. As such, individuals may display a proclivity to denigrate deviant ingroup members to a higher degree than even similar behaving

outgroup members due to this increased threat. Although traditional research in SGD has found evidence for ingroup biases, irrespective of divergences from group norms (Marques et al., 1998a), there may exist a purpose to preserve the social identity through such increased ingroup derogation. Specifically, a corresponding process that may relate to SGD is the *black sheep effect*.

Theoretical Background

The Black Sheep Effect

The idiom of being a "black sheep" within a group has its roots in the genetic traits of sheep. Some of these animals have a mutation in their wool color and exhibit a black coat rather than a white one, due to a recessive gene (Brooker & Dolling, 1965). Simply put, these sheep often stand out and are seen as less desirable for prospective buyers. In connection to group settings, society as a whole tends to refer to black sheep with similar, negative connotations, signaling that such individuals are not valued members of the group (i.e., individuals may be perceived as outcasts or pariahs). In social psychology and group dynamics literature, the aptly termed, *black sheep effect* (BSE) has been defined as the tendency for individuals to actively judge deviant ingroup members more harshly than similar behaving outgroup members (Marques, Yzerbyt, & Leyens 1988).

Seminal work regarding the BSE has provided robust evidence of its presence within a variety of group situations. Classical work by Marques et al. (1988) offered preliminary evidence of the BSE and an extension to the work of biases in SIT (Tajfel, 1982), specifically within the framework of ingroup favoritism. Through a series of three main studies, Marques and colleagues showed how the likeability of targets could

influence trait evaluations. They found that group members tended to rate likeable ingroup members more positively on various traits compared to similar outgroup members, in the manner of ingroup favoritism. However, the BSE was exhibited through the evaluations of unlikeable ingroup members. Their results indicated that participants rated these unlikeable ingroup members more harshly than comparable outgroup members. Marques et al. provided the groundwork of the BSE within group situations and accordingly, later research has built off these notions in the application to other types of coalitional scenarios.

Subsequent work by Marques and Yzerbyt (1988) and Marques and Paez (1994) has provided further evidence to sustain the BSE, demonstrating how the phenomenon operates to preserve an individual's self-identity. More recent research has suggested that the BSE can be influenced by various factors, such as group identification and member expectations (Biernat, Vescio, & Billings, 1999) as well as a *similarity-leniency effect* (i.e., when parties perceive a sense of resemblance, there may be greater tolerance for deviant actions; Taylor & Hosch, 2004). As identified by Biernat et al., expectancies can affect social judgments of group members and influence how group members go about evaluating others. Accordingly, these researchers provided a bridge between the BSE and *expectancy violation theory* (Jussim, Coleman, & Lerch, 1987), which posits that evaluations of group members tend to become more polarized based on the infringement of expected norms and behaviors.

Biernat and colleagues (1999) demonstrated that expectancy violations may work to precipitate the BSE. Through an experiment involving racial partners in a simple board game (i.e., Taboo), they found that White subjects, particularly subjects with

higher degrees of group identification, were inclined to harshly judge fellow group members when performance standards were violated. This finding suggests that the extent to which the individual feels connected to the group can contribute to the level of perceived threat toward group norms and standards. Furthermore, Biernat et al. provided evidence to support both the BSE in a performance context and a form of the identity moderation hypothesis, as also noted in SGD (Abrams et al., 2003). Accordingly, extant research has illustrated the relationship of group identification and the BSE in a myriad of scenarios, ranging from forgiveness of confessors (Viki, Abrams, & Winchester, 2013) to judgments of abortion (Begue, 2001). In relation, one very relevant area that the BSE may be linked to is sports, given the varying levels of support and group identification in fans.

Ingroup Extremity within Sports Contexts

Prior work on the BSE in sports has primarily employed off-the-field factors, such as criminal behaviors, in assessing fans' derogation strategies. Although research on the BSE in sports situations is scarce, a few notable studies have found conflicting evidence for the construct. Previous research by Dietz-Uhler et al. (2002) examined how fan perceptions could be affected by criminal behavior by an athlete. Participants in their study read a scenario describing a fictional football player named Mike, in which subjects were to imagine that he was either on the participant's favorite team (i.e., the perceived ingroup) or the rival team (i.e., an outgroup). The vignette illustrated that the player had been arrested for the suspicion of driving under the influence of alcohol. Dietz-Uhler et al. measured the player's likeability, the participant's perceptions of

various traits (e.g., intelligence, goodness, sincerity), and how strongly they identified with the target athlete's team, although this was measured using only two, novel items.

Results from Dietz-Uhler et al.'s (2002) study provided evidence against the BSE, thereby supporting the presence of an ingroup bias in fans. Specifically, participants rated the target player higher on evaluative traits and likeability when the athlete was described as an ingroup member who engaged in criminal behavior in comparison to when he was a member of the rival team. Although Dietz-Uhler et al. attributed this effect to a preservation of self-identity, it may also be the case that the rival team may have been exceedingly salient, as was also the case in a study of negative behaviors by athletes conducted by Wann et al. (2006). Nevertheless, Dietz-Uhler et al. did not directly measure the participant's level of team identification or fluctuations in this construct using established measures. Thus, it could be assumed that participants may not have been highly identified with the team, as also noted by Fink, Parker, Brett, and Higgins (2009).

Additional research by Fink et al. (2009) returned to the examination of the BSE in sports. The authors investigated how devious actions by an athlete could affect team identification. Fink and colleagues utilized a newspaper article detailing the criminal actions of a star quarterback for the target university. The main manipulated factor in that study was leadership response, in which the article described that the athletic administrators of the target university allocated either severe or light punishment to the deviant athlete. Participants provided responses to a team identification scale, prior to and three weeks after the experiment. The authors found that team identification level wavered based on the leadership response of the athletic administrators. Specifically,

they were able to provide evidence for the BSE in a passive context, where fans lowered identification with the team when the team was slow to punish the criminal behavior by an ingroup athlete. In this case, however, membership (i.e., player) status did not appear to have an effect on this relationship. Furthermore, a measure of active derogation or trait evaluation was not present. Nevertheless, this finding of the BSE in a sports context provides confirmation of its underlying potential in fans.

Sports Consumption through Purchase

A vast array of the sport management literature has examined how sports fans go about consuming various products related to their favorite sports, teams, and athletes. Quite frequently, research in this area has investigated intentions to purchase various team-related or sponsored products. In terms of these consumer behaviors, Ngan and colleagues (2011) have shown that team performance can significantly influence sport fan consumers' intention to purchase a sponsor's product. In addition, team identification has been found to moderate this relationship in the presence of a star player on a high-performing team, wherein more highly identified fans may be more likely to express an intention to purchase such products (Ngan et al., 2011). Although there has been an ample amount of support for the effects of identification and performance in the context of various purchase behaviors by fans involving both sponsors and teams themselves (Ahn, Suh, Lee, & Pedersen, 2012; Koernig & Boyd, 2009; Kwak, Kwon, & Lim, 2015; McClung & Rynarzewska, 2015; Pitts & Slattery, 2004), this segment of research has not inspected how other theoretical frameworks, such as SGD or the BSE, may affect these activities.

Accordingly, we propose that ideologies presented in social psychology and group dynamics research offer a unique perspective on such consumer behaviors. In fact, an investigation conducted by Hermann, Kacha, and Derbaix (2016) may provide a foundation for conjoining psychological theory and sport management. Hermann and colleagues surveyed the role of consumer affiliation in sports sponsorship using the theoretical framework of SIT. Overall, they were able to demonstrate how consumer identification with a sport entity (i.e., the group of interest) could impact behavioral intentions directed toward affiliated sponsors. In sum, Hermann et al. verified the place of SIT in sports marketing research to how associations with the ingroup could generate favorable attitudes toward an external unit, spurring an ingroup inclusion effect that could also enhance awareness toward that external group. Considering this, although research associating sports marketing and social group relations literature is limited, findings from the body of literature on sports sponsorship as well as the BSE offer potential directions for study on this subject.

Social Media Behaviors

Today, social media has become the fundamental platform by which individuals communicate and make judgments about others. For example, before, during, and after various sporting events, fans often post images and comments that may reflect how their favorite teams will perform, are performing, and have performed. Most commonly, these posts by fans may contain messages that either support (i.e., in the manner of *basking in reflected glory* [BIRGing; Cialdini, Borden, Thorne, Walker, Freeman, & Sloan, 1976] or *basking in spite of reflected failure* [BIRFing; Campbell, Aiken, & Kent, 2004]) or reject (i.e., *cutting off reflected failure* [CORFing; Snyder, Lassegard, & Ford,

1986] or *cutting off reflected success* [CORSing; Campbell et al., 2004]) the team and/or athlete. However, what may distinguish these celebratory or dissociative forms of fan behavior is the matter of active derogation of the team or athlete. Past work on sports fans has illustrated a potential tendency to disassociate from unsuccessful teams and athletes (Aiken, Campbell, & Park, 2005; Wann & Branscombe, 1990), but this line of research has not fully considered how individuals go about directly evaluating their favorite teams and athletes. Fittingly, social media may present a stage in which fans can reflect various group behaviors and member judgments. Although we propose the processes of SGD and BSE as potential rationalizations of such behavior, we do not discount the value of other fan behavior constructs in providing groundwork by which to carry out examinations of social media behaviors.

For example, research by Phua, Pan, and Chen (2015) showed that social media usage can mediate the effects of team performance and positioning on fan loyalty, brand attitudes, and trust. Delving further into this matter, Mudrick, Miller, and Atkin (2016) examined how intentions to BIRG and CORF may be reflected on social media sites and how they could also serve as indicators of social identity. They have noted that fans may utilize social media to maintain behavioral activities related to sports consumption in the presence of victory, or situations involving BIRGing. In spite of this, Mudrick et al. did not find a similar effect for CORFing through social media. This result may be due to the dissociative nature of the construct itself, wherein individuals would rather withhold comments out of shame as opposed to providing active derogation as a means to safeguard their social identities. These fan behavior concepts may be suitable

in some scenarios. That said, constructs from group relations may be more relevant in describing behaviors on social media in the present context.

The Current Investigation

As a whole, the body of literature on ingroup biases, the BSE, and team identification outcomes has predominantly found mixed support for the presence of ingroup derogation. Although Study 1 has provided initial evidence for ingroup vilification and past research in social psychology has found adequate support for the phenomenon, findings in the application into sports have been multifarious. As such, in the manner of Biernat et al. (1999) and Wann et al. (2006), we seek to investigate the BSE using performance-related expectancy violations in game situations. Furthermore, there may lie several issues with the methodology of past sports research, specifically concerning the ecological validity and manipulation of stimuli.

Case in point, Dietz-Uhler et al. (2002) may have provided an overtly fictitious situation of an athlete by merely having subjects imagine that the player was on their favorite team or another team. Alternatively, Fink et al. (2009) did not measure trait evaluations or manipulate group membership in the manner of traditional group dynamics studies, which are some of the core features of both SGD and the BSE. To maintain consistency with classic research in these areas, we will account for each of these factors in the current study by using the appropriate group manipulations, ecologically valid articles, and measurement of traits. In addition, from a consumer and marketing research standpoint, we will incorporate an assessment of attitudes toward a target athlete and include an appraisal of purchase intentions for associated products. Given the advent of social media and recurrent usage in today's society, we will also

measure how fans report these behavioral manifestations to communicate about the athlete.

Intentions and Expected Outcomes

Study 2 was conducted to examine how the manipulation of group membership could give rise to the BSE in fans. Using an identical performance situation and target athlete scenario as in Study 1, we intend to illustrate how fans perceive potential members of their favorite team and an outgroup team by gauging both trait evaluations and constructs involving identity threat, social media intentions, and sports consumption behaviors (e.g., purchase intent of a player-related item; see Figure 6 for an outline of Study 2). Our hypotheses are founded upon past literature in both classic examinations of the BSE (Marques et al., 1988; Marques & Paez, 1994; Marques & Yzerbyt, 1988) along with supporting evidence for its presence in sports settings (Fink et al., 2009).

In our second study, we predict similar outcomes regarding derogation of ingroup members. However, we also posit that fans will feel a greater sense of threat and will have lower intentions to follow the athlete through social media and purchase items when the athlete originates from the outgroup and in the presence of performance violations. We expect that this effect will be more polarized for the low-performing ingroup athlete compared to that of the low-performing outgroup one, with team identification moderating this relationship. As such, we propose the following hypotheses for Study 2:

H_{2a}: When exposed to performance violations and outgroup athletes, fans will experience higher levels of threat, have less favorable attitudes toward the

athlete, will display weaker social media intentions, and express lower purchase intentions for individual-related products (e.g., a player's jersey).

H_{2b}: Fans will more critically evaluate ingroup athletes who violate performance expectations, compared to similar outgroup athletes (i.e., confirmation of the BSE; see Figure 7).

H_{2c}: Team identification will moderate the relationship between group membership and performance expectations, wherein more highly identified fans will exhibit lower performance evaluations, attitudes toward the athlete, purchase intent, and social media intentions directed toward a low-performing ingroup athlete, in comparison to a similar outgroup athlete.

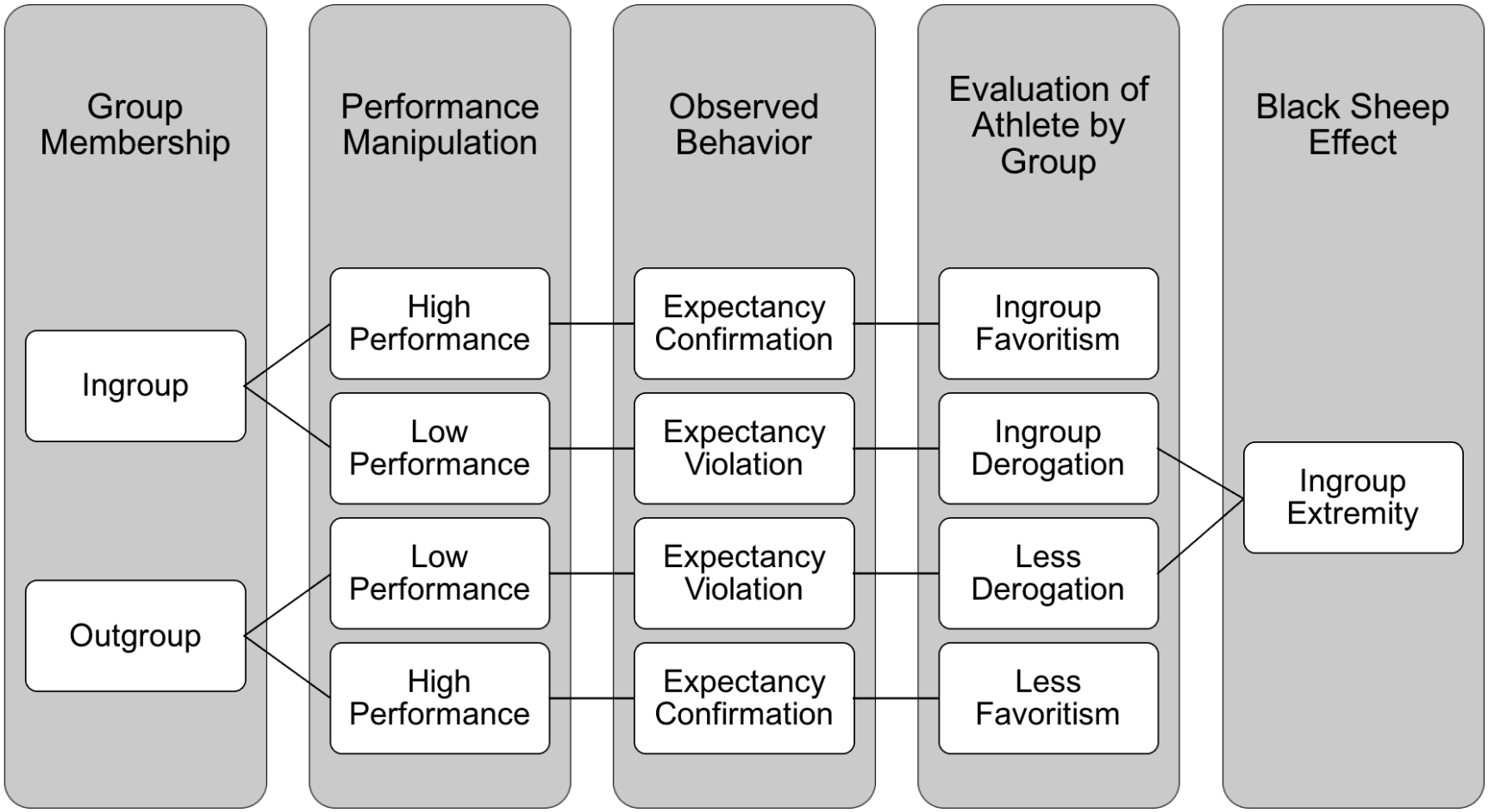


Figure 6. Structure of Study 2.

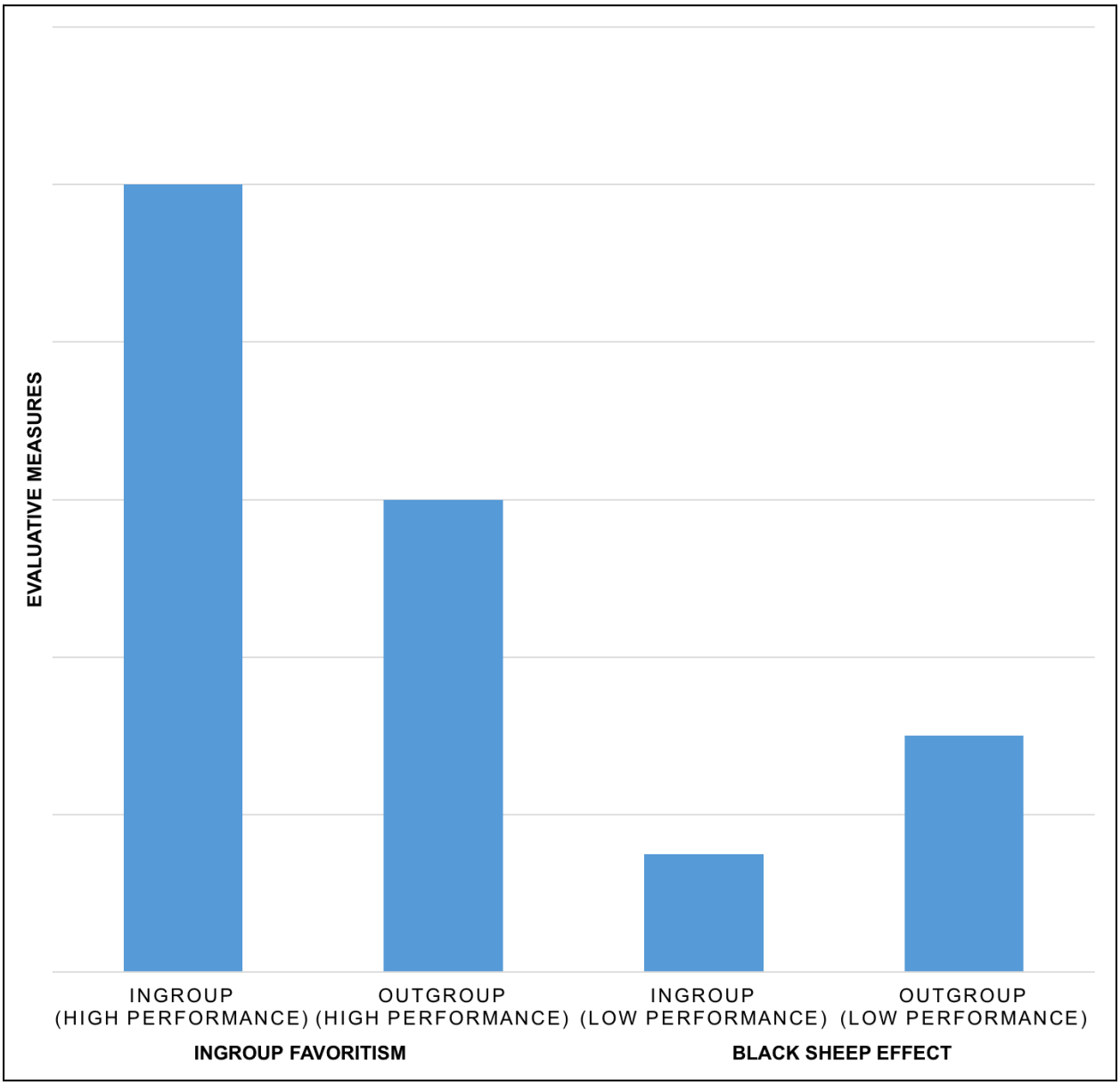


Figure 7. Expected manifestation of the black sheep effect in Study 2.

Method

Participants and Design

In Study 2, we utilized a 2 (*expectancy*: confirmation [high performance], violation [low performance]) × 2 (*group membership*: ingroup, outgroup) between-subjects design. We used G*Power (Faul et al., 2007) to determine the number of participants needed to satisfy previously outlined power requirements ($1 - \beta = .80$, $\alpha = .05$, ES = .25). In order to do so, we required approximately 180 subjects. Altogether, 253 individuals provided data for this experiment. Due to attrition and incomplete data, the responses of 212 participants (152 male, 60 female; $M_{age} = 26.19$, $SD_{age} = 8.76$) recruited from a large Midwestern university and Amazon MTurk were used in the analyses. University students recruited for our study were offered extra credit, whereas MTurk workers were paid $0.50 for their participation. However, we limited our sample to a more homogenous group (i.e., fans of the target university) for an effective experimental manipulation. Participants were prescreened prior to the study to ensure they were fans of the University of Michigan's football team. We did not permit participants who indicated otherwise to participate. Table 8 provides all the demographic characteristics for our sample.

Table 8

Demographic Characteristics for Study 2 Sample

Characteristic	*n*	%
Gender		
Male	152	71.7
Female	60	28.3
Age		
18-29	157	74.1
30-39	38	17.9
40-49	10	4.7
50-59	5	2.4
60-69	2	0.9
Ethnicity		0.0
Asian American/Pacific Islander	13	6.1
Black/African American	13	6.1
Caucasian/White	175	82.5
Hispanic/Latin American	6	2.8
Native American/America Indian	1	0.5
Multiracial	4	1.9
Highest Level of Education		
Some high school, no diploma	1	0.5
High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent	11	5.2
Some college credit, no degree	111	52.4
Associate's degree	11	5.2
Bachelor's degree	64	30.2
Master's degree	11	5.2
Professional degree	2	0.9
Doctorate degree	1	0.5
State of Residence		
Alabama	1	0.5
Arizona	6	2.8
Arkansas	1	0.5
California	14	6.6
Colorado	1	0.5
Connecticut	3	1.4
Florida	5	2.4
Illinois	8	3.8
Indiana	1	0.5
Louisiana	1	0.5
Maryland	5	2.4
Massachusetts	4	1.9
Michigan	93	43.9
Minnesota	4	1.9
Missouri	2	0.9
Nebraska	1	0.5
Nevada	1	0.5
New Jersey	9	4.2
New York	19	9.0
North Carolina	3	1.4
Ohio	4	1.9
Oregon	2	0.9
Pennsylvania	8	3.8
Texas	5	2.4
Utah	1	0.5
Virginia	3	1.4
Washington	1	0.5
West Virginia	1	0.5
Wisconsin	2	0.9
Declined to respond	3	1.4

Procedure

Our second experiment was conducted online through Qualtrics Survey Software. Participants first indicated if they were fans of the target university and if they were above the age of 18. If subjects met these criteria, they viewed the consent form. Following subjects' agreement to participate, they completed a team identification measure (SSIS; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Participants were then randomly assigned to one of the two groups: the ingroup or outgroup scenarios. As in Study 1, we posed a similar scenario of a fictitious recruit committing to a university and displayed the identical content of the article and statistics. However, based on our assessment in Study 1, we manipulated the format of the article to emulate the highest-rated credible sports and college football source (i.e., ESPN). In addition, we altered the target athlete's name from James Wendell to Derek Hudson. Lastly, we pre-selected a university to serve as the outgroup team. We chose to utilize Old Dominion University as the outgroup, because the team is an out of conference school and has never competed against the target university, thus eliminating any artifacts due to prior exposure. Ingroup athlete membership involved commitment to the respondents' university and outgroup membership was characterized by the player signing on with the outgroup university.

Participants were then randomly assigned to one of our two expectancy conditions, either the expectancy confirmation or violation conditions, being presented a similar report and statistics as in Study 1 (see Appendix N). Following this, participants completed a randomized series of dependent measures directed toward the target athlete. Participants completed a measure of evaluative traits, competence, and identity

threat (as used in Study 1), social media intentions (eWOM; Cheung & Lee, 2012 and a generated social media measure), and attitudes towards the athlete (A_{ath}; Mackenzie & Lutz, 1989). Participants were then shown the jersey of the player, omitting any brand indicators to control for preference effects (Khajehzadeh, Oppewal, & Tojib, 2014), and were asked about purchase intent (Spears & Singh, 2004; Yi, 1990). As a manipulation check, participants in both the ingroup and outgroup conditions indicated the extent to which Old Dominion University was perceived as an outgroup to the target university. Subsequently, participants completed a demographic questionnaire (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity; social media usage [see Table 9]; see Appendix O) and were then thanked for their participation.

Table 9

Social Media Usage for Study 2 Sample

Social Media Platform	*n*	%
Facebook	194	91.5
Instagram	137	64.6
Pinterest	3	1.4
Snapchat	125	59.0
Twitter	137	64.6
Vine	27	12.7
YouTube	154	72.6
LinkedIn	1	0.5
WeChat	1	0.5
YikYak	2	0.9
Tumblr	1	0.5
Multiple Platforms	192	90.6

Measures

Initial assessments. We captured a measure of team identification (SSIS; Wann & Branscombe, 1993), performance traits (Davidson & Lickona, 2007; Seider et al., 2012), competence (CBT; Kim et al., 2004), and identity threat (Murtagh et al.'s, 2012 SIT along with items from Dietz-Uhler et al., 2002) using similar scales as employed in Study 1, adapted to the target university and athlete. Likewise, we also measured performance ratings, group membership, image congruence (OSIO; Schubert & Otten, 2002), and outgroup perceptions in order to confirm the effectiveness of our experimental manipulations. Items were treated identically as in our first experiment for data analysis.

Attitudes toward the athlete (A_{ath}). We measured attitudes toward the athlete (A_{ath}) using a modified measure identified in prior marketing literature (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989). Participants provided their overall attitudes toward the target athlete using a 7-point semantic differential scale. We employed three items with the following anchors: *bad–good*, *unfavorable–favorable*, and *negative–positive*. Items were averaged to create a global score of overall attitudes. Higher scores indicated more positive attitudes toward the athlete, whereas lower scores reflected negative attitudes. These items are listed in Appendix P.

Electronic word of mouth. The tendency to share information about the target athlete on social media platforms was assessed using an adapted version of Cheung and Lee's (2012) Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM) scale (see Appendix Q). The eWOM is a 3-item measure using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*) to evaluate the likelihood of people engaging in social media activity to

comment upon specific entities. We modified this measure to focus on the target athlete being the primary discussion point on various social media networks. An example item taken from this measure reads: “I will try to share my opinions of Derek Hudson to other fans in a more effective way on social media (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, etc.) and/or sports sites and blogs.” We averaged responses across items to create a single eWOM score for data analysis.

***General social media intentions*.** We also evaluated the likelihood of individuals engaging in social media activity using four other items created by the researchers. Participants indicated the likelihood of using social media by using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *very unlikely* to 7 = *very likely*). For instance, an example item is: “I would follow Derek Hudson on Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, YouTube, Vine, Snapchat, or on other social media sites.” Scores on this measure were averaged to create a compound indicator of social media intentions. Higher scores on these measures were suggestive of greater intentions to engage in social media activity to comment upon or follow the target athlete, whereas lower scores indicated reduced intentions. Items for our generated social media measure are provided in Appendix R.

Purchase intent. We assessed purchase intent for a target athlete-related item (i.e., a player jersey; see Appendix S) using a modified purchase intent measure adapted from Yi (1990) and Spears and Singh (2004). We used a 10-point semantic differential scale with three main response items to three measures, *very unlikely–very likely*, *very low purchase interest–very high purchase interest*, and *definitely would not buy it–definitely would buy it*. Due to the National Collegiate Athletic Association’s (NCAA) policy prohibiting the sale of jerseys directly carrying an athlete’s name (Kirk,

2014), items were directed toward the purchase of a jersey bearing the uniform number of the player. One example item to evaluate purchase interest read: “How would you describe your interest in purchasing a jersey with the number 14 (Derek Hudson’s number)?” Items on this measure were averaged to create a single score of purchase intent, with higher scores indicative of greater purchase likelihood and lower ones expressing weaker intentions. The revised measure for purchase intent is itemized in Appendix T.

Results

Reliability Assessment

Primarily, we evaluated the internal consistency of each our dependent measures using Cronbach’s alpha coefficient. The results of our reliability analyses along with descriptive statistics are displayed in Table 10. Overall, each of our outcome measures were internally consistent, surpassing the established threshold of $\alpha = .70$ for adequate reliability (Nunnally, 1970).

Table 10

Reliability Coefficients and Descriptive Statistics for Measures Used in Study 2

Scale	*Items*	*M*	*SD*	*α*
Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS)	7	5.67	0.84	.85
Competence-Based Trust (CBT)	4	5.00	1.46	.95
Trait Evaluation (TE)	7	4.71	1.27	.94
Self-Identity Threat (SIT)	4	2.42	1.42	.94
Identity Threat (IT)	4	2.97	1.45	.84
Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM)	3	2.86	1.65	.94
Attitudes toward the Athlete (A_{ath})	3	6.23	2.23	.97
Social Media Intentions (SMI)	4	3.35	1.55	.87
Purchase Intentions (PI)	3	3.74	2.28	.87

Manipulation Checks

In warranting the effective experimental manipulation of our variables, we assessed the function of our stimuli utilizing a series of ANOVAs comparing performance ratings, image congruence, group membership, and evaluations of the target outgroup. Overall, our manipulation of performance was successful. Participants in the expectancy violation condition (n = 105; M_{EV} = 1.70, SD_{EV} = 0.72) provided significantly lower ratings of performance, $F(1, 210) = 694.28$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .77$, than did those in the confirmation condition (n = 107; M_{EC} = 4.25, SD_{EC} = 0.69). Our comparison of the differences in perceived group membership violated the assumption of homogeneity of variance. Accordingly, we corrected this using the Welch test. Our adjusted ANOVA was significant, $F(1, 195.46) = 11.74$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .05$, as subjects in the confirmation condition (M_{EC} = 0.06, SD_{EC} = 1.08) provided higher differential scores than did those in the violation condition (M_{EV} = -0.53, SD_{EV} = 1.40).

In addition, significant differences of image congruence also emerged, $F(1, 210) = 11.66$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .05$, in which participants exposed to violations (M_{EV} = -0.64, SD_{EV} = 1.19) of performance expectancies by the target athlete provided lower ratings than did those presented information that confirmed expectations (M_{EC} = -0.01, SD_{EC} = 1.48). Our empirical use of Old Dominion University as an outgroup was supported by the relatively high ratings (M = 5.42, SD = 1.47) of the perceived distance of the outgroup from the target university (i.e., the University of Michigan). A one-sample t-test using the midpoint of 4 of the 7-point scale verified this notion, as participants provided outgroup ratings significantly different from the midpoint, $t(211) = 14.10$, $p < .001$, d = 1.94. In addition, there were no significant differences, $F(1, 210) = 0.04$, $p = .85$, η^2 =

.00, between the expectancy confirmation (M_{EC} = 5.44, SD_{EC} = 1.43) and violation (M_{EV} = 5.40, SD_{EV} = 1.51) conditions on this measure, connoting successful implementation of the outgroup between conditions.

Initial Analyses

Prior to the tests of our hypotheses, we first examined the correlations between each of the dependent measures using Pearson's correlation coefficient. Table 11 provides a summary of the results of our correlation analyses. Our results from these tests revealed that competence-based trust and trait evaluation were significantly and positively related with each other. In addition, both these outcomes were also positively, significantly associated with attitudes toward the athlete, social media intentions, and purchase intentions. Contrariwise, both these evaluative measures were negatively, significantly correlated with self-identity threat and identity threat. Thus, we can infer that participants who tended to rate the athlete more positively on performance-based outcomes perceived less threat to their fan identity, had more positive global opinions of the athlete, wanted to share more information about the athlete on social media, and tended to have higher intentions to purchase athlete-related products (e.g., the player's jersey).

These results were sustained by the positive correlations between attitudes toward the athlete with electronic word of mouth, social media, and purchase intentions as well as the negative association with identity threat. One striking finding from our correlation assessment was the positive association between threat and social media outcomes. Both self-identity threat and identity threat were positively and significantly correlated with electronic word of mouth. Although only self-identity threat was

significantly, positively correlated with social media intentions, these results indicate that when subjects felt more threatened by an athlete's performance, they also had a greater inclination to share information on various social media platforms. Ultimately, social media intentions and electronic word of mouth were positively correlated with purchase intent.

Table 11

Correlations Between Outcome Measures

Outcome	*CBT*	*TE*	*SIT*	*IT*	*eWOM*	A_{ath}	*SMI*
Competence Based Trust (CBT)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Trait Evaluation (TE)	.81***	-	-	-	-	-	-
Self-Identity Threat (SIT)	-.17*	-.14*	-	-	-	-	-
Identity Threat (IT)	-.43***	-.35***	.55***	-	-	-	-
Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM)	.06	.08	.35***	.21**	-	-	-
Attitudes toward the Athlete (A_{ath})	.54***	.54***	-.09	-.46***	.24**	-	-
Social Media Intentions (SMI)	.20**	.22**	.37***	.12†	.64***	.37***	-
Purchase Intentions (PI)	.37***	.35***	.12†	-.21**	.37***	.48***	.40***

Note. $N = 212$. $^{\dagger}p < .10$. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$.

Hypothesis Testing

Threat, social media, and consumption. The effects of performance violations and group membership on threat, social media intentions, attitudes toward the athlete, and purchase intent were examined through a series of one-way ANOVAs. The results

of our comparisons are displayed in Table 12. Although self-identity threat and electronic word of mouth did not appear to be affected by the expectancy condition, identity threat, social media intentions, attitudes toward the athlete, and purchase intent were significantly influenced by this manipulation. Simply, participants who were exposed to an expectancy confirmation, or high performance by the athlete, tended to exhibit greater intentions to utilize social media, had more positive attitudes toward the athlete, and displayed a greater willingness to purchase an item related to the player (i.e., a jersey), all while perceiving less threat toward their identities as fans. In addition, our results also indicated that participants experienced significantly greater self-identity threat, reported more social media intentions and increased electronic word of mouth, and provided more favorable attitudes toward the athlete for the ingroup athlete in comparison to an outgroup one. In summary, our findings provided partial evidence to support H_{2a}.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics and Statistical Comparisons Between Each Manipulated Condition

	Expectancy						*Group Membership*					
	Expectancy Confirmation		Expectancy Violation				Ingroup		Outgroup			
Outcome	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*d*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*F*	*d*
Self-Identity Threat (SIT)	2.42	1.50	2.42	1.34	0.00	0.00	2.63	1.46	2.20	1.37	4.83*	0.30
Identity Threat (IT)	2.70	1.39	3.25	1.45	7.83**	-0.39	3.06	1.53	2.87	1.35	0.97	0.13
Social Media Intentions (SMI)	3.60	1.57	3.10	1.50	5.27*	0.33	3.72	1.45	2.95	1.57	13.75***	0.51
Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM)	3.04	1.74	2.68	1.54	2.47^{Ω}	0.22	3.12	1.72	2.58	1.54	5.77*	0.33
Attitudes toward the Athlete (A_{ath})	7.09	2.22	5.36	1.90	37.53^{Ω}***	0.84	6.60	2.31	5.84	2.09	6.28*	0.35
Purchase Intent (PI)	4.30	2.33	3.17	2.09	14.02***	0.51	4.01	2.32	3.45	2.20	3.25	0.25

Note. $^{\Omega}$Due to heterogeneity of variance, *F* is based on Welch's procedure. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

The black sheep effect. To test for the presence of the BSE (i.e., H_{2b}), we conducted a one-way ANOVA using the interaction term of group membership (ingroup, outgroup) and expectancy (confirmation [high performance], violation [low performance]) to test for differences in our performance-based outcomes (i.e., trait evaluation and competence-based trust). The omnibus ANOVA for trait evaluation was significant, $F(3, 208) = 51.26$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .43$. The violation of the homogeneity of variance assumption for competence-based trust called for an adjustment of the degrees of freedom. Using the Welch test, our omnibus ANOVA for this construct was also significant, $F(3, 113.71) = 56.19$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .45$. Accordingly, we tested for differences in trait evaluation and competence-based trust between the groups using Games-Howell test for post-hoc analysis. The Games-Howell test enables comparisons across groups with both unequal variances and unequal group sample sizes (Games, Keselman, & Rogan, 1981; Mukherjee & Jansen, 2015; Ramsey & Ramsey, 2009). We also utilized 10,000 bias-corrected accelerated (BCa) bootstrap samples to estimate the 95% confidence interval. The results of our comparisons are displayed in Tables 13 and 14.

Taken together, our pairwise comparisons revealed that for both these measures of performance evaluations, an ingroup bias did not persist due to the nonsignificant difference between ratings of a high-performing ingroup athlete and similar outgroup athlete. However, our results did reveal that for low-performing ingroup athletes, participants derogated the ingroup member to the same degree as the outgroup athlete violating similar expectancies. Specifically, the predicted trend in trait evaluations, as originally displayed in Figure 7, was nearly reproduced in the current study. As

illustrated by Figure 8, participants generally rated the high-performing ingroup athlete slightly more favorably than the high-performing outgroup athlete, while also rating the violating ingroup athlete lower on performance traits than the comparable outgroup member, although these comparisons were not statistically significant. Thus, although our results did not entirely support the features of ingroup bias and harsher ingroup derogation of the BSE, we did find that participants had a tendency to equally denigrate low-performing ingroup and outgroup athletes, thereby marginally validating H_{2b}.

Table 13

Games-Howell Post-Hoc Tests for Trait Evaluation

Condition	1		2		3	
	MD	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*
1. Ingroup – Expectancy Confirmation	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Ingroup – Expectancy Violation	1.84***	[1.45, 2.22]	-	-	-	-
3. Outgroup – Expectancy Confirmation	0.23	[-0.14, 0.60]	-1.61***	[-1.95, 1.26]	-	-
4. Outgroup – Expectancy Violation	1.65***	[1.25, 2.04]	-0.19	[-0.55, 0.17]	1.42***	[1.07, 1.76]

Note. ***$p < .001$.

Table 14

Games-Howell Post-Hoc Tests for Competence-Based Trust

Condition	1		2		3	
	MD	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*
1. Ingroup – Expectancy Confirmation	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Ingroup – Expectancy Violation	2.22***	[1.82, 2.63]	-	-	-	-
3. Outgroup – Expectancy Confirmation	0.15	[-0.20, 0.50]	-2.07***	[-2.48, -1.66]	-	-
4. Outgroup – Expectancy Violation	1.77***	[1.35, 2.19]	-0.45	[-.92, 0.02]	1.62***	[1.20, 2.05]

Note. ***$p < .001$.

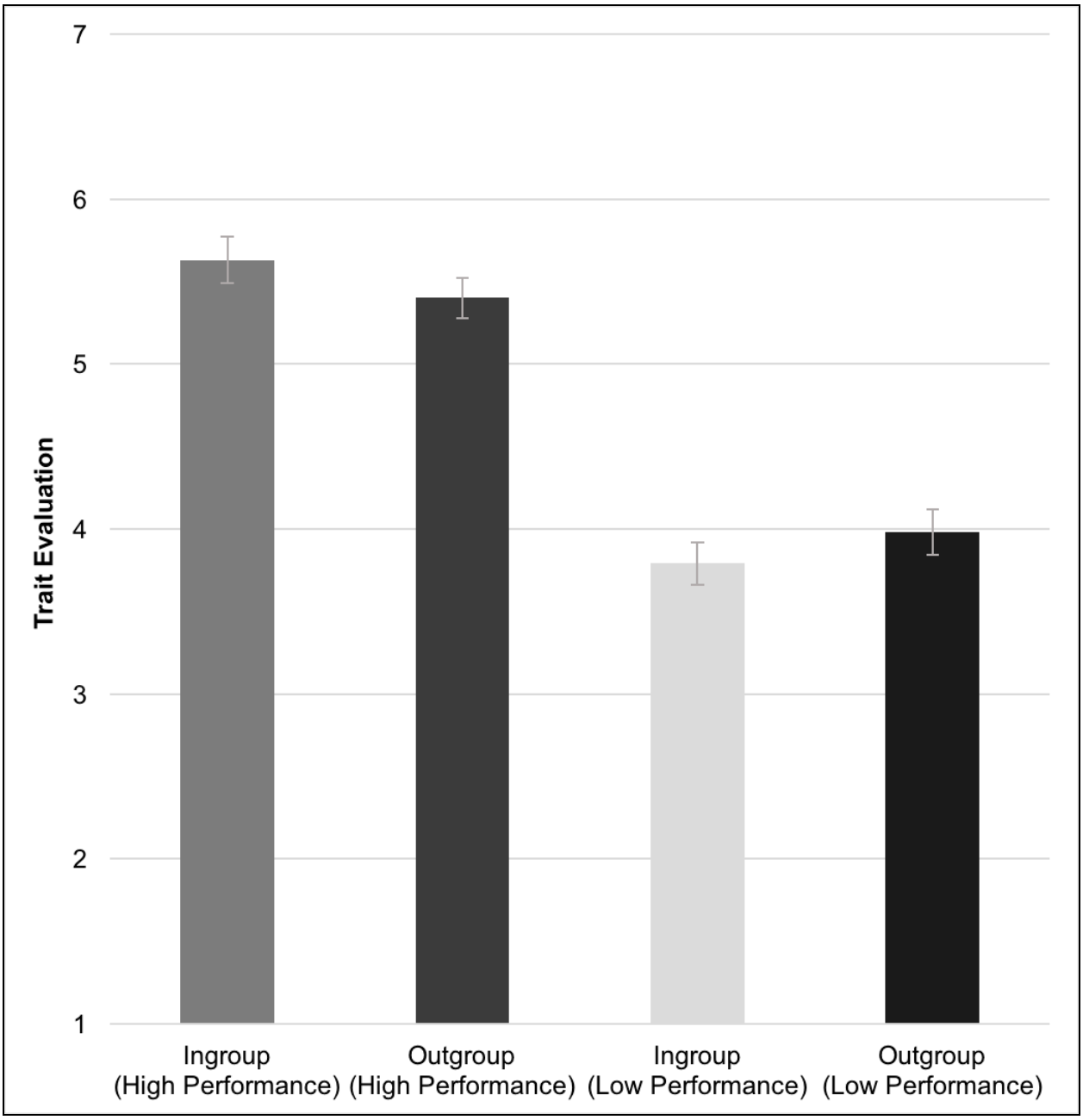


Figure 8. Mean performance trait evaluations of groups. Error bars denote standard errors.

Team identification as a moderator. The moderating effects of team identification on the manipulated conditions (i.e., expectancy and group membership) were tested using OLS regression procedures conducted through Hayes' (2012) SPSS PROCESS macro. All predictors were mean-centered prior to regression modeling.

Confidence intervals were estimated using BCa bootstrap sampling of 10,000 resamples. Table 15 presents the results of our analyses. As previously illustrated, the manipulated conditions significantly influenced trait evaluation and competence-based trust as well as electronic word of mouth, attitudes toward the athlete, social media intentions, and purchase intent. However, team identification only significantly affected self-identity threat, but did not affect any other outcomes (all *p* values > .05). In considering the moderating effects of team identification, it appeared that team identification significantly enhanced self-identity threat, electronic word of mouth, social media intentions, and purchase intent following exposure to our performance and group manipulations. Accordingly, we sought to further investigate these group differences.

Table 15

Moderation Analysis Results for Study 2

Outcome	Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*t*	*BCa 95% CI*
Trait Evaluation (TE)	Team Identification	.04	.10	0.23	[-.15, .24]
R^2 = .10	Condition	-.34***	.07	-4.56	[-.49, -.19]
	Team Identification × Condition	-.10	.09	-1.01	[-.27, .09]
Competence Based Trust (CBT)	Team Identification	.21†	.12	1.83	[-.02, .44]
R^2 = .08	Condition	-.33***	.09	-3.86	[-.51, -.16]
	Team Identification × Condition	-.04	.10	-0.35	[-.24, .17]
Self-Identity Threat (SIT)	Team Identification	-.43***	.11	-3.86	[-.65, -.21]
R^2 = .11	Condition	-.16†	.08	-1.95	[-.33, .001]
	Team Identification × Condition	-.24*	.10	-2.36	[-.43, -.04]
Identity Threat	Team Identification	-.18	.12	-1.57	[-.42, .05]
R^2 = .03	Condition	.03	.09	0.39	[-.14, .21]
	Team Identification × Condition	-.18†	.11	-1.72	[-.39, .03]
Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM)	Team Identification	-.17	.13	-1.33	[-.43, .08]
R^2 = .08	Condition	-.28**	.10	-2.85	[-.47, -.09]
	Team Identification × Condition	-.29*	.12	-2.47	[-.53, -.06]
Attitudes toward the Athlete (A_{ath})	Team Identification	.07	.17	0.43	[-.27, .42]
R^2 = .11	Condition	-.65***	.13	-4.97	[-.90, -.39]
	Team Identification × Condition	.01	.16	0.05	[-.30, .32]
Social Media Intentions (SMI)	Team Identification	-.01	.12	-0.05	[-.24, .23]
R^2 = .14	Condition	-.40***	.09	-4.51	[-.58, -.23]
	Team Identification × Condition	-.37***	.11	-3.47	[-.59, -.16]
Purchase Intent (PI)	Team Identification	-.13	.18	-0.69	[-.48, .23]
R^2 = .07	Condition	-.44**	.14	-3.28	[-.71, -.18]
	Team Identification × Condition	-.33*	.16	-2.04	[-.66, -.01]

Note. Unstandardized coefficients are provided. †$p < .10$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Post-hoc tests. In order to facilitate comparisons between groups, we dichotomized team identification using a median split procedure. Such techniques have been a commonplace in the team identification literature (End, Davis, Kretschmar, Campbell, Mueller, & Worthman, 2009; Lanter, 2011; Madrigal & Chen, 2008; Wann et al., 2006) as a means to simplify the construct from a continuous factor to a categorical one and thus, promote group comparisons. We conducted a one-way ANOVA using the interaction term of expectancy condition (confirmation, violation), group membership (ingroup, outgroup), and team identification (high, low) to test for general differences on our outcomes. Overall, the omnibus ANOVAs were significant for each dependent factor. Table 16 presents the results of these omnibus ANOVAs.

Table 16

Omnibus ANOVA Results of the Performance Expectancy, Group Membership, and Team Identification Interaction Term on the Outcome Measures

Outcome	*df1*	*df2*	*F*	η^2
Competence-Based Trust (CBT)$^{\Omega}$	7	84.85	30.64***	.48
Trait Evaluation (TE)	7	204	22.37***	.43
Self-Identity Threat (SIT)$^{\Omega}$	7	86.12	4.57***	.10
Identity Threat (IT)	7	204	7.12***	.20
Social Media Intentions (SMI)	7	204	4.29***	.13
Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM)$^{\Omega}$	7	86.50	3.93**	.08
Attitudes toward the Athlete (A_{ath})	7	204	6.98***	.19
Purchase Intent (PI)	7	204	3.54**	.11

Note. $^{\Omega}$Due to heterogeneity of variance, *F* is based on Welch's procedure. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

In conducting post-hoc analyses to identify significant differences between the groups, we utilized Games-Howell multiple comparison procedure to remedy unequal

variances and unequal sample sizes across groups. All confidence intervals were estimated with a BCa bootstrapping procedure using 10,000 resamples. Overall, our comparisons did not provide support for H_{2c} in the expected direction. Rather than producing more polarizing trait evaluations and competence ratings with respect to those exposed to violations by the ingroup athlete, team identification did not appear to heighten the BSE. In addition, our tests revealed that higher team identification did not spur ingroup favoritism as well. In fact, participants tended to rate the high-performing athlete as superior on performance traits than the low-performing athlete, regardless of group membership. Universally, ratings were dependent on expectancy condition, with team identification amplifying differences between participants exposed to violations and those presented expectancy confirmations. Tables 17, 18, 19, and 20 present the results of our post-hoc comparisons.

Table 17

Games-Howell Post-Hoc Tests for the Moderating Effect of Team Identification on Performance Evaluations

Outcome	Condition	1		2		3		4		5		6		7	
		MD	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*
Competence-Based Trust (CBT)	1. Low Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Confirmation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2. Low Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Violation	2.25***	[1.57, 2.88]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	3. Low Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Confirmation	0.26	[-0.31, 0.84]	-1.98***	[-2.63, -1.33]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	4. Low Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Violation	1.74***	[1.03, 2.43]	-0.51	[-1.27, 0.21]	1.47**	[0.76, 2.19]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	5. High Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Confirmation	-0.42	[-0.91, 0.06]	-2.66***	[-3.19, -2.17]	-0.68	[-1.18, -0.18]	-2.16***	[-2.78, -1.54]	-	-	-	-	-	-
	6. High Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Violation	1.80***	[1.19, 2.39]	-0.45	[-1.14, 0.18]	1.53***	[0.91, 2.14]	0.06	[-0.67, 0.79]	2.22***	[1.71, 2.76]	-	-	-	-
	7. High Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Confirmation	-0.35	[-0.82, 0.10]	-2.60***	[-3.15, -2.06]	-0.62	[-1.09, -0.17]	-2.09***	[-2.72, -1.47]	0.06	[-0.25, 0.38]	-2.15***	[-2.70, -1.61]	-	-
	8. High Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Violation	1.37**	[0.74, 1.97]	-0.88	[-1.59, -0.21]	1.10*	[0.45, 1.76]	-0.37	[-1.10, 0.35]	1.78***	[1.27, 2.32]	-0.43	[-1.10, 0.21]	1.72***	[1.21, 2.24]
Trait Evaluation (TE)	1. Low Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Confirmation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2. Low Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Violation	1.66***	[1.09, 2.28]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	3. Low Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Confirmation	0.15	[-0.43, 0.77]	-1.51***	[-2.10, -0.95]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	4. Low Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Violation	1.46**	[0.71, 2.14]	-0.20	[-0.83, 0.39]	1.31**	[0.72, 1.85]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	5. High Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Confirmation	-0.40	[-1.03, 0.23]	-2.06***	[-2.62, -1.50]	-0.55	[-1.10, -0.02]	-1.86***	[-2.51, -1.22]	-	-	-	-	-	-
	6. High Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Violation	1.59***	[1.00, 2.17]	-0.07	[-0.60, 0.46]	1.44***	[0.95, 1.94]	0.14	[-0.45, 0.75]	2.00***	[1.48, 2.48]	-	-	-	-
	7. High Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Confirmation	-0.10	[-0.66, 0.46]	-1.76***	[-2.24, -1.28]	-0.25	[-0.73, 0.19]	-1.56***	[-2.09, -0.96]	0.30	[-0.16, 0.72]	-1.69***	[-2.16, -1.25]	-	-
	8. High Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Violation	1.41***	[0.86, 2.00]	-0.25	[-0.78, 0.24]	1.26***	[0.81, 1.75]	-0.05	[-0.58, 0.49]	1.81***	[1.40, 2.22]	-0.18	[-0.62, 0.28]	1.51***	[1.11, 1.94]

Note. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 18

Games-Howell Post-Hoc Tests for the Moderating Effect of Team Identification on Identity Threat

Outcome	Condition	1		2		3		4		5		6		7	
		MD	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*
Self-Identity Threat (SIT)	1. Low Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Confirmation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2. Low Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Violation	-0.24	[-1.02, 0.51]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	3. Low Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Confirmation	-0.16	[-0.99, 0.65]	0.08	[-0.78, 0.88]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	4. Low Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Violation	0.08	[-0.64, 0.79]	0.32	[-0.43, 1.07]	0.24	[-0.57, 1.07]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	5. High Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Confirmation	0.37	[-0.43, 1.12]	0.60	[-0.30, 1.44]	0.53	[-0.35, 1.39]	0.29	[-0.61, 1.03]	-	-	-	-	-	-
	6. High Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Violation	0.09	[-0.71, 0.80]	0.33	[-0.39, 1.04]	0.25	[-0.52, 1.07]	0.01	[-0.71, 0.70]	-0.28	[-0.94, 0.44]	-	-	-	-
	7. High Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Confirmation	0.81	[0.10, 1.47]	1.04	[0.29, 1.72]	0.97	[0.16, 1.83]	0.73	[0.07, 1.41]	0.44	[-0.28, 1.19]	0.72	[0.02, 1.36]	-	-
	8. High Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Violation	1.15*	[0.41, 1.86]	1.39**	[0.68, 2.08]	1.31*	[0.62, 2.03]	1.07*	[0.44, 1.70]	0.79	[0.16, 1.49]	1.06*	[0.47, 1.67]	0.34	[-0.26, 1.00]
Identity Threat (IT)	1. Low Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Confirmation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2. Low Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Violation	-1.25*	[-1.96, -0.50]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	3. Low Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Confirmation	-0.88	[-1.57, -0.11]	0.37	[-0.36, 1.10]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	4. Low Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Violation	-0.64	[-1.42, 0.10]	0.61	[-0.12, 1.33]	0.24	[-0.50, 0.95]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	5. High Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Confirmation	0.32	[-0.40, 1.01]	1.57**	[0.88, 2.24]	1.20*	[0.55, 1.82]	0.96	[0.28, 1.61]	-	-	-	-	-	-
	6. High Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Violation	-1.38*	[-2.15, -0.62]	-0.13	[-0.82, 0.51]	-0.50	[-1.19, 0.13]	-0.74	[-1.52, 0.01]	-1.70***	[-2.33, -1.10]	-	-	-	-
	7. High Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Confirmation	-0.38	[-1.20, 0.40]	0.88	[0.10, 1.60]	0.51	[-0.23, 1.25]	0.27	[-0.55, 1.04]	-0.69	[-1.41, -0.04]	1.01	[0.23, 1.79]	-	-
	8. High Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Violation	0.36	[-.29, 1.00]	1.61	[0.95, 2.24]	1.24*	[0.64, 1.83]	1.00	[0.30, 1.70]	0.04	[-0.60, 0.64]	1.74***	[1.08, 2.43]	0.73	[0.08, 1.38]

Note. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table 19

Games-Howell Post-Hoc Tests for the Moderating Effect of Team Identification on Social Media Intentions

Outcome	Condition	1		2		3		4		5		6		7	
		MD	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*
Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM)	1. Low Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Confirmation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2. Low Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Violation	0.29	[-0.71, 1.24]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	3. Low Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Confirmation	0.49	[-0.45, 1.31]	0.20	[-0.59, 1.00]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	4. Low Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Violation	0.32	[-0.61, 1.22]	0.03	[-0.83, 0.87]	-0.17	[-1.06, 0.68]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	5. High Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Confirmation	0.14	[-0.83, 1.04]	-0.15	[-1.04, 0.71]	-0.34	[-1.30, 0.53]	-0.18	[-1.13, 0.76]	-	-	-	-	-	-
	6. High Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Violation	0.40	[-0.49, 1.24]	0.11	[-0.67, 0.84]	-0.09	[-0.89, 0.63]	0.08	[-0.73, 0.90]	0.26	[-0.60, 1.15]	-	-	-	-
	7. High Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Confirmation	0.57	[-0.42, 1.51]	0.28	[-0.64, 1.11]	0.08	[-0.80, 0.96]	0.25	[-0.71, 1.19]	0.43	[-0.57, 1.40]	0.17	[-0.74, 1.07]	-	-
	8. High Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Violation	1.59*	[0.73, 2.38]	1.30*	[0.60, 1.96]	1.10	[0.35, 1.83]	1.27*	[0.49, 2.02]	1.45*	[0.63, 2.29]	1.19*	[0.52, 1.88]	1.02	[0.30, 1.80]
Social Media Intentions (SMI)	1. Low Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Confirmation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2. Low Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Violation	0.12	[-0.68, 0.93]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	3. Low Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Confirmation	0.08	[-0.82, 1.02]	-0.03	[-0.80, 0.70]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	4. Low Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Violation	0.55	[-0.36, 1.50]	0.42	[-0.34, 1.22]	0.46	[-0.38, 1.27]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	5. High Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Confirmation	-0.44	[-1.40, 0.51]	-0.56	[-1.35, 0.15]	-0.53	[-1.29, 0.24]	-0.99	[-1.86, -0.08]	-	-	-	-	-	-
	6. High Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Violation	-0.08	[-0.90, 0.77]	-0.19	[-0.85, 0.44]	-0.16	[-0.85, 0.49]	-0.62	[-1.43, 0.18]	0.37	[-0.30, 1.01]	-	-	-	-
	7. High Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Confirmation	0.42	[-0.45, 1.31]	0.30	[-0.39, 0.94]	0.33	[-0.47, 1.09]	-0.13	[-0.97, 0.75]	0.86	[0.04, 1.58]	0.50	[-0.27, 1.24]	-	-
	8. High Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Violation	1.51*	[0.56, 2.45]	1.39**	[0.59, 2.13]	1.43	[0.59, 2.22]	0.96	[0.06, 1.84]	1.95***	[1.12, 2.71]	1.59***	[0.79, 2.30]	1.09	[0.29, 1.90]

Note. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table 20

Games-Howell Post-Hoc Tests for the Moderating Effect of Team Identification on Consumptive Measures

Outcome	Condition	1		2		3		4		5		6		7	
		MD	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*
Attitudes toward the Athlete (A_{ath})	1. Low Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Confirmation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2. Low Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Violation	2.44**	[1.39, 3.42]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	3. Low Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Confirmation	1.45	[0.42, 2.43]	-0.99	[-2.21, 0.17]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	4. Low Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Violation	2.73***	[1.78, 3.55]	0.29	[-0.81, 1.41]	1.28	[0.19, 2.54]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	5. High Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Confirmation	0.20	[-0.80, 1.29]	-2.23*	[-3.50, -0.91]	-1.25	[-2.44, 0.04]	-2.53*	[-3.66, -1.39]	-	-	-	-	-	-
	6. High Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Violation	2.15***	[1.26, 3.01]	-0.29	[-1.28, 0.84]	0.70	[-0.47, 1.89]	-0.58	[-1.60, 0.39]	1.94*	[0.59, 3.18]	-	-	-	-
	7. High Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Confirmation	1.19	[0.20, 2.25]	-1.25	[-2.37, -0.06]	-0.26	[-1.38, 0.97]	-1.54	[-2.60, -0.42]	0.98	[-0.37, 2.26]	-0.96	[-2.00, 0.15]	-	-
	8. High Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Violation	2.40***	[1.45, 3.22]	-0.04	[-1.16, 1.00]	0.95	[-0.19, 2.18]	-0.33	[-1.36, 0.62]	2.19*	[1.03, 3.21]	0.25	[-0.70, 1.19]	1.21	[0.04, 2.15]
Purchase Intent (PI)	1. Low Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Confirmation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2. Low Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Violation	1.64	[0.49, 2.74]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	3. Low Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Confirmation	0.74	[-0.49, 1.96]	-0.89	[-2.08, 0.29]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	4. Low Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Violation	1.22	[0.06, 2.47]	-0.42	[-1.57, 0.74]	0.47	[-0.89, 1.83]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	5. High Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Confirmation	0.01	[-1.14, 1.22]	-1.63	[-2.65, -0.52]	-0.73	[-2.00, 0.69]	-1.21	[-2.36, -0.02]	-	-	-	-	-	-
	6. High Team Identification Ingroup - Expectancy Violation	1.75	[0.66, 2.82]	0.11	[-1.00, 1.17]	1.00	[-0.34, 2.26]	0.53	[-0.71, 1.64]	1.73	[0.68, 2.87]	-	-	-	-
	7. High Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Confirmation	1.45	[0.26, 2.61]	-0.18	[-1.33, 1.06]	0.71	[-0.49, 2.07]	0.23	[-0.89, 1.39]	1.44	[0.33, 2.54]	-0.29	[-1.37, 0.86]	-	-
	8. High Team Identification Outgroup - Expectancy Violation	2.09*	[0.90, 3.20]	0.45	[-0.73, 1.63]	1.35	[-0.02, 2.73]	0.87	[-0.31, 2.07]	2.08*	[0.86, 3.27]	0.34	[-0.79, 1.48]	0.64	[-0.53, 1.67]

Note. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Discussion

Findings and Theoretical Impact

The purpose of Study 2 was to offer evidence to support the BSE in a sports context, while also demonstrating the contributory effects on outcomes related to sports consumption and social media usage. The findings from our second experiment provided limited support for the operation of the BSE in sports, wherein fans exposed to deviant ingroup and outgroup athletes derogated the player to the same extent. However, the general trend of evaluations of the target athlete were reminiscent of the ingroup extremity effect, although these results were not significant (see Figure 8). In other words, our results were more consistent with previous literature on SGD. Study 2 demonstrated that fans tended to provide more favorable opinions toward the target athlete when normative behaviors were satisfied (i.e., high performance during games). Even though fans did offer more favorable attitudes toward the ingroup athlete on a general level, these results were not upheld when factoring in performance expectancies. That is, in line with prior research by Marques et al. (1998), when the target athlete adhered to the group value of victory and achievement, the image of that athlete was enhanced, regardless of group membership (i.e., originating from either the ingroup or the outgroup).

In considering group identification as a moderator of ingroup extremity (Biernat et al., 1999), our findings illustrated that identification toward the ingroup (i.e., team identification) strengthened the discrepancies between performance confirmations and violations. However, these results were not in accordance with our predictions. Rather, team identification simply amplified the differences in favorability toward normative

behaviors by the athlete. Thus, our investigation yielded support for past literature in group dynamics, wherein fans tended to uphold the standards of the group and valued such principles across group membership (Abrams et al., 2001, 2003).

With respect to sports consumption, fans did not show any inclinations toward choosing products of more successful ingroup players as a means to perpetuate social identity. In fact, fans displayed a greater tendency to purchase individual-related items (i.e., a player jersey) when the target athlete performed more commendably. Nevertheless, although the BSE was not fully supported, we did find noteworthy evidence suggesting the complementary process of SGD along with SIT operating more prominently within fans. To be specific, the negative correlation between identity threat and purchase intent suggests that threatened fans may show a lower tendency to procure player-related items when an athlete's performance serves as a hazard.

Our results also revealed a significant association between self-identity threat and general social media intentions. Thus, individuals who experienced higher identity threat sought out social media to a greater extent. This correlation suggests that social media may act as an outlet for the poor performance of the athlete. In doing so, fans may have engaged in such activities as a way to cope with the dissonance experienced from the failure by the ingroup athlete or the threatening success from the outgroup. Although our measure of social media was more generalized (i.e., tailored toward sharing information about the athlete), this finding presents a unique link in fan behavior research. Social media may function as a behavioral instrument that may reflect fans' intention to uphold their identity. In extension of prior research of social media usage within fans (Mudrick et al., 2016; Phua et al., 2015), fans did not directly engage in

CORFing behaviors as a means to extricate themselves from failure by the ingroup athlete or success by the outgroup player. To be more precise, fans may have pursued these outlets to sustain their social identity as fans of the ingroup team. In fact, our analyses indicated that fans reflected a general desire to share more information about an ingroup athlete compared to an outgroup player on social media. In addition, fans actually experienced more threat following exposure to an ingroup player as opposed to an outgroup one. Thus, these results advocate for the utility of SGD and responses to identity threat (Branscombe et al., 1999) within situations involving social media.

In accordance with literature on threatened social identity (Branscombe et al., 1999; Tajfel & Turner, 1979), fans were motivated to use social media to respond to these threats to further preserve their identity as fans. Although speculative, fans could have done so in order to derogate the poor-performing ingroup athlete or direct condemnations toward the successful outgroup athlete. In addition, these results also support prior work on cognitive dissonance, in which group members tended to seek out communication with other ingroup members to alleviate cognitive incongruities (Festinger, Riecken, & Schachter, 1956). By using social media as an outlet, fans may have been motivated to look for support from other fans, the athlete themselves, or conceivably the team. Suitably, these findings offer strong implications for further research and may potentially facilitate greater examination into the specific processes and function of social media within the context of sports.

Practical Implications

Our findings have a number of implications for sport marketers and managers in the field. Foremost, Study 2 offers directions for how marketing departments of teams may go about propagating their fan base. Specifically, our findings may be germane in attracting marginal fans of a particular outgroup to the ingroup. As an example, in recent news from the NFL, the Indianapolis Colts expressed a desire to recruit fans of the departed St. Louis Rams as a means to help them cope with the team's recent move to Los Angeles. As Newport (2016) notes, the Colts took to social media, specifically Twitter, to circulate this request. To be precise, the Colts posted the following tweet: "We've had some @NFL fans reach out to us due to some recent events... #JustSaying." This post was followed by the attachment of an image displaying the drive time and distance (i.e., a 3 hour 48-minute drive totaling 240.7 miles) from Edward Jones Stadium, the former home of the Rams, to Lucas Oil Stadium, the arena for the Colts. The image also contained the text: "We're only a short drive away #onefamily." In a similar vein, our results offer sport managers and practitioners empirical evidence to support the potential effectiveness for strategic tactics, such as those used by the Colts, in bolstering a team's fan base.

Although the Colts utilized geography and the departure of the Rams as an impetus to attract more fans, our results may reveal how fanship toward an outgroup can commence through purchase decisions. Given the marginal differences in purchase intent between jerseys of the ingroup and outgroup athlete following various performance outcomes, teams may seek to entice outgroup fans to join their fan base by exploiting performance or perhaps even infractions by fans' ingroup. Comparably,

the Colts attempted to leverage not only the departure of the Rams themselves, but also the manner in which this exodus transpired. In particular, prior to their departure, the Kroenke family (i.e., the Rams ownership group) led and voiced by owner Enos Stanley "Stan" Kroenke uttered several displeasures with the city of St. Louis (Frankel, 2016). These attitudes held by Kroenke may have disappointed loyal fans of the Rams and could have potentially jeopardized their perpetuation of fanship toward the Los Angeles-based version of the team. Thus, sports marketers could draw from instances such as these and the results of our study to "poach" disgruntled fans who may have negative perceptions regarding their identified team's executives or personnel. In the context of Study 2, our findings may allow managers to promote purchases of tickets, apparel, or accessories of a more welcoming team.

Returning to the matter of social media usage, practitioners within the sports industry may find our results on the effects of threat on intentions to engage in social media behaviors useful in communicating with fans. In the manner of the Colts, following threats toward the identity, teams and athletes alike may be wise to utilize social media as an outlet to encourage or respond to various events concerning the team, whether those be performance- or logistically-related. As alluded to previously, in doing so, managers could assuage pressures felt by fans and instill the notion that the organization supports the fan base even after potentially unfavorable proceedings. For instance, several professional teams have employed this technique to publicize support of their fans.

Case in point, one occurrence of consolation through social media was used by the NBA's San Antonino Spurs. Following a crushing regular season defeat at the

hands of the Golden State Warriors, the Spurs posted: “On to the next one” with an image of the final score of the previous game (i.e., 120 [Warriors] to 90 [Spurs]) and tagline #GoSpursGo. This simple example of support and acknowledgement of failure speaks volumes in the eyes of fans and also extends to the individual eminence of the Spurs organization themselves, given the effective management and sequence of prolonged excellence on the court. In view of this, teams may find it worthwhile to regularly practice such social media behaviors to conceptually bolster fans’ social identities (Knowles & Gardner, 2008; Tajfel, 1974). Given the evidence suggesting fans’ dispositional favorability toward stronger organizational, or leadership, responses (Fink et al., 2009), fans may find that teams that offer these minute gestures may present a more enticing emotional and temporal investment. As a result, teams like these may see rapid evolution and growth of their fan bases within the near future.

Limitations

Although Study 2 provided important understanding into fan behavior processes and the application of the BSE, it is not short of its limitations. Primarily, one shortcoming of the current study was the saliency of the outgroup. Bearing this in mind, we may not have witnessed certain significant ingroup favoritism or extremity effects due to the status of the outgroup compared to the ingroup. In other words, our use of the outgroup may have been superseded by the status of the ingroup. Case in point, the University of Michigan is a renowned athletic institution, praised for their efforts in various college sports, especially college football. Despite Old Dominion University effectively operating as an outgroup, as indicated by our manipulation checks, the influence of Old Dominion may have been hindered by its overall standing within the

scheme of college sports. Specifically, an athlete from Old Dominion University may not have been perceived as an adequate threat or a significant influence toward the experimental observation of fans engaging in the BSE. Rather, fans may have commiserated with the outgroup athlete and engaged in a sort of support for the *common ingroup identity* (Gaertner, Dovidio, Anastasio, Bachman, & Rust, 1993), given the shared goals toward success and general lack of threat and direct competition from the outgroup university. Thus, further inquiry in this matter is needed in order to appropriately produce the BSE within fans. Taking this into account, it may be worthwhile to examine the saliency of an outgroup team in studying the importance of the target athlete's position in the eyes of fans.

Another drawback of the present study may have concerned outcomes related to social media. At the outset, our measure of social media usage may have been too broad, seeing as fans only reported intentions to share information about the athlete. In consequence, we were not able to fully gauge the objectives or ulterior motives of engaging in such behaviors. It could be that fans sought to derogate the athlete through social media, but it is also possible that fans may have wanted to engage in celebratory tactics or supportive behaviors, a la BIRGing (Cialdini et al., 1976) or BIRFing (Campbell et al., 2004), following exposure to our performance manipulations. Simply put, prospective experiments must delve beyond the limitations of general social media use, possibly considering the nature of social media behaviors. In light of this, another disadvantage to our study could have been the inability for participants to see any social media posts by the target athlete. Given the common practice and trend of athletes, and people in general, participating in social media, our simplistic measurement of social

media intentions could limit our understanding of how fans go about engaging in athlete support or derogation.

Concluding Points

In summary, the results of Study 2 evince the significance of an athlete's performance on fan identity and evaluative processes. In comparison to the BSE, it appears that SGD takes a more pronounced role concerning the effects of athlete performance on the fan. In Study 2, our findings pointed to favorability toward the outgroup with regards to normative behaviors (i.e., successful performance and competence as a player), potentially due to a paucity in threat. Considering consumptive implications, it appears that sports consumers may be inclined to perpetuate intentions to procure items related to an athlete following valued performances on the field. In ruminating upon this result, we may deduce that the saliency of the outgroup itself may be of significance when coming to judgments about external players.

Most importantly, however, our results shed light on how behaviors involving social media can be enhanced by threats to the identity of a fan. Although general considerations of social media usage may allow for interesting conclusions to be made, the refined measurement of the nature of social media behavior is necessary to determine simply how fans engage in such motivated behavior following team performance. For these reasons, we attempt to address such issues in Study 3 through the examination of outgroup salience and member status. Furthermore, we also seek to pinpoint specific trajectories of social media and consumptive behaviors resulting from exposure to an athlete.

CHAPTER IV

Study 3

"Shallow Be Thy Game:"

Differentiating Derogation

Through Salience, Member Status, and Rivalry

Introduction

Within sports, the nature of an athlete's performance often influences the types of behavior that fans may engage in. As shown in Studies 1 and 2, high performance tends to bring about more favorable evaluations and attitudes toward the athlete, while low performance gives rise to harsh criticism and disparaging sentiments. However, one key facet in this relationship may be the status of the athletes. High-performing athletes within their respective domains are perceived as being elite, or incredibly talented. For example, current NBA stars and former Most Valuable Player (MVP) recipients, Lebron James of the Cleveland Cavaliers along with Kevin Durant and Stephen Curry of the Golden State Warriors, are heralded as some of professional basketball's best players. Conversely, low-performing athletes may be deemed as being less talented or ill-equipped in achieving at such an elite level. Quite commonly, these low-performing athletes are dubbed "scrubs" (i.e., inept; Sirlin, 2005), such as low-profile NBA players, Damian Rudež of the Orlando Magic and Ivica Zubac of the Los Angeles Lakers. Consequently, fans, the media, teams, along with various player evaluators make

judgments about the capability of a player based on this status. As such, these individuals may suppose that the normative behavior for an elite athlete is high performance, while the expected accomplishments of a low-profile athlete are of inferior, or perhaps even poor, performance. Thus, when an elite athlete performs poorly and a low-profile athlete performs at a superior level, fans and other evaluators may be perplexed. In other words, the incongruence in the athlete's status and performance may beget cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957). Considering this, evaluations of players may be influenced by a combination of their status and actual performance.

In these cases, we may anticipate that fans consider these factors in coming to decisions about the player themselves and making choices related to merchandise. Nevertheless, although Study 2 has shown that purchase decisions may be contingent upon normative behavior by the player (i.e., performance), regardless of group membership, along with the potential threat presented by the target athlete, there may exist an association between the status of the player and these factors. In addition, group membership may not simply be dualistic. Rather, the dichotomy of the ingroup and outgroup may be unique in sports. That is, the competitive milieu that produces the perception of the ingroup and the importance of the outgroup within fans may be dependent on the frequency of intergroup contact.

Competition in Sports

The manner in which sports are constructed fosters competition between opposing groups, or teams. For instance, in universally every team sport, two teams are pitted against each other as a means to discover which team is superior during a particular event. In many instances, these teams who clash perceive the other to be an

outgroup of sorts, given conflicting interests toward the same end goal (i.e., to win the game). Often, these competitions culminate toward a concluding event, such as a championship game or final series for the sports league (e.g., the NBA Finals or the NFL's Super Bowl). Over time, however, teams who face great resilience in reaching their goals against opposing entities develop bitter emotions toward such outgroup teams. These sentiments have commonly been termed *rivalries* in the world of sports (Lee, 1985).

Rivalries in sports have become an omnipresent phenomenon in society today. Historically, some of the most notable rivalries between both teams and fans have been within many professional and collegiate sports, such as baseball and football. In baseball, for instance, rivalries between the San Francisco Giants and Los Angeles Dodgers as well as the New York Yankees and Boston Red Sox have provoked fans of all types to perceive the other team as an abhorrent outgroup. Within football, many historic rivalries persist to this today. From the San Francisco 49ers and Dallas Cowboys to the Pittsburgh Steelers and Baltimore Ravens, these rivalries continue to thrive amongst fans of all ages. However, in college football, most notably, the famed rivalry between the University of Michigan and Ohio State University has spanned generations, building lineages who seem virtually destined to be set in opposition against one another.

Taking these elements into account, there may lie a gap in the literature concerning the inherent impact of both rivalries between teams and statuses of players on the group dynamics functioning in sports fans. Considering this, we seek to tease out additional variables that could potentially generate and expatiate threats to the fan

identity and derogatory tactics in fans, a la SGD and conceivably the BSE. From these tactics, there may also lie prospective repercussions within concepts related to marketing, such as social media behaviors and consumer purchase decisions.

Theoretical Background

Member Status

Over the past few decades, research on SGD and the BSE has attempted to identify additional components that may contribute to derogatory occurrences within intergroup relations. Although this body of literature has identified several factors with many useful applications, such as *perceived entitativity* (Lewis & Sherman, 2010) and *prototypicality* (Schmitt & Branscombe, 2001), much of this research has limited its consideration of *member status*. However, research by Pinto, Marques, Levine, and Abrams (2010) has examined judgments of ingroup and outgroup members of varying statuses (i.e., full, marginal, or new members). Using a manipulation of normative or deviant behavior by the group member, the authors illustrated that higher status members of the group were both positively evaluated when displaying normative tendencies, but harshly derogated when engaging in deviant behavior. In comparison to both new and marginal members (i.e., those of lower status), higher status members of both the ingroup and outgroup were more critically evaluated.

Although this study by Pinto and colleagues (2010) utilized member status, we posit that player status can be likened to such concepts. For instance, complete membership could be equated to an archetypal member of the group, whereas marginal members may be paralleled with substandard members given the absence of specific aspects of participation in the group. Likewise, in sports, we can relate this notion to the

status, performance, and talent of a player (i.e., elite or low-profile). Given that elite players may be perceived as contributing more to the team, they can be considered higher status members, while marginal players may be seen as lower status members due to their inferior impact on the team. Although we plan to put forward a scenario involving actual recruits (i.e., new members of a team), we rationalize our choice by pointing to the unique nature of sports and fans themselves. Given the loss of ecological validity and overt facetiousness in presenting situations involving false members of a team, the nature of recruits is inimitable given the opacity, extensiveness, and lack of access to high school sports and statistics.

From a theoretical standpoint, we validate our choice to utilize the recruit scenario for Study 3 by citing seminal research of Hogg, Hardie, and Reynolds (1995) and Brown, Vivian, and Hewstone (1999). These compositions have suggested that prototypicality (i.e., status or saliency) of both ingroup and outgroup members can contribute to the types of evaluations and attitudes toward such members. Specifically, individuals tend to exhibit favorable opinions toward higher status members in the presence of normative behavior and adverse attitudes in deviance or dissimilarity. Thus, we seek to heighten evaluations by fans by using member saliency of the player as a factor, considering both the distinctiveness of sports in our experimental design and findings from pertinent literature.

Outgroup Saliency

Given the data to verify the effects of member status on group dynamics (Pinto et al., 2010), another factor that may play a part in enhancing derogatory attitudes is *outgroup salience*. As Turner (1981) has highlighted, identification with an ingroup gives

rise to the perception of outgroups, or groups different than one's own. Herein, people tend to categorize members based on various characteristics, with similar features allowing for membership into the ingroup and differentiation in these characteristics to the outgroup. In a similar vein, Ashforth and Mael (1989) accentuated that outgroup salience (i.e., awareness of an outgroup) can lead to such outcomes and may be related to how the outgroup is perceived by ingroup members. They noted that intergroup competition can incite ingroup members to create boundaries and criticize norms and behaviors by both other ingroup and outgroup members. In fact, as Skevington (1980) remarked, superiority and ingroup favoritism can be exhibited by group members when the outgroup is made salient during situations involving intergroup competition.

These instances of competition can produce perceptions of threat amongst ingroup members. As Riek, Mania, and Gaertner (2006) underscored, threat can take various forms (i.e., realistic, symbolic, and distinctiveness, as also noted previously by Branscombe et al. [1999]). Thus, Riek and colleagues have posited that threats to success within intergroup competitions can expedite negative evaluations and attitudes toward the outgroup. In addition, they have noted that outgroup salience can stimulate biases, particularly during such threatening instances. Likewise, intergroup competition is an integral feature of sports themselves. As such, fans may perceive that outgroup members serve as an impediment to their success and in some cases where the outgroup is successful, the ingroup may perceive threats to their own success (Luellen & Wann, 2010). Appropriately, we may expect fans to respond in ways that safeguard their identity by degrading the outgroup. However, as also proposed by Croucher

(2016), frequent contact with outgroups can give rise to an increased form of intergroup threat. In relation to sports, this manifestation of contact may take the form of rivalries between teams.

Rivalry

Traditionally, empirical explorations into rivalry between teams have examined various correlates of team rivalry. One area that has received much attention has been the association of rivalry and perceived violence within sports. As first indicated by Lee (1985) and reiterated by Havard and colleagues (2013), rivalry often brings about resentment amongst teams and can even enhance ingroup biases. Accordingly, many studies have found that sports fans tend to exhibit increased levels of aggression when they encounter scenarios involving rival teams (Goldstein, 1989; Russell, 1983; Schumacher-Dimech, Brechbühl, & Seiler, 2016). In fact, research by Raney and Kinnally (2009) has found evidence to implicate that fans who perceive greater levels of violence in televised games between rival teams tend to actually find greater enjoyment in such events. Prior work by Grohs, Reisenger, and Woisetschläger (2015) has attributed these inclinations of hostility toward rivals to the activation and eventual provocation of the sports fan identity. Within their study, Grohs and colleagues also observed that identification with a team can negatively impact attitudes toward rival teams and perceptions of the rival's sponsors. These intensifications of hostile opinions have been credited with being linked to an increased social identity with the team, or in other words higher team identification.

Complementary research by Luellen and Wann (2010) has provided evidence to suggest that mere awareness of a rival team's presence, or *rival salience*, can

strengthen identification to the ingroup team. As sustained by Havard and Eddy (2013), this increased identification to the ingroup may not be the only outcome of perceptions of rivalry. In reality, fans may also display a tendency to derogate the rival team as a means to cope with negative sentiments (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001), identity threat, and justify their own fanship (Noel, Wann, & Branscombe, 1995). These ties to the social identity could explain why fans display a predisposition to derogate rivals. This derogation of rival teams has also been found to be even more prevalent when the ingroup team experiences success and the rival team suffers failure (Delia, 2015). Such behaviors by fans have also been observed to extend to other sectors of social settings. An investigation by Levine, Prosser, Evans, and Reicher (2005) found that when fans perceived an outgroup member of a rival team (i.e., the individual was wearing a rival team shirt), they were less likely to intervene and provide assistance during emergency situations.

Thus, perceived rivalry between teams can truly spur unique effects in sports, wherein fans tend to display a heightened sense of self that acts to protect the ingroup at the expense of the outgroup. Nevertheless, the importance of rivalry in this relationship cannot simply be generalized to an outgroup. Rather, the selection of a direct competing rival is contingent upon not simply dislike of such an outgroup, but also acute threat that the rival poses to the ingroup, history of the rivalry itself, level of competition, and key incidents that influence the state of affairs for the ingroup (Tyler & Cobbs, 2015). Considering this, the current study intends to simultaneously investigate how rivalry can affect athlete evaluation and differentiate the saliency, or status, of the outgroup in determining how sports fan behaviors are affected by particular forms of

performance. In doing so, we also seek to disentangle how the identity of the fan may be impacted by such contact with a rival and the ensuing nature of these impacts on the outcomes of sports consumer behavior.

The "Shaken" Self

Identity is a mechanism that guides a variety of behaviors within humans, whether such activities involve selecting a group to participate in, accepting other group members, or even engaging in evaluative judgments. As reviewed previously, however, when the identity of an individual is placed under threat, people tend to search for ways to circumvent or alleviate such threat through an assortment of behaviors. In view of this, one pertinent area that identity threat can be applied to is within consumption behaviors. Prior literature in marketing has identified the integral roles threat can play in shaping processes related to purchase decisions. However, one crucial feature that previous marketing research has taken note of in product choice is the functional aspects of the products themselves. As prior literature has identified, products often serve two main purposes, either *utilitarian* or *hedonic* functions (Batra & Ahtola, 1991; Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000). Thus, products can be selected on the basis of their function and use in daily life (i.e., their utilitarian purpose; Strahilevitz & Myers, 1998) or on their social desirability (Solomon, 1983) and ability to promote satisfaction in individuals (i.e., their hedonic characteristics; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982).

Relatedly, research by Gao, Wheeler, and Shiv (2009) has pointed to the link between these two constructs, examining how damage to the self-concept can influence the function of product choices. Gao et al. have argued that impairments to the self can initiate from temporary diminishments in self-confidence. They termed this phenomenon

as the *shaken self*, wherein subtle conditions can lower convictions related to the self and thus, directly affect the nature of product choices. Within their study, the authors investigated how minor factors related to the self (e.g., writing with one's non-dominant hand) could influence the choice of a reward (i.e., either a fountain pen or chocolate candy [M&M's]). When placed under threat by these manipulations, participants displayed a tendency to select self-bolstering utilitarian items (i.e., in this case, the fountain pen). Gao et al. (2009) replicated this effect through a series of experiments using scenarios involving excitement and cognizance of health. Thus, based on these findings, it appears that when people are threatened, or "shaken," by external variables, they may be more apt to seek out items that serve restorative functions to their self-concepts and social identities (cf. White & Argo, 2009).

In a later study by Sivanathan and Pettit (2010), the authors also found similar evidence to support the compensatory role of product choice on the self. Through four main experiments employing situations involving high-status goods and a lowered sense of self, Sivanathan and Pettit showed that self-threat could drive purchase and spending toward items that operated as ego-protective mechanisms. Put simply, individuals will actively work to protect their identities within social settings so as to not experience the negative stigma of low-status (i.e., incompetence) or the state of self-threat. Findings on compensatory consumer behaviors (Rucker & Galinsky, 2009) such as these have been extended to a multitude of consumer settings (e.g., *sad-spending* during emotional recovery; willingness to engage in self-assembly of furniture from the popular Swedish store, IKEA; responses to in-store product demonstrations of food-related items; *comparison-driven self-evaluation and restoration*

(CDSER) following contact with counter-stereotypical consumers; He & Li, 2016; Mochon, Norton, & Ariely, 2012; Otterbring, 2016; Shalev & Morwitz, 2012, respectively). In view of these findings, however, the effects of compensatory consumption and the shaken self have not yet been applied in settings involving active group membership, such as in sports fans.

Consequently, we seek to utilize features of such previous research to investigate how the threatened identity of a sports fan through exposure to performance, member status, and various outgroups can influence product choices related to the identified team. Specifically, we intend to demonstrate extended effects of threat in a more emotionally invested environment through sports. Furthermore, although these scenarios from prior experiments have involved both self-relevant, utilitarian and hedonic products, seeing as sports are inherently hedonic in nature, we will account for such overt incitements of pleasure-seeking behaviors in fans by controlling for the nature of the presented items. In other words, we will employ relevant symbolic cues that activate self-views through utilitarian products by utilizing minor features to provide subtle conditions of self-relevance.

Purpose

Accordingly, Study 3 was designed to investigate the relationship between SGD (and the BSE) and saliency of both the outgroup itself and group members in general. In doing so, we sought to elucidate how not only trait evaluations and threat could be influenced by player status, performance, and group membership, but also how consumer choices and social media behaviors could be affected by these factors. As such, based on our results from both Studies 1 and 2 as well as findings from prior

literature (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Delia, 2015; Gao et al., 2009; Havard et al., 2013; Lee, 1985; Marques et al., 1998a, 1998b; Pinto et al., 2010), we propose the following hypotheses and develop a conceptual model to symbolize these predictions (see Figure 9):

H_{3a}: The nature of social media comments will be positively impacted by performance, player status, and group membership, wherein poor performance will give rise to derogative comments, while high player status and ingroup membership will bring about positive comments.

H_{3b}: Product choices will be positively guided by performance, player status, and group membership, wherein higher performance, high player status, and ingroup membership will bring about selections of licensed (i.e., hedonic) items.

H_{3c}: Player status will positively influence trait evaluations, attitudes toward the athlete, and social media behaviors and will negatively affect threat.

H_{3d}: Higher performance by the athlete will positively impact trait evaluations and athlete attitudes and will negatively influence threat.

H_{3e}: Team identification will have a positive impact on trait evaluations, attitudes toward the athlete, and social media intentions, while negatively impacting threat.

H_{3f}: Trait evaluations will positively affect social media intentions and athlete attitudes, while negatively influencing threat and negative social media behaviors.

H_{3g}: Threat will positively contribute to social media behaviors and negatively influence athlete attitudes.

H_{3h}: Attitudes toward the athlete will positively affect social media behaviors.

H_{3i}: The effects of these aforementioned relationships (i.e., $H_{3c\text{-}3h}$) will be more pronounced for the ingroup in comparison to the outgroup and rival group.

H_{3j}: Exposure to rival groups will spur more negative differences in these relationships (i.e., $H_{3a\text{-}3h}$) compared to the non-rival outgroup.

H_{3k}: Team identification will positively affect perceptions of rivalry.

H_{3l}: Higher perceived rivalry will negatively impact trait evaluations, attitudes toward the athlete, and negative social media behaviors, while positively influencing threat and general intentions to use social media.

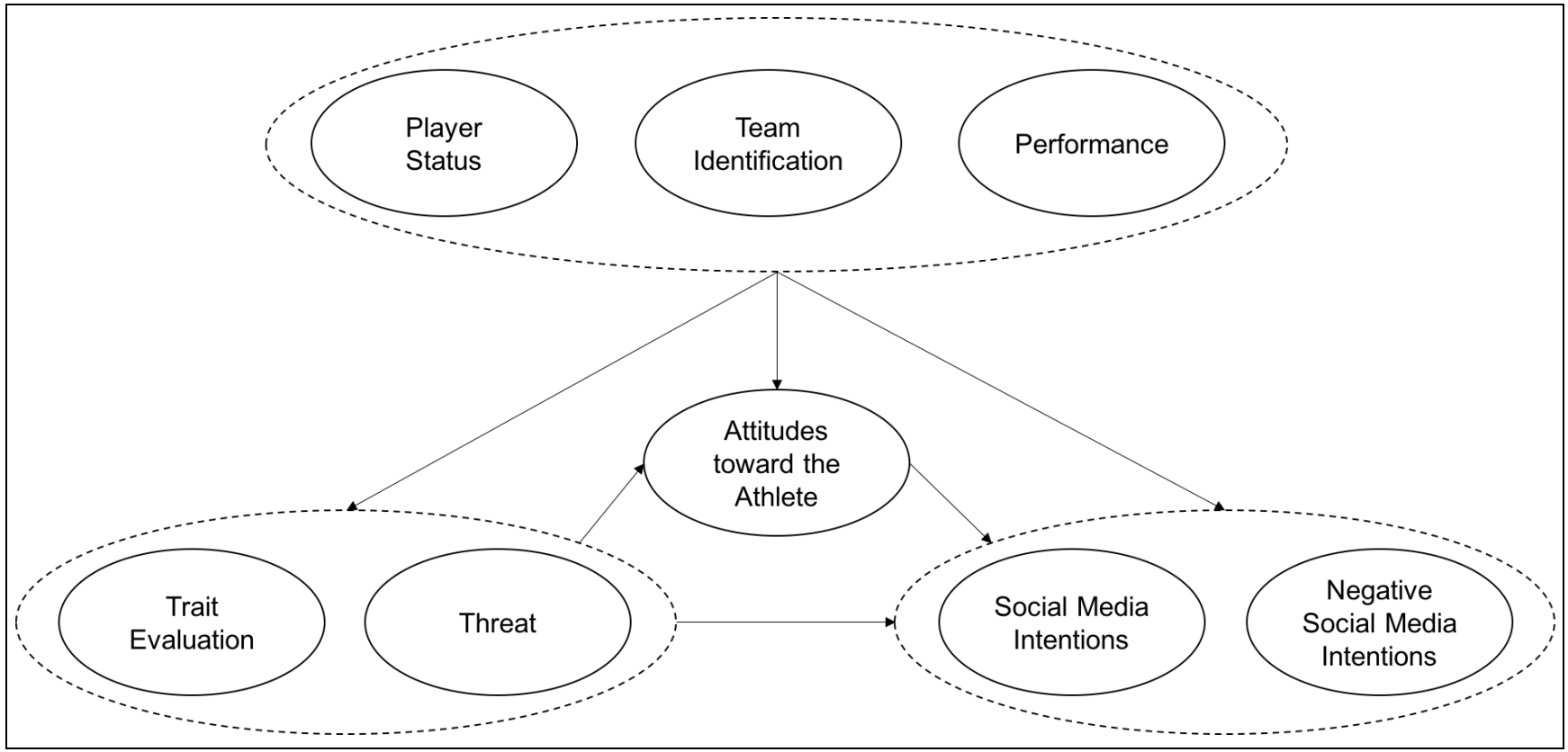


Figure 9. Proposed conceptual model of Study 3. Marked lines are included to facilitate comprehension of the model. These lines do not represent grouped relationships, but rather indicate similar directional (i.e., not mathematically identical) impacts of constructs.

Method

Participants and Design

To carry out Study 3, we employed a 3 (*group*: ingroup, non-rival outgroup, rival outgroup) × 2 (*member status*: elite member, low-profile member) × 2 (*performance*: high, low) between-subjects design. As in our prior studies, we conducted a power analysis in G*Power to determine the necessary sample size to fulfill power requirements ($1 - \beta = .80$, $\alpha = .05$, ES = .25). Following this analysis, our experiment called for 288 subjects. As a whole, 367 individuals were recruited from Amazon MTurk and a large Midwestern university. However, owing to participant dropout and missing data, the full responses of 303 participants (214 male, 89 female; $M_{age} = 28.84$, $SD_{age} = 10.41$) were utilized in our analyses. We offered extra credit for participants in our student sample and compensated MTurk workers $0.50 for their participation. All participants were subject to a prescreening procedure explicitly asking if they were fans of the University of Michigan. Participants who were not fans of the University of Michigan were excluded from our study. Table 21 presents the demographic characteristics for the participants who completed Study 3.

Table 21

Demographic Characteristics for Study 3 Sample

Characteristic	*n*	%
Gender		
Male	214	70.6
Female	89	29.4
Age		
18-29	185	61.1
30-39	68	22.4
40-49	35	11.6
50-59	10	3.3
60-69	3	1.0
70-79	1	0.3
Declined to respond	1	0.3
Ethnicity		
Asian American/Pacific Islander	14	4.6
Black/African American	27	8.9
Caucasian/White	236	77.9
Hispanic/Latin American	10	3.3
Native American/America Indian	3	1.0
Multiracial	13	4.3
Highest Level of Education		
Some high school, no diploma	3	1.0
High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent	29	9.6
Some college credit, no degree	125	41.3
Trade/technical/vocational training	6	2.0
Associate's degree	26	8.6
Bachelor's degree	81	26.7
Master's degree	26	8.6
Professional degree	2	0.7
Doctorate degree	5	1.7
State of Residence		
Alabama	4	1.3
Arizona	3	1.0
Arkansas	1	0.3
California	23	7.6
Colorado	5	1.7
Connecticut	1	0.3
Delaware	1	0.3
Florida	18	5.9
Georgia	8	2.6
Hawaii	1	0.3
Idaho	2	0.7
Illinois	14	4.6
Indiana	3	1.0
Iowa	1	0.3
Kansas	2	0.7
Kentucky	3	1.0
Louisiana	3	1.0
Maryland	3	1.0
Massachusetts	5	1.7
Michigan	89	29.4
Minnesota	3	1.0
Missouri	2	0.7
Nevada	1	0.3
New Hampshire	3	1.0
New Jersey	9	3.0
New York	20	6.6
North Carolina	10	3.3
Ohio	16	5.3
Oklahoma	1	0.3
Oregon	1	0.3
Pennsylvania	16	5.3
South Carolina	2	0.7
Tennessee	6	2.0
Texas	8	2.6
Utah	1	0.3
Virginia	8	2.6
Washington	2	0.7
Wisconsin	2	0.7
Declined to respond	2	0.7

Procedure

Subjects completed Study 3 online through Qualtrics Survey Software. We employed a prescreening measure to select for fans of the University of Michigan and inquire whether participants met our age requirements (i.e., above the age of 18). If subjects met our criteria for participation, they then viewed a consent form outlining the nature of our study. Following agreement to participate in our research, participants then completed the SSIS. They were then randomly assigned to one of our three group conditions. Given that the ingroup university was the University of Michigan, we selected Ohio State University as the rival outgroup. In addition, we chose to utilize the University of Oregon as a non-rival outgroup since this university is an out of conference school and has been noted as having a proficient football program (Cummins & Hextrum, 2013). Participants assigned to the either the rival or non-rival outgroup condition completed the Sport Fan Rivalry Perception Scale (SFRPS; Havard, Gray, Gould, Sharp, & Schaffer, 2013). Subjects placed in the ingroup condition were instructed to click a button to continue with the study. Subsequently, all subjects were informed that they would be reading about a committed recruit who has signed on with the team of the assigned group condition.

The next phase of our experiment randomly assigned participants to either the elite (i.e., 5-star recruit) or low-profile (i.e., 1-star recruit) condition. Next, participants read an article from a reputable source describing the player's commitment to the target university. We also included information on how the 5-star and 1-star recruit rankings were determined by the news outlet. Thereafter, we again randomly assigned participants to one of our two performance conditions (i.e., high or low performance).

We randomly presented another set of articles from the credible news source displaying statistics for the recruit and an article discussing the player's performance through his last few games and his performance in his team's championship game. High performance implicated elite statistics and a win in the championship game, whereas low performance was signaled by poor statistics and a loss during the team's title game (see Appendix U).

Following the presentation of our stimuli, participants were asked to complete a randomized battery of measures concerning performance (i.e., CBT and TE Scales) and identity threat (i.e., IT and SIT Scales). They also completed a manipulation check regarding performance expectations. We then asked participants to provide responses to a measure of product choice, social media intentions (i.e., eWOM and General Social Media Measure), and attitudes toward the athlete. Subjects then indicated the primary social media outlet that they used in their daily lives. Based on this, participants were then shown a post by the athlete from the selected social media site (i.e., from either Facebook, Twitter, or Instagram). Participants were then prompted to type in a response to the post by the athlete in a text-box. Following this, subjects completed a measure directed toward negative social media intentions and additional manipulation checks concerning the extent to which the rival or non-rival was recognized as an outgroup and the level of perceived rivalry between the ingroup and outgroups. Items contained within all our measures were randomized. Ultimately, subjects provided demographic information (see Appendix V), indicated their overall social media use, reported their following behaviors concerning college football (see Table 22), and were thanked for their participation in our study.

Table 22

Social Media Usage and Following of College Football Recruiting News for Study 3 Sample

Variable	*n*	%
Social Media Platform		
Facebook	268	88.4
Instagram	159	52.5
Pinterest	1	0.3
Snapchat	126	41.6
Twitter	171	56.4
Vine	39	12.9
YouTube	199	65.7
Multiple Platforms	238	78.5
None	1	0.3
Reported Primary Social Media Outlet		
Facebook	173	58.6
Instagram	52	17.2
Twitter	73	24.2
Following Behavior		
College Football Recruiting News		
Yes	223	73.6
No	80	26.4
University of Michigan Recruiting News		
Yes	269	88.8
No	34	11.2

Measures

Preliminary measures. As in Studies 1 and 2, we captured our preliminary dependent variables in identical manners, respectively adapted to the target athlete. We measured team identification with the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Performance evaluations were made using the Competence-Based Trust (CBT; Ferrin et al., 2007) and Trait Evaluation (TE; researcher-generated [traits selected from Davidson & Lickona, 2007; Seider et al.,

2012]) scales. Identity threat was assessed with the Identity Threat (IT; Dietz-Uhler et al., 2002) and Self-Identity Threat (SIT; Murtagh et al., 2012) measures. Social media intentions were evaluated with revised versions of the Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM; Cheung & Lee, 2012; see Appendix W) and Social Media Measure (SMM; researcher-generated) employed in Study 2. The eWOM and SMM were combined to facilitate participant comprehension and response. We relabeled this commingled measure as the General Social Media Measure (GSMM; see Appendix X). Attitudes toward the athlete (A_{ath}) were captured with an identical scale as obtained from prior marketing research (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989).

Rivalry. The perceived level of rivalry between the ingroup and outgroup teams was gauged using the 12 items comprising the Sport Fan Rivalry Perception Scale (SFRPS; Havard et al., 2013). The SFRPS employs a 7-point Likert-type scale with response options ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (strongly agree). A sample item read, “I want the [outgroup team] to win all games except when they play the [ingroup team].” Items focusing on positive outcomes, as in the example provided, were recoded to concentrate on the negative nature of the scale. Higher scores on this scale symbolize higher perceived rivalry toward the outgroup team, whereas lower scores indicate lower perceptions of rivalry by fans. Items were averaged across the scale to create a composite score for analysis. Appendix Y contains the items of the SFRPS.

Product choice. In evaluating product choice, we employed an adapted version of the self-bolstering product choice (PC) measure from Gao et al. (2009). Following a writing assessment in which participants used their non-dominant hand, the original measure by Gao and colleagues (2009) provided subjects with two choices for

identity-related products (e.g., a pen signaling hand dominance) or a non-related item (e.g., chocolate candy [i.e., M&M's]). Likewise, we provided participants with four choices of products, two related to the identity (i.e., licensed accessories [a mug and a set of four pens] with the ingroup university logo) and two utilitarian items (i.e., the same accessories without any brand indicators or logos). We provided multiple products to provide a range of product selection for participants. Subjects were to indicate their choice of a product if they had $10 to spend. The PC measure is provided in Appendix Z.

Active social media measure. After participants selected their primary social media outlet (see Appendix AA) and were exposed to a social media post by the target athlete, participants were instructed to write a qualitative comment directed toward the player. Comments by participants were quantitatively coded in two ways, either positive (i.e., celebratory or welcoming remarks) or negative statements (i.e., dissociative, expletive, or derogatory comments). Items were analyzed using this dichotomous categorization. Appendix AB provides an illustration of each of the possible social media posts and the comment response format.

Negative social media intentions. Social media behaviors of dissociative or denigrating nature were captured using six items, generated by the researcher, anchored on a 7-point Likert-type scale, 1 (*very unlikely*) to 7 (*very likely*). We termed this measure the Negative Social Media Intentions (NSMI; see Appendix AC) scale. One item taken from this measure read, "I would tell my friends to unfollow [target athlete] on social media if they were current followers of him." Greater scores on this scale indicated higher intentions to engage in negatively motivated behaviors directed

toward the target athlete. Lower scores represented less inclination to derogate or direct deleterious actions to the athlete. All responses were averaged across items for data analysis.

Manipulation checks. In order to verify the effectiveness of our stimuli and manipulations, we included three items as manipulation checks. To address the issue of performance expectations, as in Studies 1 and 2, participants rated the athlete's performance on a revised 7-point Likert-type scale, 1 (*far below expectations*) to 7 (*far above expectations*). To corroborate the status of the outgroups, we asked participants to respond to two items: 1) an item related to the discernment of the team as an outgroup and 2) the perception of rivalry between the ingroup and outgroup teams. Both these items were placed on identical 7-point Likert-type scales, 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Our manipulation checks can be found in Appendices AD and AE.

Results

Reliability Assessment

Dependent measures. Foremost, we assessed the internal consistency of our outcome measures using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Overall, each of our dependent measures were reliable according to Nunnally's (1970) alpha criterion of .70 for sufficient reliability. Table 23 provides the alpha coefficients for each of the scales utilized in Study 3.

Table 23

Internal Consistency of Measures Used in Study 3

Scale	*Items*	*α*
Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS)	7	.88
Sport Fan Rivalry Perception Scale (SFRPS)	12	.82*
Competence-Based Trust (CBT)	4	.96
Trait Evaluation (TE)	7	.95
Self-Identity Threat (SIT)	4	.92
Identity Threat (IT)	4	.70
Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM)	3	.96
Attitudes toward the Athlete (A_{ath})	3	.97
General Social Media Measure (GSMM)	4	.89
Negative Social Media Intentions (NSMI)	6	.88

Note. *Reliability calculated using responses of participants exposed to the non-rival and rival outgroup teams (i.e., the University of Oregon or Ohio State University, respectively).

Coding social media comments. As mentioned previously, data from the active social media measure were qualitatively coded based on the nature of the participants' comments. Two judges coded participants' comments using criteria outlined in Table 24. The ratings were coded at two separate times (i.e., one week apart) in order to assess both intrarater and interrater reliability. Responses utilized for data analysis were classified through a content analysis using two distinct categories, either positive or negative. A third category of comments was employed in the case of superfluous/absent comments or declined opportunities to provide commentaries. We omitted these types of responses in our analysis of the data.

Table 24

Criteria for Categorization of Social Media Comments

Nature of Comment	*Associated Criteria Warranting Designation*	*Exemplary Comments*
Positive	Remarks and statements involving: (a) Celebration of the player and team (b) Support (c) Excitement (d) Well-wishing	– "Go Blue!" – "Welcome aboard, hope you can continue your big numbers at Ann Arbor." – "Looking forward to seeing you play!" – "Congratulations Derek" – "Awesome!!! I love it. Can't wait for opening day!!!"
Negative	Critiques and statements containing: (a) Derogation (b) Expletives (c) Sarcasm (d) Disgust (e) Disbelief in ability (f) Intimidation	– "**** you Derek Hudson!!!" – "You won't make the starting QB spot! Get better!" – "3 and out all day." – "If by 'compete' you mean fail horribly, then yeah." – "LOL I imagine an EPIC FAIL." – "Thanks for being a *uckeye so we can beat you!! Ohio State can go 0-11!!!!"
Extraneous	Statements including: (a) Refusal to comment (b) Absence of comment (c) Excessive ambiguity	– "I wouldn't comment." – "I do not see anything wrong with it. He is just simply stating how he feels."

Reliability of comments. Cohen's kappa (κ) was utilized to compare the consistency of the judges' ratings. In determining the extent of the reliability, we employed Viera and Garrett's (2005) criterion for the strength of agreement between judges (see Table 25 for reproducibility thresholds). We used a BCa bootstrap simulation of 10,000 resamples to reduce bias and estimate the 95% confidence interval. Our interrater reliability analysis on the agreement between the two judges regarding the nature of the comments at Time 1 revealed a strong level of uniformity in

the judges' ratings, κ = .95, *SE* = .02, p < .001, BCa 95% CI [.91, .98]. Similarly, ratings at Time 2 reflected strong interrater reliability, κ = .96, *SE* = .02, p < .001, BCa 95% CI [.93, .99]. The intrarater reliability for both judges between Times 1 and 2 was robust, $\kappa_{Judge\ 1}$ = .96, *SE* = .02, p < .001, BCa 95% CI [.93, .98] and $\kappa_{Judge\ 2}$ = .96, *SE* = .02, p < .001, BCa 95% CI [.92, .99]. The final coding scheme for our analysis was selected based on the mode response across judges and time.

Table 25

Interpretation of Cohen's Kappa (κ) Statistic for Interrater and Intrarater Reliability

Kappa (κ) statistic	*Level of Agreement*
0.00	Less than chance agreement
0.01 – 0.20	Poor agreement
0.21 – 0.40	Fair agreement
0.41 – 0.60	Moderate agreement
0.61 – 0.80	Substantial agreement
0.81 – 0.99	Almost perfect agreement
1.00	Perfect agreement

Note. Adapted from Viera and Garrett (2005).

Manipulation Checks

In order to confirm the effectiveness of our performance and group manipulations, we conducted a set of analyses on the ratings of the target athlete's performance as well as the extent to which participants perceived the University of Oregon (n = 101) and Ohio State University (n = 102) as an outgroup and a rival of the University of Michigan (n = 99). The results of our Welch-corrected one-way ANOVA comparing the performance ratings between exposure to high and low performance confirmed the expected effects of our stimuli. Participants in the high performance

condition (n = 157; M_{HP} = 6.25, SD_{hp} = 0.93) rated the target athlete as performing significantly better, $F(1, 241.57) = 718.28$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .71$, than did those exposed to the low performance manipulation (n = 146; M_{LP} = 2.42, SD_{LP} = 1.48).

In determining the effect of our group manipulation across conditions, a paired-samples t-test on the perceived rivalry between the ingroup and outgroup teams revealed that participants significantly distinguished, $t(302) = -19.54$, $p < .001$, $d = -1.71$, Ohio State University (M = 6.25, SD = 1.39) as a more prominent rival of the University of Michigan than the University of Oregon (M = 3.44, SD = 1.86). Furthermore, an additional paired-samples t-test showed that participants significantly perceived, $t(302) = 10.04$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.79$, the University of Oregon (M = 4.87, SD = 1.61) as more of an outgroup than Ohio State University (M = 3.40, SD = 2.10). However, this finding may be explained by the direct nature and storied history of the rivalry between the University of Michigan and Ohio State University. That is, the rivalry between the two teams may implicitly contribute to the fans' perception of ingroup identity. Taken together, the composite scores of items concerning the outgroup illustrated that Ohio State University (M = 4.82, SD = 1.24) was significantly perceived, $t(302) = -8.50$, $p < .001$, $d = -0.57$, as more of an outgroup to the University of Michigan in comparison to the University of Oregon (M = 4.16, SD = 1.09).

Hypothesis Testing

Social media comments. In testing our predictions on the nature of the social media comments, we conducted a binary logistic regression using the group, performance, and player status conditions as predictors and the final binary codes from the results of our classification scheme as the outcome. We selected binary logistic

regression as our analysis due to the dichotomous aspects of our coding scheme (Bender & Grouven, 1998). The 95% confidence interval was estimated using a BCa bootstrap sampling iteration of 10,000. The test of the full regression model against a singular constant model indicated that our series of predictors significantly discriminated positive comments from negative ones, $\chi^2_{(4)} = 56.33$, $p < .001$. Overall, Nagelkerke's R^2 indicated that our grouping structure explained 25.3% of the variance and accurately classified 72.8% of cases. The goodness-of-fit as assessed by the Hosmer and Lemeshow test indicated that the model was a good fit to the data, $\chi^2_{(4)} = 11.59$, $p = .17$.

The omnibus regression analyses revealed that the group and performance predictors significantly contributed to the nature of social media comments, wherein high-performing athletes tended to garner more positive social media comments compared to athletes reflecting low performance. However, player status did not appear to influence this relationship. Accordingly, we examined this further by performing additional binary logistic regression analyses using planned contrasts between the levels of each of our predictors. In doing so, we also sought to examine the interaction effects of our predictors on our outcome measure. Table 26 provides a summary of the complete results of our logistic regression modeling.

The results from our binary logistic regression analyses indicated that exposure to athletes from both non-rival and rival outgroup teams was associated with an increased likelihood to provide negative comments toward the athlete compared to fans presented social media posts by an ingroup athlete. Analysis of the interaction effects revealed a marginally significant group × performance interaction ($p = .08$) along with a significant group × player status interaction ($p = .01$). Inspection of the group ×

performance contrasts illustrated that fans exposed to poor-performing ingroup athletes had a stronger proclivity to comment positively on the athlete's post in comparison to high-performing non-rival and rival outgroup athletes. Concerning the group × player status interaction, there was a higher tendency for fans who were presented a low-status ingroup athlete to provide more positive comments than fans exposed to a high-status rival athlete. However, there were no differences in the nature of the comments between a low-status ingroup athlete and a high-status non-rival outgroup player. Overall, the results offered partial evidence to support H_{3a}.

Table 26

Binary Logistic Regression Models for Nature of Social Media Comments

Model	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*BCa 95% CI*
Model 1: Main Effects					
Group	1.21***	.19	41.85	3.35	[0.84, 1.68]
Performance	-0.82**	.28	8.37	0.44	[-1.37, -0.31]
Player Status	0.01	.28	0.001	1.01	[-0.54, 0.56]
Model 2: Main Effect Contrasts					
Group (Outgroup)[a]	0.94**	.37	6.63	2.56	[0.22, 1.76]
Group (Rival)[a]	2.37***	.37	40.83	10.69	[1.62, 3.37]
Performance (High)[b]	-0.82**	.29	8.30	0.44	[-1.39, -0.31]
Player Status (5-star)[c]	0.01	.28	0.001	1.01	[-0.55, 0.58]
Model 3: Interaction Effects					
Group (Outgroup)[a]	0.28	.59	0.24	1.33	[-1.05, 1.60]
Group (Rival)[a]	0.88	.58	2.34	2.42	[-0.31, 2.32]
Performance (High)[b]	-2.76*	1.08	6.50	0.06	[-20.56, -1.47]
Player Status (5-star)[c]	-0.54	.62	0.77	0.58	[-1.70, 0.46]
Group × Performance			5.16†		
Group (Outgroup)[a] × Performance (High)[b]	2.56*	1.17	4.75	12.94	[0.33, 21.17]
Group (Rival)[a] × Performance (High)[b]	2.57*	1.18	4.75	13.03	[0.33, 21.33]
Group × Player Status			8.84*		
Group (Outgroup)[a] × Player Status (5-star)[c]	0.16	.82	0.04	1.17	[-1.84, 2.45]
Group (Rival)[a] × Player Status (5-star)[c]	2.00*	.86	5.36	7.40	[-0.20, 5.46]
Performance (High)[b] × Player Status (5-star)[c]	-0.70	.66	1.15	0.50	[-1.93, 0.33]

Note. †$p < .10$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$. Included $N = 276$. [a]Ingroup used as reference category. [b]Low performance used as reference category. [c]1-star used as reference category.

Product choice. A series of binary logistic regression analyses were also performed to test for differences in product selection using the aforementioned predictors (i.e., group, performance, and player status) and their composite interaction terms. Product choices were coded dichotomously, being categorized as either utilitarian (i.e., products displayed were uniform in color and design) or licensed products (i.e., items displayed the “M” block logo of the University of Michigan). We conducted a set of planned contrasts to compare differences in product choices across the levels of our predictors. As in previous analyses, the 95% confidence interval was

estimated based on 10,000 BCa resamples. Table 27 contains the results of the binary logistic regression analyses.

The comparison of the complete regression model against a constant one indicated that our predictors did not significantly distinguish licensed utilitarian product choices from non-licensed ones, $\chi^2_{(11)} = 1.38$, $p = .85$. The model explained 0.7% of the variance in the sample as denoted by Nagelkerke's R^2. Our grouping categorization of the product choices correctly classified 78.8% of the cases. The Hosmer and Lemeshow test indicated sufficient sampling adequacy and provided an indication of good overall model fit, $\chi^2_{(8)} = 8.70$, $p = .37$. Taken together, the results of our binary logistic regression analyses did not concede support for H_{3b}, as none of our predictors or their composite interaction terms significantly contributed to product choices (all p values > .05). Although these findings were not significant, our results could be explained by the contribution of team identification toward this relationship. A subsequent binary logistic regression including team identification as a predictor suggested that this factor significantly influenced licensed product choices ($B = 0.37$, $SE = .15$, $Wald\ \chi^2 = 6.40$, $p = .01$, $e^B = 1.45$, BCa 95% CI [0.05, 0.71]) over and above the original manipulated predictors (i.e., controlling for group, performance, and player status).

Table 27

Binary Logistic Regression Models for Product Choice

Model	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*BCa 95% CI*
Model 1: Main Effects					
Group	-0.04	.17	0.05	0.96	[-0.39, 0.30]
Performance	-0.23	.28	0.68	0.79	[-0.80, 0.31]
Player Status	0.06	.28	0.05	1.07	[-0.50, 0.64]
Model 2: Main Effect Contrasts					
Group (Rival)[a]	-0.27	.35	0.60	0.76	[-0.97, 0.39]
Group (Outgroup)[a]	0.08	.35	0.06	0.92	[-0.81, 0.62]
Performance (High)[b]	-0.23	.28	0.67	0.79	[-0.81, 0.32]
Player Status (5-star)[c]	0.07	.28	0.06	1.07	[-0.51, 0.64]
Model 3: Interaction Effects					
Group (Rival)[a]	0.21	.63	0.11	1.24	[-1.19, 1.83]
Group (Outgroup)[a]	-0.34	.60	0.33	0.71	[-1.62, 0.80]
Performance (High)[b]	-0.17	.58	0.09	0.85	[-1.41, 1.03]
Player Status (5-star)[c]	0.61	.62	0.98	1.84	[-0.77, 2.31]
Group × Performance			3.16		
Group (Rival)[a] × Performance (High)[b]	-0.37	.72	0.27	0.69	[-2.00, 1.19]
Group (Outgroup)[a] × Performance (High)[b]	0.84	.72	1.37	2.32	[-0.79, 2.78]
Group × Player Status			0.57		
Group (Rival)[a] × Player Status (High)[c]	-0.52	.70	0.55	0.59	[-2.06, 0.80]
Group (Outgroup)[a] × Player Status (High)[c]	-0.36	.72	0.24	0.70	[-2.03, 1.17]
Performance (High)[b] × Player Status (5-star)[c]	-0.44	.58	0.58	0.64	[-1.74, 0.75]

Note. **p* < .05. ***p* < .01. ****p* < .001. Included *N* = 302. [a]Ingroup used as reference category. [b]Low performance used as reference category. [c]1-star used as reference category.

Structural Equation Modeling

Confirmatory factor analysis. In order to test the proposed model presented in Figure 9, we constructed a measurement model using a set of latent variables produced from our dependent measures. Due to the overlapping nature of our performance-based (i.e., TE and CBT scales) and identity threat (i.e., IT and SIT assessments) measures, we merged these scales in the construction of our outcome variables. Overall, six latent variables were generated from our underlying items. In order to assess the measurement model, we utilized a second-order confirmatory factory analysis to evaluate the effectiveness of our latent variables. We gauged the fit of the measurement

model using several indices, as also employed in prior literature (Alexiev, Volberda, & van den Bosch, 2015; Kyle, Graefe, & Manning, 2005; Ngo, Foley, & Loi, 2009; Park & Vertinsky, 2016; Son & Kim, 2016). We selected the normed chi-square (χ^2/df), the incremental fit index (IFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), the comparative fit index (CFI), and the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA). As recommended by previous literature, the normed chi-square value must be less than or equal to a value of 3 for acceptance of a model (Carmines & McIver, 1981). Prior research has also suggested that, as a criterion for robust models, values of the RMSEA should be less than or equal to .08, while the fit indices (i.e., IFI, TLI, and CFI) should reflect values greater than or equal to .90 to indicate adequate fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Lee, 2016).

Our initial analysis of the measurement model revealed that the modification indices for the covariance between the error terms were elevated, contributing to a relatively poor model fit. Considering this, the sources of error for the items within our measurement model may be related to one other, owing to an intersection in conceptual nature. Thus, several error terms were correlated with each other. However, we restricted correlated error to be along the same latent variable, wherein items were of similar nature (i.e., measuring identical constructs). Within-factor error may be justifiable so long as the correlations occur across the same factor, as theorized and suggested by prior work (Byrne, 2013; Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008; Kenny, 2011; Reddy, 1992) and as performed by past research (Corrion, Gernigon, Debois, & D'Arripe-Longueville, 2013; Herring, Zamboanga, Olthuis, Pesigan, Martin, McAfee, & Martens, 2016; Williams, Cumming, Ntoumanis, Nordin-Bates, Ramsey, & Hall, 2012). Results from the second-order confirmatory factor analysis yielded acceptable model fit,

χ^2/df = 1388.70/769 = 1.83, p < .001, IFI = .95, TLI = .94, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .05. A first-order confirmatory factory analysis was also conducted to assess the fit of our proposed measurement model. In contrast to the second-order model, the first-order measurement model, χ^2/df = 1795.16/783 = 2.29, p < .001, IFI = .92, TLI = .91, CFI = .92, RMSEA = .07, showed significantly poorer fit than the second-order structure, $\Delta\chi^2_{(14)}$ = 406.46, p < .001.

Following our initial confirmatory analysis, we examined the factor loadings of the items to evaluate their necessity within each latent variable. Items that did not load sufficiently on the respective variable (λ = .40; Cascardi, Avery-Leaf, O'Leary, & Slep, 1999) were excluded from the final measurement model. This procedure resulted in the elimination of two items from the measurement model, one from the *threat* factor (i.e., IT_1; λ = .21) and one item from *negative social media intentions* (i.e., $NSMI_5$; λ = .39). The revised measurement model, χ^2/df = 1236.47/695 = 1.78, p < .001, IFI = .96, TLI = .95, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .05, showed slightly, but significantly improved fit compared to our initial model, $\Delta\chi^2_{(74)}$ = 152.23, p < .001. Thus, we utilized the revised measurement model in our subsequent analyses.

Validity. In assessing the convergent along with the discriminant validity between factors, we examined estimates of reliability, correlations, as well as extracted and shared variance. Our measures of composite reliability reflected sufficient internal consistency ($\rho_c \geq .70$) for use in the measurement model (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1992). To establish convergent validity, the average variance extracted (AVE) of each latent factor was inspected. Given that each construct reflected an AVE value above .50 (Lee, Cheung, & Chen, 2005; Segars, 1997), convergent validity was

accepted. Discriminant validity was established through an assessment of AVE values and maximum shared variance (MSV) along with average shared variance (ASV). Baum, Locke, and Smith (2001) and Kumari, Usmani, and Hussain (2015) have suggested that the AVE must be greater than the individual values of MSV and ASV in achieving discriminant validity. Suitably, the present study met this criterion for discriminant validity between latent constructs (see Table 28). In addition, discriminant validity was further confirmed through examination of the correlations between the latent variables. As illustrated in Table 29, the correlations between factors ranged from -.16 to .75, below the upper limit of .85 as put forward by Kline (2005). In addition, the squared correlations between constructs were less than the AVE for each construct, further sustaining discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Considering the results of our confirmatory factor analysis, the measurement model was deemed appropriate for further data analysis.

Table 28

Summary of Dependent Scales and Validity Measures

Construct Measure and Items	*M*	*SD*	λ	ρ_c	AVE	MSV	ASV
Team Identification				.90	.57	.03	.02
Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS)	5.63	0.92					
$SSIS_1$	5.87	1.03	.82				
$SSIS_2$	6.18	0.96	.84				
$SSIS_3$	6.05	0.99	.89				
$SSIS_4$	5.19	1.20	.72				
$SSIS_5$	5.74	1.12	.84				
$SSIS_6$	5.55	1.34	.48				
$SSIS_7$	4.83	1.65	.59				
Trait Evaluation				.96	.93	.56	.14
Competence-Based Trust (CBT)	4.67	1.71					
CBT_1	4.75	1.83	.95				
CBT_2	4.78	1.63	.88				
CBT_3	4.46	1.89	.96				
CBT_4	4.70	1.84	.95				
Trait Evaluation (TE)	4.68	1.43					
TE_1	4.72	1.71	.90				
TE_2	4.58	1.45	.75				
TE_3	4.72	1.60	.86				
TE_4	4.46	1.90	.92				
TE_5	4.92	1.57	.83				
TE_6	4.61	1.61	.81				
TE_7	4.76	1.61	.80				
Threat				.76	.62	.42	.15
Self-Identity Threat (SIT)	2.29	1.36					
SIT_1	2.33	1.50	.87				
SIT_2	2.10	1.46	.81				
SIT_3	2.33	1.52	.88				
SIT_4	2.40	1.56	.87				
Identity Threat (IT)	3.03	1.31					
IT_1	3.33	1.79	.21				
IT_2	2.86	1.83	.85				
IT_3	2.79	1.85	.75				
IT_4	3.12	1.76	.84				
Social Media Intentions				.92	.85	.30	.14
Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM)	3.29	1.79					
$eWOM_1$	3.16	1.82	.94				
$eWOM_2$	3.32	1.87	.93				
$eWOM_3$	3.39	1.90	.94				
General Social Media Measure (GSMM)	3.46	1.56					
$GSMM_1$	3.08	1.85	.77				
$GSMM_2$	4.22	1.79	.62				
$GSMM_3$	3.90	1.83	.69				
$GSMM_4$	2.65	1.79	.91				
Attitudes toward the Athlete (A_{ath})	5.90	2.36		.97	.92	.56	.14
A_{ath1}	5.97	2.31	.95				
A_{ath2}	5.78	2.50	.97				
A_{ath3}	5.94	2.48	.96				
Negative Social Media Intentions (NSMI)	2.59	1.28		.92	.69	.42	.14
$NSMI_1$	2.94	1.71	.50				
$NSMI_2$	2.16	1.50	.94				
$NSMI_3$	2.33	1.58	.87				
$NSMI_4$	2.23	1.49	.83				
$NSMI_5$	3.64	1.89	.39				
$NSMI_6$	2.21	1.52	.95				

Table 29

Correlations Between Constructs

Construct	1	2	3	4	5
1. Team Identification	–	–	–	–	–
2. Trait Evaluation	.15	–	–	–	–
3. Threat	-.16	-.11	–	–	–
4. Social Media Intentions	.10	.24	.54	–	–
5. Attitudes toward the Athlete	.14	.75	-.03	.34	–
6. Negative Social Media Intentions	-.15	-.20	.64	.47	-.13

General structural model. The proposed model was utilized to evaluate our hypotheses using a structural equation model (SEM). We conducted our SEM analyses using IBM SPSS Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 22. Table 30 provides the path coefficients and the full results of our analysis. Preliminary inspection of the model fit indices reflected that the structural model displayed sufficient fit, χ^2/df = 1375.67/767 = 1.79, $p < .001$, IFI = .95, TLI = .94, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .05. Overall, the SEM indicated that player status, performance, and team identification each showed positive significant path coefficients on trait evaluations of the target athlete. In addition, team identification negatively contributed to perceptions of threat by the fan, while positively influencing social media intentions. Our analysis of the aforementioned paths and the paths of the other latent constructs provided partial support for $H_{3c\text{-}3h}$. Trait evaluations expectedly contributed to more favorable attitudes toward the athlete. As predicted, perceived threat heightened general intentions to use social media and negative social media behaviors directed toward the athlete. Ultimately, attitudes toward the athlete positively impacted social media intentions. In view of these findings and given the underlying relationships as indicated in our structural model, we sought to

further examine the potential contributions of the selected constructs through an exploratory set of mediation analyses.

Table 30

Singular Paths of Structural Model

Predictor		*Outcome*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*
Player Status	→	**Trait Evaluation**	0.72	.13	.21	5.72	***
Player Status	→	Threat	-0.17	.16	-.07	-1.03	.30
Player Status	→	Attitudes toward the Athlete	-0.33	.12	-.07	-1.57	.12
Player Status	→	Social Media Intentions	0.13	.16	.04	0.81	.42
Player Status	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	-0.03	.15	-.01	-0.19	.85
Performance	→	**Trait Evaluation**	2.56	.14	.76	18.65	***
Performance	→	Threat	-0.12	.26	-.05	-0.47	.64
Performance	→	Attitudes toward the Athlete	-0.64	.33	-.14	-1.91	.06
Performance	→	Social Media Intentions	-0.16	.26	-.05	-0.60	.55
Performance	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	0.26	.24	.09	1.08	.28
Team Identification	→	**Trait Evaluation**	0.21	.07	.12	3.11	.002
Team Identification	→	**Threat**	-0.18	.08	-.16	-2.16	.03
Team Identification	→	Attitudes toward the Athlete	0.07	.11	.03	0.60	.55
Team Identification	→	**Social Media Intentions**	0.23	.09	.15	2.66	.01
Team Identification	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	-0.03	.08	-.02	-0.38	.70
Trait Evaluation	→	Threat	-0.04	.08	-.06	-0.48	.63
Trait Evaluation	→	**Attitudes toward the Athlete**	1.22	.11	.87	10.90	***
Trait Evaluation	→	Social Media Intentions	0.10	.11	.11	0.88	.38
Trait Evaluation	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	-0.13	.10	-.15	-1.30	.20
Threat	→	Attitudes toward the Athlete	0.11	.10	.05	1.09	.28
Threat	→	**Social Media Intentions**	0.84	.10	.64	8.24	***
Threat	→	**Negative Social Media Intentions**	0.88	.09	.69	9.81	***
Attitudes toward the Athlete	→	**Social Media Intentions**	0.19	.05	.30	3.63	***
Attitudes toward the Athlete	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	-0.02	.05	-.03	-0.31	.75

Note. ***$p < .001$. Significant paths ($p < .05$) are in bold.

Exploratory inspection of mediation. Prior to conducting the mediation analyses, we compared our proposed model to a competing model, which omitted the effects of the mediators, to evaluate if the relationships between variables were either fully or partially mediated. The competing model provided indices of adequate fit, $\chi^2/df =$

1726.61/776 = 2.23, $p < .001$, IFI = .92, TLI = .91, CFI = .92, RMSEA = .06. Nevertheless, a chi-square difference test contrasting the original model, which included the mediating relationships between variables, and the competing model revealed that our full model was a statistically significant, better fit, $\Delta\chi^2_{(9)} = 350.94$, $p < .001$. As such, this indicated that the mediating relationships within our model were partial mediations. Accordingly, we tested the effects of our indirect relationships utilizing the original model. A series of Sobel tests were also performed in order to assess the significance of the indirect effects of the predictors on the outcome variables through the mediators.

Within the conceptual model, our assessment of the underlying mediating relationships between the constructs used in the present study was generally nonsignificant. However, the relationships between player status, performance, and team identification on attitudes toward the athlete were partially mediated by trait evaluation. The data also revealed that the pathway from team identification to both general and negative social media intentions was partially mediated by threat. Lastly, attitudes toward the athlete had a negative indirect effect on the relationship between player status and social media intentions. The results of our mediated SEM analyses are presented in Table 31.

Table 31

Mediation Analyses of Latent Constructs

Mediated Relationship	*B*	*Sobel's t*	*p*
Player Status → Trait Evaluation → Threat	-0.03	-0.50	.62
Player Status → Trait Evaluation → Attitudes toward the Athlete	0.88	4.95	***
Player Status → Trait Evaluation → Social Media Intentions	0.07	0.90	.37
Player Status → Trait Evaluation → Negative Social Media Intentions	-0.09	-0.81	.42
Player Status → Threat → Attitudes toward the Athlete	-0.02	-0.76	.44
Player Status → Threat → Social Media Intentions	-0.14	-1.05	.29
Player Status → Threat → Negative Social Media Intentions	-0.15	-1.06	.29
Player Status → Attitudes toward the Athlete → Social Media Intentions	-0.06	-2.23	.03
Player Status → Attitudes toward the Athlete → Negative Social Media Intentions	0.01	0.40	.69
Performance → Trait Evaluation → Threat	-0.10	-0.50	.62
Performance → Trait Evaluation → Attitudes toward the Athlete	3.12	9.48	***
Performance → Trait Evaluation → Social Media Intentions	0.26	0.91	.36
Performance → Trait Evaluation → Negative Social Media Intentions	-0.33	-1.30	.19
Performance → Threat → Attitudes toward the Athlete	-0.01	-0.43	.67
Performance → Threat → Social Media Intentions	-0.10	-0.46	.64
Performance → Threat → Negative Social Media Intentions	-0.11	-0.46	.64
Performance → Attitudes toward the Athlete → Social Media Intentions	-0.12	-1.73	.08
Performance → Attitudes toward the Athlete → Negative Social Media Intentions	0.01	0.39	.70
Team Identification → Trait Evaluation → Threat	-0.01	-0.49	.62
Team Identification → Trait Evaluation → Attitudes toward the Athlete	0.26	2.90	.004
Team Identification → Trait Evaluation → Social Media Intentions	0.02	0.87	.38
Team Identification → Trait Evaluation → Negative Social Media Intentions	-0.03	-1.19	.23
Team Identification → Threat → Attitudes toward the Athlete	-0.02	-0.99	.32
Team Identification → Threat → Social Media Intentions	-0.15	-2.17	.03
Team Identification → Threat → Negative Social Media Intentions	-0.16	-2.19	.03
Team Identification → Attitudes toward the Athlete → Social Media Intentions	0.01	0.63	.53
Team Identification → Attitudes toward the Athlete → Negative Social Media Intentions	-0.001	-0.34	.73

Note. ***$p < .001$. Significant mediated paths ($p < .05$) are in bold.

Group comparisons. The influence of the target athlete's group membership on the proposed paths of our general structural model were examined through multigroup SEM models. Prior to our comparisons of path coefficients amongst the groups, we tested for measurement invariance, specifically factor loading invariance, using procedures outlined by van de Schoot, Lugtig, and Hox (2012). We sought to ensure that the latent constructs were interpreted similarly across experimental conditions. In

doing so, we performed two confirmatory factor analyses contrasting a constrained model, wherein factor loadings were forced to be equal across groups, against a model without these constraints. We conducted a chi-square difference test and compared the CFI and RMSEA values to establish invariance. As proposed by Cheung and Rensvold (2002), in order to accept invariance, the chi-square difference test must not be significant, the difference in CFI values must be less than or equal to .01, and the value of the RMSEA between the models must both fall within the other's 90% confidence intervals (Timmons, 2010).

In testing for factor loading invariance, the chi-square difference test between the unconstrained model, χ^2/df = 3260.06/2085 = 1.56, $p < .001$, CFI = .906, RMSEA = .043, and the constrained model, χ^2/df = 3494.41/2157 = 1.62, $p < .001$, CFI = .893, RMSEA = .046 was significant, $\Delta\chi^2_{(72)} = 234.35$, $p < .001$. Furthermore, the ΔCFI was equal to .013, thus indicating slightly meaningful changes between the models. However, Chen, Sousa, and West (2005) have noted that the chi-square difference test may be sensitive to sample size and estimated parameters. As such, we also examined the resultant RMSEA values and their confidence intervals from our confirmatory factor analyses. Both models contained the RMSEA from the other model (i.e., $RMSEA_{unconstrained}$ = .043, 90% $CI_{unconstrained}$ [.041, .046]; $RMSEA_{constrained}$ = .046, 90% $CI_{constrained}$ [.043, .048]). Consequently, although our multigroup model may have violated certain conditions of invariance, the minor changes in CFI and inspection of the RMSEA values may allow for the determination of marginal invariance among groups, thus permitting group comparisons.

The overall structural model reflected marginal, yet generally adequate fit, χ^2/df = 3570.18/2295 = 1.56, $p < .001$, IFI = .90, TLI = .89, CFI = .90, RMSEA = .04. Our analyses indicated that the path from player status and performance to trait evaluations was significant for participants exposed to an ingroup athlete. In addition, the path from team identification to negative social media intentions was also significant for those subjected to ingroup athletes. In addition, the relationships for participants shown ingroup players between trait evaluation and threat, attitudes toward the ingroup athlete, and both general and negative social media intentions were significant. As expected, the pathway from threat positively heightened both general and negative social media behaviors directed toward the ingroup athlete. Similar to ingroup scenarios, the relationship between player status and trait evaluations was significant in situations involving both non-rival outgroup and rival players.

With regards to conditions regarding a non-rival outgroup player, performance significantly amplified both trait evaluations and threat. Trait evaluation also significantly contributed to lower threat in fans exposed to non-rival outgroup athletes. This construct also positively influenced both general and negative social media behaviors for a non-rival outgroup athlete. Likewise, the path from team identification to social media intentions was significant for exposures to both non-rival outgroup and rival athletes. Additionally, team identification positively contributed to trait evaluations involving rival athletes. Rival scenarios also produced significant relationships between performance and trait evaluations as well as trait evaluation and attitudes toward the athlete. For situations involving both non-rival outgroup and rival athletes, threat significantly contributed to higher general and negative social media behaviors. Lastly, the path from

player status and threat to attitudes toward the athlete was significant for individuals posed with situations involving a rival athlete, where player status negatively impacted this relationship and threat positively influenced this outcome. Table 32 provides a summary of the path coefficients by group from our SEM analyses.

Table 32

Path Coefficients of Multigroup Structural Equation Models

			Ingroup					Non-Rival Outgroup					Rival				
Predictor		*Outcome*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*
Player Status	→	Trait Evaluation	**0.83**	**.20**	**.24**	**4.11**	***	**0.82**	**.21**	**.24**	**3.84**	***	**0.66**	**.23**	**.21**	**2.90**	**.004**
Player Status	→	Threat	-0.27	.23	-.12	-1.17	.24	0.03	.15	.03	0.22	.83	0.04	.24	.02	0.15	.89
Player Status	→	Attitudes toward the Athlete	0.46	.32	.09	1.46	.14	-0.44	.29	-.11	-1.48	.14	**-1.06**	**.40**	**-.23**	**-2.67**	**.01**
Player Status	→	Social Media Intentions	-0.14	.31	-.05	-0.44	.66	-0.17	.34	-.05	-0.50	.62	0.18	.25	.07	0.72	.47
Player Status	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	-0.30	.25	-.10	1.21	.23	-0.06	.31	-.02	-0.19	.85	0.01	.28	.002	0.02	.99
Performance	→	Trait Evaluation	**2.73**	**.22**	**.80**	**12.44**	***	**2.71**	**.24**	**.78**	**11.28**	***	**2.23**	**.24**	**.69**	**9.18**	***
Performance	→	Threat	-0.31	.39	-.13	-0.80	.42	**0.64**	**.26**	**.53**	**2.47**	**.01**	0.03	.34	.02	0.10	.92
Performance	→	Attitudes toward the Athlete	-0.56	.54	-.11	-1.02	.31	-0.92	.55	-.22	-1.66	.10	-0.41	.57	-.09	-0.72	.47
Performance	→	Social Media Intentions	-0.76	.54	-.26	-1.43	.15	-0.88	.61	-.27	-1.44	.15	-0.17	.34	-.07	-0.51	.62
Performance	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	-0.29	.42	-.10	-0.70	.49	-0.92	.58	-.31	-1.57	.12	0.13	.38	.05	0.34	.73
Team Identification	→	Trait Evaluation	0.18	.17	.07	1.07	.29	0.15	.11	.09	1.38	.17	**0.28**	**.11**	**.20**	**2.66**	**.01**
Team Identification	→	Threat	-0.13	.17	-.07	-0.73	.47	-0.11	.07	-.18	-1.48	.14	-0.20	.11	-.25	-1.88	.06
Team Identification	→	Attitudes toward the Athlete	-0.15	.23	-.04	-0.64	.52	0.10	.14	.05	0.70	.49	0.24	.19	.12	1.26	.21
Team Identification	→	Social Media Intentions	0.26	.24	.11	1.09	.28	**0.44**	**.17**	**.28**	**2.60**	**.01**	**0.22**	**.12**	**.21**	**1.93**	**.05**
Team Identification	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	**-0.46**	**.21**	**-.20**	**-2.20**	**.03**	0.24	.15	.17	1.61	.11	0.18	.13	.16	1.44	.15
Trait Evaluation	→	Threat	**-0.32**	**.13**	**-.48**	**-2.52**	**.01**	**-0.28**	**.09**	**-.81**	**-3.32**	***	0.18	.12	.30	1.52	.13
Trait Evaluation	→	Attitudes toward the Athlete	**1.40**	**.19**	**.89**	**7.24**	***	**1.26**	**.20**	**1.07**	**6.34**	***	**0.79**	**.20**	**.56**	**3.90**	***
Trait Evaluation	→	Social Media Intentions	**0.54**	**.26**	**.62**	**2.05**	**.04**	**0.61**	**.28**	**.67**	**2.19**	**.03**	-0.13	.13	-.17	-1.02	.31
Trait Evaluation	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	**0.43**	**.21**	**.49**	**2.10**	**.04**	**0.61**	**.27**	**.72**	**2.25**	**.03**	**-0.39**	**.15**	**-.46**	**-2.67**	**.01**
Threat	→	Attitudes toward the Athlete	-0.16	.18	-.07	-0.90	.37	0.60	.38	.18	1.61	.11	**0.57**	**.29**	**.24**	**2.00**	**.05**
Threat	→	Social Media Intentions	**0.80**	**.21**	**.63**	**3.74**	***	**2.15**	**.51**	**.81**	**4.24**	***	**1.20**	**.23**	**.92**	**5.20**	***
Threat	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	**1.14**	**.20**	**.89**	**5.70**	***	**2.48**	**.54**	**1.03**	**4.57**	***	**1.22**	**.21**	**.84**	**5.96**	***
Attitudes toward the Athlete	→	Social Media Intentions	0.12	.12	.22	1.00	.32	0.18	.14	.22	1.24	.22	0.06	.07	.11	0.91	.36
Attitudes toward the Athlete	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	-0.03	.10	-.05	-0.30	.76	-0.20	.13	-.28	-1.53	.13	-0.03	.07	-.06	-0.46	.65

Note. ***$p < .001$. The coefficients and relevant critical values of significant paths ($p < .05$) are in bold.

Multigroup comparisons. Following our examination of the multigroup path coefficients, we sought to compare parameter estimates among the groups. As similarly performed by Brand and Koch (2016), Kruse, Hagerty, Byers, Gatien, and Williams (2014), as well as Alards-Tomalin, Ansons, Reich, Sakamoto, Davie, Leboe-McGowan, and Leboe-McGowan (2014), the multigroup model tests were conducted utilizing *z*-score procedures, employing the unstandardized estimates and standard errors from the path coefficients. We made use of a statistical software program created by Gaskin (2012) in computing the critical tests among groups.

Path comparisons between the groups suggested that ingroup player status was a more prominent predictor of attitudes toward the athlete in comparison to non-rival and rival outgroup statuses. In addition, trait evaluations significantly predicted attitudes toward the athlete, social media intentions, and negative social media intentions directed toward the ingroup athlete in comparison to the rival athlete. However, our results also indicated that team identification served as a greater deterrent toward social media intentions of derogative nature relating to the ingroup athlete compared to both a non-rival and a rival outgroup target. Furthermore, threat was significantly influenced by trait evaluations for fans exposed to rival athletes than for those presented ingroup athlete scenarios. Compared to the ingroup athlete, threat played a significantly increased role in attitudes toward the athlete for those presented the rival player.

The effect of performance on perceived threat was more prominent for fans viewing non-rival outgroup athlete scenarios compared to ingroup situations. Resultantly, threat emerged as a significant predictor of both general and negative social media intentions concerning the non-rival outgroup athlete when contrasted with

the ingroup player. With regards to distinctions between the athlete stemming from a rival or non-rival outgroup, non-rival outgroup athletes tended to generate significantly greater general and negative social media intentions. Both trait evaluations and threat concerning these athletes produced significantly different impacts on negative social media behaviors in comparison to rival players. In contrast, trait evaluations generated greater intentions of general social media use for non-rival outgroup athletes compared to rival players. Notably, however, there were no other significant differences in these contrasts between participants exposed to non-rival and rival outgroup athletes. The findings from our comparisons are displayed in Table 33.

Table 33

Path Coefficient Comparisons Amongst Groups

			Ingroup vs. Non-Rival Outgroup		*Ingroup vs. Rival*		*Non-Rival Outgroup vs. Rival*	
Predictor		*Outcome*	*z*	*p*	*z*	*p*	*z*	*p*
Player Status	→	Trait Evaluation	0.03	.97	0.56	.58	0.51	.61
Player Status	→	Threat	-1.09	.27	-0.93	.35	-0.04	.97
Player Status	→	Attitudes toward the Athlete	**2.08**	**.04**	**2.97**	**.003**	1.25	.21
Player Status	→	Social Media Intentions	0.07	.95	-0.80	.42	-0.83	.41
Player Status	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	-0.60	.55	-0.83	.41	-0.17	.87
Performance	→	Trait Evaluation	0.06	.95	1.54	.12	1.41	.16
Performance	→	Threat	**-2.03**	**.04**	-0.66	.51	1.43	.15
Performance	→	Attitudes toward the Athlete	0.47	.64	-0.19	.85	-0.64	.52
Performance	→	Social Media Intentions	0.15	.88	-0.92	.36	-1.02	.31
Performance	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	0.88	.38	-0.74	.46	-1.51	.13
Team Identification	→	Trait Evaluation	0.15	.88	-0.49	.62	-0.84	.40
Team Identification	→	Threat	-0.11	.91	0.35	.73	0.69	.49
Team Identification	→	Attitudes toward the Athlete	-0.93	.35	-1.31	.19	-0.59	.55
Team Identification	→	Social Media Intentions	-0.61	.54	0.15	.88	1.06	.29
Team Identification	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	**-2.71**	**.01**	**-2.59**	**.01**	0.30	.76
Trait Evaluation	→	Threat	-0.25	.80	**-2.83**	**.01**	-3.07	.002
Trait Evaluation	→	Attitudes toward the Athlete	0.51	.61	**2.21**	**.03**	1.66	.10
Trait Evaluation	→	Social Media Intentions	-0.18	.85	**2.30**	**.02**	**2.40**	**.02**
Trait Evaluation	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	-0.53	.60	**3.18**	**.001**	**3.24**	**.001**
Threat	→	Attitudes toward the Athlete	-1.81	.07	**-2.14**	**.03**	0.06	.95
Threat	→	Social Media Intentions	**-2.45**	**.01**	-1.28	.20	1.70	.09
Threat	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	**-2.33**	**.02**	-0.28	.78	**2.17**	**.03**
Attitudes toward the Athlete	→	Social Media Intentions	-0.33	.74	0.43	.67	0.77	.44
Attitudes toward the Athlete	→	Negative Social Media Intentions	1.04	.30	0.00	1.00	-1.15	.25

Note. The *z*-scores and *p*-values of significant differences ($p < .05$) between groups are in bold.

Supplementary Analyses

Perceived rivalry. The effects of perceived rivalry were initially tested through a series of linear regression analyses. Primarily, we assessed the contributing effect of team identification on rivalry. Subsequently, the influence of rivalry on each of our outcome measures was evaluated. The 95% confidence interval was estimated using a BCa resampling of 10,000 samples. The results of our regression analyses are presented in Table 34. As predicted, the level of team identification significantly predicted perceived rivalry. However, the perceived level of rivalry directed toward outgroup teams did not significantly contribute to judgments of trait evaluation, perceptions of threat, attitudes toward the athlete, or social media intentions (all *p* values > .05). Nevertheless, rivalry did appear to significantly predict negative social media intentions. Thus, our data simply provided support for our predictions concerning negative social media behaviors, as stated in H_{3l}.

Table 34

Supplemental Regression Analyses on Perceived Rivalry

Predictor	*Outcome*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*BCa 95% CI*
Team Identification	Rivalry	0.39***	.05	.45	7.20	[0.28, 0.48]
Rivalry	Trait Evaluation	0.03	.13	.01	0.21	[-0.29, 0.33]
	Threat	-0.05	.09	-.04	-0.57	[-0.24, 0.12]
	Attitudes toward the Athlete	-0.14	.18	-.05	-0.76	[-0.60, 0.31]
	Social Media Intentions	0.10	.12	.06	0.89	[-0.14, 0.32]
	Negative Social Media Intentions	0.29**	.11	.19	2.73	[0.08, 0.50]

Note. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Discussion

Findings and Significance of Research

Study 3 was conducted in order to establish the influence of member status and outgroup salience on outcomes related to trait evaluations, identity threat, as well as product choice and social media behaviors in sports fans. The results from Study 3 provided partial support of our hypotheses, offering exploration into potential mediators of such outcomes and the mechanisms implicated between groups. On the whole, our findings suggest that player status serves an integral role in how the competence and performance of athletes may be perceived. Given the contributory effects of this factor on trait evaluations, sports fans may be more prone to providing more favorable judgments of athletes that are perceived as being elite. In addition, performance also appears to promote such evaluations, wherein higher performing athletes garner more positive judgments from fans, as similarly found in Studies 1 and 2.

Consistent with prior literature (Marques et al., 1998a) and in support of the SGD identification hypothesis (Abrams et al., 2003), higher identification to the group (i.e., team identification) enhanced trait evaluations and lowered threat experienced by fans. This finding may address the bolstering utility of team identification in valuing more normative behaviors (i.e., higher performance). Moreover, team identification also impacted social media intentions, suggesting that more highly identified sports fans may be more likely to engage in social media behaviors as a means to convey information about athletes in general. Likewise, fans who felt threatened by an athlete displayed a tendency to seek out social media, as in Study 2, but also exhibited an inclination to engage in negative social media behaviors. This finding suggests that when fans

perceive threats to their social identity, they may attempt to diminish the repercussions of such threat by derogating the source of the threat, in this case, the athlete.

In considering the underlying mediating impacts of our constructs, it appears that trait evaluations indirectly impact attitudes toward the athlete when preceded by player status, performance, and team identification. This finding may inform the literature by illustrating how trait evaluations can operate through various antecedents and hence, positively affect similar outcomes. In a similar vein, threat indirectly influenced the relationship between team identification and both general and negative social media intentions. Herein, more highly identified sports fans tended to engage in such social media behaviors particularly when under threat. This may imply that threat may explain the nature of social media behaviors, particularly when the fan feels more connected to the team.

Furthermore, our findings also reveal how the saliency of the outgroup can produce distinct effects amongst sports fans. In view of comparisons among the groups, fans of the ingroup tended to regard player status as a more prominent indicator of attitudes toward the ingroup athlete in comparison to similar non-rival or rival outgroup athletes. This result may be indicative of favorability toward a presumed elite athlete, predominantly when that player is from the ingroup. In addition, sport fans also perceived greater threat following low performance by an ingroup athlete than outgroup athletes who performed at a high level, suggesting that ingroup failure may pose a greater threat to the fan identity than success by an outgroup. Fans were also more likely to share information about an outgroup athlete when under threat and were

especially prone to engaging in negative social media intentions when perceiving outgroup threat.

With respect to rival groups, highly identified ingroup fans displayed a tendency to direct negative social media behaviors at the rival to a greater extent than the ingroup. In line with prior research on rivalry, we may infer that rival athletes may induce more polarizing motivation for the fan to attack rivals on various platforms (Lee, 1985). Pertaining to contrasts between the non-rival and rival outgroups, our findings revealed that fans who provided more favorable trait evaluations were more likely to share information about the non-rival outgroup athlete as opposed to intending to use social media to communicate about a rival athlete. Furthermore, this propensity for general social media behavior following favorable trait evaluations also applied to negative social media intentions. That is, fans who provided higher performance ratings of a non-rival outgroup athlete displayed a stronger inclination to derogate that same athlete on social media to a greater extent than fans presented rival athletes.

In light of these results, sports fans appear to have both a greater tendency to communicate about a high-performing non-rival outgroup athlete in general and derogate that same player on social media. However, when a rival player is involved, fans do not exhibit this behavior. From this, we can surmise that fans may see the rival athlete's performance as more threatening toward their self-concept. As illustrated by our results, threat stemming from the non-rival outgroup encouraged fans to engage in social media behavior remarkably more than when threat originated from a rival player. Resultantly, fans may avoid sharing information or derogating the rival athlete altogether as a means to safeguard their social identity. In other words, fans may be motivated to

avoid deleterious recoil from other fans of rival teams following derogatory tactics. In addition, given the evidence to suggest social media as an outlet to portray one's self more favorably (Dunne, Lawlor, & Rowley, 2010), fans may avoid hostile situations to simply protect their extended online images.

Focusing on explicit social media behaviors, findings from our study supported the notion of a bias toward the ingroup athlete, in which fans provided more positive comments to the ingroup athlete compared to the non-rival and rival outgroup players, even when exposed to low performance. To note, these effects were more pronounced when in comparison with rival players as opposed to non-rival outgroup athletes, further verifying the importance of outgroup salience. However, player status alone did not appear to supplement comments by fans, signifying that the standing of the player may not be an important factor when coming to decisions to provide support on social media to ingroup athletes. In view of the findings regarding product choices, our results did not reinforce the notion of the "shaken self" (Gao et al., 2009) or the application of the BSE (Marques et al., 1988) in such a consumptive context. Rather, choices between utilitarian or licensed products appeared to be guided by team identification, wherein emotional attachments to the team appeared to prevail over our performance, player status, and group manipulations.

As a result, these findings may point toward a generalized favorability of licensed products over utilitarian ones. Accordingly, this finding may be explained by prior work on fan perceptions of sport licensed products. Franklin (2011) has underscored the essentialism of fans seeking out and owning products of their favorite teams (e.g., in the present context, items with the University of Michigan's "M" block logo). Consequently,

fans may have been driven to select these licensed products by way of the vitality of the product in portraying oneself as a fan of the ingroup team. In addition, research by Papadimitriou and Apostolopoulou (2015) has demonstrated that licensed products carry significant meaning to fans. Therefore, sport consumers' may display a greater willingness to purchase such products due to the aestheticism of the product and personal history with the team. In other words, the utilitarian function of licensed items expands beyond functional use, holding experiential and symbolic meaning for fans. Appropriately, sports consumers exhibit a tendency to seek out such connotations in licensed products over the selection of purely utilitarian items, regardless of antecedents (Apostolopoulou, Papadimitriou, & Damtsiou, 2010; Apostolopoulou, Papadimitriou, Synowka, & Clark, 2012).

Applied Impact

The current study offers numerous implications for sports marketers, managers, and practitioners within the realm of sports. Foremost, Study 3 delivers evidence that may be appropriate in social media advertisement campaigns. In view of the results suggesting heightened levels of threat from rival teams leading to a greater avoidance of social media, teams may find it promising to carefully solicit advertisements or endorsements of various sponsors during such instances. Although this may hinder operations for teams in states of personnel restoration or for those experiencing a spell of poor performance, our findings also illustrate that threat from non-rival outgroup teams may not be as debilitating to such outcomes than threat from rival organizations. Considering this, marketing departments should be careful to monitor the team's,

individual players', along with recent opponents' performances when launching various campaigns on social media.

Moreover, our results may also be valuable in promoting sales of various products. Although teams clearly target more highly identified fans when attempting to sell licensed items, managers should consider directing specific merchandise and campaigns toward lower identified fans. Seeing as Study 3 observed a surmount of team identification concerning product choices when controlling for sources of threat (e.g., low performance), marketing departments may seek to both heighten identification within the fan base in combination with alleviating threat through social media, as also noted in Study 2. In doing so, practitioners may see vast growth in sales, given the protective function that team identification may serve over performance or even the status of the athlete.

Limitations

In spite of the important findings and implications of the current study, we were obstructed by a few limitations. Primarily, the items used in our product choice scenario may have been overly simplistic. It is possible that sports fans preferred licensed products over purely utilitarian ones simply due to the appeal of the items themselves. That is, items bearing the team logo may have possessed underlying hedonistic qualities (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982) due to the inherent nature of sports as entertainment. Given that fountain pens and coffee mugs are quite ordinary, the licensed versions of these items may have been more desirable purely out of differentiations from the functional nature of such products.

In addition, mere fanship toward the ingroup team could have also dictated these product choices. As a result, the manner in which our stimuli affected our product choice measure may have been overridden by team identification, as also illustrated by our results. Therefore, it may be constructive to compare not only licensed or utilitarian products, but rather licensed products that may spur individual-related choices. In other words, seeing as our scenario of an individual athlete was not powerful enough to motivate utilitarian choices over licensed ones, we may consider employing paralleled choices of team-related items (i.e., team jerseys, apparel, or other team-related accessories) along with athlete-level products (i.e., player jerseys and player-related accessories), as a means to discern how the “shaken self” may contextually operate in sports fans.

Furthermore, Study 3 may have also been restricted by the usage of solely an on-field performance scenario. Considering the evidence to suggest the function of other factors in sports consumption behaviors (e.g., the matter of moral-related athlete behaviors; Bowen & Stumpf, 2015; Lee & Kwak, 2015a; Lohneiss & Hill, 2014), it may be promising to incorporate other types of athlete scenarios. Although performance situations may stimulate certain behaviors in fans, the inclusion of a wider range of athlete actions is crucial in order to understand the full spectrum of reactions by fans. Thus, further study into group dynamics of sports fans should utilize both performance- and moral-related scenarios with the aim of examining the operation of SGD and related concepts.

Closing Remarks

Collectively, the results of Study 3 illuminate the absolute magnitude of outgroup salience within sports fans, particularly in their social media behaviors. Although outgroups with less frequent interaction with the ingroup may facilitate the proclivity for ingroup fans to engage in derogation, Study 3 illustrates the significance of rivals for sports fans. On the whole, though the non-rival outgroup was treated similarly to the rival with respect to our outcome measures, we were able to expound variances in simply how fans treat different outgroups. By utilizing scenarios involving both a rival and non-rival outgroup, the current study was able to distinguish important differences in online fan behaviors. In addition, this study also divulges how player status can contribute to fan perceptions. In line with previous research on member status (Biernat et al., 1999), Study 3 was able to demonstrate how the status of the athlete could influence trait evaluations. However, no other differences emerged, suggesting the limited role that athlete status plays in other outcomes (e.g., threat, attitudes toward the athlete, and social media behaviors).

Taking into account the findings from the present study, we are able to emphasize more important factors concerning fan behavior, such as the role of team identification in product choice. To our knowledge, our study also provides the first simultaneous examination of the ingroup, non-rival outgroup, and rival outgroup in the context of a competitive intergroup consumption environment. In addition, our study adds to the literature by pinpointing how outgroup salience can affect sport consumers' evaluations of athletes on social media. Ultimately, our findings stress the role of player status in these behaviors, illustrating how fans cope with such outgroup threats by

allowing ingroup favoritism to persist, even in the presence of high-status outgroup athletes. Nevertheless, although we were able to offer sound insights into such factors, we were limited by the singular consideration of performance as a determinant of fan behavior. As such, we attempt to address this narrow focus in Study 4, thereby broadening the scope of our examination of sports fans. Specifically, we seek to apply additional theoretical concepts in ascertaining how SGD, the “shaken self,” as well as other constructs influence the operation of athlete evaluations and sports consumption behaviors in fans.

CHAPTER V

Study 4

Expanding the Inspection of Athlete Behavior:

The Influence of Moral-Related Actions and Moral Reasoning Strategies

Introduction

Deviancy in sports can encompass an assortment of behaviors by athletes. As we have seen in our first three experiments, meager performance can be perceived by sports fans as a departure from valued norms and goals within sports. As a result, fans will derogate these poor-performing deviants and engage in other behaviors to reflect their disgust with the devaluation of norms by such members (e.g., through various actions on social media). However, performance is not the sole comportment that can create disparities in the assessment of athletes and give rise to the disparaging of such players among and between sport fan groups. As Delaney (2016) has pointed out and as previously noted in the present composition, deviance in sports can occur in many ways. For instance, sports preach a sense of character and valor both on-field and off-the-field. On one hand, those who engage in fair sportsmanship, respect, and obedience to authority are hailed as consummate athletes. On the other hand, players who infringe upon such virtues are held in contempt. In other words, actions that implicate a corrupted sense of morality can bring about harsh criticism of guilty parties.

Moral Actions

As a case in point, off-the-field deviance can entail acts involving domestic violence, driving under the influence of alcohol or other drugs, and/or munitions and additional weapons charges (Delaney, 2016). In contrast, on-field deviance can involve the proverbial “grey area” within sports, wherein a set of on-field acts are often perceived as being ambiguous with respect to overstepping normative boundaries. For example, Delaney has asserted that conduct that is “part of the game,” such as intentionally striking a batter with a pitch in order to “send a message” in baseball, may be tolerable and regularly customary in certain sports. However, poor sportsmanship and contravening of both societal and game rules can make an athlete the subject of criticism. As an example, “dirty plays” within sports, like tackling a player above the neck with the intent to injure or targeting a recovering, or formerly-wounded, athlete in his/her area of injury (e.g., below the knees), can bring the values of not only the team, but more specifically the athlete into question. Even though actions such as these do certainly transpire on all levels of organized sport (Messner, 1990), this form of deviance can produce denigration of aberrant athletes.

Although sports do cherish and herald athletes with the clichéd “win at all costs” mentality, such an outlook in sports can generate actions that disrupt various ethical and more significantly, moral barriers (Delaney, 2016). Despite the established rules and regulations for athletes to follow within sports, individuals may nevertheless go about engaging in behavior that violates these norms. As we have noted, on-field and off-the-field deviance can be a product of such defiance. However, even though insubordination off-the-field can engender derogation in groups, it is often the case that

on-field deviance can give rise to more potent reactions by sports fans. A study by Hughes and Shank (2005), which examined how indignities by athlete endorsers could affect sponsors, found that performance-enhancing drug (PED), or steroid, use which may also be construed as an off-the-field behavior (Delaney, 2016), is commonly perceived as an on-field action that violates norms in the sport by consumers. In turn, such steroid abuse operates as a desecration toward the values within sports as a whole and can reflect deleteriously on the athlete. As a result, Hughes and Shank noted that such actions can bring about an excess of unfavorable media coverage and ravage the sport spectators' perception of the athlete and associated team.

Given the group-centered nature of the entirety of this dissertation, the adverse effects on the athlete stemming from negative behaviors also point towards the athlete's group membership. It is often the case that deviance acts as a collective indication of the group. For instance, the tenet of *least significant morality* posited by sociologist, Melvin Tumin, proposes that immoral behavior can produce the existence of an unfavorable group image and stimulate aversive outcomes for other group members. Tumin notes that a single member who deviates from the group's perceived morality can damage this image (as cited in Eitzen, 2005):

> In any social group, the moral behavior of the group as an average will tend to sink to that of the least moral participant, and the least moral participant will, in that sense, control the group unless he is otherwise restrained and/or expelled… Bad money may not always drive out good money, though it almost always does. But 'bad' conduct surely drives out 'good' conduct with predictable vigor and speed. (p. 178)

This principle proposed by Tumin addresses the nature of how individuals in groups go about "restraining" or "expelling" a deviant group member. Likewise, in sports, fans may also exhibit these tendencies by criticizing such deviant athletes, as also illustrated in Studies 1 through 3. However, a crucial factor that may affect this relationship is how the individual fan goes about determining the extent of the deviancy through his/her own moral codes. As a result, even fans may attempt to vindicate such behaviors in order to legitimize these occurrences, as similarly noted in the processes of self-evaluation of athletes by Delaney (2016). Considering this, the manner by which fans manage and thenceforth, assess moral-related behaviors by athletes can contribute to the evaluations and judgments concerning such on-field actions (Beentjes, van Oort, & van der Voort, 2002; Boyan, 2014). Thus, traditional conventions highlighted by Bredemeier and Shields (1985, p. 23; as cited in Eitzen, 2005, p. 178) in which athletes choose "to be good in sports […] [by being] bad" may not be well-received by fans. In other words, utilizing routes that involve transgressions against valued norms may not serve as benefits for athletes on the field. Particularly, these unprincipled actions by athletes may adversely influence their general perceptions by the ingroup and the outgroup.

Taking into account the range of deviancy in behaviors by athletes, additional investigation surveying this expansive collection of actions is needed to gain a better understanding of how fans utilize various factors to perceive athletes. Given that the current dissertation has exclusively explored violations in normative performance (e.g., poor on-field play), Study 4 aims to extend the examination of athlete behavior. In doing so, the current research seeks to investigate how moral-related behaviors by athletes

can influence fans' evaluations and subsequent activities. Consequently, this study may allow for the differentiation of such moral actions from performance-related behaviors. Using SGD and the findings of our previous studies on related concepts as scaffolds in this investigation, we aspire to proliferate the usage of these theoretical constructs in examining athlete behaviors. In addition, we also intend to delve into how various methods of processing deviant moral behaviors can affect such outcomes. Ultimately, given the potential effects of both perceptions of rivalry between groups and the level of member identification with the ingroup, we aim to examine how these variables may also influence attitudes and behaviors related to athletes.

Theoretical Background

Moral Behaviors and Subjective Group Dynamics

As prior literature has shown, although groups' often have a proclivity to operate with ingroup favoritism, when select ingroup members engage in non-normative or negative behavior, they can be derogated based on factors such as performance (Lewis & Sherman, 2003; Marques & Paez, 1994; Marques et al., 1988), the nature of sponsorships (e.g., in a political context; Matthews & Dietz-Uhler, 1998), expectancy violations (Biernat et al., 1999), and the perceived entitativity of the group (i.e., the extent to which the group operates as a cohesive unit; Lewis & Sherman, 2010; Yzerbyt, Castano, Leyens, & Paladino, 2000). However, the function of moral behaviors in a group context can also bring about such subjective group dynamics, given the established attenuation of the image of the group and other related detrimental upshots owing to immoral behaviors (Delaney, 2016; Eitzen, 2005). Thus, the aspect of morally-relevant actions becomes pertinent in the current context.

Research utilizing concepts related to SGD in settings involving moral behaviors has been quite limited in previous decades. One of the more recent examinations of moral behavior on the use of children's subjective group dynamics by Abrams, Rutland, Ferrell, and Pelletier (2008) has found that children tend to utilize various schemes in order to evaluate their peers. For instance, the researchers noted that children can employ loyalty, often regarded as a moral trait, in their evaluation of deviant group members. Herein, children displayed a tendency to evaluate normative (i.e., loyal) ingroup members more positively than comparable outgroup members and punitively assess deviant ingroup and outgroup members equally (Study 1; Abrams et al., 2008). In their second experiment, Abrams and colleagues illustrated that group differences can give rise to biases, while the utilization of moral-based judgments can lead to harsher evaluation of immoral deviant members of both the ingroup and outgroup in comparison to moral-behaving group members.

Bearing this in mind, later research by Cramwinckel, van den Bos, and van Dijk (2015) has provided evidence to support such notions. Through a theoretical review of the literature, the authors proposed a conceptual model that describes how competing motivations concerning moral behaviors can produce derogation of moral deviants from both a self-view as well as a group perspective. In other words, people tend to respond negatively to moral deviance due to the threats to the self and the group image. Cramwinckel et al. noted that moral deviance can shift the focus of the perceiver as an individual toward themselves and their self-involvement with the deviant group member. In addition, similar actions by an immoral member can also generate an awareness toward the collective group and the damages that the group may receive, thereby

impelling denigration toward deviant members. However, it is also the case that immoral behavior that is motivated to benefit the group can potentially be accepted by the group as a whole as well as the individual. Nevertheless, Cramwinckel and colleague called for future research to clarify this proposed differentiation. The conceptual model offered in their study is provided in Figure 10.

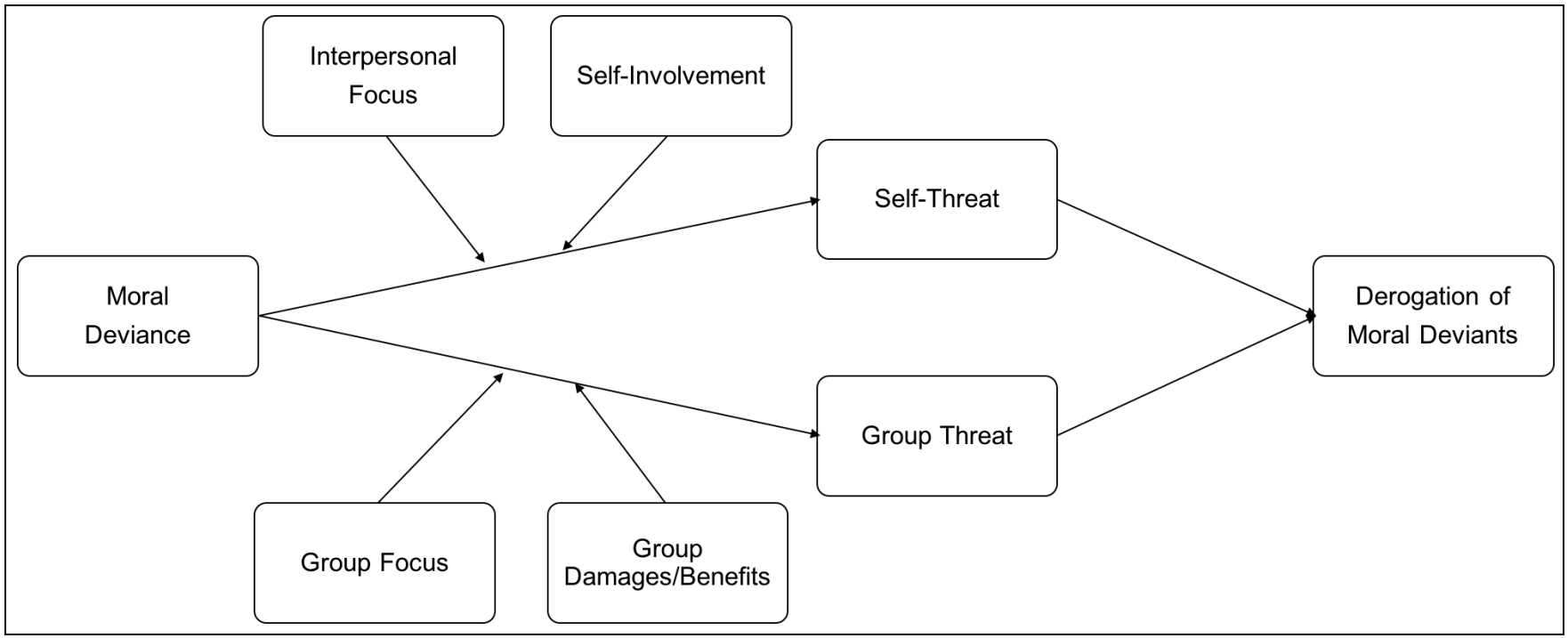


Figure 10. Conceptual model of reactions to moral deviance. Adapted from Cramwinckel et al. (2015).

Converging evidence for this rejection and derogation of morally-deviant members has also been empirically provided by van der Toorn, Ellemers, and Doosje (2015). Through two main studies, the researchers demonstrated that when the group's image is demeaned, individuals engage in reparative behavior that can take the form of harsher evaluation toward morally-deviant group members. van der Toorn and colleagues examined how people would react to moral misconduct, such as plagiarism, in a sample of students. Findings from their study showed that students exposed to academic fraud tended to experience more threat when the immoral actor was from the ingroup compared to the outgroup. In addition, students were more likely to avert the immoral actor's guilt away from the group and rationalize the ingroup member's misconduct. Simply put, ingroup members were more defensive of their fellow member, in spite of deviance. Considering these findings by van der Toorn et al. and those mentioned previously (Abrams et al., 2008; Cramwinckel et al., 2015), the matter of moral-based judgments and defensive tactics, or rather the cognitive processing of moral behaviors, could potentially influence how group members evaluate moral deviance between groups and among their fellow members. Taking this into account, scores of research have attempted to conceptualize these phenomena and apply these personal strategies to other forms of immorality.

Processing Moral Behaviors

A great deal of literature in moral psychology has identified that individuals can appraise moral-related behavior by dint of *moral reasoning* (Haidt, 2001, 2007; Jonsen & Toulmin, 1988; Kohlberg, Levine, & Hewer, 1983; Shaub, 1995). Moral reasoning functions as a way for people to actively scrutinize information in order to come to a

moral deduction that would also be equitable to an intermediate party (Kunda, 1990). It is often the case that individuals will utilize a preexisting *moral taxonomy* (i.e., "a detailed and methodical map of morally significant likenesses and differences"; Jonsen & Toulmin, 1988; as cited in Klinger, 1994, p. 288) that serves to guide such processing of moral behavior and ensuing judgments (Jonsen & Toulmin, 1988). For example, it is quite common for people to believe that being deceitful or dishonest is not morally acceptable.

Considering this, take the case of an individual who acknowledges such principles as being true. If this individual encounters impediments in achieving a specific goal (e.g., performing well on an exam) and is offered a method of artifice that underhandedly aids in realizing that objective (e.g., the solutions to the exam), then s/he may decline such a proposition seeing as acceptance of it would be counter to his/her moral code. However, some individuals may yield toward this iniquitous offer and engage in various cognitive processes that operate to attach reason to such behavior and as a result, justify the person's actions. Given the individual differences in moral values and succeeding judgments, extant literature has labelled these varying processes of moral-related behaviors as *moral reasoning strategies* (Bowman & Menzel, 1998; Keefer, 1993; Stahl, 1976). Some relevant strategies that have been characterized in prior research include: *moral rationalization*, *moral decoupling*, and *moral coupling* (Bhattacharjee, Berman, & Reed, 2013; Eriksson, 2014; Lee & Kwak, 2015a).

Moral rationalization. An initial approach to moral reasoning that has been put forward by prior research is moral rationalization. This strategy has been defined as the

reconstrual of immoral behaviors by an actor that serve to reduce the immorality of such behaviors, thereby allowing an individual to preserve his/her support of the actor (Bhattacharjee et al., 2013). As a result, individuals are able to virtually acquit the actor from the immoral behavior to lessen any mental conflicts with their perception of morality (i.e., cognitive dissonance; Festinger, 1957). In sustenance, Bhattacharjee and colleagues (2013) have noted that the process of moral rationalization is rooted in the social psychological concept of *moral disengagement*.

Bandura's (1991) process of moral disengagement suggests that people utilize cognitive reframing to justify personal immoral actions. These processes in moral disengagement have been supported by streams of previous literature (Aquino, Reed, Thau, & Freeman, 2007; Bandura, 1999; Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996; Barchia & Bussey, 2011; Osofsky, Bandura, & Zimbardo, 2005) and linked to numerous outcomes, such as support for inhumane work ethic (e.g., sweatshop labor; Paharia, Vohs, & Deshpandé, 2013), workplace harassment and unethical behavior in organizations (Claybourn, 2011; Moore, 2008; Moore, Detert, Treviño, Baker, & Mayer, 2012), as well as during sport participation (Boardley & Kavussanu, 2011). Thus, moral rationalization draws upon foundations set by moral disengagement to allow the individual to permit immoral behaviors by a party that s/he may support.

As an example of moral rationalization, it is a common occurrence for countries in war to dehumanize hostile parties or people of the opposition. One prominent case of this has occurred during World War II in Nazi Germany. As Tsang (2002) has pointed out, the Nazi party engaged in the depersonalization of the Jewish people, labelling them as vexations that required elimination. Accordingly, many individuals residing in

Nazi Germany adopted this mindset of the “Jewish problem” and may have even rationalized immoral acts as being acceptable, such as the malevolent exploits of the Holocaust (e.g., concentration camps, lethal injections, gas chambers, live human crematory furnaces). Although the violent acts committed against the Jews were indeed immoral, the Nazi party put forward the notion that the eradication of the Jewish people was for the greater good and that these violent crimes were justified. Put simply, the Ovidian adage that “the result validates the deed,” or more popularly translated as “the end justifies the means” (i.e., *Exitus acta probat*; Jacobson & Ovid, 1974, as cited in Frati et al., 2015, p. 9; as cited in van Wyk, 2007, p. 645), guided the misbehavior and cognitions of the Nazi Germans.

With regards to a case of moral rationalization in sports, quarterback Tom Brady of the New England Patriots was recently the subject of media attention and pejorative disapproval by fans due to his accused involvement and knowledge of the “Deflategate” scandal (i.e., a controversy involving the alteration of the air pressure of game footballs by the Patriots during a 2015 playoff game against the Indianapolis Colts) as well as obstruction of justice by failing to provide evidence by destroying his cell phone used during the 2015 season (Brady, 2016; Martin, 2016). Consequently, Brady received retribution from the NFL in the form of a 4-game suspension for the 2015 season (later retracted and re-administered during the 2016 season; Raymond & Ax, 2016).

Herein, fans could have rationalized Brady’s alleged knowledge and subsequent behavior in the matter by maintaining that his actions were not as immoral as prior behavior by other players, such as the heavily condemned domestic violence case against Ray Rice in 2014 (Alter, 2015). At a more extreme, during an expletive-filled

interview on Home Box Office's (HBO) now-canceled television show *Any Given Wednesday with Bill Simmons*, actor and self-identified Patriots fan, Ben Affleck, declared that Brady's choice to destroy his cell phone was justified over concerns regarding Brady's own privacy (Associated Press, 2016). In fact, Affleck went on to proclaim that the NFL and commissioner, Roger Goodell, were targeting Brady in order to inhibit his future success and therefore, tarnish his career and legacy after football.

Moral decoupling. When individuals detach judgments of morality concerning an immoral actor from evaluations involving other matters, such as performance, Bhattacharjee and colleagues (2013) have termed this occurrence as moral decoupling. As opposed to polluting overall judgments of the wayward individual with the moral transgression, individuals who engage in this strategy seek to "decouple," or dissociate, immoral actions from actions involving performance. In doing so, previous work has contended that people utilize moral decoupling as a means to perpetuate support for an immoral actor (Grayson, 2014). However, this does not imply that this strategy serves to condone moral behavior, as individuals do indeed censure the deviant actor. Rather, moral decoupling allows people to concurrently express their moral attitudes, while also sustaining any relationship with the immoral actor concerning performance-based outcomes (Grayson, 2014).

For instance, in 1993, famed pop artist, the late Michael Jackson, was accused of child sexual abuse (Erni, 1998). At this juncture, individuals who were fans of Jackson's music could have engaged in moral decoupling by separating judgments concerning such allegations of immoral behavior with his performance as an artist. As a result, individuals who utilized moral decoupling to process Jackson's misconduct could

have derogated his moral values as a person, but maintained adulation toward the former “King of Pop” (Roberts, 2011) by purchasing his albums and continuing to listen to his music.

In sports, moral decoupling can also occur in a variety of situations. For example, fans of renowned golfer, Tiger Woods, could have engaged in moral decoupling by disentangling judgments of performance from any immoral actions following the revelation of his extramarital affair in 2009 and ensuing incidents between him and his former wife, Elin Nordegren (Thompson, 2016). In fact, a study by Lohneiss and Hill (2014) has shown that consumers may overlook negative information surrounding athlete endorsers when making related purchase decisions. Specifically, the researchers of this study examined how individuals processed information about Tiger Woods’ adulterous actions and went on to engage in the consumption of the products of Woods’ sponsor, Nike. They found that although the brand image of Nike was dampened, intentions to purchase Nike products were actually augmented by his endorsement. In other words, people focused upon Woods’ prominent status with respect to his performance as one of the world’s top golfers as opposed to his behavior off the golf course. Taken together, moral decoupling as a cognitive process can allow “consumers to ‘tip their hat’ and admire the performance of a public figure while simultaneously ‘wagging their finger’ and admonishing […] immoral actions” (Bhattacharjee et al., 2013, p. 1169), as also empirically seen in the case of Tiger Woods and Nike’s merchandise sales (Lohneiss & Hill, 2014).

Moral coupling. As a final point, later research has recognized moral coupling as an additional moral reasoning strategy. This process refers to the assimilation of

judgments of morality and those of performance (Eriksson, 2014; Lee & Kwak, 2015a). This particular moral reasoning scheme has been introduced as a tactic employed to ascribe immoral behavior as characterizing the totality of a transgressor's actions (Eriksson, 2014). In this case, individuals may utilize the actor's immoral behavior as an auxiliary indicator to make judgments about not only morality, but also performance. Moral coupling has been proposed as a distinctive moral reasoning strategy from its previous counterparts in that it involves the individual castigating the wrongdoer and repudiating support as opposed to vindicating the actor, as in moral rationalization, and partitioning immoral acts and other evaluations, a la moral decoupling (Lee & Kwak, 2015a). Moral coupling may materialize in the form of negative sentiments directed toward an immoral actor and subsequent behavior (e.g., the avoidance of associated or products).

As a case in point, household goods mogul, Martha Stewart, was accused of insider trading in 2001 (Murphy, 2010). Stewart was found guilty of violating codes of practice set by the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC), specifically securities fraud through perjury and conspiracy, and was fined $30,000 and imprisoned for five months (Moohr, 2006). At this point, individuals who utilized moral coupling may have attributed notions of immorality to Stewart's merchandise or products she endorsed. Consumers may have noted that Stewart's products may circumvent regulations, or simply "cut corners," as did Stewart, and may not be as durable or perform as well as comparable products. Resultantly, consumers of Stewart's products may have terminated any future intentions to purchase her products and ceased consumption of any associated media as well.

Within a sports context, moral coupling can occur following scandals linked to athletes. For instance, former Atlanta Falcons quarterback, Michael Vick, was charged with unlawful animal cruelty and subsequently sentenced to 23 months in prison for his involvement in a dogfighting lawsuit following the 2006 NFL season (Laucella, 2010). Following these incidents, Vick was unable to fully regain his standing as a starting quarterback and was relegated to becoming a reserve player (NBC Sports, 2016). Although Vick did see more playing time as his performance increased and went on to win the NFL's 2010 Comeback Player of the Year Award with the Philadelphia Eagles, he was not capable of continuing this high-level play for a prolonged period (Rhoden, 2015). In this case, fans could have employed moral coupling by amalgamating Vick's immoral behavior with succeeding judgments of performance. As in this example, fans may have evaluated Vick's performance as derisory owing to his immorality as a person.

Although Vick has since taken the steps to liberate himself and convalesce his public persona by becoming an animal rights activist (Bonesteel, 2015), his image may certainly be permanently damaged. Consequently, Vick has been unable to secure any major sponsorship deals akin to those prior to the dogfighting scandal and was unable to do so for the remainder of his professional football career. Taking moral coupling and the other moral reasoning strategies into account, it appears that sports do indeed provide a relevant stage to study how moral-related behaviors by athletes can affect how fans evaluate them and go on to consume various media. However, from an empirical standpoint, there has been limited study on these cognitive processes and their individual differences in sports fans.

Moral Reasoning in Sports

In sports, the usage of moral reasoning has been predominantly applied in the study of sports ethics (Boxill, 2003; Bredemeier, & Shields, 1994; Kretchmar, 1998; Lumpkin, Stoll, & Beller, 1999; Priest, Krause, & Beach, 1999) and moral development within athletes (Bredemeier, 1994; Bredemeier, & Shields, 1986; Bredemeier, Weiss, Shields, & Cooper, 1986; Gibbons, Ebbeck, & Weiss, 1995; Lyons & Turner, 2015; Rest & Navarez, 1994; Vila et al., 2016). Conversely, there exists very little research utilizing moral reasoning in the sport marketing and management literature. Specifically, prior work has not sufficiently delved into the effects of moral reasoning strategies on how sports fans may evaluate athletes and engage in other consumptive behaviors. However, among the few studies that have examined these strategies, Lee and Kwak (2015a) have investigated how moral decoupling, moral rationalization, and moral coupling can influence how consumers support or oppose athletes and brands. In addition, they also introduced moral coupling to the field of sports marketing and management.

Through a series of three studies using cases of fictitious athletes, the authors showed that moral coupling is a distinct form of moral reasoning and each moral reasoning strategy can have unique effects on brand attitudes and purchase intentions. To be specific, consumers higher in moral rationalization and moral decoupling tended to provide higher attitude ratings and intentions to purchase products than individuals who expressed greater usage of moral coupling (Lee & Kwak, 2015a). Thus, it appears that moral coupling can serve to lower evaluations of athletes, whereas moral

rationalization and moral decoupling implicate consumers continuing their support of the transgressor, as also supported by previous literature (Bhattacharjee et al., 2013).

A follow-up study conducted by Lee, Kwak, and Moore (2015) has provided further evidence to sustain these notions. By means of two experiments similarly utilizing instances involving fictitious athletes, Lee et al. illustrated that moral coupling negatively affects evaluations of an immoral athlete while simultaneously lowering attitudes toward associated brands. Furthermore, the authors also demonstrated that moral decoupling and moral rationalization can augment such attitudes, giving rise to more favorable evaluations in comparison to consumers employing processes entailing greater moral coupling.

Overall, these previous experiments conducted by Lee and Kwak (2015a) and later by Lee et al. (2015) exploring the impact of moral reasoning strategies on evaluative outcomes and consumer decisions have shown that immoral behaviors can be condoned under certain conditions. Particularly, when individuals reflect higher levels of moral rationalization and moral decoupling, assessments of deviant athletes can be strengthened. Nevertheless, moral coupling plays a pivotal role in these evaluations seeing as it can reduce favorability towards athletes and endorsed brands. Despite this, it appears that the influence of moral reasoning strategies on sports fans requires more complete investigation. Given the privations in the literature on how the type of behavior as well as the holistic nature of these actions can affect such outcomes, Study 4 was conducted to survey expanded corollaries and explore unique facets of sports consumers.

Purpose

The principal intention of Study 4 was to further examine the effects of moral reasoning strategies on athlete evaluations and associated consumptive behaviors (e.g., social media intentions). In addition, we sought to provide additional evidence to support the results of our prior studies by integrating similar concepts and expanding upon such through the exploration of moral behaviors. In doing so, we also sought to concurrently examine the influence of both performance- and moral-related behavior on the outcomes of interest. As a result, we intended to inspect the applicability of SGD and the BSE in these circumstances. Drawing from Study 3, we also intended to investigate how perceptions of rivalry could affect these evaluations. However, in Study 4, we elected to focus on fans of the ingroup and a rival outgroup through the usage of a target athlete from either the University of Michigan or Ohio State University, as opposed to utilizing an athlete from both a competing non-rival outgroup and a rival one in addition to an ingroup as in Study 3.

Considering this, another purpose of this study was to also employ more ecologically valid cases of athletes through the application of actual athletes from the target universities, specifically Rashan Gary of the University of Michigan and Nick Bosa of Ohio State University. Furthermore, due to the generally dualistic nature of behaviors on the whole, we also attempted to investigate athlete evaluations by inspecting both positively-natured (e.g., superior performance or morally-regarded athlete behavior) and negative behaviors (e.g., poor performance or immoral athlete conduct). Considering these moral behaviors by athletes, we intended to use both ethical and honorable actions by athletes (e.g., coming to the aid of a teammate) as well as unscrupulous acts

by players (e.g., the use of performance-enhancing drugs). However, prior to performing Study 4, a pilot study was conducted to validate the utilization of PED use as a moral-related behavior. Taken together, our predictions were formulated using prior literature (Abrams et al., 2008; Bhattacharjee et al., 2013; Cramwinckel et al., 2015; Delaney, 2016; Lee et al., 2015; Lee & Kwak, 2015a; van der Toorn et al., 2015) along with the results of our first three experiments. To be precise, although we do not expect the type of behavior (i.e., performance- or moral-related) to affect any of our outcomes due to dispositions toward purely normative behavior noted in SGD (Marques et al., 1998a, 1998b), the following hypotheses are proposed (see Figure 11 for a visual depiction of our predictions):

H_{4a}: Conditions of ingroup membership, positive nature behaviors, and higher team identification will strengthen the selection of player-related product choices.

H_{4b}: We also expect the nature of social media comments to be positively influenced by these variables.

H_{4c}: We expect to find the occurrence of SGD in these ratings and social media intentions toward the athlete.

H_{4d}: Both ingroup and outgroup athletes will be criticized harshly for negative behaviors.

H_{4e}: Deviant ingroup members will be derogated to the same degree and treated similarly as their deviant outgroup equivalents.

H_{4f}: Team identification will have a positive effect on these outcomes and will moderate the effects of each variable.

H_{4g}: Rivalry will have a negative effect on ratings and negative social media behaviors directed toward an outgroup athlete, controlling for the type of behavior and nature of the player's actions.

H_{4h}: Rivalry will spur lower ratings and harsher social media behaviors regarding a negatively behaving outgroup athlete.

H_{4i}: Individuals higher in moral rationalization will increase athlete evaluations following negative moral behavior.

H_{4j}: Those utilizing greater moral decoupling will enhance their evaluative attitudes toward an athlete engaging in negative moral behavior.

H_{4k}: Moral coupling will decrease assessments of morally-deviant athlete.

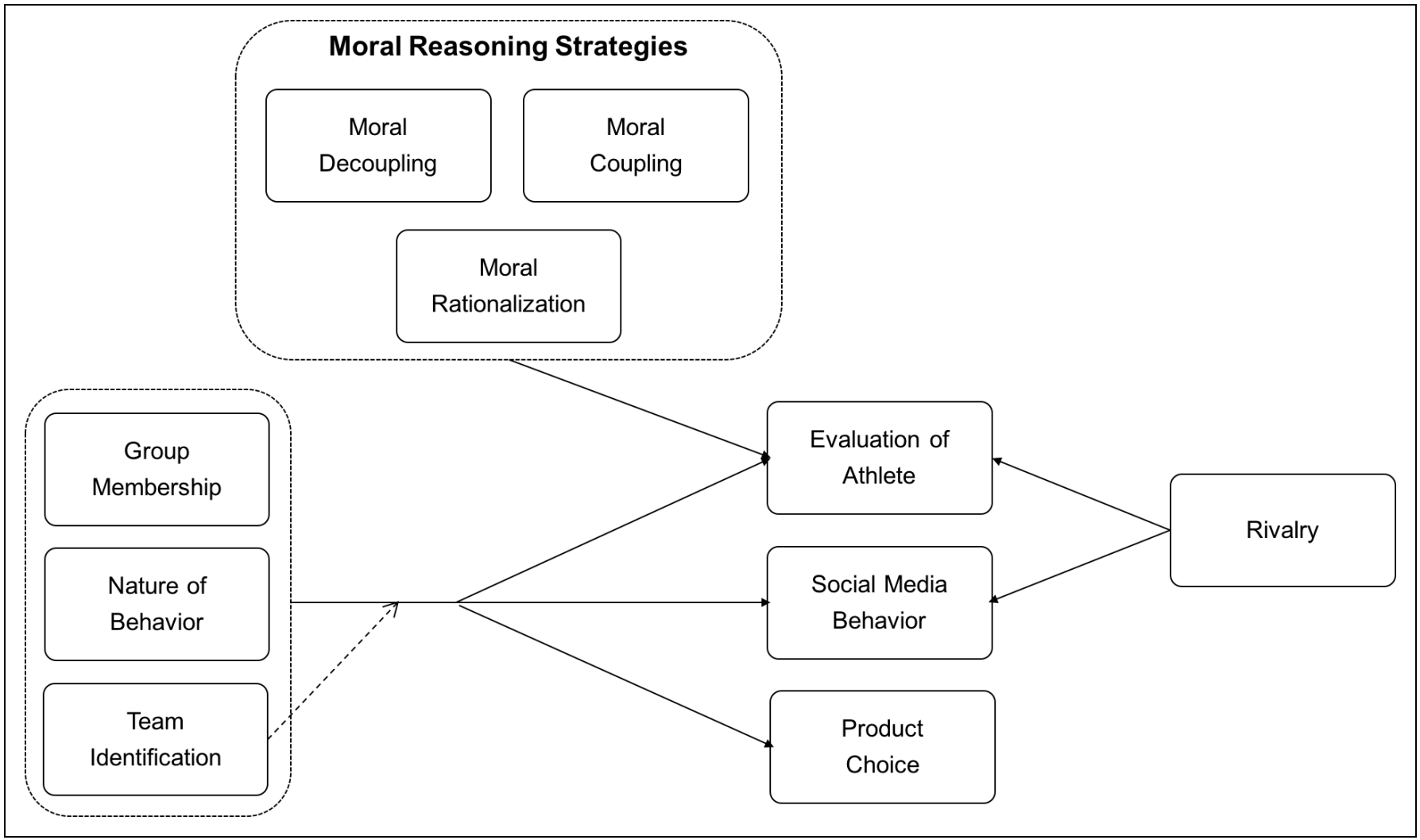


Figure 11. Predictive model for the hypotheses of Study 4. Dotted lines are included to facilitate comprehension of the model. These lines do not represent grouped relationships, but rather indicate similar directional (i.e., not mathematically identical) impacts of constructs. The marked open arrow indicates the moderating effect of team identification.

Pilot Study

Participants

Prior to collecting data for our main experiment, a pilot study was conducted to investigate the viability of employing performance-enhancing drug (PED) use by athletes as a stimulus for moral-related behavior. Data for the pilot study were collected using a general population sample. We posted descriptions of our study on Craigslist.com, Reddit r/Sample Size and r/Sports, Call for Participants, and Amazon MTurk. We did not offer any incentives for participation in our pilot study. A total of 111 subjects (60 male, 44 female, 7 declined to respond; M_{age} = 31.79, SD_{age} = 12.07) contributed to the pilot study. Ten individuals under the age of 18 responded to the survey, but were excluded from data analysis for ethical considerations.

Procedure

The instrument used for data collection was an online survey questionnaire hosted through Qualtrics Survey Software. Participants were asked to complete a brief survey on attitudes toward PED use by athletes. Participants first reported the extent to which they believed cheating in sports was morally wrong. Subsequently, participants then indicated the degree to which they believed PED use by athletes was a moral-related behavior. All items in the pilot study were randomized. Ultimately, participants provided their demographic information (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity, education, state of residence) and were thanked for their contribution to our study. The demographic characteristics of our sample are illustrated in Table 35.

Table 35

Demographic Characteristics for Pilot Study Sample

Characteristic	*n*	%
Gender		
Male	60	54.1
Female	44	39.6
Declined to respond	7	6.3
Age		
18-29	56	50.5
30-39	23	20.7
40-49	14	12.6
50-59	7	6.3
60-69	4	3.6
Declined to respond	7	6.3
Ethnicity		
Asian American/Pacific Islander	9	8.1
Black/African American	5	4.5
Caucasian/White	81	73.0
Hispanic/Latin American	6	5.4
Other	1	0.9
Multiracial	1	0.9
Declined to respond	8	7.2
Highest Level of Education		
Some high school, no diploma	3	2.7
High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent	8	7.2
Some college credit, no degree	27	24.3
Trade/technical/vocational training	4	3.6
Associate's degree	17	15.3
Bachelor's degree	29	26.1
Master's degree	8	7.2
Professional degree	3	2.7
Doctorate degree	5	4.5
Declined to respond	7	6.3
State of Residence		
Alabama	2	1.8
Alaska	1	0.9
Arkansas	1	0.9
California	13	11.7
Colorado	2	1.8
Connecticut	2	1.8
Delaware	1	0.9
District of Columbia	1	0.9
Florida	6	5.4
Georgia	4	3.6
Illinois	1	0.9
Indiana	2	1.8
Iowa	1	0.9
Kentucky	1	0.9
Maine	1	0.9
Maryland	1	0.9
Michigan	14	12.6
Minnesota	3	2.7
Nebraska	1	0.9
New Hampshire	1	0.9
New Jersey	4	3.6
New Mexico	1	0.9
New York	1	0.9
North Carolina	3	2.7
Ohio	2	1.8
Oklahoma	1	0.9
Oregon	2	1.8
Pennsylvania	4	3.6
Rhode Island	1	0.9
Texas	4	3.6
Virginia	2	1.8
Washington	3	2.7
West Virginia	2	1.8
Wyoming	1	0.9
Outside the United States	9	8.1
Declined to respond	12	10.8

Measures

Cheating. In evaluating the viewpoints on general cheating in sports (GCS) as morally wrong, we generated two items to measure this concept. Participants responded to these items using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*). A sample item from the GCS read: “In any sport, using performance-enhancing drugs (PEDs) to cheat is morally wrong.” Greater scores on this measure indicated a stronger conception of cheating in sports as a moral-related behavior, whereas lower ones indicated the opposite. For data analysis, we averaged responses to produce an overall score for GCS. Internal consistency analyses indicated that the GCS measure was psychometrically robust (α = .74). Items for this measure can be found in Appendix AF.

PED use. We assessed the perception of PED use as a moral-related behavior by using a modified version of the degree of immorality (DI) scale obtained from Bhattacharjee et al. (2013). This measure is composed of two items using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*). An example of an item from the DI measure provided the following statement: “It is morally wrong for an athlete to use performance-enhancing drugs (PEDs) as a way to improve performance.” Higher scores on this scale illustrated a greater perception of PED use an immoral behavior, whereas lower scores denoted that the respondent regarded PED use as less of an immoral action. Items on this measure were averaged to create a single composite score of immorality for data analysis. We performed Cronbach’s reliability assessments to determine if the DI scale was internally consistent. These results illustrated that the scale was sufficiently reliable (α = .92). The DI measure is provided in Appendix AG.

Results

The data from our pilot study were analyzed in several ways. First, we examined the relationship between perceptions of GCS and the DI of PED use. Descriptive statistics for each of the scales are listed in Table 36. A Pearson's correlation coefficient that was computed indicated that these two constructs were positively and significantly associated with each other, $r(111) = .69$, $p < .001$. Taken together, greater impressions of cheating in sports as morally wrong were correlated with higher perceptions of PED use as a moral-related behavior.

Further analysis was conducted to examine the feasibility of cheating and PED use as moral behaviors. We performed a series of one-sample *t*-tests against the midpoint of the 7-point scale (i.e., a value of 4), using BCa bootstrap procedures of 10,000 resamples to estimate the 95% confidence interval, to test these notions. Our analyses from these procedures yielded support for these notions. Participants in our sample scored significantly above the midpoint on both the GCS, $t(110) = 14.39$, $p < .001$, $d = 2.74$, BCa 95% CI [1.56, 2.07] and DI scales, $t(110) = 8.55$, $p < .001$, $d = 1.63$, BCa 95% CI [1.02, 1.64]. Overall, our results from the pilot study support the application of PED use by an athlete as a moral-related behavior.

Table 36

Descriptive Statistics for GCS and DI Scales

Measure and Items	*M*	*SD*
General Cheating in Sports (GCS)	5.83	1.34
GCS_1	5.53	1.72
GCS_2	6.13	1.25
Degree of Immortality (DI)	5.34	1.65
DI_1	5.37	1.74
DI_2	5.31	1.68

Method

Participants and Design

Our fourth experiment utilized a 2 (*group*: ingroup, rival outgroup) × 2 (*type of behavior*: performance, moral) × 2 (*nature of behavior*: positive, negative) between-subjects design. As in our prior studies, a power analysis was carried out using G*Power (Faul et al., 2007) in order to determine the requisite sample size to achieve our established power requirements ($1 - \beta = .80$, $\alpha = .05$, ES = .25). This analysis revealed that we needed approximately 240 subjects to satisfy such criteria. We recruited 380 individuals from a large Midwestern university in addition to Amazon MTurk. However, as a result of attrition and incomplete data, the complete responses of 277 participants (197 male, 79 female, 1 declined to respond; $M_{age} = 28.92$, $SD_{age} = 0.89$) were employed in the statistical tests. University students were provided with extra credit for their partaking in this study. Subjects recruited from MTurk were compensated $0.25 for their participation. Likewise, all participants were subject to previously described inclusion criteria (i.e., fans of the University of Michigan over the age of 18). Individuals who did not meet these conditions were not permitted to participate. Table

37 illustrates the demographic features of our subjects. The overall social media usage of our sample is provided in Table 38.

Table 37

Demographic Characteristics for Study 4 Sample

Characteristic	*n*	*%*
Gender		
Male	197	71.1
Female	79	28.5
Declined to respond	1	0.4
Age		
18-29	177	63.9
30-39	59	21.3
40-49	26	9.4
50-59	8	2.9
60-69	5	1.8
Declined to respond	1	0.4
Ethnicity		
Asian American/Pacific Islander	19	6.9
Black/African American	19	6.9
Caucasian/White	218	78.7
Hispanic/Latin American	10	3.6
Native American/America Indian	5	1.8
Multiracial	5	1.8
Declined to respond	1	0.4
Highest Level of Education		
High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent	22	7.9
Some college credit, no degree	113	40.8
Trade/technical/vocational training	2	0.7
Associate's degree	20	7.2
Bachelor's degree	87	31.4
Master's degree	24	8.7
Professional degree	5	1.8
Doctorate degree	2	0.7
State of Residence		
Alabama	3	1.1
Alaska	1	0.4
Arizona	5	1.8
Arkansas	1	0.4
California	19	6.9
Colorado	3	1.1
Connecticut	1	0.4
District of Columbia	1	0.4
Delaware	2	0.7
Florida	14	5.1
Georgia	4	1.4
Illinois	13	4.7
Indiana	3	1.1
Iowa	1	0.4
Kentucky	4	1.4
Louisiana	1	0.4
Maine	4	1.4
Maryland	2	0.7
Michigan	92	33.2
Minnesota	3	1.1
Mississippi	1	0.4
Missouri	2	0.7
Nebraska	1	0.4
New Jersey	8	2.9
New Mexico	1	0.4
New York	20	7.2
North Carolina	5	1.8
Ohio	9	3.2
Oklahoma	1	0.4
Oregon	4	1.4
Pennsylvania	7	2.5
Rhode Island	1	0.4
South Carolina	1	0.4
South Dakota	1	0.4
Tennessee	1	0.4
Texas	18	6.5
Virginia	8	2.9
Washington	4	1.4
West Virginia	1	0.4
Wisconsin	2	0.7
Unspecified US State	2	0.7
Declined to respond	2	0.7

Table 38

Social Media Usage and Following of College Football Recruiting News for Study 4 Sample

Variable	*n*	*%*
Social Media Platform		
Facebook	250	90.3
Google+	1	0.4
Instagram	154	55.6
LinkedIn	1	0.4
Pinterest	2	0.7
Reddit	1	0.4
Snapchat	115	41.5
Tumblr	1	0.4
Twitter	182	65.7
Vine	31	11.2
YouTube	187	67.5
Multiple Platforms	234	84.5
None	1	0.4
Following Behavior		
College Football Recruiting News		
Yes	193	69.7
No	82	29.6
Declined to respond	2	0.7
University of Michigan Recruiting News		
Yes	237	85.6
No	39	14.1
Declined to respond	1	0.4

Procedure

Study 4 was completed online using Qualtrics Survey Software. Subjects were prescreened prior to the experiment to ensure that they met our required conditions of inclusion. Participants who met these criteria then viewed a consent form specifying the provisions of our study. After participants provided their consent, they were asked to respond to the SSIS and SFRPS. Subsequently, participants were randomly assigned

to one of our two group conditions, being presented an adapted article from the selected credible source (i.e., ESPN) describing the commitment of an actual athlete to either the ingroup university (i.e., Rashan Gary to the University of Michigan) or the rival outgroup team (i.e., Nick Bosa to Ohio State University). Following this, subjects were dispersed into one of the four aggregated behavior and nature conditions at random. Participants placed in one of the performance conditions viewed a fictitious article describing the target athlete's performance in the 2016 Under Armour All-America Game. Conditions of positive performance illustrated the target athlete's superior play in this event, wherein the athlete was able to set a game record for defensive sacks. In the negative performance condition, the target athlete was described as underperforming against top-tier competition in this event.

Subjects randomly assigned to the moral conditions read a fictitious article outlining off-the-field behavior by the athlete. In the positive moral behavior condition, the article reported that the target athlete was seen coming to the aid of a fallen teammate, contacting emergency services, and accompanying the teammate in an emergency vehicle to the hospital. Based on the results of our pilot study, within the negative moral behavior condition, subjects were presented a breaking news report that described that the target athlete had recently tested positive for performance-enhancing drugs (PEDs) and would face disciplinary action following this recent failed test. All stimuli from Study 4 are found in Appendix AH.

After participants were exposed to the stimuli reports, they completed a manipulation check regarding the degree to which the target athlete had performed or acted based on the behavior condition. Participants then assessed both performance

and moral traits, competence, integrity, as well as their overall attitudes toward the athlete. Subsequently, participants provided a choice of one team- or player-related product, viewed an actual social media post from the athlete, and completed a measure of general and negative social media intentions. Participants were also asked to comment on the post by the athlete. In assessing cognitive strategies regarding moral assessment of behavior, we utilized a series of measures involving moral strategies that participants may employ after learning of actual or hypothetical PED use by the target athlete, as outlined by Bhattacharjee et al. (2013). Ultimately, subjects completed two manipulation checks concerning the extent to which they perceived Ohio State University as a rival and an outgroup to the University of Michigan and provided demographic characteristics. We then debriefed subjects on the full purpose of the study and thanked them for their participation (see Appendix AI). To note, all items of our dependent measures were randomized, as in our previous studies.

Measures

Initial measures. We utilized identical measures of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS), Sport Fan Rivalry Perception Scale (SFRPS), performance traits, attitudes toward the athlete, and Negative Social Media Intentions (NSMI), as in Study 3. Adapted versions of the Competence-Based Trust (CBT) scale, General Social Media Measure (GSMM; i.e., amalgamating the original eWOM and SMI), and the Active Social Media Measure were utilized in Study 4. However, the Active Social Media Measure (ASMM) was altered to only focus on real Twitter posts by the players used in this study (i.e., Rashan Gary and Nick Bosa). We also amended the product choice measure from Study 3 by employing both team-related items (e.g., a Michigan jersey

and wristband) and player products (e.g., a Rashan Gary jersey and wristband) as primary choices. These revised measures can be found in Appendices AJ through AM.

Moral traits. A measure of moral-based traits was assessed by employing selected traits from prior literature (Aquino & Reed, 2002; Seider et al., 2012; Shields et al., 2015; see Appendix AN). A total of nine moral traits were chosen. Participants rated the extent to which the target athlete possessed the trait using a 7-point semantic differential scale (1 = *not at all [conjugated selected trait]* to 7 = *very [conjugated selected trait]*). Example traits that were utilized include: *honesty*, *selfishness*, and *respect*. Negative traits on this measure were reverse coded to maintain the positive nature of the scale. All items were averaged to create a global score of moral traits. Greater scores denoted the perception that the target athlete embodied higher morality in his characteristics, whereas lower scores indicated that the athlete did not possess a high degree of moral virtue.

Integrity. The overall integrity of the target athlete was evaluated using the Integrity-Based Trust (IBT) scale, a four-item measure adapted from Ferrin et al. (2007). Responses to these items were made using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*). An example item taken from this measure read: “(Target Athlete)’s behavior seems to be guided by sound principles.” For analysis, we averaged items to create a single indicator of integrity. Participants scoring higher on this measure perceived that the target athlete reflected a great deal of integrity in his behavior, whereas lower scores indicated a lower perception of integrity. Appendix AO contains the items for the IBT.

Moral reasoning. In the current study, we assessed three forms of moral reasoning, those being: moral decoupling, moral rationalization, and moral coupling, following the assumption or actual revelation of the target athlete having used PEDs. Moral decoupling and moral rationalization were gauged using revised items from Bhattarchajee et al. (2013). Three items were used to evaluate moral decoupling, while five items were selected to assess moral rationalization. Moral coupling was appraised using two items adapted from Lee and Kwak (2015a). Participants responded to items on each of these measures using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*). Items within each of the moral reasoning measures were averaged to create single scores of the extent of the moral strategy. Higher scores indicated that the individual utilized the particular moral reasoning strategy to a greater level, whereas lower scores denoted weaker implementation of the strategy. These measures are presented in Appendix AP.

Manipulation checks. To corroborate the operation of our stimuli, we utilized four manipulation checks. Following the presentation of performance-related behavior by the target athlete, participants made performance ratings using one item employing a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *far below expectations* to 7 = *far above expectations*), as in previous studies. In evaluating moral-based behaviors, we utilized one item gauging the target athlete's behavior using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *not at all morally sound* to 7 = *very morally sound*). Our assessment of the relationship between the University of Michigan and Ohio State University with regards to the perception of rivalry and the outgroup were modified for the current study. These items were similarly responded to using the identical 7-point Likert-type scale, 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7

(*strongly agree*). The items of the manipulation checks from Study 4 are illustrated in Appendix AQ.

Results

Initial Assessments

Reliability. We first examined the internal consistency of our measures using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Overall, each of our dependent measures produced sufficient reliability with respect to Nunnally's (1970) alpha criterion of .70 for adequate consistency. Table 39 provides descriptive statistics for each measure and the coefficients from our reliability analyses.

Table 39

Internal Consistency and Descriptive Statistics of Measures Used in Study 4

Scale	*Items*	*M*	*SD*	*α*
Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS)	7	5.45	0.88	.85
Sport Fan Rivalry Perception Scale (SFRPS)	12	4.99	0.86	.83
Competence-Based Trust (CBT)	4	5.34	1.28	.93
Integrity-Based Trust (IBT)	4	4.26	1.53	.96
Performance Trait Evaluation (PTE)	7	4.61	1.40	.94
Moral Trait Evaluation (MTE)	9	4.18	1.30	.92
Attitudes toward the Athlete (A_{ath})	3	6.08	2.68	.97
General Social Media Measure (GSMM)	7	3.72	1.49	.92
Negative Social Media Intentions (NSMI)	6	2.74	1.33	.89
Moral Decoupling (MD)	3	3.41	1.37	.83
Moral Rationalization (MR)	4	3.32	1.24	.78
Moral Coupling (MC)	2	5.29	1.34	.87

Coding social media comments. A content analysis was conducted on the comments provided on the ASMM using the categorization criteria illustrated in Table 24, as previously employed in Study 3. Similarly, all data were classified using the

identical codes, those being: 1 for positive comments, 2 for negative comments, and 3 for irrelevant or absent commentaries. Some examples of responses on this measure are provided in Table 40. Extraneous comments were excluded from our analyses. Participants' comments were coded by two separate judges at two separate times (i.e., one week from the initial coding) as a means to assess both intra- and interrater reliability.

Table 40

Exemplary Comments on the Active Social Media Measure in Study 4

Nature of Comment	*Exemplary Comments*
Positive	– "#GoBlue![a]"
	– "Welcome to Harbaugh Nation, Rashan. Great to have you on board. Go Blue![a]"
	– "Great job Nick! You are a good team player.[b]"
	– "C'mon Nick!!! I thought you were with Michigan?? Man, I still wish you nothing but the best in Ohio State, even though we'd rather [have] you here.[b]"
Negative	– "How committed are you to integrity? #nopeds[a]"
	– "After all the time money, and resources spent on recruiting you, do you feel the least bit guilty that the university can never get that back? And most importantly, what message are you sending to all of your young fans who look up to you as a role model? You are sending the message that it's ok to cheat to get ahead in life. How does that make you feel?[a]"
	– "That is not good, to play for Michigan you need to have integrity and honesty. You do not have either, this is not fair to all the other players on the team.[a]"
	– "DrugOHIO state must love to have you! Congrats on blowing your college career![b]"
	– "Sorry to hear that, Go Blue!!![b]"
Extraneous	– "I really wouldn't comment.[a]"
	– "Would likely just ignore it and move on to the next tweet in my feed.[b]"
	– "It was expected because his brother went there.[b]"

[a]Comment directed toward ingroup athlete. [b]Directed toward outgroup athlete.

Reliability of coding scheme. Cohen's kappa (κ) was utilized to perform our reliability analyses. To reduce bias and estimate confidence intervals, we utilized a BCa bootstrap iteration of 10,000 samples. Values for Cohen's κ were interpreted using the internal consistency threshold criterion for the judges' ratings as determined by Viera and Garrett (2005), illustrated in Table 25. First and foremost, the intrarater reliability for both Judge 1, $\kappa = .96$, $SE = .02$, $p < .001$, BCa 95% CI [.92, .99], and Judge 2, $\kappa = .92$, $SE = .02$, $p < .001$, BCa 95% CI [.87, .96], between Times 1 and 2 was robust. The interrater reliability analysis of the ratings at Time 1 reflected a strong level of agreement between the judges, $\kappa = .97$, $SE = .02$, $p < .001$, BCa 95% CI [.93, .99]. Likewise, the analysis of the codes at Time 2 also illustrated sound agreement between the raters, $\kappa = .97$, $SE = .01$, $p < .001$, BCa 95% CI [.94, 1.00]. As in Study 3, the final coding of the comments for our subsequent analyses was determined by the mode rating of the judges.

Manipulation Checks

In determining the effectiveness of our stimuli manipulations, we conducted a series of tests examining ratings of performance, moral behavior, as well as the outgroup perception and extent of rivalry between the University of Michigan and Ohio State University. A one-way ANOVA was performed to examine the operation of our performance manipulation, comparing the positive and negative performance conditions. Due to heterogeneity of variances, we adjusted the degrees of freedoms for our one-way ANOVAs using the Welch correction. Our analysis indicated that participants in the positive performance condition ($n = 72$; $M_{PP} = 5.57$, $SD_{PP} = 1.29$)

provided significantly higher ratings of performance, $F(1, 114.98) = 61.95$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .32$, than did those in the negative condition ($n = 67$; $M_{NP} = 3.39$, $SD_{NP} = 1.90$).

In assessing moral behaviors, a subsequent Welch-corrected one-way ANOVA also revealed support for the effectiveness of our stimuli, as participants in the positive moral behavior condition ($n = 68$; $M_{PMB} = 6.28$, $SD_{PMB} = 0.96$) rated the athlete's behavior as significantly more morally sound, $F(1, 120.40) = 357.83$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .72$, than did those in the negative moral behavior condition ($n = 70$; $M_{NMB} = 2.34$, $SD_{NMB} = 1.44$). In examining the extent of rivalry and perception of outgroup, we utilized multiple one-sample *t*-tests using the midpoint of the scale as our test value (i.e., 4). The results from these tests yielded support for the use of Ohio State University as an outgroup ($M = 5.26$, $SD = 1.55$; $t[276] = 13.47$, $p < .001$, $d = 1.62$) and a rival ($M = 6.09$, $SD = 1.21$; $t[276] = 28.78$, $p < .001$, $d = 3.46$), as participants provided significantly higher ratings in comparison to the midpoint in both cases.

Hypothesis Testing

Product choice. In order to test our predictions regarding product choices (H_{4a}), we conducted a series of binary logistic regression analyses. As noted previously, the selection of products involved those of either player- or team-related nature. These choices were coded dichotomously for data analysis. Herein, we inspected the effects of group, the type of behavior, the nature of behavior, team identification, as well as each of the two- and three-way interaction terms along with the exploratory four-way interaction. All 95% confidence intervals were estimated using a BCa bootstrap sampling iteration of 10,000.

The test of the full regression model against a competing constant one illustrated that our model did not significantly extricate player-related product choices from team-related ones, $\chi^2_{(4)} = 1.33$, $p = .86$. In addition, the goodness-of-fit assessment, as provided by the Hosmer and Lemeshow test, indicated that our model was a poor fit to the data, $\chi^2_{(8)} = 19.52$, $p = .01$. Results from this analysis revealed that the classification scheme accurately categorized 78.7% of the cases and explained 0.7% of the variance as indicated by Nagelkerke's R^2. Inspection of the main effect predictors and the composite interaction terms did not yield any significant effects (all p values > .05), as none of these variables impacted player- or team-related product choices. Table 41 provides the full results of this binary logistic regression analysis.

Table 41

Binary Logistic Regression Models for Product Choice (Study 4)

	Model 1					Model 2					Model 3					Model 4				
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*BCa 95% CI*
Group[a]	0.10	0.30	0.12	1.11	[-0.50, 0.71]	0.20	2.07	0.01	1.22	[-5.58, 5.62]	2.68	3.63	0.55	14.60	[-9.14, 15.43]	0.98	4.26	0.05	2.67	[-9.33, 10.72]
Behavior[b]	0.03	0.29	0.01	1.04	[-0.57, 0.65]	0.91	1.99	0.21	2.49	[-4.19, 6.33]	2.13	3.29	0.42	8.39	[-6.51, 12.74]	0.84	3.67	0.05	2.32	[-8.37, 11.41]
Nature[c]	0.18	0.30	0.37	1.20	[-0.42, 0.79]	1.14	2.05	0.31	3.12	[-4.57, 6.59]	1.20	3.48	0.12	3.33	[-11.30, 10.13]	-0.28	4.01	0.01	0.76	[-12.42, 7.15]
Team Identification	0.15	0.17	0.74	1.16	[-0.24, 0.56]	0.35	0.34	1.06	1.42	[-0.41, 1.28]	0.47	0.44	1.15	1.61	[-0.43, 2.00]	0.36	0.45	0.63	1.44	[-.54, 1.89]
Group[a] × Behavior[b]	-	-	-	-	-	-0.16	0.60	0.07	0.86	[-1.48, 1.19]	-4.15	4.15	1.00	0.02	[-17.95, 4.79]	-0.84	5.93	0.02	0.43	[-29.50, 16.65]
Group[a] × Nature[c]	-	-	-	-	-	0.77	0.60	1.64	2.17	[-0.69, 2.60]	-0.74	4.13	0.03	0.48	[-14.58, 17.12]	2.26	5.72	0.16	9.61	[-27.71, 1380.62]
Group[a] × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-0.08	0.36	0.05	0.92	[-1.03, 0.86]	-0.50	0.65	0.60	0.61	[-2.53, 1.28]	-0.19	0.76	0.06	0.83	[-4.85, 104.75]
Behavior[b] × Nature[c]	-	-	-	-	-	-0.52	0.60	0.74	0.60	[-1.92, 0.85]	0.39	4.09	0.01	1.47	[-14.63, 19.23]	3.51	5.78	0.37	33.48	[-182.34, 1354.62]
Behavior[b] × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-0.10	0.35	0.08	0.91	[-1.00, 0.73]	-0.29	0.59	0.25	0.75	[-1.96, 1.19]	-0.06	0.67	0.01	0.94	[-1.80, 1.55]
Nature[c] × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-0.20	0.36	0.31	0.82	[-1.14, 0.73]	-0.19	0.62	0.09	0.83	[-2.16, 2.42]	0.08	0.71	0.01	1.08	[-73.26, 213.78]
Group[a] × Behavior[b] × Nature[c]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.65	1.22	0.29	1.92	[-3.68, 15.95]	-5.62	8.18	0.47	0.00	[-60.22, 31.51]
Group[a] × Behavior[b] × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.66	0.73	0.82	1.93	[-1.83, 4.24]	0.07	1.05	0.00	1.07	[-3.95, 7.14]
Group[a] × Nature[c] × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.22	0.73	0.09	1.25	[-2.26, 2.30]	-0.32	1.01	0.10	0.73	[-3.46, 1.99]
Behavior[b] × Nature[c] × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.21	0.73	0.09	0.81	[-2.51, 1.45]	-0.78	1.04	0.57	0.46	[-4.25, 1.53]
Group[a] × Behavior[b] × Nature[c] × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.13	1.46	0.60	3.11	[-57.61, 201.12]

Note. [a]Outgroup used as reference category in Models 2 through 4. [b]Moral behavior used as reference category in Models 2 through 4. [c]Negative nature of behavior used as reference category in Models 2 through 4.

Social media comments. Subsequent binary logistic regression analyses were also used to examine our expectations regarding the nature of social media comments (H_{4b}). As in Study 3, we utilized the identical classification scheme and selected the modal response in determining the binary codes for analysis. Akin to the evaluation of product choices, we employed group, the type of behavior, nature of the behavior, team identification, and each of the possible interaction terms as predictors. Confidence intervals were estimated using 10,000 BCa bootstrap resamples. The final regression model significantly distinguished positive comments from those of negative nature in comparison to a singular constant model, $\chi^2_{(5)} = 102.16$, $p < .001$. In addition, the model was a good fit to the data, as the Hosmer and Lemeshow test was not significant, $\chi^2_{(8)} = 7.79$, $p = .45$. Our analysis also indicated that the classification matrix correctly cataloged 77.8% of the cases. Furthermore, Nagelkerke's R^2 signaled that this grouping structure explained 45.4% of the variance in the sample.

The results of this binary logistic regression indicated that the main effect model (i.e., model 1; see Table 42) produced significant effects for group and nature such that subjects exhibited a proclivity to provide more negative social media comments toward an athlete from the rival outgroup team and a negatively behaving player. In addition, team identification was marginally significant, which may indicate that higher team identification may give rise to generally more positive comments. Inspection of the two-way interaction model (i.e., model 2) yielded a significant group × behavior interaction, wherein exposure to moral-related behaviors by outgroup athletes produced a tendency for negative comments, and a marginally significant group × nature interaction, in which generally negative behavior by an outgroup athlete was

commented upon more negatively. However, these results did not persist over successive inspection of the three- and four-way interactions (all *p* values > .05).

Table 42

Binary Logistic Regression Models for Nature of Social Media Comments (Study 4)

	Model 1					Model 2					Model 3					Model 4				
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*BCa 95% CI*
Group[a]	-3.10***	0.39	64.32	0.05	[-3.86, -2.61]	1.79	2.79	0.41	5.99	[-5.36, 7.31]	1.23	3.77	0.11	3.43	[-9.80, 9.55]	1.23	3.77	0.11	3.43	[-9.80, 9.55]
Behavior[b]	0.04	0.33	0.01	1.04	[-.63, -.71]	-2.99	2.32	1.67	0.05	[-7.73, 0.78]	-3.33	3.76	0.78	0.04	[-12.37, 2.58]	-3.33	3.76	0.78	0.04	[-12.37, 2.58]
Nature[c]	-0.90**	0.34	6.78	0.41	[-1.59, -.30]	1.37	2.45	0.31	3.94	[-4.38, 6.91]	-0.66	3.46	0.04	0.52	[-9.71, 6.78]	-0.66	3.46	0.04	0.52	[-9.71, 6.78]
Team Identification	0.36†	0.20	3.19	1.43	[-.07, .82]	0.46	0.39	1.38	1.58	[-0.37, 1.38]	0.35	0.46	0.58	1.42	[-0.72, 1.42]	0.35	0.46	0.58	1.42	[-0.72, 1.42]
Group[a] × Behavior[b]	-	-	-	-	-	-1.80*	0.94	3.71	0.17	[-4.30, -0.34]	-3.94	7.14	0.30	0.02	[-23.67, 8.63]	-3.94	7.14	0.30	0.02	[-22.19, 8.64]
Group[a] × Nature[c]	-	-	-	-	-	-2.08†	1.17	3.13	0.13	[-19.61, -0.84]	4.21	8.00	0.28	67.18	[-22.38, 13.11]	4.21	8.00	0.28	67.18	[-23.98, 12.80]
Group[a] × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-0.66	0.51	1.68	0.52	[-1.69, 0.52]	-0.57	0.69	0.67	0.57	[-2.37, 1.56]	-0.57	0.69	0.67	0.57	[-2.37, 1.56]
Behavior[b] × Nature[c]	-	-	-	-	-	0.63	0.77	0.67	1.88	[-1.13, 2.55]	3.37	5.29	0.41	29.07	[-9.69, 21.71]	3.37	5.29	0.41	29.07	[-9.69, 21.64]
Behavior[b] × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	0.60	0.43	1.91	1.82	[-0.39, 1.80]	0.64	0.72	0.79	1.90	[-1.10, 3.51]	0.64	0.72	0.79	1.90	[-1.10, 3.51]
Nature[c] × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-0.41	0.45	0.84	0.66	[-1.35, 0.53]	-0.05	0.64	0.01	0.95	[-1.62, 1.87]	-0.05	0.64	0.01	0.95	[-1.62, 1.87]
Group[a] × Behavior[b] × Nature[c]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-16.47	6702.71	0.00	0.00	[-28.14, 20.59]	-21.05	48044.26	0.00	0.00	[-924.02, 1437. 19]
Group[a] × Behavior[b] × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.40	1.25	0.10	1.49	[-3.32, 89.92]	0.40	1.25	0.10	1.49	[-3.22, 51.79]
Group[a] × Nature[c] × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-1.19	1.68	0.50	0.31	[-5.04, 1.82]	-1.19	1.68	0.50	0.31	[-5.17, 2.90]
Behavior[b] × Nature[c] × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.47	0.99	0.23	0.62	[-2.83, 1.33]	-0.47	0.99	0.23	0.62	[-2.83, 1.33]
Group[a] × Behavior[b] × Nature[c] × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.89	8917.44	0.00	2.44	[-2.05, 2.94]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$. Included $N = 248$. [a]Outgroup used as reference category in Models 2 through 4. [b]Moral behavior used as reference category in Models 2 through 4. [c]Negative nature of behavior used as reference category in Models 2 through 4.

Trait evaluations and attitudes. A hierarchal multiple regression analysis was conducted to test our hypotheses regarding both performance and moral trait evaluations, competence- and integrity-based trust, and overall attitudes toward the athlete ($H_{4c\text{-}4f}$). Similar to our test of product choices and social media comments, the identical predictors (i.e., group, nature of behavior, type of behavior, and team identification) and all possible interaction terms were employed in analysis. In addition, we also included moral reasoning strategies as predictors in the model, those being: moral decoupling, moral rationalization, and moral coupling, in order to generally assess these outcomes while simultaneously accounting for the effects of the independent variables of interest. At this juncture, all predictors and ensuing interactions were mean-centered prior to analysis to reduce multicollinearity (Aiken & West, 1991). As in previous analyses, we estimated all 95% confidence intervals using BCa bootstrap procedures of 10,000 samples. The final models for each outcome measure are depicted in Table 43. Appendices AR through AV provide a detailed account of the hierarchal regression models from Table 43.

Main effects. The results from the regressions yielded a significant effect of group condition and the nature of the behavior on ratings of competence, integrity, performance, morality, and overall attitudes (all p values < .05). Members of the outgroup and negative behaviors by both ingroup and outgroup athletes were evaluated more harshly than ingroup members and athletes engaging in more positive behaviors, respectively. Furthermore, the type of behavior (i.e., performance- or moral-related) did not significantly influence the outcomes at the α = .05 level. However, a marginally significant impact of behavior on integrity was found (p < .10). Team identification

appeared to only significantly influence ratings of competence, wherein more highly identified fans tended to provide higher assessments on the CBT. However, no other outcome for team identification was significant.

In examining the moral reasoning strategies, moral decoupling significantly and positively impacted performance, moral, integrity, and attitude evaluations directed toward the target athlete. Herein, higher moral decoupling enhanced these ratings. In addition, moral coupling significantly heightened ratings of competence. No other significant effects of moral reasoning strategies were found on our dependent outcomes in this general test (*p* values > .05).

Table 43

Final Model from Hierarchal Regression Analyses for Trait Evaluations and Attitudes toward the Athlete

Model Statistics	CBT				PTE				IBT				MTE				A_{ath}			
R^2	.21				.42				.56				.51				.43			
F	3.82***				10.48***				18.44***				14.76***				10.73***			
ΔR^2	.00				.01				.01				.01				.01			
ΔF	1.52				5.32*				3.82*				2.73†				4.48*			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*
Group	-0.55	.15	-.21***	[-0.84, -0.23]	-0.45	.14	-.16***	[-0.72, -0.15]	-.49	.13	-.16***	[-0.75, -0.22]	-0.42	.12	-.16***	[-0.66, -0.16]	-1.52	.26	-.28***	[-2.04, -0.94]
Behavior	0.08	.15	.03	[-0.21, 0.36]	-0.02	.14	-.01	[-0.29, 0.26]	-.23	.13	-.07†	[-0.48, 0.03]	-0.01	.12	-.01	[-0.25, 0.24]	-0.16	.26	-.03	[-0.67, 0.36]
Nature	-0.61	.15	-.24***	[-0.91, -0.33]	-1.35	.14	-.49***	[-1.62, -1.09]	-1.51	.13	-.50***	[-1.78, -1.26]	-1.15	.12	-.44***	[-1.39, -0.92]	-2.01	.27	-.38***	[-2.53, -1.51]
Team Identification	0.24	.09	.17**	[0.05, 0.44]	-0.03	.08	-.02	[-0.20, 0.14]	.06	.08	.03	[-0.11, 0.22]	0.02	.07	.01	[-0.13, 0.16]	0.17	.15	.06	[-0.15, 0.46]
Moral Decoupling	0.09	.07	.10	[-0.03, 0.21]	0.14	.07	.14*	[0.02, 0.26]	.23	.07	.20***	[0.09, 0.37]	0.15	.06	.16**	[0.04, 0.26]	0.26	.13	.13*	[-0.003, 0.52]
Moral Rationalization	0.01	.08	.01	[-0.15, 0.16]	0.10	.08	.09	[-0.05, 0.23]	.00	.07	.00	[-0.13, 0.13]	0.03	.07	.03	[-0.10, 0.15]	0.13	.14	.06	[-0.17, 0.42]
Moral Coupling	0.18	.06	.19**	[0.05, 0.31]	0.08	.06	.08	[-0.04, 0.19]	.03	.06	.03	[-0.09, 0.16]	0.04	.05	.04	[-0.07, 0.14]	0.08	.11	.04	[-0.17, 0.33]
Group × Behavior	0.02	.29	.01	[-0.54, 0.54]	-0.24	.27	-.04	[-0.78, 0.32]	-.03	.26	.00	[-0.53, 0.46]	0.16	.23	.03	[-0.29, 0.63]	0.59	.51	.06	[-0.45, 1.66]
Group × Nature	-0.09	.29	-.02	[-0.68, 0.51]	-0.18	.27	-.03	[-0.69, 0.33]	.04	.26	.01	[-0.46, 0.57]	0.00	.23	.00	[-0.46, 0.48]	0.79	.51	.07	[-0.20, 1.80]
Group × Team Identification	-0.28	.17	-.10†	[-0.65, 0.09]	-0.41	.16	-.13**	[-0.74, -0.07]	-.49	.15	-.14***	[-0.82, -0.16]	-0.30	.14	-.10*	[-0.59, 0.01]	-1.02	.30	-.17***	[-1.64, -0.43]
Behavior × Nature	0.29	.29	.06	[-0.32, 0.92]	-1.21	.27	-.22***	[-1.75, -0.65]	-2.47	.26	-.41***	[-2.99, -1.88]	-2.33	.23	-.45***	[-2.81, -1.81]	-3.12	.51	-.29***	[-4.15, -2.08]
Behavior × Team Identification	-0.01	.17	.00	[-0.34, 0.33]	-0.17	.16	-.05	[-0.49, 0.12]	-.39	.15	-.11**	[-0.71, -0.10]	-0.11	.14	-.04	[-0.40, 0.16]	-0.31	.30	-.05	[-0.93, 0.24]
Nature × Team Identification	0.14	.17	.05	[-0.20, 0.47]	-0.23	.16	-.07	[-0.55, 0.06]	-.07	.15	-.02	[-0.40, 0.23]	-0.04	.14	-.01	[-0.33, 0.24]	-0.34	.30	-.06	[-0.98, 0.28]
Group × Behavior × Nature	0.75	.58	.07	[-0.47, 2.01]	0.45	.54	.04	[-0.62, 1.53]	-.05	.52	.00	[-1.00, 0.82]	0.23	.47	.02	[-0.66, 1.10]	-0.91	1.04	-.04	[-2.89, 1.12]
Group × Behavior × Team Identification	-0.06	.34	-.01	[-0.76, 0.71]	0.31	.31	.05	[-0.36, 0.98]	.05	.30	.01	[-0.61, 0.81]	0.08	.27	.01	[-0.53, 0.74]	0.07	.60	.01	[-1.24, 1.48]
Group × Nature × Team Identification	-0.04	.34	-.01	[-0.71, 0.59]	0.05	.32	.01	[-0.63, 0.73]	.27	.30	.04	[-0.38, 0.95]	-0.05	.27	-.01	[-0.63, 0.54]	0.09	.60	.01	[-1.21, 1.55]
Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	0.13	.34	.02	[-0.56, 0.73]	-0.36	.31	-.06	[-1.01, 0.23]	-.44	.30	-.06	[-1.05, 0.13]	-0.38	.27	-.06	[-0.94, 0.09]	0.16	.60	.01	[-1.09, 1.26]
Group × Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	0.83	.67	.07	[-0.60, 2.14]	1.45	.63	.11*	[0.07, 2.83]	1.17	.60	.08*	[-0.15, 2.59]	0.89	.54	.08†	[-0.29, 2.13]	2.54	1.20	.10*	[-0.05, 5.58]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Interaction effects. The examination of the two-way interactions yielded a significant group × team identification effect on performance and moral traits, integrity evaluations, and attitudes toward the athlete. A marginal group × team identification interaction also emerged for ratings of competence. It appeared that higher team identification further decreased evaluations of performance, morality, competence, integrity, and attitudes toward the outgroup athlete. Team identification also strengthened the negative effect of behavior, specifically moral-related behavior, on integrity, as observed by the significant behavior × team identification interaction. Ultimately, the interaction between behavior and nature significantly influenced assessments of performance, integrity, morality, along with overall attitudes. This interaction suggested that negative moral behaviors were rated more harshly than those involving performance. None of the other two-way interactions or the comprehensive three-way interactions were significant (*p* values > .05).

As an exploratory analysis, we inspected the four-way group × behavior × nature × team identification interaction. Results from this analysis indicated that the interaction was significant for outcomes involving performance trait evaluations, integrity, and attitudes. Furthermore, the effect of this interaction was marginally significant for moral trait evaluations. In order to clarify the significant four-way interaction, we examined the three-way behavior × nature × team identification interaction for these outcome measures between group condition. The three-way interaction for performance trait evaluation, and integrity was only significant among individuals exposed to ingroup athletes. To interpret these results, we conducted follow-up simple slopes tests developed by Dawson and Richter (2006), which suggests one standard deviation

above and below the mean to be selected for the high and low levels of the variables, respectively. This analysis indicated that for individuals exposed to ingroup athletes, the influence of negative behavior and high team identification was associated with a stronger relationship between the type of behavior and performance trait evaluations compared to negative behavior and low team identification (t = -2.53, p = .01), positive behavior and high team identification (t = -4.78, p < .001), along with positive behavior and low team identification (t = -4.11, p < .001). In addition, simple slope analyses among participants shown ingroup targets for integrity indicated that the influence of negative behavior and high team identification was associated with a stronger relationship between the type of behavior and integrity-based trust compared to negative behavior and low team identification (t = -2.65, p = .01), positive behavior and high team identification (t = -6.29, p < .001), as well as positive behavior and low team identification (t = -6.30, p < .001). In addition, the impact of negative behavior and low team identification was related to a stronger association between the type of behavior and integrity-based trust in comparison to positive behavior and high team identification (t = -3.28, p = .001) as well as positive behavior and low team identification (t = -3.21, p = .002). Figures 12 and 13 provide visual illustrations of the simple slopes tests.

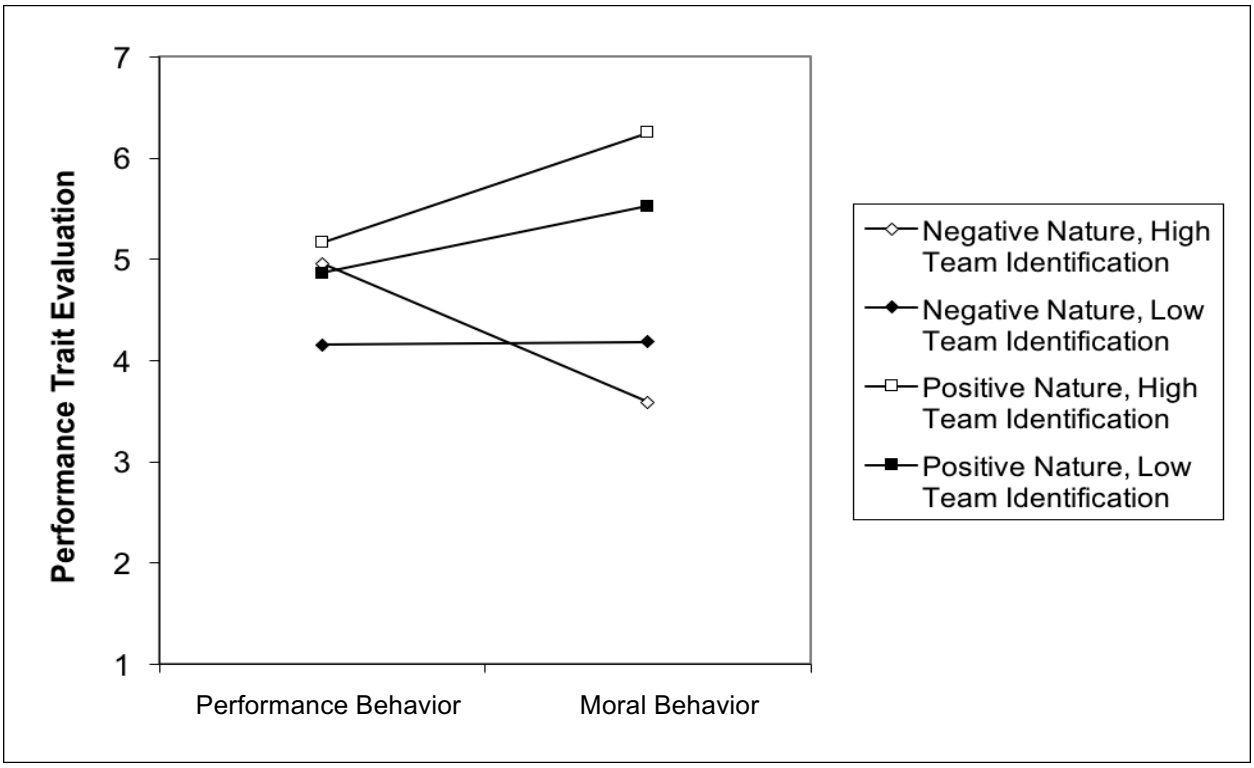


Figure 12. The influence of type of behavior on the relationships between nature of behavior, team identification, and performance trait evaluation.

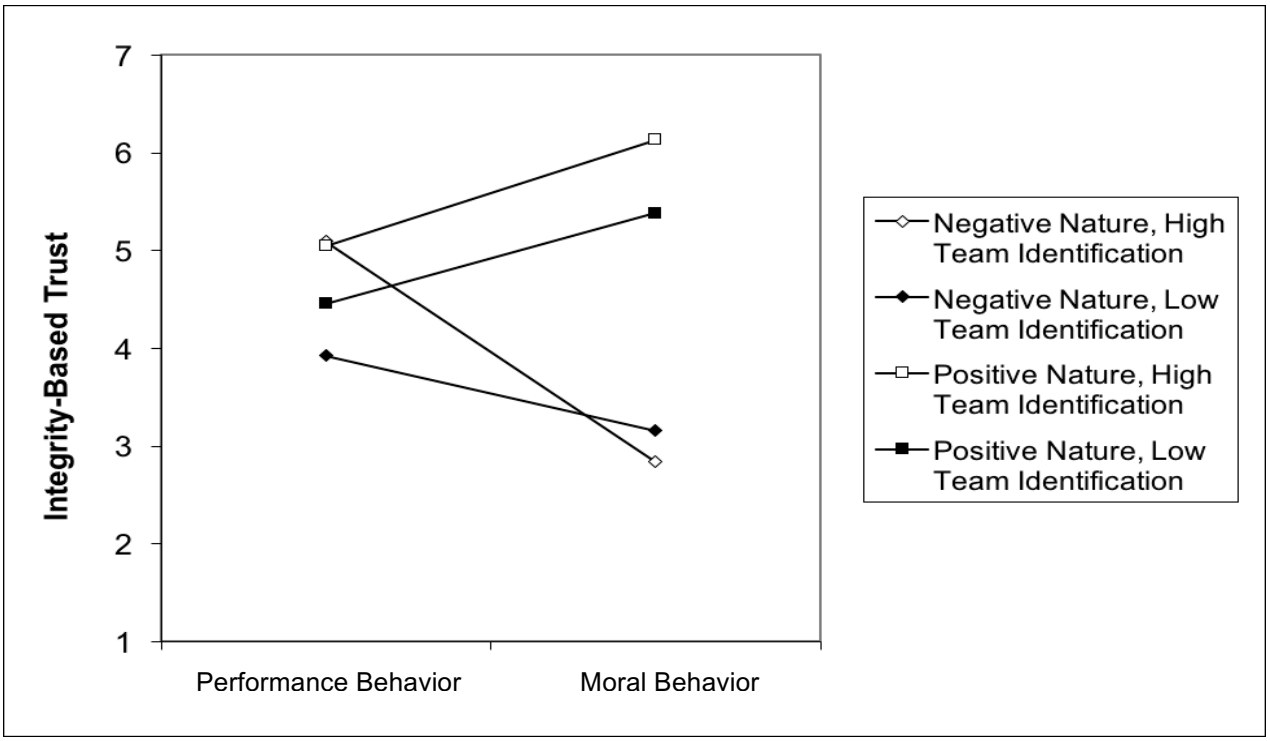


Figure 13. The influence of type of behavior on the relationships between nature of behavior, team identification, and integrity-based trust.

Social media behaviors. We aimed to assess our predictions regarding social media behaviors utilizing similar hierarchal multiple regression analysis procedures. As stated previously, we used the same predictors and their interaction terms as in our prior tests and estimated the 95% confidence interval using BCa bootstrap procedures to examine general social media intentions and negative social media behaviors. The last model from the hierarchal multiple regression is represented in Table 44. Appendices AW and AX provide a more complete portrayal of the regression results.

Table 44

Final Model from Hierarchal Regression Analyses for Social Media Behaviors

Model Statistics	GSMM				NSMI			
R^2	.32				.18			
F	6.72***				3.15***			
ΔR^2	.00				.00			
ΔF	.03				.30			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*
Group	-0.93	.16	-.31***	[-1.24, -0.63]	0.52	.16	.19***	[0.21, 0.80]
Behavior	0.06	.16	.02	[-0.26, 0.39]	0.03	.15	.01	[-0.28, 0.34]
Nature	-0.18	.16	-.06	[-0.49, 0.12]	0.39	.16	.15**	[0.09, 0.70]
Team Identification	0.17	.09	.10†	[-0.01, 0.34]	-0.12	.09	-.08	[-0.30, 0.04]
Moral Decoupling	0.20	.08	.19**	[0.03, 0.39]	-0.08	.08	-.08	[-0.23, 0.10]
Moral Rationalization	0.21	.09	.17*	[0.04, 0.36]	0.30	.09	.28***	[0.11, 0.49]
Moral Coupling	0.12	.07	.10†	[-0.03, 0.26]	-0.06	.07	-.06	[-0.23, 0.12]
Group × Behavior	0.24	.31	.04	[-0.40, 0.90]	-0.12	.31	-.02	[-0.74, 0.52]
Group × Nature	0.55	.31	.09†	[-0.04, 1.11]	-0.17	.31	-.03	[-0.77, 0.40]
Group × Team Identification	-0.48	.18	-.14**	[-0.84, -0.15]	0.31	.18	.10†	[-0.03, 0.64]
Behavior × Nature	-0.30	.31	-.05	[-0.94, 0.33]	0.49	.31	.09	[-0.11, 1.05]
Behavior × Team Identification	0.03	.18	.01	[-0.32, 0.35]	0.08	.18	.03	[-0.25, 0.43]
Nature × Team Identification	0.39	.18	.12*	[0.02, 0.79]	0.11	.18	.04	[-0.22, 0.47]
Group × Behavior × Nature	1.10	.63	.09†	[-0.06, 2.20]	0.69	.62	.06	[-0.54, 1.93]
Group × Behavior × Team Identification	0.56	.36	.08	[-0.16, 1.25]	0.60	.36	.10†	[-0.09, 1.23]
Group × Nature × Team Identification	0.76	.37	.11*	[-0.03, 1.67]	0.56	.36	.09	[-0.09, 1.28]
Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	0.53	.36	.08	[-0.22, 1.34]	0.33	.36	.05	[-0.38, 1.17]
Group × Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	0.12	.73	.01	[-1.43, 1.87]	0.39	.71	.03	[-0.95, 1.71]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Main effects. The models for both general and negative social media intentions indicated that group condition significantly impacted ratings of these social media behaviors. Specifically, individuals subjected to the outgroup displayed a tendency to avoid social media when the outgroup target athlete was the focus on such sites. Moreover, participants demonstrated a proclivity to direct more negative social media behaviors toward the outgroup athlete. Although the nature of the behavior did not significantly influence general social media behaviors ($p > .05$), negative social media intentions were positively impacted by this predictor, wherein negative behaviors gave rise to punitive criticisms on social media. Team identification did not significantly influence negative social media behaviors. However, a marginal effect of team identification did emerge for general social media intentions, wherein more highly

identified fans were more likely to utilize social media to monitor an athlete. Considering the moral reasoning strategies, moral decoupling and moral rationalization significantly impacted general social media behaviors, while moral coupling only marginally affected this outcome. Herein, higher moral decoupling and rationalization increased general intentions to use social media. In contrast, moral rationalization was the only significant predictor for negative social media intentions such that higher moral rationalization gave rise to more negative intentions.

Interaction effects. Among the two-way interactions, significant effects of group × team identification along with nature × team identification emerged for general social media behaviors. This interaction indicated that team identification moderated the effects of group condition and the nature of the behaviors. To be specific, higher team identification further diminished general social media intentions for outgroup athletes. For negative behaviors by athletes, lower team identification significantly reduced general social media behaviors. In addition, a three-way interaction between group, nature, and team identification was found for general social media intentions. To inspect this further, we conducted a series of simple slope analyses in the manner of Dawson and Richter (2006). Results from these simple slope tests indicated that the combined impact of behaviors of negative nature with both high (t = 2.67, p = .008) and low team identification (t = 3.21, p = .002) was more strongly associated with group condition and general social media intentions than behaviors of positive nature and high team identification. Nevertheless, behaviors of positive nature and high team identification had a significantly more potent association with general social media behavior and group condition than behaviors of such positive nature and low team identification (t =

-3.35, p = .001). Figure 14 offers a visual depiction of these results. Although the group × nature and group × behavior × nature interactions for general social media behaviors as well as the group × team identification and group × behavior × team identification interactions were marginally significant (p values < .10), no other two- or three-way interactions were evident (all p values > .05). Ultimately, the exploratory investigation of the four-way group × behavior × nature × team identification interaction was not significant for either social media outcome (p > .05).

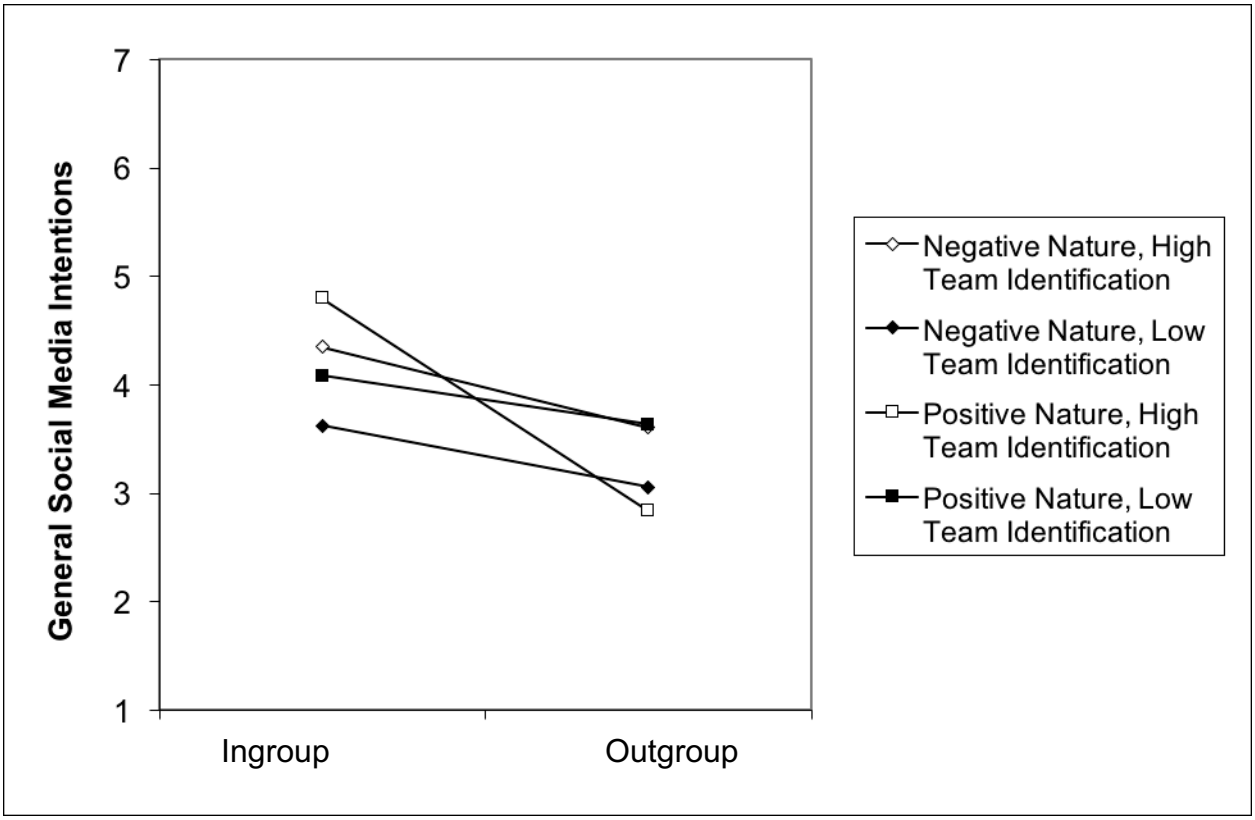


Figure 14. The influence of group on the relationships between nature of behavior, team identification, and general social media intentions.

Rivalry. The effects of rivalry on our dependent measures were examined using a series of within-group multiple regression analyses, specifically focusing on individuals

exposed to the outgroup target athlete. We explored each of our evaluative measures (i.e., the PTE, CBT, IBT, MTE, A_{ath}) and social media behaviors (i.e., specifically, NSMI and the nature of social media comments [ASMM]) to test our predictions regarding the influence of rivalry controlling for team identification, behavior, and the nature of such behavior. In doing so, we sought to concentrate upon the unique effects of rivalry over and above these underlying variables. Initially, we investigated all data relevant to the outgroup using similar procedures to estimate the 95% confidence interval, particularly a BCa bootstrap sampling iteration of 10,000. As in prior analyses, all variables were mean-centered for the regression modeling. Tables 45 and 46 present the findings from these regressions. The results from these tests indicated that rivalry significantly decreased ratings of performance traits and general attitudes toward an outgroup athlete. However, evaluations of moral traits and integrity were only marginally significant (*p* values < .10). Thus, individuals with higher perceived rivalry with the outgroup may tend to lower their ratings of such constructs, particularly for performance-based assessments and overall opinions concerning an outgroup. Overall, these results are partially supportive of our hypothesis (i.e., H_{4g}).

Table 45

Outgroup Regression Analysis for the Effects of Rivalry on Evaluative Measures Controlling for Behavior, Nature, and Team Identification

Model Statistics	CBT				PTE				IBT				MTE			
R^2	.11				.32				.30				.24			
F	4.28**				15.93***				14.12***				10.62***			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*
Rivalry	-0.24	.15	-.15	[-0.53, 0.07]	-0.35	.13	-.21**	[-0.64, -0.05]	-0.23	.14	-.13†	[-0.55, 0.08]	-0.21	.12	-.14†	[-0.49, 0.08]
Covariates																
Team Identification	0.24	.14	.16†	[-0.05, 0.54]	-0.12	.12	-.08	[-0.42, 0.17]	-0.15	.13	-.10	[-0.45, 0.15]	-0.07	.11	-.05	[-0.31, 0.19]
Behavior	0.11	.22	.04	[-0.32, 0.52]	-0.17	.20	-.06	[-0.54, 0.21]	-0.27	.21	-.09	[-0.67, 0.12]	0.04	.18	.02	[-0.32, 0.41]
Nature	-0.76	.22	-.28***	[-1.20, -0.30]	-1.44	.20	-.53***	[-1.81, -1.06]	-1.49	.21	-.52***	[-1.89, -1.08]	-1.14	.18	-.48***	[-1.51, -0.76]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Table 46

Outgroup Regression Analysis for the Effects of Rivalry on Attitudes and Negative Social Media Intentions Controlling for Behavior, Nature, and Team Identification

Model Statistics	A_{ath}				NSMI			
R^2	.16				.03			
F	6.38				1.10			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*
Rivalry	-0.60	.25	-.21*	[-1.11, -0.11]	0.14	.14	.10	[-0.17, 0.45]
Covariates								
Team Identification	-0.15	.24	-.06	[-0.66, 0.35]	-0.03	.13	-.02	[-0.33, 0.23]
Behavior	0.02	.38	.00	[-0.74, 0.77]	-0.14	.21	-.06	[-0.54, 0.25]
Nature	-1.60	.38	-.34***	[-2.35, -0.84]	0.36	.21	.15†	[-0.06, 0.78]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Negative outgroup behaviors. To further move toward an understanding of the distinctive qualities of rivalry, we conducted supplementary analyses utilizing negative behaviors of an outgroup athlete as the focus of our tests. Herein, we employed an identical series of regression analyses. The results of these tests illustrated that rivalry significantly impacted each of the evaluative measures concerning performance, competence, integrity, morality, and general attitudes (all p values < .05), using team identification and the type of behavior as covariates. Considering this, those with higher perceptions of rivalry between the ingroup and outgroup displayed a proclivity to allocate lower evaluations of the outgroup athlete. Our examination of social media behaviors did not support this notion, as rivalry did not significantly influence negative social media intentions as well as the nature of social media comments. However, rivalry did marginally impact the social media comments (p < .10), giving rise to generally more negative-natured remarks by fans (see Tables 47-49 for the results of these rivalry analyses spotlighting negative behavior by an outgroup athlete). On the whole, results from these analyses provide moderate support of H_{4h}.

Table 47

Outgroup Regression Analysis of Negative Behaviors for the Effects of Rivalry on Evaluative Measures Controlling for Type of Behavior and Team Identification

Model Statistics	CBT				PTE				IBT				MTE			
R^2	.15				.26				.48				.38			
F	3.68*				7.62***				19.69***				12.98***			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*
Rivalry	-0.64	.22	-.37**	[-1.17, -0.13]	-0.58	.19	-.37**	[-0.99, -0.21]	-0.40	.16	-.26**	[-0.78, -0.11]	-0.29	.14	-.23*	[-0.56, -0.07]
Covariates																
Team Identification	0.43	.18	.30*	[0.001, 0.86]	-0.15	.16	-.11	[-0.54, 0.24]	-0.12	.13	-.09	[-0.44, 0.20]	-0.10	.12	-.10	[-0.37, 0.17]
Behavior	0.39	.31	.14	[-0.28, 1.05]	-0.75	.27	-.30**	[-1.28, -0.17]	-1.57	.22	-.64***	[-2.00, -1.12]	-1.12	.20	-.56***	[-1.52, -0.70]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Table 48

Outgroup Regression Analysis of Negative Behaviors for the Effects of Rivalry on Attitudes and Negative Social Media Intentions Controlling for Type of Behavior and Team Identification

Model Statistics	A_{ath}				NSMI			
R^2	.35				.04			
F	11.51***				.99			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*
Rivalry	-0.83	.29	-.32**	[-1.36, -0.43]	0.09	.22	.05	[-0.41, 0.62]
Covariates								
Team Identification	-0.23	.24	-.11	[-0.76, 0.31]	0.23	.19	.17	[-0.18, 0.58]
Behavior	-1.90	.41	-.47***	[-2.65, -1.06]	0.24	.32	.09	[-0.37, 0.80]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Table 49

Outgroup Binary Logistic Regression Analysis of Negative Behaviors for the Effects of Rivalry on Social Media Comments Controlling for Type of Behavior and Team Identification

Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*BCa 95% CI*
Rivalry	0.69	.41	2.86	2.00†	[1.23, 3.18]
Covariates					
Team Identification	0.48	.35	1.86	1.62	[-0.41, 1.29]
Behavior	0.02	.56	0.00	1.02	[-1.26, 1.39]

Note. Included $N = 55$. $^{\dagger}p \leq .10$.

Moral reasoning. In parallel of our examination of the effects of rivalry on our outcome measures regarding the outgroup, we tested our hypotheses on moral reasoning strategies by utilizing a within-group analysis of fans exposed to moral behaviors by athletes. For these analyses, we utilized each of the moral reasoning strategies as predictors and controlled for group condition, nature of behavior, and team identification at the outset. Similarly, all predictors were mean-centered prior to analysis and all 95% confidence intervals were estimated using BCa bootstrapping of 10,000 samples. The results of our initial regression analyses revealed significant effects of solely moral rationalization on performance trait evaluations, overall attitudes toward an athlete, and negative social media intentions. Thus, those higher in moral rationalization tended to provide higher ratings of performance traits and general attitudes. In addition, greater moral rationalization was also linked to the inclination to engage in more negative social media behaviors. Although moral coupling had a marginal effect on integrity-based outcomes ($p < .10$), no other significant effects emerged for this broad

test of moral behavior and the impact of moral reasoning on our outcome measures (*p* values > .05). Tables 50 and 51 provide the statistics from the regression models.

Table 50

Moral Behavior Regression Analysis for the Effects of Moral Reasoning Strategies on Evaluative Measures Controlling for Group, Nature, and Team Identification

Model Statistics	CBT				PTE				IBT				MTE			
R^2	.15				.54				.71				.60			
F	3.96***				25.49***				52.56***				33.04***			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*
Moral Decoupling	0.06	.12	.06	[-0.15, 0.24]	0.02	.10	.02	[-0.17, 0.19]	0.17	.10	.13†	[-0.02, 0.34]	0.05	.10	.04	[-0.16, 0.22]
Moral Rationalization	0.09	.11	.09	[-0.13, 0.30]	0.23	.10	.19*	[0.03, 0.43]	0.09	.09	.07	[-0.09, 0.26]	0.09	.09	.07	[-0.09, 0.28]
Moral Coupling	0.04	.10	.04	[-0.12, 0.22]	-0.02	.08	-.02	[-0.19, 0.13]	-0.05	.08	-.04	[-0.21, 0.08]	-0.04	.08	-.03	[-0.21, 0.10]
Covariates																
Group	-0.46	.22	-.18*	[-0.86, -0.03]	-0.53	.19	-.17**	[-0.92, -0.11]	-0.46	.18	-.13*	[-0.82, -0.09]	-0.33	.18	-.10†	[-0.70, 0.09]
Nature	-0.54	.22	-.21*	[-0.99, -.09]	-2.05	.19	-.67***	[-2.46, -1.64]	-2.82	.18	-.79***	[-3.21, -2.42]	-2.38	.18	-.76***	[-2.77, -1.97]
Team Identification	0.27	.12	.19*	[0.02, 0.52]	-0.08	.10	-.05	[-0.32, 0.16]	-0.10	.09	-.05	[-0.33, 0.12]	-0.03	.10	-.02	[-0.27, 0.22]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Table 51

Moral Behavior Regression Analysis for the Effects of Moral Reasoning Strategies on Attitudes and Negative Social Media Intentions Controlling for Group, Nature, and Team Identification

Model Statistics	A_{ath}				NSMI			
R^2	.53				.12			
F	24.50***				3.02**			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*
Moral Decoupling	-0.01	.19	.00	[-0.44, 0.34]	-0.02	.12	-.02	[-0.28, 0.30]
Moral Rationalization	0.37	.19	.17*	[-0.04, 0.79]	0.28	.12	.27*	[0.03, 0.49]
Moral Coupling	-0.21	.16	-.10	[-0.57, 0.05]	0.16	.10	.15	[-0.08, 0.41]
Covariates								
Group	-1.13	.36	-.20**	[-1.86, -0.32]	0.32	.23	.12	[-0.12, 0.74]
Nature	-3.79	.36	-.66***	[-4.49, -3.06]	0.69	.23	.26**	[0.26, 1.13]
Team Identification	0.05	.19	.02	[-0.38, 0.50]	-0.04	.12	-.02	[-0.27, 0.18]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Negative moral behaviors. To further probe the effects of moral reasoning strategies, we concentrated on negative moral behaviors as a means to explore differences between fans subjected to conditions involving the ingroup and outgroup athlete. Likewise, we performed an additional set of multiple regression analyses using team identification as a covariate. The results from the within-group analyses of the negative moral behavior of an ingroup athlete uncovered significant impacts of moral rationalization on performance and moral trait evaluations as well as evaluations of integrity and general attitudes. Consequently, fans higher in moral rationalization who were exposed to morally-deviant ingroup athletes were prone to providing higher ratings on the aforementioned outcomes. However, it must be noted that the effect of moral coupling on moral trait evaluation was generally significant for such exposure ($p < .10$), suggesting a trend toward lowering assessments of morality in these deviant ingroup athletes. Although our results did yield support for H_{4i}, we were not able to find evidence to sustain H_{4j} and H_{4k}. Tables 52 and 53 depict the results of these findings.

Table 52

Ingroup Negative Moral Behavior Regression Analysis for the Effects of Moral Reasoning Strategies on Evaluative Measures Controlling for Team Identification

Model Statistics	CBT				PTE				IBT				MTE			
R^2	.14				.37				.59				.49			
F	1.19				4.48**				10.88***				7.13***			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*
Moral Decoupling	0.40	.27	.39	[-0.17, 1.02]	0.06	.22	.06	[-0.42, 0.50]	0.20	.17	.22	[-0.18, 0.62]	0.06	.17	.08	[-0.32, 0.43]
Moral Rationalization	0.05	.20	.06	[-0.39, 0.36]	0.40	.16	.45*	[0.05, 0.80]	0.44	.12	.51***	[0.19, 0.84]	0.38	.13	.49**	[0.11, 0.79]
Moral Coupling	0.21	.22	.21	[-0.25, 0.68]	-0.09	.18	-.10	[-0.47, 0.37]	-0.16	.14	-.18	[-0.41, 0.14]	-0.25	.14	-.31†	[-0.59, 0.05]
Covariate																
Team Identification	0.56	.31	.35	[-0.05, 1.16]	-0.31	.25	-.21	[-1.04, 0.34]	-0.12	.20	-.08	[-0.54, 0.34]	-0.06	.20	-.04	[-0.61, 0.50]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Table 53

Ingroup Negative Moral Behavior Regression Analysis for the Effects of Moral Reasoning Strategies on Attitudes and Negative Social Media Intentions Controlling for Team Identification

Model Statistics	A_{ath}				NSMI			
R^2	.52				.17			
F	8.23***				1.51			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*
Moral Decoupling	0.43	.37	.23	[-0.33, 1.24]	-0.24	.28	-.22	[-0.79, 0.27]
Moral Rationalization	0.82	.27	.46**	[0.04, 1.57]	0.24	.21	.24	[-0.23, 0.82]
Moral Coupling	-0.42	.31	-.23	[-1.11, 0.28]	0.09	.23	.09	[-0.33, 0.44]
Covariate								
Team Identification	0.30	.44	.10	[-0.90, 1.49]	-0.50	.33	-.29	[-1.00, 0.10]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Moral deviance of the outgroup. Identical analyses were performed to examine the effects of moral reasoning strategies on the negative moral behavior of an outgroup athlete (see Tables 54 and 55). Our investigation of the morally-deviant outgroup athlete revealed significant effects for moral rationalization on performance and moral trait evaluation as well as overall attitudes. These findings suggest that those higher in moral rationalization may allocate greater evaluations to even an outgroup athlete, controlling for team identification. In addition, a marginally significant effect of moral rationalization ($p < .10$) along with a significant influence of moral decoupling on ratings of integrity was also found. This may point toward fans higher in moral decoupling to separate moral deviance and provide higher assessments of integrity, in spite of such behavior by an outgroup athlete. Consequently, the analyses of the outgroup provide partial support of H_{4i}, but are not sufficient to offer support for H_{4j} and H_{4k}.

Table 54

Outgroup Negative Moral Behavior Regression Analysis for the Effects of Moral Reasoning Strategies on Evaluative Measures Controlling for Team Identification

Model Statistics	CBT				PTE				IBT				MTE			
R^2	.19				.36				.65				.41			
F	1.72				4.21**				14.18***				5.11**			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*
Moral Decoupling	0.20	.25	.17	[-0.25, 0.50]	0.17	.20	.16	[-0.24, 0.52]	0.45	.12	.54***	[0.19, 0.64]	0.24	.14	.30	[-0.03, 0.41]
Moral Rationalization	0.40	.28	.32	[-0.23, 1.09]	0.59	.22	.54**	[0.18, 0.99]	0.25	.13	.28†	[0.03, 0.43]	0.43	.16	.52**	[0.14, 0.78]
Moral Coupling	0.07	.21	.07	[-0.36, 0.72]	0.13	.16	.16	[-0.26, 0.47]	-0.01	.10	-.02	[-0.28, 0.12]	0.16	.12	.24	[-0.15, 0.33]
Covariate																
Team Identification	0.41	.26	.28	[-0.18, 0.89]	-0.17	.20	-.13	[-0.71, 0.21]	-0.17	.12	-.16	[-0.52, 0.13]	-0.11	.15	-.11	[-0.52, 0.32]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Table 55

Outgroup Negative Moral Behavior Regression Analysis for the Effects of Moral Reasoning Strategies on Attitudes and Negative Social Media Intentions Controlling for Team Identification

Model Statistics	A_{ath}				NSMI			
R^2	.35				.20			
F	4.00**				1.82			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*
Moral Decoupling	0.42	.30	.27	[-0.15, 0.73]	-0.23	.23	-.22	[-0.65, 0.47]
Moral Rationalization	0.77	.33	.47*	[0.19, 1.51]	-0.03	.25	-.03	[-0.54, 0.42]
Moral Coupling	0.20	.25	.16	[-0.43, 0.59]	-0.05	.19	-.05	[-0.60, 0.39]
Covariate								
Team Identification	-0.14	.30	-.07	[-0.93, 0.72]	0.44	.23	.33†	[0.01, 0.87]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Group comparison of moral reasoning. Considering these findings, we sought to compare the effects of moral reasoning strategies between fans exposed to ingroup and outgroup athletes, as previously stated. We conducted a multigroup analysis using the *z*-test to compare the unstandardized estimates and standard errors between each moral reasoning strategy and outcome measure between the two groups. These analyses were carried out using a software program created by Gaskin (2012). Table 56 provides the results of these tests. The analysis revealed a single difference in the pathway from moral coupling to moral trait evaluations ($z = -2.22$, $p = .03$). This finding suggests that moral coupling was a stronger predictor of lower moral trait evaluations for individuals who were presented a morally-deviant ingroup athlete. No other differences were apparent in these multigroup comparisons (all p values > .05).

Table 56

Negative Moral Behavior Group Comparison for the Effects of Moral Reasoning Strategies on Outcome Measures Controlling for Team Identification

			Ingroup		*Outgroup*			
Predictor		*Outcome*	*B*	*SE*	*B*	*SE*	*z*	*p*
MD	→	CBT	.40	.27	.20	.25	0.54	.59
MR	→	CBT	.05	.20	.40	.28	-1.02	.31
MC	→	CBT	.21	.22	.07	.21	0.46	.65
MD	→	PTE	.06	.22	.17	.20	-0.37	.71
MR	→	PTE	.40	.16	.59	.22	-0.70	.48
MC	→	PTE	-.09	.18	.13	.16	-0.91	.36
MD	→	IBT	.20	.17	.45	.12	-1.20	.23
MR	→	IBT	.44	.12	.25	.13	1.07	.28
MC	→	IBT	-.16	.14	-.01	.10	-0.87	.38
MD	→	MTE	.06	.17	.24	.14	-0.82	.41
MR	→	MTE	.38	.13	.43	.16	-0.24	.81
MC	→	**MTE**	-.25	.14	.16	.12	**-2.22**	**.03**
MD	→	AATH	.43	.37	.42	.30	0.02	.98
MR	→	AATH	.82	.27	.77	.33	0.12	.91
MC	→	AATH	-.42	.31	.20	.25	-1.56	.12
MD	→	NSMI	-.24	.28	-.23	.23	-0.03	.98
MR	→	NSMI	.24	.21	-.03	.25	0.83	.41
MC	→	NSMI	.09	.23	-.05	.19	0.47	.64

Note. Significant path ($p < .05$) in bold.

Discussion

Findings and Theoretical Significance

The overall purpose of Study 4 was to determine how sports fans utilize various moral reasoning strategies to judge athletes from both performance and moral perspectives and thenceforth, go on to engage in various consumer activities (e.g., product choices and social media behaviors). In addition, we also sought to provide sustaining evidence for our previous studies on athlete evaluations using the combination of both performance and moral situations. Concerning our results on merchandise consumption, the findings from our fourth experiment did not support our predictions regarding product choices, as none of the variables affected team- or player-related merchandise selections. This outcome may suggest that fans were not placed under sufficient threat following exposure to negative behaviors to engage in solely team-related product consumption. In other words, fans did not experience a "shaken self" (Gao et al., 2009). However, it may be more likely that there may not exist any preferential consumption behaviors that transpire following negative information regarding an athlete.

Rather, sports fan consumers could have been subjected to an effect of *demand cannibalization*, or a reduction in the consumption of certain products (Shah & Avittathur, 2007), due to the presence of multiple team-related items. In the current study, although player-related merchandise can be construed as representation of a player, it is also the case that these products epitomize the team itself due to the characteristic team colors and logos. As Deleersnyder, Geyskens, Gielens, and Dekimpe (2002) have noted, demand cannibalization often occurs when there exists a

great deal of correspondence in products and channels, as was the case in Study 4. As a result of this conflict and underlying influence of cannibalization (Brown & Dant, 2014), consumers did not display any significant differences in their product choices.

Concerning social media comments, findings from our analyses revealed an ingroup favoritism effect and a preference for positive-natured behaviors (e.g., high performance or positive moral conduct). These results are consistent with previous literature on subjective group dynamics and normative behaviors by both the ingroup and outgroup (Abrams et al., 2003; Marques et al., 1988, 1998a, 1998b) as well as our outcomes as illustrated in Study 3. At this juncture, fans displayed a penchant for positively commenting on the social media posts of ingroup athletes and an overall partiality towards positive behavior. In general, it also appeared that more highly identified fans also displayed this tendency for positive comments. However, the interaction between group and behavior indicated that fans showed a disposition to comment more negatively on posts about an outgroup player when exposed to moral behaviors.

This finding could be reminiscent of Sumner's (1906) early work on *ethnocentrism*, which has argued a propensity for ingroup members to display a sort of "hatred and contempt of outsiders (p. 12)," regardless of their behavior. As Brewer (1999) has reviewed, there is a great deal of research that supports this notion of "ingroup love-outgroup hate" under certain group contexts. Although the BSE component of SGD was not evident in our analysis of the social media comments, we did find that sports fans of the ingroup were generally apt to negatively comment on posts involving a deviant outgroup athlete, supporting literature on social interactions

between groups, particularly during hostile situations (Brewer, 2001; Parker & Janoff-Bulman, 2013; Weisel & Böhm, 2015).

Regarding the evaluative outcomes involving the athletes, the results from Study 4 fell in line with our findings from our previous three experiments. In support of yet another ingroup favoritism effect and preference for normative tendencies implicated in SGD, the ingroup athlete was evaluated more favorably than the outgroup player and fans were inclined to provide more favorable assessments of positive behavior by an athlete. In addition, we did not find a significant effect of the type of behavior (i.e., performance- or moral-related) on these athlete evaluations, as expected. Thus, it appears for the purposes of evaluating athletes, fans do not appear to have a preference for the type of behavior the athlete engages in, but rather tend to support positive, normative behaviors in general (Marques et al., 1998a).

The findings of the current study also support the augmenting effect of team identification on favorability toward competence displayed by athletes. That is, more highly identified fans exhibited a tendency to provide higher ratings of competence. It also appears that team identification served to reduce evaluations of the outgroup athlete, supporting literature on biased evaluations of sport spectators by Wann and Grieve (2005). With respect to the exploratory interactions, team identification heightened the disparities in athlete evaluations, particularly for performance-related behaviors of ingroup players. Thus, consistent with previous research by Brewer (1999, 2001), higher identification to the group (i.e., team identification) further enhanced the ingroup favoritism effect.

Pertaining to the social media intentions reflected by fans, our findings revealed that fans sought to avoid contact with posts or content related to outgroup athletes in general, wherein team identification actually functioned as a moderator of this inclination. In conjunction with the nature of the player's behavior, team identification further contributed to this evasion of outgroup athletes. However, our results also illustrated that fans who did indeed pursue an interaction with social media associated with the outgroup tended to engage in more negative tactics (e.g., commenting harshly or not "liking" an outgroup athlete's social media post or page), as similarly found in Study 3. This finding also sustains past work on social media behaviors by sports fans, in which ingroup fans actively seek to marginalize members of the outgroup through the condemnation of athletes of the opposing team (Smith & Smith, 2012).

Regarding the impact of rivalry, findings from Study 4 revealed that for evaluations of all-encompassing behaviors of a rival outgroup athlete, sports fans tend to exhibit more negative attitudes and a tendency to devalue performance-based traits of such outgroup players. This finding reveals novel information about specifically how fans tend to depreciate the performance of a rival within intergroup contexts. In addition, these results are also suggestive of prior work on downplaying a rival's performance by Grohs et al. (2015), in which fans actively seek for ways to limit the positive attributions of these rival parties. Closer analysis of negative behaviors by rival athletes revealed even greater disparities in such biases, wherein fans further disparaged the rival player from performance, moral, competence, and integrity outlooks, while simultaneously holding hostile overall attitudes.

Thus, results regarding rivalry from the current study are contradictory to those of Study 3, in which our predictions concerning the unique effects of rivalry were upheld in the present context. These novel insights could originate from the concentrated emphasis on the rival outgroup as opposed to the additional inclusion of a similar status non-rival outgroup university. This focus on Ohio State University as the outgroup played an integral part in uncovering these impactful results, suggesting that rivalry truly can serve a unique role within not only fan group dynamics, but possibly in other group settings.

Concerning the effects of moral reasoning strategies, the results of our study do not fully support previous literature on how sports fans and consumers, in general, tend to process moral behaviors. In the current study, it appears that moral rationalization was the most important contributor to varying assessments of athletes. Herein, our results suggest that moral rationalization processes strengthen performance and moral evaluations of morally-deviant athletes, as also found in prior research (Lee et al., 2015; Lee & Kwak, 2015a). This finding could be explained by a higher presence of moral rationalization amongst participants in our sample. However, further inspection of the descriptive statistics indicated that subjects in Study 4 actually tended to reflect greater levels of moral coupling (M = 5.29, SD = 1.34) in comparison to moral rationalization (M = 3.32, SD = 1.24) and moral decoupling (M = 3.41, SD = 1.37). In consequence, moral rationalization simply appears to be more useful as a cognitive strategy in order to perpetuate support for athletes. In other words, it could be that participants in our study had a tendency to support players, despite their generally higher implementation of moral coupling.

Furthermore, Study 4 also offers preliminary evidence for a novel effect of moral rationalization on negative social media behaviors. Findings from our study revealed that sports fans higher in moral rationalization tended to hold more negative social media intentions as a means to derogate the deviant athlete by not liking, following, or commenting negatively on an athlete's social media page. The present experiment also contributes to the literature by introducing the similar treatment of moral deviants from both the ingroup and the outgroup. To be specific, the results from our comparative analyses revealed a collective trend for sports fans with varying levels of moral reasoning to evaluate both ingroup and outgroup athletes similarly, as indicated by a single difference in the unstandardized estimates between groups. These findings are resonant of the established influence of the BSE on deviant athletes, wherein sports fans tend to harshly derogate such deviant players to the same degree, regardless of group membership. Specifically, these results were analogous to those from our second experiment in the context of performance and Abrams et al. (2008) in situations involving moral behavior.

Pragmatic Impressions

The current study offers several noteworthy insights for sport marketers within the field. In view of our findings regarding product choices, it appears that merchandise selections for teams may be unaffected by single events, regardless of their magnitude. Nevertheless, it is still advisable for teams to focus on marketing team-related products in the presence of scandals, irrespective of our findings which suggest an absence of differences between player- and team-related product choices. Although teams should not be overly concerned with how sales may be affected, it may be wise to place greater

attention on team products rather than items related to a deviant athlete. However, elite athletes with long-established profiles of success have been found to augment consumer choices of endorsed products even when confronted with scandals, as seen in the investigation of troubled athletes in prior studies (e.g., Tiger Woods; Lohneiss & Hill, 2014).

Furthermore, our findings also edify sport marketers on the processes by which fans go about evaluating actual players and specifically, how these evaluations can be reflected on social media both after performances in sporting events and following moral transgressions. Considering this, marketers can utilize tactics that emphasize mitigating the damages that deviant athletes produce, particularly after immoral behaviors. For example, teams can use social media or other forms of communication to promote a sense of moral rationalization amongst fans that could serve to alleviate the animosity that the deviant athlete faces. As a case in point, succeeding the fallout of the Deflategate scandal, the New England Patriots changed their profile pictures on the team's Twitter and Facebook accounts from the team logo to the back of Tom Brady's jersey (i.e., Brady's number 12; Reiss, 2015). This scheme was a subtle approach to showing support for Brady amidst the allegations for his role in Deflategate and suspension from play that Brady imminently received. Tactics such as these may prove to be useful for even the outgroup, as our findings have shown that fans of the ingroup with higher moral rationalization tend to show sympathy toward even deviant rival players.

In light of the effects of rivalry on sports fans, our findings also illustrate the importance of capitalizing on enmity between teams. Herein, marketers could utilize

derogation of the outgroup to spur communal detestation and potentially, build greater solidarity for the team's collection of fans. As research by Brown (2008) has pointed out, opposition between fan communities can bolster the camaraderie of such groups, thereby contributing to a greater sense of "esprit de corps" (i.e., "feelings of group belonging and solidarity derived from a sense of the position [fans] occupy as a […] collective"; Light & Yasaki, 2002; Lloyd, Schneider, Scales, Bailey, & Jones, 2011, p. 349). By building greater rivalry through community derogation of the outgroup, teams can further build their brand and foster a sense of "us against them" confrontations that can enhance the level of team identification among supporters (Richelieu, 2012).

For example, within the realm of international soccer, La Liga's FC Barcelona and Bayern Munich of the Bundesliga started a social media altercation on Twitter, commonly known as a "Twitter War" (Raney & Ellis, 2014), ahead of their meeting during the 2015 Champions League semifinal (Sank, 2015). This social media clash saw the teams slight one another as a means to unite their respective fan communities and encourage the fans to join in on their social media battle. However, these "Twitter Wars" can be at risk of going to extremes, as also seen during the succeeding 2016 Champions League match against Juventus FC of the Serie A, where Bayern Munich was required to express regret for a post that could have been misconstrued as a reference to the Auschwitz concentration camp (Bretland, 2016). Thus, although the benefits of utilizing the "us against them" mentality can influence greater participation in the team's activities by fans, marketers must ensure that their actions on all platforms, even social media, are calculated, wherein the consequences of each post are deliberately considered.

Taking these notions of unity through enhanced rivalry into account, battles amongst outgroups can also be used to generate publicity for sports teams. As seen following Earth Day 2016, the NFL's Jacksonville Jaguars, Carolina Panthers, and Detroit Lions each engaged in a brief, but lighthearted "Twitter War" that may have amused many fans (Manca, 2016). During this instance, the teams affably taunted one another utilizing quips that concentrated on the feline nature of each of their mascots (e.g., "We need to stop this pro-cat-stination and get back to work. Perhaps we'll meet up Caturday?"; Manca, 2016). This short-lived "war" produced over 18,000 retweets and likes in merely two hours (Manca, 2016) and potentially contributed to a more favorable brand image for each of the teams. As Manca emphasized, other teams with similar feline mascots, such as the Cincinnati Bengals, could have participated in this interaction to gain this positive media promotion. This notion may speak to the need for marketers to actively monitor fans' as well as other team's social media activities in order to construct a more prominent brand image.

Ultimately, a final practical implication that can be derived from Study 4 revolves around how the type of behavior, whether performance- or moral-related, can affect how fans evaluate athletes. Findings from the current experiment illustrate that the category of behavior by the athlete does not necessarily carry as great a weight as the nature of the behavior in the present context. For instance, more negative-natured behaviors can override even the most positive behaviors (e.g., helping a fallen teammate). Therefore, practitioners in the field can utilize this knowledge in rebuilding a damaged athlete's brand image following poor performances or even various indignities committed by players. Previous research by Schwartz, Kane, Joseph, and Tedeschi (1978) has found

that people are more likely to reduce retributions toward a deviant party if the individual expresses remorse or guilt. Sustaining evidence for this has also been provided by McCullough, Fincham, and Tsang (2003). These authors have further highlighted the importance of the transgressor making attempts to express apologies, make amends, and take responsibility for their actions. In doing so, subsequent research has found that the perceived severity of the transgression by the deviant individual can be minimized (Fincham, Jackson, & Beach, 2005).

In light of this, sport managers may use these results and those of prior research to manage deviant athletes who infringe upon on-field and/or off-the-field rules and regulations. As Kennedy (2010) has underscored, image reparation following scandal for athletes can be expedited through four guiding principles: (a) maintaining positive relations with the media and fans, (b) openly admitting fault immediately after the transgression surfaces, (c) accentuating superior athletic performance, and finally, (d) remaining discreet and managing actions off-the-field or engaging in philanthropic work. Athletes who follow such guidelines may be able to dissociate themselves from negative publicity, thereby serving to partially restore the associated team's brand image. As an illustration, Kennedy provided the juxtaposition of the legal confrontations that both Kobe Bryant of the NBA's Los Angeles Lakers, who had been accused of adultery and rape, and Barry Bonds of the MLB's San Francisco Giants, who was connected to the famed Bay Area Laboratory Cooperative (BALCO) and performance-enhancing drugs (PEDs) scandal, concomitantly faced in 2003.

Concerning these cases, the four aforementioned principles were effectively utilized by Bryant who was quick to confess of his adulterous crime whilst asserting his

legal innocence and focusing on his play in the NBA. In contrast, Bonds denied the allegations he faced and as a result, could not circumvent the adverse damages. Bryant was able to recuperate his image following his transgression and ensuing legal battles, while even today Bonds still faces harsh criticism from the media and fans alike. Indeed, Bonds may have permanently tainted his career and legacy.

Shortcomings

Although this study did shed additional light upon how fans go about developing performance and moral evaluations about athletes and proceed with subsequent consumer behaviors, we were restricted by several factors. Foremost, our null results concerning our product choice measure may also be attributed to the fact that consumers cannot readily purchase items related to college athletes without paying more for customizing apparel and other merchandise. It could be that certain fans in our study did not select player-related items since these products are not easily accessible. These additional hindrances could have swayed these fans to be inclined to choose more team-related items, which may have negated any significant effects of our variables. In spite of many college teams selling jerseys with numbers that may match certain players, the names of these players are not included due to stipulations put in place by the NCAA, as previously mentioned (Kirk, 2014). Consumer situations and instances such as these have spurred disputes over compensating college players for their participation in sports due to the immense streams of revenue that universities are able to generate from the various college teams (Sanderson & Siegfried, 2015). These legal battles that currently persist in our society today could have potentially influenced the product choices by the fans in our study.

Another drawback to Study 4 could stem from only allowing participants to comment upon selected Twitter posts for our social media stimuli. Although these were actual tweets by the players, we may have been limited in that not all fans utilize Twitter as a social media outlet. For example, a national survey conducted by Duggan, Ellison, Lampe, Lenhart, and Madden (2015) of the Pew Research Center has established that Facebook is the most popular social media site, as of the year 2014. In fact, Twitter merely places fifth in this ranking of social media outlets with only 23% of online adults using the site (Duggan et al., 2015). In addition, with the current growth of Snapchat, now the most popular social media site amongst young adults (Edison Research & Triton Digital, 2016b), it may have also been worthwhile to integrate other rising social media platforms (e.g., Snapchat, Pinterest, Reddit, Vine, YouTube, and the like) in this experiment, as similarly performed in Study 3 with the inclusive use of Facebook, Instagram, along with Twitter. Nevertheless, we may have had to create artificial social media posts due to limited access to and absence of certain types of the utilized players' social media accounts that may have reduced the effects of the stimuli. Consequently, this may justify our simplification in the use of only Twitter as the sole social media outlet in Study 4.

Furthermore, the use of our behavior conditions may have been constrained. To be specific, in the performance scenarios, we were only limited to using the athlete's performance in the 2016 Under Armour All-America Game, given that the athletes had not presently competed in a college football game since they were merely incoming freshmen. Despite the fact that the All-America Game is a renowned event for impending college players, there are arguably no real stakes in performing superiorly or

poorly with regards to the athlete's university team. That is, even though Rashan Gary of the University of Michigan may have performed exceptionally well in this event, it does not necessarily augment the standing of the University of Michigan in their quest for a conference championship and a national title during the college football season. Moreover, with respect to the outgroup player's performance, Nick Bosa, we were compelled to utilize deception regarding his participation in the All-America Game. In actuality, Bosa did not partake in the event due to injury (Leigh, 2016). Even though our stimuli did function as anticipated, this minor element could have slightly reduced the power of our performance manipulation.

Considering our moral behavior conditions, there may have been a limitation regarding the nature of the types of moral conduct. Although we chose to center upon off-the-field moral behaviors related to on-field actions (e.g., coming to the aid of a fallen teammate and performance-enhancing drug use) for practical reasons, we could have utilized a series of other off-the-field behaviors as well (e.g., involvement in a charitable organization by the athlete or a domestic violence case). As prior research has shown, charitable efforts by players and similar philanthropic work may also often be perceived as a vital segment to the game (Babiak, Mills, Tainsky, and Juravich, 2012). Likewise, Lee and Kwak (2015a) have also identified that moral reasoning can be affected by the differentiation between on-field and off-the-field transgressions. In guiding future experiments, we suggest taking a holistic approach to the examination of various moral-related behaviors, both of positive (i.e., philanthropic or ethical behavior) and negative nature (e.g., athlete transgressions), even though the stimuli in Study 4 functioned properly under the conditions we set.

Conclusions

Taken as a whole, Study 4 delivers additional validation of the applicability of SGD to the realm of sports. Considering this, findings from the current study also provide an indication of how sports fans go about evaluating the moral traits and the integrity of both ingroup and outgroup athletes. Once more, the traditional occurrence of the BSE through ingroup extremity does not seem to transpire within sports. Rather, SGD and the BSE continue to manifest themselves as the customary ingroup bias and preference for normative behaviors of even the outgroup for positive behaviors, while emerging as equal derogation of deviant ingroup and outgroup athletes. However, the inimitable influence of rivalry between sports teams seems to further displace these preconceptions, given the more negative sentiments directed at rival athletes. On the contrary, the present study also reveals how moral rationalization can operate to enhance evaluations of deviant ingroup players along with their outgroup, rival equivalents.

Although we did not find support for the impact of moral coupling and decoupling in the present context, justification of immoral behavior remains a pivotal aspect within the moral disengagement processes and ensuing evaluations made by fans. As previously alluded to, it appears that the nature of the behavior serves a more essential function in these evaluations compared to the type of behavior. Accordingly, Study 4 offers evidence to suggest the preliminary effects of the various on-field transgressions on evaluations and consumption behaviors concerning the athlete and team. Specifically, the present study provides practitioners of the expectancies to have regarding how fans may react on social media following these transgressions. Although

there is insufficient research to direct the specific post-transgression actions that athletes should take and the ramifications on the fans, we attempt to address these deficiencies in the literature in our subsequent experiments (Studies 5A and 5B) and seek to further widen our inspection of athlete evaluations and various consumer behaviors.

CHAPTER VI

Studies 5A and 5B

Is There No Turning Back?

Proposing Black Sheep Regret and

Ancillary Effects of Post-Transgression Athlete Behavior

Introduction

Athletes serve as the faces for sports franchises and for the fans who follow them. Previous research as well as findings from Studies 1 through 4 suggest that fan behavior is dictated by on-field performances (Chadwick, 2009; Smith, 1988), whether superior or poor, and other behaviors by athletes (e.g., helping an incapacitated teammate or taking part in the use of steroids; Study 4). As we have seen, when athletes perform poorly or engage in heinous immoral acts, fans tend to disparage these deviants and engage in related consumer behaviors (e.g., commenting negatively on social media). However, prior experiments, including those conducted in the current dissertation, typically do not allow individuals to deliberate upon their responses to different incidents. As a case in point, participants are often limited to single exposures of athlete behavior, whether that be through various vignettes, videos, or stimuli articles and reports. In light of this, succeeding events can often contribute to how fans follow and evaluate various athletes.

As an example in society, Ray Lewis, a former National Football League (NFL) linebacker for the Baltimore Ravens, was once purported as a murder suspect in 2000 (Busbee, 2013). Subsequently, Lewis became the subject of harsh criticism equally by the media and fans for the charges of double murder against him. Following the aftermath of his trial and after spending two weeks in jail, Lewis reached a settlement agreement, pleading guilty to obstruction of justice and lending his testimony to prosecutors against two individuals who accompanied Lewis on the night of the murders (Schrotenboer, 2013). Although Lewis was found guilty for misdemeanor charges, he was able to evade the potential turmoil that could have ensued if found culpable of murder. Following these events, Lewis took the appropriate path to repairing his image, as outlined in a guide to image restitution provided by Kennedy (2010). Specifically, Lewis was able to redeem himself by performing at an elite level on the field, utilizing philanthropic work as an outlet for image enhancement, and finally, maintaining the persona of the consummate professional as a teammate and family man. Today, Lewis is celebrated by many and his alleged transgressions appear distant to the media and fans alike (Busbee, 2013).

Ray Lewis was able to leverage various positively-natured behaviors to detach himself from his alleged transgression; however, there have been many cases where athletes have failed to do so. For instance, former Olympic figure skater, Tonya Harding, has been commonly regarded as one of the most dishonorable competitors in sports history (Paskin, 2014) for her involvement in the conspiring to assault rival figure skater, Nancy Kerrigan, prior to the 1994 Winter Olympics (Onwumechili & Bedeau, 2016). Harding along with her former husband, Jeff Gillooly, and her bodyguard, Shawn

Eckhardt, had been implicated in the violent attack against Kerrigan that left the victim with injuries to her knee (Longman, 1994). In the aftermath of these incidents, Harding was banned from all figure skating competition and stripped of her titles (Paskin, 2014).

Research covering the events surrounding Harding by Benoit and Hanczor (1994) has noted that her tactics of attempting to restore her image may have ultimately led to her collapse in her sport. Specifically, they argued that the usage of bolstering her image by portraying herself to be innocent, denying the accusation of her involvement in the attack, and attacking the accuser simply were not constructed efficiently. Although the authors remarked that her post-transgression actions were apposite for the situation at hand, the manner in which she went about executing these behaviors contributed to the demise of her figure skating career and public image (Benoit & Hanczor, 1994). Rather than attempting to avoid further damage and marginalization by rejuvenating her image, Harding continually contradicted her assertions and did not challenge any incriminating evidence against her through external efforts.

Thus, this analysis of sports celebrities' discourse following scandal enlightens the industry and field on how post-transgression athlete behavior can be perceived by the public and underscores its vitality to an athlete's image. This line of research has continually encouraged further research on this subject (Arai, Ko, & Ross, 2014; Brazeal, 2008; Schmittel & Hull, 2015; Simmers, Damron-Martinez, & Haytko, 2009) as well as the examination of associated corollaries (e.g., on sports fans; Brown, Brown, & Billings, 2015; Fink et al., 2009; Solberg, Hanstad, & Thøring, 2010). Although there lies indispensable knowledge that can be gained from research on post-transgression behavior by athletes, such investigations on the direct effects on sports fans are quite

limited within the literature. However, there have been a handful of studies that have informed the field of sport management on how sports fans may react following athlete contraventions.

As a working example, research by Lee and Kwak (2015b) has indicated that people can forgive transgressed athletes following strong on-field performance and prosocial activities. Using a doping scandal involving men's professional tennis player, Marin Čilić, fans of tennis were apt to reflect greater forgiveness for Čilić's actions and attribute higher integrity following prosocial behavior. Similar results were found for situations involving performance improvement, wherein fans displayed a tendency to provide higher ratings of competence following such information. These results from Lee and Kwak (2015b) illustrate that sports fans can absolve an athlete from certain wrongdoings, such as doping scandals, contingent upon positive post-transgression behavior. Ultimately, their experiment also addressed the importance of sport practitioners properly managing crises surrounding players and may offer courses of action that can be taken in restoring the athlete's image.

Nevertheless, although these findings by Lee and Kwak (2015b) do indeed speak to the image of an athlete in an individual sport, this research does not quite enlighten how sports fans may react to players within team sports (e.g., baseball, basketball, football, and the like). In addition, this study only focused on steroid use by the athlete as the preliminary negative action and positive behaviors as the post-transgression effort. Although findings from such studies are valuable, we intend to gain a more complete understanding of how fans may respond to similar outcomes regarding post-transgression behaviors by studying both positive and negative post-transgression

behaviors. In doing so, we will also keep with the theme of the current project by examining athletes from team sports. Most importantly, although post-transgression actions can have an impact on how fans perceive athletes and pardon former transgressions, we seek to examine how previous evaluations of the athlete can generate a sense of regret in fans. That is, following fans' encounters with novel information about an athlete, fans may experience a form of regret due to former evaluations made with a lack of information. As a result, this surfacing of new, post-transgression evidence may spur retractions in former comments and behaviors by fans. Rather than solely examining changes in evaluations, we intend to determine the psychological underpinnings that drive such perceptions about athletes and subsequent consumer behaviors by sports fans.

Theoretical Framework

Regret Theory

The defining utility of the current study is embedded within existing literature on regret. The concept of regret was first studied by Friedman and Savage (1948), Savage (1954), and von Neumann and Morgenstern (1947), who developed various postulates to explain how individuals make rational choices when there is uncertainty about a situation. As Festinger (1964; as cited in Zeelenberg, Inman, & Pieters, 2001, p. 136) remarked, there lies a sense of cognitive dissonance within regret that brings about astonishment following a poor decision:

> Let us consider some of the consequences to be expected if there does indeed, exist such immediate post-decision salience of dissonance. Phenomenally, such salience of dissonance might be experienced as a feeling of regret, something

> that most of us have felt, probably, at one time or another. A person, for example, may shop around for an automobile to buy, investigate several kinds, and finally decide on which to purchase. As soon as the purchase is accomplished and final, he may well be assailed by a sudden feeling of “Oh, my, what have I done!” (p. 99).

Likewise, this being overcome with the bewilderment that Festinger (1964) draws attention to may be related to the uncovering of new facts that give rise to this sensation of regret. As in the example of the automobile purchase provided by Festinger (1964), the individual could have acquired information about the mechanical state of the car, ensuing problems that may occur, and future costs associated with repairs that brought about this “sudden feeling.” In other words, the individual may have been struck with the fact that he or she had purchased a proverbial “lemon” of a car, a vehicle that perpetually encounters motorized failures (Welfens, 2014), and would now experience a great deal of unfavorable consequences as a result.

In a similar vein, later seminal work conducted simultaneously by Loomes and Sugden (1982) and Bell (1982) formally introduced *regret theory* (RT). This model posits that people tend to have negative experiences after acquiring novel information that could have led to more positive outcomes (i.e., regret). Accordingly, Zeelenberg and Pieters (2006) have identified that regret can provoke individuals to engage in behaviors that serve to subdue, avoid, and repudiate any adverse cognitions and emotions. Simply put, regret can compel people to compensate in behavioral terms for any negative outcomes, particularly in settings involving choice behavior (Coricelli, Critchley, Joffily, O’Doherty, Sirigu, & Dolan, 2005). Continuing the example with the “lemon,”

people may be driven to prevent the future purchase of another “lemon” by exploring other options (e.g., purchasing a different brand of car or performing their transaction at a more reputable automobile dealership) as a means to maximize their chances of a successful choice.

Traditionally, research on RT has been studied from the perspective of selective strategies in decision-making. For instance, Loomes and Sugden (1987) have asserted that RT involves the potential for non-transitive pairwise choices. As such, they noted that when individuals have the option of selecting from more than two actions, they may have a certain preference that function cyclically. For example, the authors offered the situation of an individual making stock trades. When given alternatives to their initial decision, people may accept the exchange since this individual cannot foresee the aftermath of an outcome. However, when continually offered exchanges, the individual would not be compelled to be caught in a sort of “infinite loop.” Loomes and Sugden surmised that RT possesses a retrospective feature in that individuals must look back on a choice they had made and then experience internal conflict when learning of more desirable, alternative outcomes. Thus, by deliberating on alternatives, individuals can make more rational choices and avoid certain consequences, such as being “money pumped” into bankruptcy as in Loomes and Sugden’s paradigm.

From an empirical standpoint, RT has been assessed from a variety of choice behavior scenarios, such as in how individuals experience post-choice regret following the selection of lottery pairs (Inman, Dyer, & Jia, 1997), how regret can influence emotions based on the *sure-thing principle* (i.e., specific knowledge about a decision beforehand; Savage, 1954) and gambles (Mellers, Schwartz, & Ritov, 1999), and how

experienced regret can be regulated in daily decision-making situations (e.g., in education, romance, parenting, career, exercise, consumption, and so on; Bjälkebring, Västfjäll, Svenson, & Slovic, 2016). As the literature has advanced, the study on regret has evolved from the sole experience of regret to anticipatory outcomes (i.e., the foreseeing of negative occurrences when the outcome of interest has a finite aftermath; Filiz-Ozbay & Ozbay, 2007). While useful in the context in which there lies a probability in certain events transpiring, such as concerning monetary bids during auctions (Filiz-Ozbay & Ozbay, 2007) or betting on a certain team winning a game (Crawford, McConnell, Lewis, & Sherman, 2002), this particular facet of regret may not be applicable in the current study.

Given the focus on the athlete's behaviors as opposed to the team's performance, which can be forecasted based on numerous factors (e.g., talent of roster, standing of the opponent, and the like), we have chosen to focus on *experienced regret* owing to the reflective nature of learning of novel information about athletes. As Zeelenberg (1999) noted, while *anticipated regret* may inhibit certain behaviors, experienced regret can allow individuals to learn from inaccuracies or oversights concerning information and thereby change their behavior when given another chance. This notion has also been supported by previous research by Zeelenberg and Beattie (1997), who found that experienced regret can drive individuals to alter subsequent behavior in order to abate any future negative encounters.

Accordingly, rather than solely examining choice behaviors or gauging how individuals may respond to alternative situations that could implicate regret, our inspection of RT seeks to take an expanded approach to the concept within decision-

making. As we have observed in our previous studies, fans will effectively absorb and respond (e.g., through derogating or commending the athlete's traits and engaging in harsh or supportive behaviors on social media) to even single exposures to reports about athletes regarding negative or positive behaviors (Studies 1 through 4). However, we intend to investigate how sports fans as consumers may also be affected by the acquisition of succeeding novel information regarding athletes and how experienced regret can impact subsequent behavior. In doing so, we aim to allow fans to modify their initial evaluations and choices. As a result, we seek to scrutinize the ensuing attitudes and opinions that a fan may have about an athlete and what consequent behaviors may follow on platforms, such as social media, and in contexts involving purchase.

Domains of Regret

Consumer regret. Within the literature on consumer decision-making, regret has been examined from the perspective of consumer satisfaction (Tsiros & Mittal, 2000), purchase timing (e.g., finding a cheaper price for a certain product; Cooke, Meyvis, & Schwartz, 2001), repeat purchase or switching of a brand (Inman & Zeelenberg, 2002), and inaction of a purchase decision (Abendroth & Diehl, 2006). However, one area of research within this domain that is germane to the present study may involve how consumers look back on their consumption decisions. In view of this, Lee and Cotte (2009) have examined how regret functions in post-purchase reflection. In a scale development and subsequent validation studies, the authors effectively conceptualized how *post-purchase consumer regret* can concurrently function in two distinct manners: *outcome regret* and *process regret*.

Post-purchase outcome regret implicates individuals measuring competing alternatives, specifically what they chose to purchase compared to what could have been purchased. Lee and Cotte (2009) proposed that outcome regret involves *regret due to foregone alternatives* (i.e., remorse over choosing an inferior option over another alternative) and *regret due to a change in significance* (i.e., perceiving the selected product as less useful over time). As an example, outcome regret can function with the purchase of a smartwatch. In this case, a consumer can regret his/her choice of a certain brand (e.g., the Apple Watch) due to the alternative of another cheaper or more suitable brand (e.g., the Motorola Moto 360; regret due to foregone alternatives) or even the lack of expediency in the product's utility after a few weeks (i.e., consumers find themselves not using the smartwatch as much as they initially wanted to and experience regret due to a change in the significance of the product).

Whereas outcome regret involves the aftermath of a purchase, *post-purchase process regret* entails how regret can be generated based upon the quality of the decision-making process (Lee & Cotte, 2009). Herein, the authors posited that this process-oriented feature in post-purchase consumer regret contains two dimensions: *regret due to under-consideration* and *regret due to over-consideration*. Lee and Cotte have asserted that regret due to under-consideration can stem from a failure to execute proper decision-making techniques or more relevantly, a lack of information or surfacing of new information that could have led to a more favorable outcome. At this juncture, the consumer feels regret out of the process of making his/her choice as s/he could have expended more cognitive effort, whether that concerns the strategy implemented or through the acquisition of more information.

In contrast, regret due to over-consideration alludes to a near polar opposite of the previous dimension. Thus, consumers regret applying an excessive amount of effort or cognitive resources when making a purchase decision as opposed to utilizing inadequate processes (Lee & Cotte, 2009). Through the over expenditure of effort or procurement of too much information, the consumer feels that s/he may have squandered valuable time or energy. For instance, take the case of a consumer seeking to purchase a new brand of milk. On one hand, if the consumer simply purchases a new brand of milk only to discover another brand on sale shortly after his/her initial purchase, then the consumer may experience regret out of under-consideration. Seeing as the consumer could have acquired more information from a local advertisement or searched for promotional deals online, the individual may regret the purchase. On the other hand, if the consumer traverses the internet for days only for this process to culminate in the purchase of a brand out of accessibility from a local wholesale store, such as Costco, then the individual may experience regret out of over-consideration. Taken together, both these forms of post-purchase consumer process regret as well as those involving outcome regret result in consumers seeking to curtail the chances of future regret due to the negative experiences attributable to the decisions they had previously made (Lee & Cotte, 2009).

Regret on social media. In today's society, social media has, metaphorically speaking, become as essential as water is to life. As of 2016, an estimated 2.2 billion people worldwide use some form of social media (eMarketer, 2016). With about 7.4 billion people living on Earth today (The World Bank, 2016), this figure amounts to approximately 30% of the world's population. In the United States alone, social media

use far surpasses that of the global margin, with approximately 78% of the US population claiming a social media profile (Edison Research & Triton Digital, 2016a). However, with the near vitality of social media in people's lives, society has seen many plagued by regret from certain posts. In fact, a survey conducted by YouGov (2015) has reported that in a sample of United States adults, 17% of respondents regretted posting a comment in the "heat of the moment" that may have offended their friends or other social media users. Given the near limitless access one can have on a public social media account, there have been numerous experiments that have examined how posts could contribute to regret by social media users.

Within the literature bridging regret and social media, prior research has investigated similar phenomenon to that typified in the abovementioned anecdotal examples. For instance, Wang, Norcie, Komanduri, Acquisti, Leon, and Cranor (2011) have examined how users feel regret after sharing a post on the popular social media site, Facebook, in a qualitative study. Findings from their investigation revealed that individuals felt varying degrees of regret on the account of making posts that were reckless. Wang et al. noted that these users provide seven main reasons that lead to their regret. Primarily, individuals reported that they sought to receive favorable perceptions through their posts and did not think about the repercussions of making such posts. In addition, participants remarked that they may have misjudged the norms within their social groups, whether that be through the inability to anticipate who would see the post or how members of their social circle may have reacted. Ultimately, participants also ascribed a certain lack of understanding and general ill use through

both spur of the moment decisions based on emotions or drug (e.g., alcohol) use as well as an overall misappropriation of social media sites like Facebook.

In terms of consumer regret, these users in Wang et al.'s (2011) experiment may have experienced a form of process regret for the most part, given the absentmindedness and misjudgment in their decisions to make such posts. In other words, if these individuals had acquired more information or put forth more effort, then they may have been able to avoid any negative upshots. Although there is a great deal of research that has analyzed a range of correlates related to social media regret, such as personality traits (Moore & McElroy, 2012; Seidman, 2013), concerns over reputation or privacy (van der Velden, & El Emam, 2013; Zhou, Wang, & Chen, 2015), and self-presentation (Lee, Ahn, & Kim, 2014; Ong et al., 2011), there is very little empirical data that has specifically examined the sports fan as a social media user. Thus, to pervade this disparity in the research, the current study intends to also examine how sports fans can experience regret based on various consumer behaviors implicated in social media posts and within purchase decisions.

Linking regret and sports fans: The present study. In the realm of sports, regret can be experienced on a variety of levels. For instance, fans may often feel regret after attending a game that their favorite team may have lost or even after purchasing a jersey of a player who leaves their favorite team in free agency. Society often sees fans react in destructive fashions following the latter incident (e.g., by burning the jerseys of these players who abandon the fans' favorite teams). In both cases, the fan may surmise that the financial expenditure and time spent seeking out consumption did not merit the eventual negative outcome. As reviewed in this chapter, regret has been

studied from a vast number of perspectives. In sports, however, regret has been examined from the viewpoint of how performance may affect the fans' allure with the team as well as how decisions by fans to engage in certain behavior can bring about regret.

Zillman, Bryant, and Sapolsky (1989) reported that team identification can serve as a predictor of how fans may regret poor play by their favorite team. As also noted by Rainey, Larsen, and Yost (2009) and Rainey, Yost, and Larsen (2011), this disposition toward sport spectatorship (Zillman et al., 1989) can occur across sports, as found among both baseball and American football fans. However, these notions expressed by previous research have focused upon *disappointment theory*, posed as an alternative to RT by both Bell (1985) and Loomes and Sugden (1986), as opposed to processes related to regret. Although Rainey et al. (2009, 2011) have noted the existence of such phenomenon, their mentioning of regret as an outcome of poor play may be misconstrued, as regret often constitutes a series of alternatives to a selected option (Bleichrodt & Wakker, 2015). In contrast, disappointment implicates negative emotional reactions following violated expectancies and a lack of agency, whereas regret occurs when an individual feels liable for a decision s/he had made when other options were available (Zeelenberg, van Dijk, Manstead, & van der Pligt, 2000). Thus, this previous research claiming that poor performance can invoke regret may actually be more relevant to disappointment.

Moreover, regret has also been investigated in how sport spectators assess their involvement in the broader fan community. As noted by Cho (2015) in a review of an online fan community, MLBPARK, fans who did not believe their interactions in this

virtual environment were constructive tended to regret their decision to execute such actions. Cho provided a comment by a user of MLBPARK who expressed his/her judgment of his/her decision:

> We are simply wandering here. I find myself turning on the computer and logging in to this community every night. Such routines seem to be really meaningless and wastes of time. It is so shameful to imagine that someone else studies hard while I randomly spend time here. (p. 134).

This sentiment regarding the misuse of effort and squandering one's time speaks to the notions that surround regret. Herein, this user offers the alternative of "studying hard" in preference to "randomly spend[ing] time [on MLBPARK]." Despite not directly referencing RT, Cho's research highlighted how fans can experience regret on a platform such as social media. However, there lies a great potential for further research to examine how such attitudes reflecting regret can be illustrated within the context of other decisions by fans, specifically concerning decisions to evaluate an athlete in a certain manner.

Although RT has been commonly utilized in the context of purchase decisions or probabilistic outcomes (see Filiz-Ozbay & Ozbay, 2007; Lee & Cotte, 2009; Michenaud & Solnik, 2008; Quiggin, 1994; Ritov, 1996), its application is not far from the milieu of other behavioral decisions. As such, Gilovich and Medvec (1995) have argued that economic theorists have limited the scope of the construct by assuming that merely varying comparative prices between items, the chances of different outcomes occurring, and alternative choice tasks can lead to regret. Hence, regret may also be applicable to evaluative judgments and other behavior implicated in group settings. Considering this,

however, previous literature has not attempted to examine the interplay between sports fans and regret, particularly in their evaluations regarding athletes from their favorite teams. Accordingly, not only do we intend to apply regret to a sports setting, we also seek to extend this line of research by proposing a novel principle involving concepts studied in the present dissertation and the model of regret reviewed in this chapter. Thus, we put forward a model to be employed in the context of deviant athletes related to the confluence of ingroup extremity (i.e., the BSE) along with RT, which we term *black sheep regret* (BSR).

Black Sheep Regret

BSR acts as a serial process that may follow a previous pejorative assessment of an athlete. Drawing from the literature on SGD and the BSE as well as findings from our preceding studies, we posit that fans would bestow harsh criticism following negative behavior by the athlete, utilizing ingroup derogation to the proverbial “black sheep” of the group. However, upon the receipt of novel information (i.e., dependent on an athlete’s subsequent behavior), fans may lament over their prior abrasive evaluations of the athlete. As a result, fans may revisit former evaluations and reconsider existing support or derogation of the athlete due to cognitive pressures related to regret. For illustrative purposes, Figure 15 offers a portrayal of the progression of BSR. Along with this visual depiction, we provide a recount of a pertinent case from the sports world.

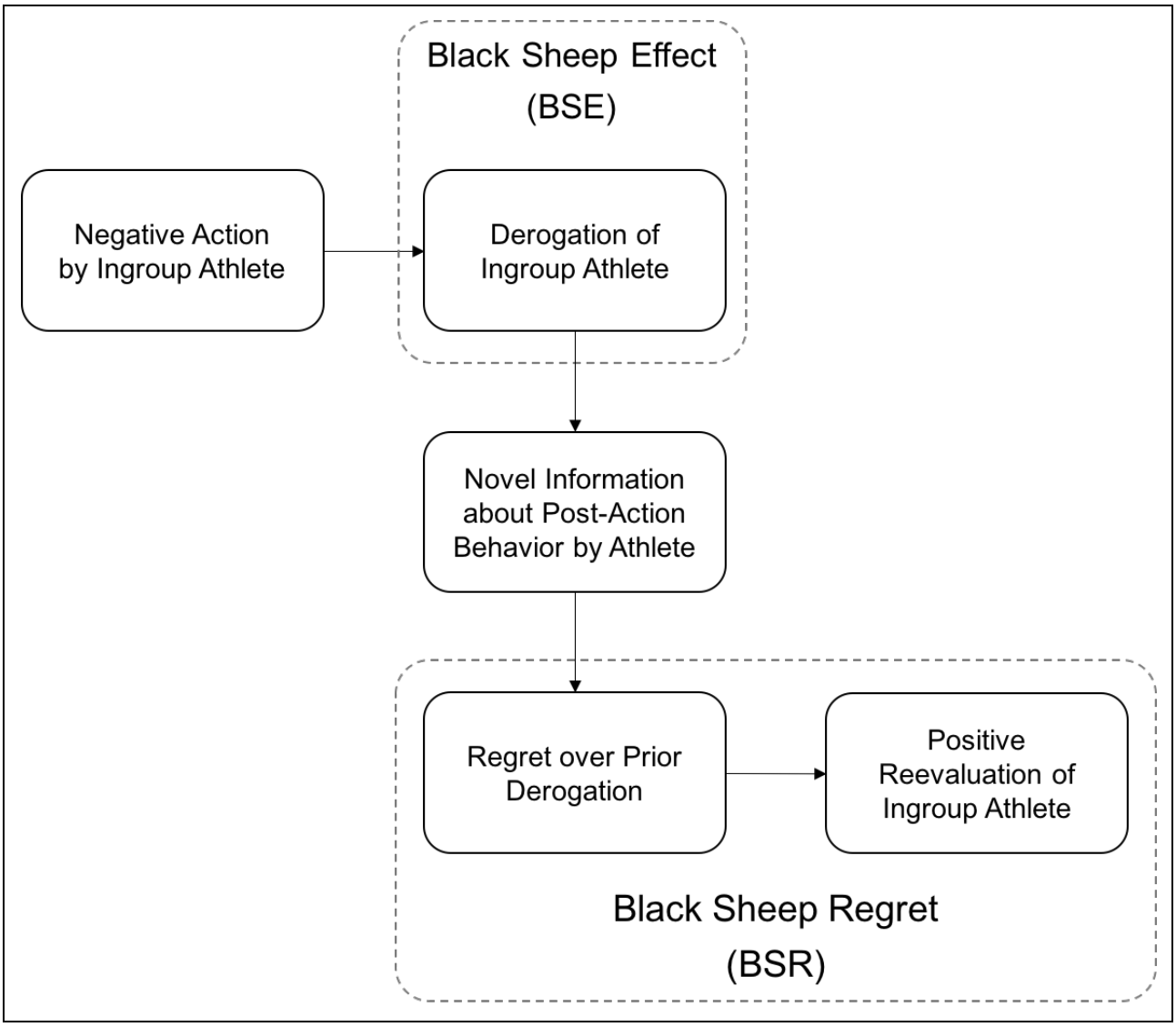


Figure 15. Sequence of black sheep regret.

Black sheep regret in society. In 2006, three players on Duke University's men's lacrosse team, one of whom was the captain of the team, were indicted on charges related to the rape of a young woman (Schow, 2016). After these allegations surfaced, many fans, the media, and even the captain's lawyer, Brad Bannon, subjected these players to a great deal of criticism. In association with the current theoretical framework, these players were christened as "black sheep." However, following a high-profile lawsuit covered comprehensively by the media, the Duke lacrosse players

were found innocent of rape (Schow, 2016). Although the players were culpable of wrongfully utilizing funds provided by the university to host parties, the outcome of the case saw many fans as well as the media apologize for their former remarks. In fact, the President of Duke University at the time, Richard Brodhead, and many news outlets covering the scandal released public statements expressing regret for the harsh criticism (e.g., Hill, 2007; Minnick, 2007; Sheehan, 2007).

In the aftermath of the case, the players found themselves displaced, as the consequences of these legal battles forced the players to transfer to different universities and sullied the rest of their competitive sports careers. In relation to BSR, the Duke lacrosse case acts as an epitomic example for the conceptual process. That is, (a) people learned that the players were accused of engaging in criminal behavior, (b) the players were then harshly criticized and treated as “black sheep,” (c) new information about the ruling of the case and innocence of the players was presented, (d) these novel conditions spurred regret in those who criticized the players, and (e) many individuals withdrew their former punitive evaluations of the players. All things considered, this societal example of BSR offers a basis for the present study utilizing RT, other existing literature on regret, and research on the BSE. We believe that occurrences such as these along with findings supported by past research and the current dissertation present robust cornerstones to explore BSR within sports settings.

Intentions and Predictions

Considering this, the purpose of this study is to demonstrate how regret by sports fans can influence reevaluations of athletes and consumer choices of related products following the presentation of performance (e.g., poor on-field play) and moral (e.g.,

domestic violence) post-transgression behaviors by athletes. The findings of this study may provide greater insight into fan behavior and consumer tactics utilized in sports-driven product choices by illuminating how fans cogitate on-field and off-the-field behavior when coming to purchase decisions involving team-related (e.g., team licensed apparel) and individual-related (e.g., player jerseys) items. In doing so, the current study advances the literature in this area by: (a) encouraging an interdisciplinary approach by drawing from literature rooted in psychological, economic, and sport management theory, and (b) fortifying the relationship between theory and practice within the industry by offering conceptual implications for sport managers.

We postulate that BSR can compel fans to reevaluate prior appraisals of athletes based upon the presentation of novel information. However, the key distinction of this construct is the manifestation of ingroup derogation as an antecedent to this phenomenon. Namely, fans will harshly derogate the negatively behaving ingroup athlete, but will also revisit their evaluations following new information. We posit that this effect may also have ramifications for sport managers. Due to the reappraisal of the athlete, managers must be wary of fans' capability to alter future intentions to purchase related items or share negative information on social media. Considering this, we plan to conduct two related studies to demonstrate the effects of BSR, a field study that examines changes in social media behavior following events surrounding an athlete (Study 5A) and an empirical examination that actively manipulates information about an athlete (Study 5B). Accordingly, we propose the following hypotheses for our two studies (see Table 57 for the list of hypotheses and Figure 16 for the framework of the empirical project [i.e., Study 5B]).

Table 57

Hypotheses for Studies 5A and 5B

Study	*Hypothesis*
Field Study (5A)	– **H_{5a_1}:** Negative actions by the athlete will produce more negative social media behaviors. – **H_{5a_2}:** Novel information about the athlete will bring about evaluations of more positive nature on social media. – **H_{5a_3}:** There will be a significant change in the nature of fans' social media behavior from the initial negative action by the athlete to the surfacing of new information about the same player, wherein fans will provide significantly more positive comments following exposure to novel information.
Experimental Study (5B)	– **H_{5b_1}:** The initial negative action by the athlete will generate more product choices related to the team as opposed to the athlete. – **H_{5b_2}:** These actions will lead to negative social media comments. – **H_{5b_3}:** Such behavior will also spur derogative trait evaluations. – **H_{5b_4}:** Negative post-transgression behavior (e.g., poor on-field performance or immoral off-the-field behavior) will spur more team-related product choices as well as harsh comments and evaluations in comparison to positive post-transgression behavior (e.g., high on-field performance or philanthropic off-the-field behavior). – **H_{5b_5}:** Higher regret from positive post-transgression behavior will give rise to purchase intentions of player-items in comparison to negatively-associated regret. – **H_{5b_6}**: There will be a greater intent to share positive information on social media due to regret associated with positive post-transgression behavior. – **H_{5b_7}:** Positively related regret will also augment positive athlete reevaluations.

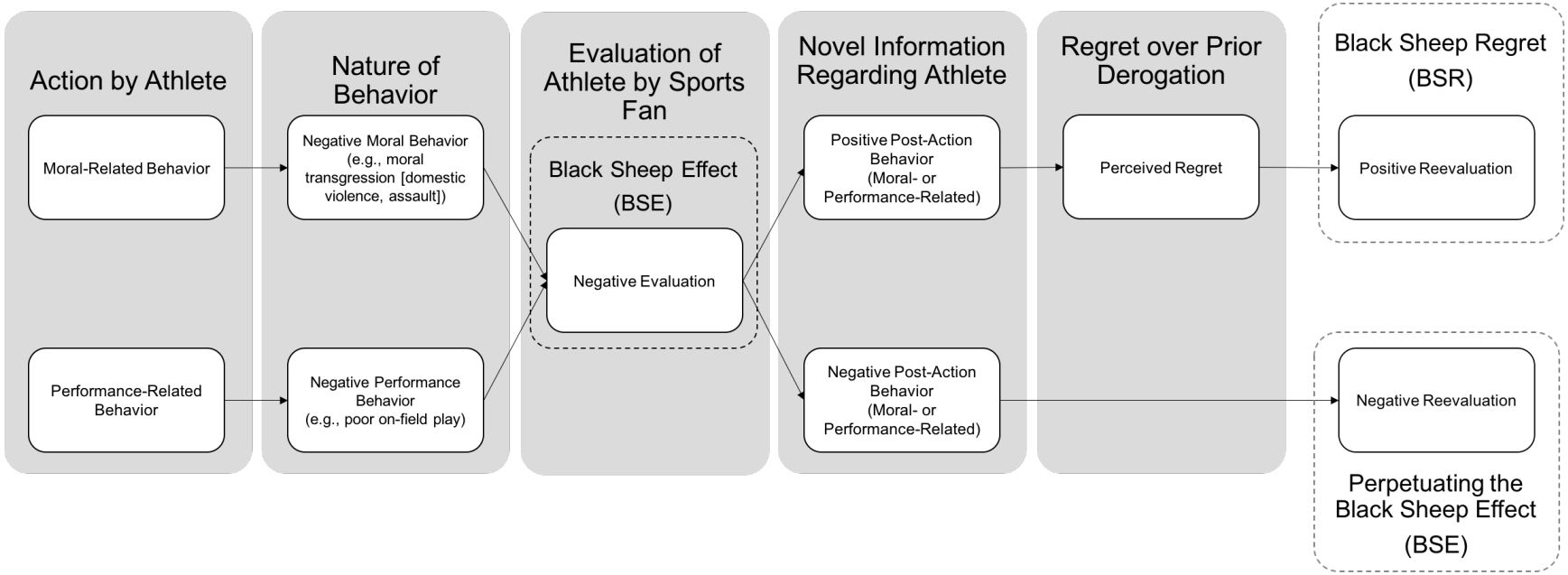


Figure 16. Process of black sheep regret (Study 5B).

Study 5A:

A Field-Based Detection of Black Sheep Regret

Method

Data Set

The data for this field study were obtained by examining user activity from the social media site, Twitter. We chose to focus on Twitter due to its prominence as a rising news outlet in today's society (Broersma & Graham, 2013; Kwak, Lee, Park, & Moon, 2010). In addition, Twitter contains an integrated search engine that enables access to all public tweets in the site's database (Teevan, Ramage, & Morris, 2011). Furthermore, prior research has noted that Twitter has become the standard for sports reporting on social media (Sanderson & Hambrick, 2012; Schultz & Sheffer, 2010). For Study 5A, we measured two main dependent variables, each with two levels: *nature of the tweet after an initial negative action by the athlete* (positive, negative) and *nature of the tweet following novel information about the athlete* (positive, negative). As determined in G*Power (Faul et al., 2007), based upon the usage of regression for data analysis with two predictors (i.e., the initial negative action and succeeding novel information), we required 68 tweets per incident (i.e., 136 total data points) to satisfy a power of .80 and a moderate effect size (f^2) of .15 (Cohen, 1988) with α set to .05.

Selected sport scandal. Given the naturalistic setting of this study, the negative action by an athlete that we chose to focus on was domestic violence. Due to the response following such incidents and frequent occurrence among athletes, domestic violence serves as a suitable scandal to analyze in the present context. Seeing as

domestic violence has commonly been associated with NFL players (e.g., Johnny Manziel, Bruce Miller, Ray McDonald, Greg Hardy; USA Today, 2016) and continues to be a “recurring quandary” for the league (Belson, 2015), we chose to center upon one of the most prominent domestic violence cases to date. The well-known domestic violence dispute between former Baltimore Ravens running back, Ray Rice, and then fiancée, Janay Palmer, was utilized as the selected negative sport scandal in the current study.

Obtaining tweets. User activity was determined by examining replies to top news posts from credible sources (i.e., news outlets) verified on Twitter (i.e., accounts of public interest [e.g., focusing on journalism, media, sports, and the like] noted as being authentic; Twitter Help Center, 2016) that covered the initial story on Rice. Specifically, we obtained tweets from replies to posts made by USA TODAY Sports (@USATODAYSports), The Associated Press (@AP), The Associated Press’ NFL account (@AP_NFL), ESPN’s official NFL coverage account (@ESPNNFL), Business Insider (@businessinsider), The Baltimore Sun (@baltimoresun), Bleacher Report (@BleacherReport), and SportsCenter (@SportsCenter). All tweets concerning the negative action were queried for a span of one week from the date that the initial report of Rice’s altercation was posted to Twitter (i.e., February 15, 2014 to February 22, 2014).

The novel information about the athlete that we selected to utilize in the current study involved a recent report that claimed Rice would donate his salary to domestic violence charities if given the opportunity to play in the NFL during the 2016 season. Likewise, tweets examining the novel information were obtained from a one-week period from the date of the report delineating Rice’s intentions to work for charity (i.e.,

July 21, 2016 to July 28, 2016). Similarly, these tweets were obtained from replies to credible news posts, specifically from The Baltimore Sun, Bleacher Report, SportsCenter, and USA TODAY (@USATODAY).

Sample of tweets. Users who did not post comments on the subject of Rice's actions or provided tweets of inappropriate and irrelevant nature (e.g., expletives, sarcasm, wisecracks, jokes, and the like) were excluded from our sample. To construct the data set, we utilized a convenience sample of 718 tweets for the initial negative action and 338 tweets for the succeeding novel information. Due to extraneous comments, a total of 92 tweets for the initial negative action and 149 tweets for the novel information were utilized in our analyses. Table 58 provides additional information concerning the users and nature of the tweets. Although we were not able to directly examine the level of regret that users felt, as previous research has reported an unwillingness of people to deliberately tarnish their self-image on social media (Seidman, 2013), the inspection of the change in response and support of the athlete served as an indication for BSR.

Table 58

User Information and Sources of Tweets for Study 5A

	Initial Negative Action		*Succeeding Novel Information*	
Characteristic	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
User Gender				
Male	68	73.9	121	81.2
Female	20	21.7	13	8.7
Unable to Identify	4	4.3	15	10.1
*Source of Tweet**				
USA TODAY Sports (@USATODAYSports)	4	4.3	–	–
The Associated Press (@AP)	4	4.3	–	–
The Associated Press' NFL account (@AP_NFL)	6	6.5	–	–
ESPN's official NFL coverage account (@ESPNNFL)	24	26.1	–	–
Business Insider (@businessinsider)	2	2.2	–	–
The Baltimore Sun (@baltimoresun)	5	5.4	3	2.0
Bleacher Report (@BleacherReport)	14	15.2	43	28.9
SportsCenter (@SportsCenter)	33	35.9	83	55.7
USA TODAY (@USA TODAY)	–	–	20	13.4

Note. *Refers to the user's tweet in reply to the post by the credible news source.

Results

Reliability

Coding tweets. In order to prepare the data for analysis, we utilized a content analysis to determine the nature of the comments selected in our data set. Two independent judges coded all the tweets at two separate times (i.e., following data collection and one week after the initial coding) in order to evaluate intra- and interrater reliability, using the criteria outlined in Table 59. The data were categorized using the following numeric codes: 1 for positive comments and 2 for those of negative nature.

Table 59

Criteria for Categorization of Tweets

Nature of Comment	*Associated Criteria Warranting Designation*	*Exemplary Tweets*
Positive	Remarks and statements involving: (e) Celebration of the player (f) Support (g) Clemency	– "ray rice deserves another chance, things happen in life. He doesn't need to donate his salary. #letrayplay @RayRice27" – "he doesn't even need to do all that man just let that dude play" – "Give him #Rice another chance! The punishment should not have been #football career death sentence!" – "smh I feel bad for the dude I wish a team would pick him up, people change" – "someone sign this man"
Negative	Critiques and statements containing: (g) Derogation (h) Expletives (i) Disgust (j) Disbelief	– "This thug belongs in prison. Roger Go[o]dell will u have the guts to suspend him?" – "For someone with his own anti-bullying foundation, it's pathetic he'd even resort to violence. I'll be burning my jerseys." – "Actions have consequences. Pro athletes are public figures and subsequently held to higher standards." – "he doesnt deserve another chance. He made the decision, deal with it. Maybe next time think before you hit anyone." – "He should have been in jail but since he had $$ bought his way out. That was his 2nd chance"

Reliability of coding scheme. The evaluation of rater reliability was made using a sequence of intraclass correlations (ICCs). Seeing as the differences in the judges' coding was deemed relevant to the inherent nature of the coding structure, measures of absolute agreement were used in the computations of the ICC (Nichols, 1998).

Furthermore, because the rater factor was considered fixed and confined to the set of two judges selected in the present study (i.e., each judge coded every response for all the tweets used in Study 5A; Nichols, 1998), two-way mixed models were utilized for the ICC calculations. Given that both inter- and intrarater reliability were assessed, coefficients for both the average- and single-measure ICC were respectively produced to demonstrate agreement between and for the judges (Bartko, 1994; Hallgren, 2012). However, because we intended the judges' codes to be generalized across the data set for our analyses, both the single- and average-measure ICC coefficients were also reported for interrater reliability (Hallgren, 2012; McGraw & Wong, 1996). The interpretation of rater agreement using ICC was made following guidelines detailed by Cicchetti (1994; see Table 60 for the interpretation of values).

Table 60

Interpretation of Intraclass Correlation (ICC) Coefficients for Rater Agreement

Intraclass Correlation (ICC) Coefficient	*Level of Agreement*
Less than 0.40	Poor agreement
0.40 – 0.59	Fair agreement
0.60 – 0.74	Good agreement
0.75 – 1.00	Excellent agreement

Note. Adapted from Cicchetti (1994).

For the initial coding at Time 1, our analysis of agreement between the two judges for their ratings of tweets concerning the initial negative action illustrated an excellent level of agreement for both single- (r_{ICC} = .85, $F(91, 91) = 12.60$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.79, .90]) and average-measures of ICC (r_{ICC} = .92, $F(91, 91) = 12.60$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.88, .95]). With respect to the judges' ratings for the succeeding novel information at

Time 1, the agreement between the raters was also sound, as the single- (r_{ICC} = .90, F(148, 148) = 19.68, p < .001, 95% CI [.86, .93]) as well as the average-measure intraclass correlation (r_{ICC} = .95, F(148, 148) = 19.68, p < .001, 95% CI [.93, .96]) met excellent levels of agreement. The inspection of the judges' ratings at Time 2 for the initial negative action also reflected excellent agreement for both the single- (r_{ICC} = .85, F(91, 91) = 12.60, p < .001, 95% CI [.79, .90]) and average-measure ICC (r_{ICC} = .92, F(91, 91) = 12.60, p < .001, 95% CI [.88, .95]). This was also the case for the judges' coding at Time 2, as the single- (r_{ICC} = .91, F(148, 148) = 22.87, p < .001, 95% CI [.88, .94]) and average-measure ICC coefficients (r_{ICC} = .96, F(148, 148) = 22.87, p < .001, 95% CI [.94, .97]) suggested exceptional agreement.

Moreover, the single-measure ICC coefficients for Judge 1 (r_{ICC} = .85, F(91, 91) = 12.60, p < .001, 95% CI [.79, .90]) and Judge 2 (r_{ICC} = .85, F(91, 91) = 12.60, p < .001, 95% CI [.79, .90]) for the coding of the tweets for the initial negative action illustrated excellent levels of intrarater agreement. Similar findings for intrarater reliability were also reflected by the single-measure ICC for ratings of the succeeding novel information for Judge 1 (r_{ICC} = .99, F(148, 148) = 141.19, p < .001, 95% CI [.98, .99]) and Judge 2 (r_{ICC} = .97, F(148, 148) = 66.09, p < .001, 95% CI [.96, .98]). Akin to our previous studies, the final coding scheme for data analysis was determined by the modal code of each tweet between the judges.

Hypothesis Testing

Actions by athlete. Initially, the coded tweets of both the initial negative action and succeeding novel information about the athlete were investigated using a series of non-parametric one-sample chi-square tests for independence. These tests were

performed to determine if the proportion of negative and positive tweets differed from chance as well as if the nature of tweets were unequally distributed. Confidence intervals for *p* values produced by the chi-square tests were also calculated to ensure the accuracy of the obtained effects (Gottschalk & Dunn, 2005; Preacher & Selig, 2012; Tyralis, Koutsoyiannis, & Kozanis, 2013). These obtained *p* values were then subjected to Monte Carlo simulations to further warrant the observance of the effect. For these simulations, we selected 10,000 iterations, as this particular number of permuted samples has been determined as adequate for the estimation of Monte Carlo confidence intervals by previous research (Buckland, 1983; Duró & Denis, 2012; Iacus, 2009; Oberle, 2015).

Results from the one-sample chi-square test for independence for the initial negative action revealed a statistically significant inclination for negative tweets, χ^2 (1, n = 92) = 80.39, $p < .001$, $\varphi = .94$, 95% MCCI [< .001, < .001]. This outcome suggested that the surfacing of Ray Rice's scandal generated tweets of more negative nature ($p = {}^{89}/_{92}$) in comparison to those of positive nature ($p = {}^{3}/_{92}$) within the obtained sample of tweets. Additional analysis using the one-sample chi-square test for independence for tweets following the succeeding novel information illustrated a significant penchant for tweets of positive nature, χ^2 (1, n = 149) = 8.22, $p = .004$, $\varphi = .23$, 95% MCCI [.003, .006]. In other words, Twitter users displayed a tendency to comment more positively ($p = {}^{92}/_{149}$) in comparison to providing tweets of negative nature ($p = {}^{57}/_{149}$) on posts concerning Ray Rice's intention to donate his salary if signed by an NFL team. Overall, findings from these initial analyses provided support for H_{5a_1} and H_{5a_2}.

Uncovering black sheep regret. In order to detect the presence of BSR among the tweets, a series of binary logistic regression analyses were conducted to reexamine the nature of the social media comments with the initial negative action and novel information about the athlete as independent variables. These analyses were performed in order to extract beta coefficients and standard errors to be used in the comparative tests between tweets following each instance of Ray Rice's behavior. All 95% confidence intervals were estimated using a BCa bootstrap sampling iteration of 10,000 resamples. Accordingly, we then performed a *z*-test on the unstandardized estimates and standard errors from our binary logistic regression analyses using a software package developed by Gaskin (2012) in order to inspect the changes in the nature of the comments from the initial report regarding Ray Rice's domestic violence dispute to the most recent report on his intention to offer his entire salary to charity.

Results from the binary logistic regression analyses confirmed the findings from the one-sample chi-square tests for independence, as the initial negative action generated significantly more tweets of derogative nature (B = 3.39, SE = .59, Wald χ^2 = 33.35, $p < .001$, e^B = 29.67, BCa 95% CI [2.50, 4.51]), while the successive novel information produced significantly more positive-natured tweets (B = -0.24, SE = .08, Wald χ^2 = 8.07, p = .005, e^B = 0.79, BCa 95% CI [-0.40, -0.09]). The subsequent *z*-test using Gaskin's (2012) program revealed a significant difference between the beta coefficients (z = 6.12, $p < .001$). However, this effect was not in the hypothesized direction. As opposed to observing a negative and significant conversion in the comments, indicating that the nature of the tweets changed from more negative in nature to significantly more positive following the recent report regarding Rice's

charitable efforts, we discovered that the nature of tweets were contrary to our expectations. Rather, negative-natured tweets carried greater weight in this instance, wherein the change from negative comments to positive ones did not ensue. Thus, findings from the *z*-test comparison did not corroborate H_{5a_3}.

Discussion

Findings and Theoretical Importance

During Study 5A, we attempted to identify the occurrence of BSR on social media using a collection of tweets triggered by an unscrupulous event involving an athlete (i.e., Ray Rice's domestic violence scandal). In addition, we sought to examine how new incidents (i.e., philanthropic efforts by Ray Rice) involving such an athlete could activate more favorable responses by fans. Ultimately, we aimed to compare fans' reactions following these aforementioned series of events with the expectation that the more recent information could spur a significant change in the nature of response toward the athlete. Taken together, the results from our analyses revealed that sports fans do indeed react harshly to negative events, as witnessed through Ray Rice's domestic violence case. In turn, even though fans tend to derogate the transgressor, subsequent novel information about such an athlete can also bring about positive, supportive reactions by fans, as established by the response following news of Ray Rice's intentions to donate his salary to charitable organizations. However, when the social media activity from both instances were compared, we did not witness a significant shift toward more positive reactions by fans. Alternatively, the initial negative action by the athlete seemed to supersede the effects of the succeeding novel information. Simply put, the presence of BSR was not discovered within this naturalistic field setting.

Although we were only able to provide sustaining evidence for our first two predictions regarding the nature of social media comments (i.e., H_{5a_1} and H_{5a_2}), our study reveals the importance of social media as a perceptive outlet for sports fans. For instance, previous research by Brown and Billings (2013) has remarked that fans may use social media entities (e.g., Twitter) to engage in crisis communication to cope with the revelation of a scandal. Similarly, our field study found that fans utilized social media to express their initial distress over Ray Rice's violations against his then fiancée, Janay Palmer, by engaging in denigration, further supporting prior work on how fans progress "from loving the hero to despising the villain" (Sanderson, 2013, p. 487).

Furthermore, many fans displayed a tendency to outcast Ray Rice from the group (i.e., as a player in the NFL) due to his insubordination, providing comments suggesting he be sent to prison or released from the Baltimore Ravens. These findings speak to those established in research within both group dynamics, a la ingroup extremity (Marques et al., 1988), and intergroup communication, wherein fans seek out strategies that perpetuate identification with the team (Haridakis, 2012). Accordingly, social media permits fans to manage social identity crises, whether that be through intimidation or degradation of the transgressed athlete, thereby reducing apprehension concerning the ingroup and any residual effects of cognitive dissonance (Sanderson, 2013). Herein, users on Twitter exhibited these strategies by harshly derogating and dissociating themselves from Rice due to his transgression.

With respect to the succeeding novel information about the athlete, findings from Study 5A support the literature on extending forgiveness, or offering favorable responses, toward athletes following a transgression. For instance, research by

Sanderson and Emmons (2014), which examined the case of Texas Rangers' outfielder Josh Hamilton who has struggled with drug addiction in the past, has shown that fans may exonerate an athlete through various tactics, such as support, perceptions of character and human condition flaws, and various narratives (e.g., "addiction is hard"). Similarly, user activity on Twitter seemed to align toward a more favorable reaction when Rice accepted responsibility for his wrongdoings and attempted to mitigate further damages to other parties by offering his salary to charity. In doing so, users tended to extend tweets that encouraged other NFL teams to offer Rice a chance to resume his career as a professional football player.

Despite the fact that fans' response did not significantly change to support the activation of BSR in this context, Study 5A offers confirmation of previous research on athlete redemption in a novel area (i.e., social media). Although much of the research has focused on negative responses to members in professional sports (e.g., in crises; Sanderson, 2013; Sanderson & Hambrick, 2012), Sanderson, Hardin, and Pate (2014) have asserted that social media allows for not only defensive tactics against scandal, but can also act as a protective device for fans. In other words, even though fans may denigrate transgressing athletes on such outlets, fans can also engage in supportive tactics under the appropriate conditions. As a case in point, as also seen in the present study through comments providing support to Rice following such novel news (e.g., acknowledging his attempt to compensate for his previous actions and recognizing universal flaws to the entire human condition [i.e., "nobody is perfect"]), fans can retract their former evaluations and extend forgiveness toward an athlete after their involvement in a major scandal. Thus, social media outlets, such as Twitter, can trigger

more favorable responses toward athletes provided that such individuals utilize suitable post-transgression actions that build on constructive behaviors to reflect changes in character.

Limitations

The results of Study 5A offer useful insights into the social media behaviors of fans. Despite this, we were restricted by several shortcomings. Primarily, although Twitter is one of the most popular social media sites, it does not represent the majority of social media activity on the internet. A recent survey by We Are Social (2016) has reported that Facebook is the most prominent social media site with just over 1.7 billion active users. In contrast, Twitter dwindles in this area in comparison to Facebook, holding just 313 million accounts worldwide (We Are Social, 2016). In the United States alone, Twitter ranks fourth in all social media site visits with just under 5% of this share, well behind the industry leader, Facebook, comprising of a massive 42.4% of all social media visits (Experian, 2016). Considering this, our sample may not have been representative of social media users in the United States. Nevertheless, although Facebook may be the forerunner on this front, Twitter's prominence as a developing news outlet and the unique feature of searching for all public content on specific topics may warrant its usage in the present context. Even though Twitter may have been selected out of convenience, its utility as a tool for research is buoyed by the nature of the site itself (e.g., it allows readers to react succinctly to other posts by users including those by news outlets).

In regards to the obtained sample of tweets, there seemed to be a disproportionate number of males replying to the news posts in comparison to

comments made by females. To be precise, over 78% of all users sampled in this study, 73.9% for the initial negative action and 81.2% for the succeeding novel information, were determined to be male users. Considering this, females were not adequately represented in Study 5A. Seeing as approximately 25% of all female and 24% of male United States internet users utilize Twitter (Pew Research Center, 2016), males were overrepresented in the present study. In addition, previous research has found that women tend to respond more harshly to domestic violence, perceiving it as a greater offense than do men (Brown & Groscup, 2009; Pierce & Harris, 1993). In spite of this, women have also traditionally been found to have a tendency to generally be more willing to forgive another party in comparison to men in a variety of domains (Finkel, Rusbult, Kumashiro, & Hannon, 2002; Gilligan, 1977; Hantman & Cohen, 2010; Kohlberg, 1984; Mullet, Houdbine, Laumonier, & Girard, 1998; Orathinkal, Vansteenwegen, & Burggraeve, 2008; Shackelford, Buss, & Bennett, 2002).

However, additional research has cast some doubt on this phenomenon, suggesting that men and women do not differ in terms of their inclinations to forgive (Enright & Zell, 1989; Friedberg, Suchday, & Shelov, 2007; Toussaint & Webb, 2005). Nevertheless, a meta-analysis conducted by Miller, Worthington, and McDaniel (2008) examining 70 different studies on gender and forgiveness has reported that females do tend to be more forgiving than males. Although this effect was found to be within the range of small to moderate, as reflected by the reported Cohen's *d* of 0.28, it still illustrates the meaningful consideration of factoring in gender within studies implicating transgressions, regardless of the target. Thus, given the disparity in gender within the

obtained sample, our results may have been skewed toward a generally negative overall response.

Taking into account the findings on gender and forgiveness by previous research, we were unable to truly differentiate males and females in their response to Ray Rice's actions. The methods we utilized in deciding the gender of the user were made based upon each user's profile information and user picture. Given the skepticism surrounding the truth behind a person's actual gender on social media sites and online in general (Czalbowski, 2015; Tsikerdekis & Zeadally, 2014), gender analyses could not be confidently made. In addition, we were unable to identify the gender of numerous users in Study 5A (i.e., approximately 8% of the obtained sample) due to a lack of information on the users' profile pages. As a result of these limitations, we intend to address this issue moving forward in our empirical examination in Study 5B by testing for the effects of participants' reported gender in our analyses. By including gender, we intend to differentiate and control for the response to various actions by former transgressed athletes.

Another restriction to our study was also the inability to accurately determine the users' favorite team and the corresponding level of team identification. Consequently, we were unable to assess whether team identification played a role in the nature of the tweets collected in this study. Even though this will be dealt with in Study 5B using the appropriate measurement scale (i.e., a modified version of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale [SSIS]; Wann & Branscombe, 1993), team identification could have affected the responses to Ray Rice's behavior by Twitter users, as this construct has been found to influence reactions by fans (Haridakis, 2012).

Ultimately, we were limited by the time between Ray Rice's actions. To be specific, Ray Rice's initial negative action constituting his domestic violence scandal occurred more than two years before the succeeding novel information regarding his charitable intentions. Although there is literature from various fields, such as sport marketing (Hughes & Shank, 2005), consumer psychology (Grégoire, Tripp, & Legoux, 2009), and business ethics (Baucus & Beck-Dudley, 2005), to support the lasting and long-term negative effects of scandal on a transgressor's image, time may have played a role in our study. As such, the matter of forgiveness, or regret in evaluations, may not be the driving factor behind the positive evaluations following the novel information. Rather, it could be that users may have simply forgotten about Rice's wrongdoings and displayed a penchant to offer more favorable comments as a function of time. In addition, Rice's prominence may have waned during this period, which could have also contributed to tweets of more positive nature.

As an example, a recent study by Lee and Kwak (2016) has revealed that positive post-transgression behavior by a deviant athlete can give rise to forgiveness over time. Additionally, prior work has underscored the matter of time in augmenting forgiveness (Braithwaite, Mitchell, Selby, & Fincham, 2016; Toussaint, Worthington, van Tongeren, Hook, Berry, Miller, & Davis, 2016). Similarly, as put by Henry James (1956), "[over time] defects are not felt as defects," in which tolerance of the transgressor is executed simply to move on (as cited in Tamarkin, 2016, p. 66). As a consequence, in order to address this issue in Study 5B, data collection will be split into two segments: one session that reveals post-transgression information immediately after an initial negative action and another period that will delay exposure to novel information about

the athlete after approximately two weeks following news of the initial negative action. Although forgiveness and regret are distinct constructs, we will nevertheless be able to factor in time as a variable in our analyses and potentially discern any temporal effects within BSR.

Practical Implications and Conclusions

The current study contributes to the comprehension and importance of an athlete's response to previous behaviors, particularly those implicated within a transgression. Naturally, initial negative actions bring about harsh criticism from fans on social media, whereas positive post-transgression behavior (e.g., humanitarian work and charitable efforts) can shift the response of fans toward more supportive judgments. In terms of practical implications, sport managers within the industry contending with corruption by athletes can advise these deviant individuals to engage in behaviors that promote their image. In doing so, these athletes can garner more favorable responses from fans, specifically on social media. As a result, practitioners can work toward repairing the image of the athlete and rejuvenating any related brand associations (e.g., those related to a particular sports team, corporation, or sponsor). By using social media to initiate this restoration process, athletes can capture the attention of fans across the globe, with the additional benefit of this form of communication coming at a very low or no cost in comparison to traditional media outlets (e.g., television, radio, press releases, and the like).

Although Ray Rice was not able to spur any meaningful change from his initial negative perception by fans (i.e., activating BSR), novel behaviors can indeed restore some favorability for the athlete. With the endless vitality and growth of social media in

society, sport practitioners must realize its role in fan perceptions. Given that athletes are faced with scrutiny from all phases of their lives (i.e., both on-field and off-the-field) by the media as well as the fans, managers must prioritize the athlete's public reputation in order to allow fanship toward the athlete to persist. In the face of deviance, it may be wise to monitor how fans comment on social media to gain a clearer understanding on what subsequent behaviors fans may embrace. In light of the current results, it appears that prosocial behaviors can function to enhance an athlete's perception. Thus, strategic endorsement coupled with genuine sincerity in support of charitable causes can enhance an athlete's brand image, while also reducing previous deleterious effects of a transgression. By accomplishing this, athletes and associated teams or sponsors can work towards regaining approval from their respective fan bases and simply allow the "defects" to not be felt as "defects" to any further extent (James, 1956; as cited in Tamarkin, 2016, p. 66).

In closing, during this study, we investigated the effects of two distinct athlete behaviors (i.e., a deviant action and a laudable post-transgression behavior) on fan responses on social media, specifically on the popular site, Twitter. Indeed, we found that negative behaviors spur retributive derogation by fans online, while positive behaviors give rise to more magnanimous comments. However, contrary to our expectation, this change in the response of fans from negative to positive did not support the utility of BSR within this field setting. Rather, the results indicated that the initial negative action displaced any positive effects. Nevertheless, these findings may be limited by the inspected social media site (i.e., Twitter), gender, time, along with the case and athlete examined (i.e., Ray Rice). Furthermore, the scope of complementary

behavior was restricted to one of positive nature. Considering this, it is necessary to examine the full spectrum of the various courses of action an athlete can take following a transgression, whether virtuous or increasingly corrupt. This may allow the literature to better understand the never-ending quandary of how fans may respond to an apparent black sheep of the team.

Study 5B:

Inducing Black Sheep Regret in an Empirical Setting

Method

Participants and Design

The experimental study was conducted online through Qualtrics Survey Software and featured a 2 (*initial negative action*: moral, performance) × 2 (*post-transgression action*: moral, performance) × 2 (*nature of post-transgression action*: positive, negative) between-subjects design. Using G*Power (Faul et al., 2007), in order to satisfy previously instituted power conditions for the repeated-measures test ($1 - \beta = .80$, $\alpha = .05$, ES = 0.25), we required approximately 240 participants. In all, a total of 502 subjects contributed to our study. However, due to attrition and partial responses, the data for 335 participants (173 male, 162 female; M_{age} = 32.20 years, SD_{age} = 12.86) were used in the analyses. Table 61 provides the demographic characteristics for our sample.

To allow for effective experimental manipulation and enhance the quality of our data, all participants were prescreened prior to beginning the study to ensure that they were above the age of 18 and fans of professional baseball (i.e., Major League Baseball

[MLB]). In addition, we limited our sample to fans of the San Francisco Giants due to the locality of the study and their abundance in the San Francisco Bay Area. Participants who indicated otherwise were not permitted to partake in our research.

To obtain a more diverse and ecologically valid sample, we recruited participants from a large Western metropolitan university in the San Francisco Bay Area and from the general population via Amazon MTurk and Qualtrics Survey Panel. University students were offered course credit and were also entered into a raffle to win their favorite player's jersey as incentives for participation in our study. Subjects from Amazon MTurk were compensated $1.00 for their partaking in our research. As set by Qualtrics, a $6.00 fee per participant was incurred for recruitment from Qualtrics Survey Panel. Data obtained from participants of both the student and general population samples were collectively analyzed. This work was supported by funds from a research grant awarded from the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) Research Grant Program.

Table 61

Demographic Characteristics for Study 5B Sample

Characteristic	*n*	%
Gender		
Male	173	51.6
Female	162	48.4
Age		
18-29	163	48.7
30-39	91	27.2
40-49	44	13.1
50-59	21	6.3
60-69	11	3.3
70-79	4	1.2
80+	1	0.3
Ethnicity		
Asian American/Pacific Islander	49	14.6
Black/African American	17	5.1
Caucasian/White	214	63.9
Hispanic/Latin American	37	11.0
Native American/American Indian	3	0.9
Multiracial	15	4.5
Highest Level of Education		
Some high school, no diploma	6	1.8
High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent	62	18.5
Some college credit, no degree	104	31.0
Trade/technical/vocational training	7	2.1
Associate's degree	27	8.1
Bachelor's degree	90	26.9
Master's degree	29	8.7
Professional degree	6	1.8
Doctorate degree	4	1.2
State of Residence		
Alabama	8	2.4
Arizona	3	0.9
Arkansas	2	0.6
California	130	38.8
Colorado	4	1.2
Connecticut	4	1.2
Delaware	1	0.3
District of Columbia	1	0.3
DNR	2	0.6
Florida	18	5.4
Georgia	5	1.5
Hawaii	1	0.3
Illinois	16	4.8
Indiana	4	1.2
Iowa	3	0.9
Kansas	2	0.6
Kentucky	5	1.5
Louisiana	3	0.9
Maryland	1	0.3
Massachusetts	4	1.2
Michigan	4	1.2
Minnesota	2	0.6
Mississippi	2	0.6
Missouri	8	2.4
Nebraska	1	0.3
Nevada	1	0.3
New Hampshire	1	0.3
New Jersey	10	3.0
New Mexico	2	0.6
New York	12	3.6
North Carolina	9	2.7
Ohio	15	4.5
Oklahoma	2	0.6
Oregon	3	0.9
Pennsylvania	11	3.3
South Carolina	1	0.3
South Dakota	1	0.3
Tennessee	6	1.8
Texas	10	3.0
Utah	2	0.6
Vermont	2	0.6
Virginia	4	1.2
Washington	3	0.9
West Virginia	3	0.9
Wisconsin	2	0.6
Wyoming	1	0.3

Procedure

Prior to our study, participants first completed our inclusion criteria, as described above, and provided their consent to partake in our study (see Appendix AY). Subsequently, participants completed a measure of team identification. Participants were then randomly assigned to one of the two initial negative action conditions and presented fictitious news articles, generated by the researcher, from a credible source (i.e., ESPN) describing either a moral- or performance-related negative action by an ingroup athlete (i.e., a top prospect from the San Francisco Giants). For these articles, we selected Christian Arroyo, a current prospect of the San Francisco Giants, as the target ingroup athlete. Appendix AZ provides examples of the stimuli that were used in this experiment.

Subjects then completed a series of dependent measures involving evaluation of specific performance and moral traits, product choice, and social media behaviors. Given that data collection was split into two conditions, subjects assigned to complete the study in two sessions were informed that they would be contacted again after approximately two weeks to complete the second half of the study. For those assigned to complete the study in one session, the second half of the study randomly presented another fictitious article, also produced by the researcher, from the same credible source describing novel behavior by the athlete (i.e., a positive or negative moral- or performance-related post-transgression activity; see Appendix BA for stimuli). Subjects then reevaluated moral and performance traits, their selection of product, social media behavior, and provided their perceived level of regret. Finally, participants reported demographic information (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity, education, social media use; see

Table 62 for overall social media use; see Appendix BB for demographic questionnaire), were debriefed on the true nature of the study (i.e., participants were informed that the reports were fictional; see Appendix BC), and were then thanked for their contribution to our study. Participants who completed the study in two sessions followed the identical procedure of the second half, with the exception that they were asked to report their level of team identification once more.

Table 62

Social Media Usage and Following of Minor League Baseball for Study 5B Sample

Variable	*n*	*%*
Social Media Platform		
Facebook	292	87.2
iFunny	1	0.3
Instagram	184	54.9
Line	1	0.3
Pinterest	1	0.3
Reddit	2	0.6
Snapchat	127	37.9
Tumblr	2	0.6
Twitter	161	48.1
Vine	19	5.7
YouTube	201	60.0
Multiple Platforms	258	77.0
None	1	0.3
Reported Primary Social Media Outlet		
Facebook	203	60.6
Instagram	51	15.2
Snapchat	24	7.2
Twitter	56	16.7
Declined to respond	1	0.3
Following Behavior		
Minor League Baseball		
Yes	195	58.2
No	140	41.8
San Francisco Giants Minor League Baseball		
Yes	244	72.8
No	91	27.2
Familiarity with Christian Arroyo		
Yes	275	82.1
No	60	17.9

Measures

Preliminary outcomes. Our measure of performance and moral evaluations was assessed using the performance (PTE) and moral trait evaluation (MTE) scales used in Study 4, modified to focus on the ingroup athlete (see Appendices BD and BE). In addition, the item describing *honesty* for the MTE scale was changed to *sincerity*. Furthermore, we attached dictionary definitions obtained from Merriam-Webster to each trait to provide greater context for participants. We also modified the response format of these evaluative scales, altering the 7-point bipolar scale to a 10-point one. In doing so, we sought to capture a more precise measurement of such trait evaluations (Dawes, 2008; Wittink & Bayer, 1994). A measure of team identification was also collected using the SSIS, modified to refer to the San Francisco Giants (see Appendix BF). Product choices were made using an adapted version of Gao et al.'s (2009) measure of item selections (see Appendix BG), as also previously used and modified for Studies 3 and 4. Based on the findings of Study 4, we revised this assessment by splitting the measurement from a total of four possible choices in one block to two possible choices in two blocks. That is, choices of apparel (i.e., a team jersey and one of the player's jersey) were provided separately from those involving accessories (i.e., wristbands) as a means to reduce any effects of demand cannibalization (Shah & Avittathur, 2007).

Social media behavior. We measured subject's social media behaviors through the provision of comments on a fictitious post by the target athlete using the Active Social Media Measure (ASMM) employed in Studies 3 and 4. However, we also included posts from both Facebook and Instagram, akin to Study 3, along with the addition of a post from Snapchat. In order to gain a more accurate understanding of

such social media behaviors, we included radio buttons that simulated the potential behaviors on these sites. For instance, we integrated the “like,” “follow,” and “share” buttons for each of the potential social media posts. However, we also incorporated the additional “love,” “haha,” “yay,” “wow,” “sad,” and “angry” reaction buttons on Facebook posts, the “retweet” button on Twitter posts, and the “snap” button on Snapchat posts. Conversely, due to the inability to specifically “like” a post on Snapchat, this feature was excluded for participants who selected Snapchat as their primary social media outlet. Appendix BH provides the stimuli and layout for this revised version of the ASMM.

Regret. Perceived regret was gauged using three related measures. These varying scales were utilized to refine our inspection of regret in different contexts, those being: within trait evaluations, product choices, and social media behaviors.

***Decision regret*.** Foremost, participants rated their regret in regards to their evaluations of the athlete’s traits using a modified version of the decision regret scale (DRS; Brehaut, O’Connor, Wood, Hack, Siminoff, Gordon, & Feldman-Stewart, 2003). The DRS is a 5-item questionnaire that utilizes a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*) to assess responses. A sample item from the DRS read: “It was the right decision to harshly evaluate Christian Arroyo.” Items not focusing on regret, such as the example provided, were recoded to maintain the negative nature of this scale. Higher scores on this measure denoted greater regret from participant’s previous evaluation of the athlete, whereas lower scores indicated less regret. Items from the DRS were averaged for data analysis. The DRS is provided in Appendix BI.

Product regret. We evaluated the level of regret stemming from product choices using an adaptation of the post-purchase consumer regret (PPCR) scale taken from Lee

and Cotte (2009). Specifically, participants responded to the 4-item *regret due to under-consideration* dimension of the PPCR measure using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*). An item taken from this measure is: “I regret not putting enough thought into my product choice.” Greater scores indicated higher regret due to the participant’s prior choice of a product, whereas lower ones specified less regret. Responses to this scale were averaged across items for analytic purposes. The items from this scale can be found in Appendix BJ.

Social media regret. Similar to our assessment of product regret, a measure of regret from social media behavior was captured using a revised version of the PPCR’s 4-item *regret due to foregone alternatives* dimension adapted from Lee and Cotte (2009). Items were responded to using a similar 7-point Likert type-scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*). An example item from this scale provides the following statement: “I regret the choice of words for the comment that I made.” Higher scores reflected stronger levels of regret from the initially reported social media comment, whereas lower scores corresponded to less regret from previous behavior. For data analysis, responses to these items were averaged. The measure of social media regret is listed in Appendix BK.

Manipulation checks. In order to authenticate the function of our stimuli manipulations, we utilized a series of manipulation checks after the presentation of both the initial negative action by the athlete and each of the post-transgression behaviors. After participants were exposed to performance-related behaviors by the target athlete, participants provided performance ratings using an item anchored by a 10-point bipolar scale (1 = *far below expectations* to 10 = *far above expectations*). Moral-related

behaviors were rated with one item that employed a 10-point bipolar scale (1 = *not at all morally sound* to 10 = *very morally sound*). These manipulation checks were identical to those used to validate the performance- and moral-related behaviors in Study 4, with the exception that the response format was modified to a 10-point bipolar scale from a 7-point one.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was computed to assess the reliability for each of the dependent measures used in Study 5B. Results from these analyses revealed that each of the scales produced adequate reliability as per previous benchmarks for internal consistency ($\alpha > .70$; Nunnally, 1970). Table 63 lists the descriptive statistics and alpha coefficients for each of the dependent measures.

Table 63

Reliability and Descriptive Statistics for Measures Used in Study 5B

Scale	*Items*	*M*	*SD*	*α*
Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS)	7	5.25	0.93	.85
Performance Trait Evaluation (PTE) – *Initial Negative Action*	7	5.38	2.21	.94
Moral Trait Evaluation (MTE) – *Initial Negative Action*	9	5.09	2.21	.94
Decision Regret Scale (DRS)	5	3.22	1.12	.75
Post-purchase Consumer Regret (PPCR) – *Regret Due to Under-Consideration*	4	3.57	1.60	.93
Post-purchase Consumer Regret (PPCR) – *Regret Due to Foregone Alternatives*	4	3.32	1.64	.95
Performance Trait Evaluation (PTE) – *Post-Transgression Action*	7	5.73	2.43	.96
Moral Trait Evaluation (MTE) – *Post-Transgression Action*	9	5.35	2.33	.94
Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS) – *Second Session*	7	4.76	0.80	.76

Coding social media comments. Comments provided on the Active Social Media Measure (ASMM) following exposure to each of the experimental conditions (i.e., the initial negative action and each of the post-transgression behavior conditions) were inspected using a content analysis to determine the nature of participants' responses to the post by the target athlete. As a means to evaluate intra- and interrater reliability, two judges categorized responses at two distinct times, separated by one week from the initial coding. All comments were classified using previously defined criteria, as employed in Studies 3 and 4 (see Table 24), and the identical coding structure (i.e., 1 for positive comments, 2 for negative comments, and 3 for irrelevant and/or extraneous responses). Example comments from this measure are presented in Table 64.

Table 64

Sample Comments Provided on the Active Social Media Measure (Study 5B)

Nature of Comment	*Example Comments*
Positive	– "You and @bcraw35 will make a good team! Best of luck on Opening Night. #BayAreaUnite #SFGiants" – "Keep on working hard, Christian! I hope that your performance improves over the season and that everything works out for you to be called up next year." – "Awesome to hear about your work with the children at St. Jude's Hospital. Good luck this season!" – "Can't wait to see you play in the bigs!"
Negative	– "Hopefully, the Giants have the integrity to make sure you never get called up. Actions off the field matter as much as on." – "You don't deserve to be called up. The Giants should have only men who treat women with respect and never strike them." – "Still cannot support you, knowing your domestic violence history." – "Still does not displace what he had done to his girlfriend even if charity work was done."
Extraneous	– "Wouldn't post anything about it." – "I would not respond." – "No comment until ruling and appeal of steroid use made. Innocent until proven guilty."

Reliability of coding structure. Coder reliability was assessed using Cohen's kappa (κ) along with a BCa bootstrap estimate of 10,000 resamples to compute the 95% confidence intervals in order to minimize bias. The strength of the κ coefficients was evaluated using Viera and Garrett's (2005) guide for internal consistency (see Table 25). Reliability for the initial negative action and the post-transgression behavior conditions were examined separately in these analyses. For comments following the initial negative action, the intrarater reliability for both Judge 1, κ = .98, *SE* = .01, p < .001, BCa 95% CI [.95, 1.00], and Judge 2, κ = .82, *SE* = .03, p < .001, BCa 95% CI

[.75, .87], between Times 1 and 2 approached near perfect agreement. This was also the case for both Judge 1, κ = .98, *SE* = .01, $p < .001$, BCa 95% CI [.96, 1.00], and Judge 2, κ = .85, *SE* = .03, $p < .001$, BCa 95% CI [.80, .90], for analyses of the intrarater reliability following the post-transgression behavior conditions. Concerning interrater reliability, the judges reflected strong agreement for the ratings at Time 1 for responses succeeding the initial negative action, κ = .82, *SE* = .03, $p < .001$, BCa 95% CI [.76, .88], as well as the post-transgression behavior condition, κ = .90, *SE* = .02, $p < .001$, BCa 95% CI [.85, .94]. Similarly, the investigation of the coded comments at Time 2 also illustrated robust levels of agreement between the judges for both the initial, κ = .91, *SE* = .02, $p < .001$, BCa 95% CI [.86, .95], and post-transgression conditions, κ = .93, *SE* = .02, $p < .001$, BCa 95% CI [.89, .96]. In the manner of our previous studies, we utilized the mode response across the judges for the final coding scheme in the tests of our hypotheses.

Potential influential variables. Prior to conducting our main analyses, a series of factors were examined to determine their effect on the dependent measures. In doing so, we sought to adjust for such possible influential variables in the tests of our hypotheses. The impact of the following factors were investigated to warrant their usage as covariates in the main analyses: *time* (i.e., for participants assigned to complete the study in one session as opposed to in two sessions), *gender*, *Minor League Baseball following* (referred to in analyses as *Follow – Minor League Baseball*), *following of the San Francisco Giants Minor League affiliate* (referred to as *Follow – San Francisco Giants Minor League Affiliate*), and *familiarity with Christian Arroyo* (referred to as *Familiarity – Christian Arroyo*; i.e., the target athlete).

***Quantitative dependent measures*.** Results from a sequence of ANOVAs, using the Welch correction in the case of any violations for homogeneity of variance, on the effects of these variables on the quantitative dependent variables indicated that time significantly influenced the initial performance and moral trait evaluations as well as each measure of regret. Using gender as a factor, males and females differed in terms of their initial ratings of performance traits. However, no other gender differences emerged among these measures. The initial moral trait evaluations were also significantly different between followers and non-followers of Minor League Baseball. In addition, those who followed Minor League Baseball and the San Francisco Giants Minor League affiliate differed from non-followers in their initial evaluations of performance traits. Lastly, fans who were familiar with Christian Arroyo did not differ on any of the outcome variables than did those who were unfamiliar with the target athlete. No other differences were evident in the tests of influential variables on the quantitative dependent measures (see Table 65).

Table 65

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Results for the Effect of Potential Influential Variables on the Quantitative Dependent Variables

		Group 1		Group 2					
Measure	*Factor*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*F*	*p*	η^2
Performance Trait Evaluation (PTE) – *Initial Negative Action*	Time[a†]	5.56	2.33	4.86	1.73	194.48	8.73	.004	.02
	Gender[b]	5.15	2.27	5.63	2.12	333	3.96	.05	.01
	Follow – Minor League Baseball[c†]	5.59	2.32	5.09	2.02	320.95	4.29	.04	.01
	Follow – San Francisco Giants Minor League Affiliate[d†]	5.56	2.31	4.90	2.21	198.52	7.17	.01	.02
	Familiarity – Christian Arroyo[e]	5.48	2.26	4.92	1.94	333	3.22	.07	.01
Moral Trait Evaluation (MTE) – *Initial Negative Action*	Time[†]	5.26	2.36	4.61	1.63	209.94	7.65	.01	.02
	Gender	4.92	2.26	5.28	2.15	333	2.29	.13	.01
	Follow – Minor League Baseball	5.32	2.24	4.78	2.16	333	4.82	.03	.01
	Follow – San Francisco Giants Minor League Affiliate[†]	5.20	2.34	4.81	1.81	207.53	2.65	.11	.01
	Familiarity – Christian Arroyo	5.18	2.25	4.69	2.03	333	2.46	.12	.01
Decision Regret Scale (DRS)	Time[†]	3.15	1.21	3.42	0.76	232.43	5.77	.02	.01
	Gender	3.11	1.18	3.34	1.05	333	3.24	.07	.01
	Follow – Minor League Baseball[†]	3.23	1.21	3.21	1.00	325.87	0.02	.88	⁂
	Follow – San Francisco Giants Minor League Affiliate[†]	3.16	1.17	3.39	0.97	192.23	3.41	.07	.01
	Familiarity – Christian Arroyo	3.17	1.11	3.45	1.16	333	3.06	.08	.01
Post-purchase Consumer Regret (PPCR) – *Regret Due to Under-Consideration*	Time[†]	3.41	1.71	4.04	1.09	229.59	15.70	***	.03
	Gender	3.41	1.61	3.73	1.56	333	3.37	.07	.01
	Follow – Minor League Baseball	3.65	1.63	3.45	1.54	333	1.35	.25	⁂
	Follow – San Francisco Giants Minor League Affiliate[†]	3.53	1.65	3.67	1.43	184.48	0.58	.45	⁂
	Familiarity – Christian Arroyo	3.58	1.62	3.50	1.48	333	0.11	.74	⁂
Post-purchase Consumer Regret (PPCR) – *Regret Due to Foregone Alternatives*	Time[†]	3.21	1.75	3.66	1.19	215.02	7.00	.01	.01
	Gender	3.16	1.64	3.49	1.62	333	3.42	.07	.01
	Follow – Minor League Baseball[†]	3.39	1.72	3.23	1.51	319.37	0.77	.38	⁂
	Follow – San Francisco Giants Minor League Affiliate[†]	3.27	1.71	3.45	1.43	191.78	0.92	.34	⁂
	Familiarity – Christian Arroyo	3.29	1.66	3.47	1.55	333	0.58	.45	⁂
Performance Trait Evaluation (PTE) – *Post-Transgression Action*	Time[†]	5.72	2.64	5.78	1.67	230.59	0.06	.81	⁂
	Gender	5.60	2.46	5.87	2.39	333	1.08	.30	⁂
	Follow – Minor League Baseball[†]	5.77	2.57	5.68	2.23	321.16	0.10	.75	⁂
	Follow – San Francisco Giants Minor League Affiliate[†]	5.73	2.55	5.74	2.08	195.71	.96	.003	⁂
	Familiarity – Christian Arroyo	5.76	2.47	5.58	2.22	333	0.27	.60	⁂
Moral Trait Evaluation (MTE) – *Post-Transgression Action*	Time[†]	5.26	2.53	5.61	1.62	228.22	2.19	.14	⁂
	Gender	5.25	2.37	5.461	2.29	333	0.67	.42	⁂
	Follow – Minor League Baseball[†]	5.42	2.45	5.26	2.17	318.57	0.40	.53	⁂
	Follow – San Francisco Giants Minor League Affiliate[†]	5.30	2.46	5.49	1.94	202.92	0.53	.47	⁂
	Familiarity – Christian Arroyo[†]	5.36	2.40	5.32	2.02	98.66	0.02	.90	⁂

Note. ***$p < .001$. ⁂ = $\eta^2 < .001$. [†]Violated homogeneity of variances. [a]Group 1 = One full session ($n = 250$), Group 2 = Two half sessions ($n = 85$). [b]Group 1 = Male ($n = 174$), Group 2 = Female ($n = 161$). [c]Group 1 = Follower ($n = 195$), Group 2 = Non-follower ($n = 140$). [d]Group 1 = Follower ($n = 244$), Group 2 = Non-follower ($n = 91$). [e]Group 1 = Familiar ($n = 275$), Group 2 = Unfamiliar ($n = 60$).

***Binary dependent variables*.** In order to assess the effects of the identified potential variables of influence, a series of chi-square tests for independence were performed to uncover their impact on the binary dependent variables. For tests in which the contingency table contained a value less than or equal to 5, Yates' (1934) Continuity Correction was utilized to reduce latent biases introduced to the data. These analyses revealed that followers of the San Francisco Giants Minor League affiliate significantly differed from non-followers in terms of the nature of their comments to the target athlete's social media post after these participants were subjected to the initial negative action condition. Time significantly influenced only the nature of social media comments following exposure to the target athlete's post-transgression behavior. With respect to gender, males and females provided significantly different types of comments on the active social media measure after contact with the initial negative action by the athlete.

Regarding product choices, familiarity with Christian Arroyo significantly impacted the initial jersey choice. Lastly, followers of Minor League Baseball significantly differed in their choice of jersey following exposure to the athlete's post-transgression action. Nevertheless, these tendencies in product choice may be expected given the increased knowledge and closeness to the target athlete and particular subset of baseball (i.e., in this case, Minor League Baseball). No other variations among these variables were evident (see Table 66). Considering the cumulative significant and nonsignificant effects of the potential influential factors, we controlled for only time across our main analyses.

Table 66

Chi-Square Test for Independence Results for the Effect of Potential Influential Variables on the Binary Dependent Variables

Measure	*Factor*	Count *Group*	*Code* 1	2	χ^2	*p*	φ
Active Social Media Measure (ASMM) – *Initial Negative Action*	Time[a]	1	119	44	0.37	.54	.03
		2	114	36			
	Gender[b]	1	75	88	5.01	.03	.13
		2	88	62			
	Follow – Minor League Baseball[c]	1	103	60	2.35	.13	.09
		2	82	68			
	Follow – San Francisco Giants Minor League Affiliate[d]	1	128	35	3.93	.05	.11
		2	103	47			
	Familiarity – Christian Arroyo[e]	1	141	22	2.86	.09	.10
		2	119	31			
Active Social Media Measure (ASMM) – *Post-Transgression Action*	Time	1	130	57	5.92	.02	.14
		2	103	23			
	Gender	1	90	97	2.90	.09	.10
		2	73	53			
	Follow – Minor League Baseball	1	112	75	0.12	.73	.02
		2	73	53			
	Follow – San Francisco Giants Minor League Affiliate	1	136	51	0.28	.60	.03
		2	95	31			
	Familiarity – Christian Arroyo	1	154	33	0.17	.68	.02
		2	106	20			
Product Choice (Jersey) – *Initial Negative Action*	Time	1	198	66	0.09	.76	.02
		2	52	19			
	Gender	1	135	129	0.32	.57	.03
		2	39	32			
	Follow – Minor League Baseball	1	148	116	2.36	.12	.08
		2	47	24			
	Follow – San Francisco Giants Minor League Affiliate	1	187	77	2.53	.11	.09
		2	57	14			
	Familiarity – Christian Arroyo[†]	1	209	55	6.33	.01	.15
		2	66	5			
Product Choice (Accessory) – *Initial Negative Action*	Time[†]	1	234	80	0.03	.87	.01
		2	16	5			
	Gender	1	163	151	0.002	.97	.002
		2	11	10			
	Follow – Minor League Baseball	1	183	131	0.01	.92	.01
		2	12	9			
	Follow – San Francisco Giants Minor League Affiliate[†]	1	227	87	0.75	.39	.05
		2	17	4			
	Familiarity – Christian Arroyo[†]	1	254	60	3.68	.06	.12
		2	21	0			
Product Choice (Jersey) – *Post-Transgression Action*	Time	1	202	74	1.56	.21	.07
		2	47	11			
	Gender	1	142	134	0.27	.61	.03
		2	32	26			
	Follow – Minor League Baseball	1	151	125	8.83	.003	.16
		2	44	14			
	Follow – San Francisco Giants Minor League Affiliate	1	196	80	2.43	.12	.09
		2	47	11			
	Familiarity – Christian Arroyo[†]	1	221	55	3.43	.06	.11
		2	53	5			
Product Choice (Accessory) – *Post-Transgression Action*	Time	1	219	78	1.09	.30	.06
		2	31	7			
	Gender	1	157	140	0.89	.35	.05
		2	17	21			
	Follow – Minor League Baseball	1	169	128	1.84	.18	.07
		2	26	12			
	Follow – San Francisco Giants Minor League Affiliate	1	215	82	0.26	.61	.03
		2	29	9			
	Familiarity – Christian Arroyo[†]	1	242	55	0.66	.42	.04
		2	33	5			

Note. For all tests, *df* = 1. [†]Continuity Correction used. [a]Group 1 = One full session, Group 2 = Two half sessions. [b]Group 1 = Male, Group 2 = Female. [c]Group 1 = Follower, Group 2 = Non-follower. [d]Group 1 = Follower, Group 2 = Non-follower. [e]Group 1 = Familiar, Group 2 = Unfamiliar.

Manipulation Checks

To corroborate the manipulation of the initial negative action and each of the post-transgression behavior conditions, a series of tests on the performance and moral manipulation checks were conducted. The evaluations following the initial negative action were analyzed against the scale mean of 5.50 (Sagioglou & Greitemeyer, 2014). Results from multiple one-sample *t*-tests confirmed the efficacy of the initial manipulations. Participants exposed to both negative performance (n = 174; M = 4.06, SD = 2.53; t[173] = -7.51, $p < .001$, d = -1.14) and the immoral behavior (n = 161; M = 2.78, SD = 2.50; t[160] = -13.78, $p < .001$, d = -2.18) conditions provided mean ratings that were significantly lower than the scale mean. To note, in comparing the mean ratings between the initial negative action conditions, results from a follow-up one-way ANOVA illustrated that participants rated the immoral behavior as significantly worse than the negative performance, $F(1, 333) = 21.44$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .06$, suggesting that immoral behavior may have been judged more harshly than poor performance in our sample.

To verify the operation of each of the post-transgression behavior conditions, a one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc tests using Games-Howell correction, with 10,000 BCa bootstrap sampled confidence intervals, to account for unequal variances and imbalanced group sample sizes was performed. Results from these analyses indicated that participants subjected to high performance (n = 77; M = 8.21, SD = 1.70) rated the target athlete's play as significantly better (MD = 4.73, BCa 95% CI [4.07, 5.36], $p < .001$) than did those in the low performance condition (n = 89; M = 3.48, SD = 3.32). Additionally, participants allocated significantly higher ratings of morality (MD =

5.02, BCa 95% CI [4.34, 5.69], $p < .001$) following exposure to positive moral behavior ($n = 88$; $M = 8.34$, $SD = 1.74$) compared to immoral behavior ($n = 81$; $M = 3.32$, $SD = 2.61$). In examining differences between each of the corresponding performance and moral post-transgression conditions, no significant differences were detected between the immoral behavior and negative performance conditions ($MD = 0.16$, BCa 95% CI [-0.58, 0.91], $p = .98$) as well as the positive moral behavior and high performance conditions ($MD = 0.13$, BCa 95% CI [-0.38, 0.65], $p = .96$). The results from these tests indicated that the experimental manipulation for post-transgression behavior was also successful.

Hypothesis Testing

Initial negative action. At the outset, we first tested our hypotheses for product choice, social media comments, and trait evaluations following the athlete's initial negative action ($H_{5b_{1-3}}$) with a series of distinct analyses. Succeeding the initial hypothesis tests, we also conducted follow-up analyses by including time and team identification as covariates to validate the effects of each outcome measure.

Product choice. A set of one-sample chi-square tests for independence was performed to investigate whether fans tended to make product choices related to the team more often than those related to the player following exposure to the initial negative action. For these tests, we computed confidence intervals for the p values with Monte Carlo simulations using 10,000 samples to verify the efficacy of the obtained effects. The analyses from these tests illustrated a significant effect of such choices for both jersey, $\chi^2(1, n = 335) = 111.19$, $p < .001$, $\varphi = .58$, 95% MCCI [< .001, < .001], and accessory selections, $\chi^2(1, n = 335) = 256.27$, $p < .001$, $\varphi = .87$, 95% MCCI [< .001, <

.001]. The frequencies of team-related jersey ($N_{observed}$ = 264) and accessory choices ($N_{observed}$ = 314) were significantly greater than the expected number ($N_{expected}$ = 167.5), while the number of player-related jersey ($N_{observed}$ = 71) and accessory choices ($N_{observed}$ = 21) was significantly lower than the expected outcome. Thus, H_{5b1} was supported by the chi-square tests. Further analysis using binary logistic regression to test for any differences between each of the types of initial negative action (i.e., performance- or moral-related) revealed a significant difference between the groups such that fans in the negative performance condition tended to select more player-related jerseys than did those in the immoral behavior condition, controlling for time and team identification (see Table 67). In contrast, there were no differences in the choice of accessories following the initial negative action between the groups.

Table 67

Binary Logistic Regression Model for Product Choice Following the Initial Negative Action Controlling for Time and Team Identification (Study 5B)

Product Choice	*Predictor*	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*BCa 95% CI*
Jersey Choice	Type of Initial Negative Action	-0.65*	0.28	5.37	0.52	[-1.21, -0.12]
	Covariates					
	Time	0.34	0.33	1.09	1.41	[-0.33, 0.97]
	Team Identification	0.27	0.17	2.68	1.31	[-0.03, 0.60]
Accessory Choice	Type of Initial Negative Action	-0.45	0.47	0.94	0.64	[-1.45, 0.39]
	Covariates					
	Time	-0.16	0.56	0.08	0.85	[-1.18, 0.55]
	Team Identification	-0.16	0.24	0.42	0.85	[-0.64, 0.37]

Note. *p < .05.

***Social media comments*.** The modal response code for the comments on the ASMM were subjected to a one-sample chi-square test for independence using 10,000 Monte Carlo estimated samples to construct confidence intervals for the obtained *p* values. Results from this analysis illustrated that there were no significant variations between the nature of social media comments following the initial negative action, $\chi^2(1, n = 324) = 0.61$, $p = .47$, $\varphi = .04$, 95% MCCI [.46, .48]. The number of positive ($N_{observed} = 169$) and negative comments ($N_{observed} = 155$) did not differ from the expected frequency ($N_{expected} = 162$), providing evidence against H_{5b_2}. However, follow-up tests using binary logistic regression, with time and team identification as covariates, did reveal that there were significant differences in the nature of social media comments between the negative performance and immoral behavior conditions. Herein, when the target athlete engaged in an immoral behavior, fans tended to provide more derogatory comments compared to positive ones. The full results of this analysis are displayed in Table 68.

Table 68

Binary Logistic Regression Model for Social Media Behaviors Following the Initial Negative Action Controlling for Time and Team Identification (Study 5B)

Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*BCa 95% CI*
Type of Initial Negative Action	1.34***	0.24	31.83	3.83	[0.87, 1.89]
Covariates					
Time	-0.38	0.29	1.68	0.69	[-0.98, 0.18]
Team Identification	-0.10	0.14	0.47	0.91	[-3.07, 0.88]

Note. Included $N = 324$. ***$p < .001$.

Social media behaviors. A series of one-sample chi-square tests for independence were performed to examine social media behaviors following the initial negative action by the athlete. For all these tests, confidence intervals for all *p* values were constructed with 10,000 Monte Carlo simulated samples. For each social media outlet (i.e., Facebook, Instagram, Snapchat, and Twitter), all behaviors were analyzed separately due to the inherent variations in the use of each platform. Results from these tests revealed that sharing behaviors significantly differed from the expected outcome for Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter users, wherein these users tended to choose to not share the athlete's post. In addition, participants seemed less likely to use each of the Facebook emotive reactions (i.e., "love," "haha," "yay," "wow," "sad," and "angry) following exposure to the athlete's initial negative action. However, Instagram users displayed a greater tendency to like the athlete's post. Lastly, Twitter users were less likely to follow the athlete in comparison to the expected outcome (see Table 69 for the full results of the chi-square tests for independence).

Table 69

One-Sample Chi-Square Tests for Independence Results for the Effect of the Initial Negative Action by the Athlete on Social Media Behaviors

Social Media Outlet	*Outcome*	*Response Count*		*N*	χ^2	*p*	φ	*MCCI 95% CI*
		1	*2*					
Facebook	Like Page	85	112	197	3.70	.07	.14	[.06, .07]
	Share	44	152	196	59.51	***	.55	[***, ***]
	Like Post	90	108	198	1.64	.23	.09	[.22, .24]
	Love Reaction	45	154	199	59.70	***	.55	[***, ***]
	Haha Reaction	38	156	194	71.77	***	.61	[***, ***]
	Wow Reaction	40	153	193	66.16	***	.59	[***, ***]
	Sad Reaction	21	171	192	117.19	***	.78	[***, ***]
	Angry Reaction	48	142	190	46.51	***	.49	[***, ***]
Instagram	Follow	25	25	50	0.00	1.00	.00	[1.00, 1.00]
	Share	7	43	50	25.92	***	.72	[***, ***]
	Like Post	35	15	50	8.00	.01	.40	[.01, .01]
Snapchat	Follow	10	14	24	0.67	.55	.17	[.54, .56]
	Share	7	17	24	4.17	.07	.42	[.06, .07]
	Snap	9	15	24	1.50	.31	.25	[.30, .32]
Twitter	Follow	18	38	56	7.14	.01	.36	[.01, .01]
	Retweet	12	43	55	17.47	***	.56	[***, ***]
	Like Post	28	28	56	0.00	1.00	.00	[1.00, 1.00]

Note. ***$p < .001$. For all tests, $df = 1$. Response of 1 indicates use of corresponding reaction button, while response of 2 denotes non-use.

Using time and team identification as covariates, a sequence of follow-up binary logistic regression analyses revealed several differences between the types of initial negative action by the athlete. Specifically, the initial immoral action significantly deterred liking behaviors of the athlete's page and post, while also increasing the use of the sad and angry reaction buttons, exclusively for Facebook users. With regards to the

covariates, higher team identification significantly strengthened liking and sharing behaviors as well as the use of the love reaction button for Facebook users. For Instagram users, stronger identification to the team gave rise to more following behaviors. Table 70 presents the results from these tests.

Table 70

Binary Logistic Regression Model for Social Media Behaviors Following the Initial Negative Action Controlling for Time and Team Identification (Study 5B)

		Type of Initial Negative Action					*Time*					*Team Identification*				
Social Media Outlet	*Outcome*	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*95% CI* (e^B)	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*95% CI* (e^B)	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*95% CI* (e^B)
Facebook	Like Page	1.73***	0.33	27.75	5.62	[2.96, 10.69]	-0.60	0.70	0.74	0.55	[0.14, 2.15]	-0.64**	0.21	9.46	0.53	[0.35, 0.79]
	Share	0.17	0.36	0.21	1.18	[0.58, 2.39]	-0.47	0.86	0.30	0.63	[0.12, 3.38]	-0.92***	0.26	12.82	0.40	[0.24, 0.66]
	Like Post	1.72***	0.32	28.49	5.58	[2.97, 10.48]	-1.14	0.68	2.83	0.32	[0.09, 1.21]	-0.52**	0.20	6.65	0.59	[0.40, 0.88]
	Love Reaction	0.54	0.35	2.32	1.71	[0.86, 3.42]	-0.10	0.84	.02	0.90	[0.17, 4.69]	-0.54*	0.23	5.43	0.58	[0.37, 0.92]
	Haha Reaction	-0.14	0.37	0.14	0.87	[0.42, 1.80]	0.66	1.09	0.37	1.94	[0.23, 16.35]	-0.46	0.24	3.62	0.63	[0.39, 1.01]
	Wow Reaction	0.16	0.36	0.20	1.18	[0.58, 2.38]	0.02	0.83	0.001	1.02	[0.20, 5.20]	-0.33	0.23	2.07	0.72	[0.46, 1.13]
	Sad Reaction	-1.43**	0.54	6.95	0.24	[0.08, 0.69]	18.93	10777.004	0.00	0.00	-	-0.31	0.31	1.03	0.73	[0.40, 1.34]
	Angry Reaction	-2.13***	0.43	24.91	0.12	[0.05, 0.27]	0.97	0.85	1.28	2.63	[0.49, 14.05]	0.12	0.23	0.26	1.12	[0.72, 1.76]
Instagram	Follow	-0.38	0.77	0.24	0.69	[0.15, 3.09]	0.21	0.69	0.09	1.23	[0.32, 4.77]	-0.85*	0.43	3.91	0.43	[0.18, 0.99]
	Share	-0.27	1.01	0.08	0.76	[0.11, 5.48]	0.64	0.94	0.47	1.90	[0.30, 11.92]	0.24	0.49	0.25	1.28	[0.49, 3.34]
	Like Post	1.11	0.83	1.78	3.03	[0.59, 15.42]	0.67	0.80	0.70	1.96	[0.41, 9.43]	-0.11	0.42	0.07	0.90	[0.40, 2.03]
Snapchat	Follow	1.12	0.97	1.31	3.06	[0.45, 20.63]	-21.68	19692.86	0.00	0.00	-	0.33	0.61	0.30	1.39	[0.42, 4.58]
	Share	1.24	1.11	1.26	3.46	[0.40, 30.31]	-20.99	18902.37	0.00	0.00	-	-0.78	0.66	1.42	0.46	[0.13, 1.66]
	Snap	-0.47	0.90	0.27	0.63	[0.11, 3.65]	-0.79	1.31	0.36	0.46	[0.04, 5.91]	0.65	0.58	1.25	1.91	[0.61, 5.97]
Twitter	Follow	0.73	0.62	1.37	2.08	[0.61, 7.06]	1.45*	0.74	3.90	4.28	[1.01, 18.08]	0.05	0.29	0.03	1.05	[0.60, 1.84]
	Retweet	0.85	0.73	1.34	2.33	[0.56, 9.81]	0.84	0.54	2.65	0.42	[0.41, 13.28]	-0.88	0.54	2.65	0.42	[0.14, 1.20]
	Like Post	0.51	0.59	0.74	1.66	[0.52, 5.30]	-1.68**	0.64	6.79	0.19	[0.05, 0.66]	0.04	0.28	0.02	1.04	[0.61, 1.78]

Note. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

***Trait evaluations*.** A set of one-sample *t*-tests was performed to examine the effects of the initial negative action on the ratings of the target athlete's traits. These evaluations were contrasted against the scale mean of 5.50. The analyses for trait evaluations indicated that fans did not judge the athlete's performance-related traits as significantly lower than the scale mean, $t(334) = -0.98$, $p = .33$, $d = -0.11$, but did assess the athlete's moral-related traits as significantly worse, $t(334) = -3.36$, $p = .001$, $d = -0.37$. Therefore, H_{5b_3} was only partially upheld. A supplementary analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) to explore for any differences between the types of negative action using time and team identification as covariates revealed that fans exposed to negative performance ($M = 6.14$, $SD = 1.95$) provided higher ratings of performance traits than did those in the immoral behavior condition ($M = 4.56$, $SD = 2.19$). In addition, higher team identification also enhanced such ratings of performance. Regarding moral trait evaluations, an additional ANCOVA illustrated similar differences such that negative performance ($M = 6.43$, $SD = 1.37$) gave rise to higher trait ratings by fans in comparison to immoral behavior ($M = 3.64$, $SD = 2.04$). Table 71 presents the results of the ANCOVAs for each form of trait evaluation.

Table 71

Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) Results for Performance (PTE) and Moral Trait Evaluations (MTE) Following the Initial Negative Action Controlling for Time and Team Identification (Study 5B)

	PTE (R^2 = .15)			*MTE* (R^2 = .41)		
Factor	*F*	*p*	η_p^2	*F*	*p*	η_p^2
Type of Initial Negative Action	44.33	***	.12	209.31	***	.39
Covariates						
Time	1.84	.18	.01	1.19	.28	.004
Team Identification	4.14	.04	.01	2.66	.10	.01

Note. ***p < .001.

Post-transgression behavior. In order to investigate H_{5b_4}, we assessed the effects of the nature of both post-transgression conditions on product choice, social media comments, and trait evaluations. At this juncture, we included time as a covariate in each of the analyses. In addition, we also entered team identification into each of the models to investigate the hypothesis across the dense continuum of this fan variable. Following these initial tests, we performed contrasts to detect for any variations among the different post-transgression conditions.

Product choice. Results from a series of binary logistic regressions conducted to examine the effect of the nature of the post-transgression condition on both jersey and accessory product choices revealed that positive post-transgression behaviors increased player-related selections, controlling for time and team identification. Further tests utilizing planned contrasts to compare each level of the post-transgression behavior revealed differences in jersey selections between positive performance and both negative performance as well as immoral behavior, spurring significantly more

player-related choices in the positive performance condition. Similarly, in the contrasts for accessory product choices, there were also differences between positive performance and both negative post-transgression behavior conditions, wherein fans exposed to positive performance tended to select more player-related products. The results of the binary logistic regression and the planned contrasts are presented in Table 72.

Table 72

Binary Logistic Regression Models for Product Choice Following Post-Transgression Behavior Controlling for Time and Team Identification (Study 5B)

		Jersey Choice[a]					*Accessory Choice*				
	Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* X^2	e^B	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* X^2	e^B	*BCa 95% CI*
Full Model	Nature of Post-Transgression Behavior	-0.83**	0.30	7.44	0.44	[-1.45, -0.30]	-1.19**	0.39	9.44	0.31	[-2.02, -0.56]
	Covariates										
	Time	-0.34	0.38	0.76	0.72	[-1.21, 0.39]	-0.49	0.46	1.10	0.62	[-1.60, 0.33]
	Team Identification	0.19	0.18	1.14	1.14	[-0.22, 0.69]	-0.02	0.20	0.01	0.98	[-0.49, 0.56]
Planned Contrasts Model	Type of Post-Transgression Behavior			7.84*					9.45*		
	Negative Performance[a]	-0.99*	0.43	5.31	0.37	[-1.94, -0.23]	-1.23*	0.55	4.91	0.29	[-2.32, -0.46]
	Positive Moral Behavior[a]	-0.21	0.37	0.33	0.57	[-1.00, 0.55]	0.01	0.42	0.001	1.01	[-0.85, 0.90]
	Immoral Behavior[a]	-0.88*	0.43	4.20	0.41	[-1.88, -0.08]	-1.14*	0.55	4.24	0.32	[-2.21, -0.39]
	Covariates										
	Time	-0.33	0.38	0.76	0.72	[-1.23, 0.41]	-0.48	0.46	1.09	0.62	[-1.38, 0.21]
	Team Identification	0.19	0.18	1.20	1.21	[-0.21, 0.68]	-0.02	0.20	0.01	0.98	[-0.50, 0.59]

Note. [a]Included $N = 334$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$. [a]Positive performance post-transgression condition used as reference category.

***Social media comments*.** A series of binary logistic regression analyses performed to test for disparities in the nature of the social media comments after exposure to the post-transgression behavior revealed that negative actions stimulated more punitive commenting on the athlete's post than did positive post-transgression behavior. Follow-up planned contrasts using each post-transgression condition to further analyze these effects indicated that only immoral behavior prompted fans to comment significantly harsher in comparison to those in the positive performance condition. Table 73 displays the results of each binary logistic regression model.

Table 73

Binary Logistic Regression Models for Nature of Social Media Comments Following Post-Transgression Behavior Controlling for Time and Team Identification (Study 5B)

Model	*Predictor*	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*BCa 95% CI*
Full Model	Nature of Post-Transgression Behavior	0.81***	0.24	11.35	2.24	[0.33, 1.33]
	Covariates					
	Time	-0.84**	0.31	7.39	0.43	[-1.54, -0.26]
	Team Identification	-0.17	0.14	1.43	0.84	[-0.48, 0.12]
Planned Contrasts Model	Type of Post-Transgression Behavior			11.82**		
	Negative Performance[a]	0.62	0.34	3.34	1.87	[-0.07, 1.40]
	Positive Moral Behavior[a]	-0.21	0.36	0.35	0.81	[-0.94, 0.52]
	Immoral Behavior[a]	0.77*	0.35	4.95	2.16	[0.08, 1.52]
	Covariates					
	Time	-0.84**	0.31	7.37	0.43	[-1.50, -0.29]
	Team Identification	-0.17	0.14	1.38	0.85	[-0.47, 0.11]

Note. Included $N = 314$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$. [a]Positive performance post-transgression condition used as reference category.

Social media behaviors. In testing the influence of the target athlete's post-transgression actions on the varying social media behaviors, we utilized multiple binary logistic regression analyses. As in the tests of the initial negative action by the athlete, all models for these outcomes were constructed independently, catalogued by each social media platform. These binary logistic regression analyses illustrated that positive post-transgression behavior, time, and higher team identification spurred a significant penchant for liking behaviors as well as use of the love reaction for Facebook users. Furthermore, higher team identification also seemed to increase sharing behaviors in such Facebook users. Positive post-transgression behavior also strengthened both Instagram and Twitter users' tendencies to like the athlete's post. However, only time affected this outcome among Twitter users (see Table 74 for the results of the full model).

In examining the planned contrasts among the post-transgression behavior conditions, there was a stronger preference for liking behaviors following positive performance compared to fans exposed to negative performance or immoral behavior among Facebook users. Additionally, Facebook and Instagram users presented positive performance also displayed an increased tendency to like the athlete's post compared to fans shown negative performance. Compared to fans presented immoral post-transgression behavior, Facebook users who were shown positive performance were more apt to utilize the love reaction button. Ultimately, the time and team identification covariates also affected social media behaviors within only Facebook users. To be precise, both time and team identification significantly increased liking behaviors and use of the love and wow reactions. However, only team identification

bolstered sharing behaviors in these Facebook users. The complete results from the planned contrasts model are presented in Table 75.

Table 74

Full Binary Logistic Regression Model for Social Media Behaviors Following Post-Transgression Behavior Controlling for Time and Team Identification (Study 5B)

		Nature of Post-Transgression Behavior					*Time*					*Team Identification*				
Social Media Outlet	*Outcome*	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*95% CI* (e^B)	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*95% CI* (e^B)	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*95% CI* (e^B)
Facebook	Like Page[a]	1.06**	0.31	11.97	2.90	[1.59, 5.29]	-1.54*	0.69	4.92	0.22	[0.06, 0.84]	-0.67**	0.20	11.05	0.51	[0.35, 0.76]
	Share[b]	0.59	0.36	2.64	1.80	[0.89, 3.64]	-1.00	0.77	1.71	0.37	[0.08, 1.65]	-0.67**	0.24	7.79	0.51	[0.32, 0.82]
	Like Post[a]	0.92**	0.31	8.89	2.52	[1.37, 4.61]	-2.10**	0.74	8.14	0.12	[0.03, 0.52]	-0.83***	0.21	15.65	0.44	[0.29, 0.66]
	Love Reaction[c]	0.72*	0.35	4.15	2.06	[1.03, 4.11]	-1.50*	0.73	4.20	0.22	[0.05, 0.94]	-0.80**	0.24	11.16	0.45	[0.28, 0.72]
	Haha Reaction[d]	-0.28	0.36	0.62	0.76	[0.38, 1.52]	-0.01	0.84	0.00	0.99	[0.19, 5.13]	-0.25	0.23	1.23	0.78	[0.50, 1.21]
	Wow Reaction[d]	-0.57	0.34	2.73	0.57	[0.29, 1.11]	-1.33	0.68	3.80	0.26	[0.07, 1.01]	-0.42	0.22	3.68	0.66	[0.43, 1.01]
	Sad Reaction[e]	-0.12	0.47	0.06	0.89	[0.36, 2.23]	18.56	11430.97	0.00	-	-	-0.54	0.32	2.92	0.58	[0.31, 1.08]
	Angry Reaction[e]	-0.59	0.35	2.89	0.56	[0.28, 1.09]	20.47	11483.13	0.00	-	-	0.24	0.21	1.37	1.28	[0.85, 1.92]
Instagram	Follow[f]	0.70	0.67	1.10	2.02	[0.54, 7.48]	-0.02	0.70	0.001	0.98	[0.25, 3.91]	-0.72	0.41	3.11	0.49	[0.22, 1.08]
	Share[g]	0.19	0.81	0.05	1.21	[0.25, 5.85]	0.41	0.85	0.24	1.51	[0.29, 7.95]	0.02	0.46	0.002	1.02	[0.41, 2.51]
	Like Post[g]	1.71*	0.75	5.25	5.51	[1.28, 23.71]	0.15	0.74	0.04	1.16	[0.27, 4.94]	-0.45	0.39	1.30	0.64	[0.30, 1.38]
Snapchat	Follow[h]	0.25	1.21	0.04	1.29	[0.12, 13.79]	-21.33	18651.33	0.00	-	-	1.43	1.00	2.02	4.16	[0.58, 29.73]
	Share[i]	78.29	11454.01	0.00	-	-	-64.24	15378.47	0.00	-	-	105.22	12852.96	0.00	-	-
	Snap[i]	0.02	1.12	0.00	1.02	[0.11, 9.22]	-1.01	1.43	0.50	0.36	[0.02, 6.00]	1.33	0.92	2.11	3.79	[0.63, 22.81]
Twitter	Follow[j]	0.09	0.65	0.02	1.10	[0.31, 3.94]	2.17	1.12	3.77	8.79	[0.98, 78.78]	0.02	0.30	0.004	1.02	[0.57, 1.82]
	Retweet[j]	1.34	0.73	3.43	3.83	[0.93, 15.85]	1.07	0.91	1.39	2.93	[0.49, 17.45]	0.18	0.31	0.32	1.19	[0.65, 2.20]
	Like Post[j]	0.81**	0.24	11..35	2.24	[1.40, 3.58]	-0.84**	0.31	7.39	0.43	[0.24, 0.79]	-0.17	0.14	1.43	0.84	[0.64, 1.12]

Note. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001. [a]Included N = 201. [b]Included N = 198. [c]Included N = 200. [d]Included N = 199. [e]Included N = 197. [f]Included N = 44. [g]Included N = 45. [h]Included N = 18. [i]Included N = 17. [j]Included N = 49.

Table 75

Planned Contrast Binary Logistic Regression Model for Social Media Behaviors Following Post-Transgression Behavior Controlling for Time and Team Identification (Study 5B)

		Type of Post-Transgression Behavior	*Negative Performance*[a]					*Positive Moral Behavior*[a]					*Immoral Behavior*[a]				
Social Media Outlet	*Outcome*	*Wald* χ^2	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*95% CI* (e^B)	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*95% CI* (e^B)	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*95% CI* (e^B)
Facebook	Like Page	12.94**	1.18**	0.45	6.83	3.24	[1.34, 7.81]	0.39	0.42	0.87	1.48	[0.65, 3.38]	1.42**	0.46	9.44	4.13	[1.67, 10.20]
	Share	2.90	0.79	0.54	2.15	2.21	[0.77, 6.38]	0.13	0.48	0.07	1.14	[0.45, 2.90]	0.53	0.52	1.04	1.71	[0.61, 4.76]
	Like Post	8.96*	0.92*	0.46	4.04	2.51	[1.02, 6.14]	-0.08	0.43	0.04	0.92	[0.40, 2.12]	0.83	0.45	3.34	2.29	[0.94, 5.58]
	Love Reaction	4.87	0.65	0.50	1.67	1.92	[0.72, 5.13]	0.22	0.46	0.23	1.25	[0.51, 3.08]	1.09*	0.55	4.01	2.99	[1.02, 8.72]
	Haha Reaction	1.21	-0.51	0.56	0.83	0.60	[0.20, 1.80]	-0.44	0.55	0.62	0.65	[0.22, 1.91]	-0.59	0.56	1.10	0.56	[0.19, 1.67]
	Wow Reaction	7.79	0.25	0.51	0.23	1.28	[0.47, 3.49]	0.63	0.53	1.43	1.87	[0.67, 5.24]	-0.65	0.48	1.86	0.52	[0.21, 1.33]
	Sad Reaction	0.19	-0.03	0.72	0.001	0.98	[0.24, 3.97]	-0.04	0.69	0.004	0.96	[0.25, 3.71]	-0.25	0.69	0.13	0.78	[0.20, 3.02]
	Angry Reaction	6.52	0.12	0.48	0.06	1.13	[0.44, 2.91]	0.95	0.54	3.13	2.58	[0.90, 7.35]	-0.35	0.47	0.56	0.70	[0.28, 1.77]
Instagram	Follow	1.89	0.56	0.96	0.34	1.76	[0.27, 11.62]	-0.75	0.94	0.63	0.47	[0.08, 2.98]	0.13	0.92	0.02	1.14	[0.19, 6.89]
	Share	1.95	0.21	1.51	0.02	1.24	[0.06, 24.03]	-1.26	1.26	0.99	0.28	[0.02, 3.73]	-1.00	1.25	0.64	0.37	[0.03, 4.28]
	Like Post	7.02	3.18*	1.30	5.96	24.09	[1.87, 309.97]	1.15	1.28	0.82	3.17	[0.26, 38.67]	1.89	1.23	2.37	6.59	[0.60, 72.93]
Snapchat	Follow	1.27	0.92	1.85	0.25	2.50	[0.07, 94.60]	-0.38	1.71	0.05	0.68	[0.02, 19.68]	-1.26	2.00	0.40	0.28	[0.01, 14.16]
	Share	0.00	12.87	21440.91	0.00	0.00	-	-36.88	18910.20	0.00	0.00	-	27.48	25162.62	0.00	0.00	-
	Snap	0.01	0.03	1.67	0.00	1.03	[0.04, 27.17]	0.07	1.67	0.002	1.07	[0.04, 28.46]	0.15	2.03	0.01	1.16	[0.02, 61.60]
Twitter	Follow	1.62	-0.52	0.90	0.34	0.59	[0.10, 3.44]	-1.29	1.03	1.55	0.28	[0.04, 2.09]	-0.34	0.94	0.13	0.71	[0.11, 4.50]
	Retweet	4.68	1.81	1.21	2.26	6.11	[0.58, 64.80]	-0.87	0.94	0.85	0.42	[0.07, 2.65]	0.39	0.93	0.18	1.48	[0.24, 9.05]
	Like Post	0.43	0.30	0.80	0.14	1.35	[0.28, 6.44]	-0.17	0.95	0.03	0.85	[0.13, 5.41]	0.37	0.87	0.18	1.44	[0.26, 8.00]

Note. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001. [a]Positive performance post-transgression condition used as reference category.

Table 75 – Continued

Planned Contrast Binary Logistic Regression Model for Social Media Behaviors Following Post-Transgression Behavior Controlling for Time and Team Identification (Study 5B)

		Time					*Team Identification*				
Social Media Outlet	*Outcome*	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*95% CI* (e^B)	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* χ^2	e^B	*95% CI* (e^B)
Facebook	Like Page	-1.58*	0.70	5.07	0.21	[0.05, 0.82]	-0.69***	0.20	11.58	0.50	[0.34, 0.75]
	Share	-1.05	0.77	1.86	0.35	[0.08, 1.59]	-0.68**	0.24	7.85	0.51	[0.32, 0.82]
	Like Post	-2.10**	0.75	7.98	0.12	[0.03, 0.53]	-0.82***	0.21	15.30	0.44	[0.29, 0.66]
	Love Reaction	-1.49*	0.74	4.06	0.23	[.05, 0.96]	-0.81***	0.24	11.38	0.45	[0.28, 0.71]
	Haha Reaction	0.04	0.84	0.002	1.04	[0.20, 5.42]	-0.23	0.23	1.05	0.79	[0.51, 1.24]
	Wow Reaction	-1.58*	0.71	4.99	0.21	[0.05, 0.82]	-0.46*	0.23	4.00	0.63	[0.41, 0.99]
	Sad Reaction	18.54	11428.10	0.00	0.00	-	-0.54	0.32	2.87	0.58	[0.31, 1.09]
	Angry Reaction	20.30	11378.73	0.00	0.00	-	0.22	0.21	1.06	1.25	[0.82, 1.89]
Instagram	Follow	0.05	0.71	0.01	1.05	[0.26, 4.26]	-0.75	0.41	3.35	0.48	[0.21, 1.05]
	Share	0.50	0.85	0.35	1.65	[0.31, 8.74]	-0.06	0.46	0.02	0.94	[0.38, 2.31]
	Like Post	0.29	0.78	0.14	1.34	[0.29, 6.12]	-0.49	0.40	1.52	0.61	[0.28, 1.34]
Snapchat	Follow	-21.58	17933.52	0.00	0.00	-	1.52	1.07	2.02	4.58	[0.56, 37.29]
	Share	-57.21	17449.98	0.00	0.00	-	48.44	11305.52	0.00	0.00	-
	Snap	-1.00	1.45	0.47	0.37	[0.02, 6.34]	1.34	0.93	2.07	3.82	[0.61, 23.71]
Twitter	Follow	2.19	1.14	3.71	8.92	[0.96, 82.72]	0.03	0.31	0.01	1.03	[0.56, 1.90]
	Retweet	0.94	0.93	1.03	2.56	[0.42, 15.68]	0.13	0.32	0.16	1.14	[0.61, 2.11]
	Like Post	-1.67	0.77	4.65	0.19	[0.04, 0.85]	-0.23	0.32	0.53	0.79	[0.43, 1.48]

Note. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Trait evaluations. An ANCOVA was performed to investigate the effects of the nature of each post-transgression condition on the subsequent performance and moral trait evaluations. The results of this analysis, which controlled for time and team identification, showed that fans exposed to positive post-transgression behavior rated the target athlete's performance (M = 6.70, SD = 2.12) and moral traits (M = 6.19, SD = 2.30) as significantly higher than did those who were presented articles reflecting negative post-transgression actions (M_{PTE} = 4.79, SD_{PTE} = 2.34; M_{MTE} = 4.54, SD_{MTE} = 2.06). For both moral and trait evaluations, higher team identification appeared to further increase these ratings (see Table 76).

Table 76

Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) Results for Performance (PTE) and Moral Trait Evaluations (MTE) Following Post-Transgression Behavior Controlling for Time and Team Identification (Study 5B)

	PTE (R^2 = .18)			*MTE* (R^2 = .15)		
Factor	*F*	*p*	η_p^2	*F*	*p*	η_p^2
Nature of Post-Transgression Behavior	62.39	***	.16	48.66	***	.13
Covariates						
Time	1.40	.24	.004	4.38	.04	.01
Team Identification	8.70	.003	.03	6.90	.01	.02

Note. ***p < .001.

Subsequent post-hoc tests among each of the post-transgression groups using Games-Howell correction along with BCa bootstrapped confidence intervals using 10,000 resamples indicated that fans provided higher performance trait evaluations following positive performance in comparison to negative performance and immoral

behavior. In addition, fans subjected to positive moral behavior provided higher performance ratings than did those exposed to negative performance and immoral behavior by the target athlete. However, for moral trait evaluations, fans who were displayed articles depicting positive moral behavior offered higher evaluations than did those in the positive performance, negative performance, and the immoral behavior conditions. Finally, immoral behavior by the target athlete appeared to significantly diminish moral trait evaluations compared to positive performance, negative performance, and positive moral behavior. Table 77 displays the results of the post-hoc comparisons. Considering the results of the post-transgression behavior analyses, H_{5b4} was moderately supported.

Table 77

Games-Howell Post-Hoc Tests for Performance (PTE) and Moral Trait Evaluations (MTE) Following Post-Transgression Behavior

		1		2		3	
Outcome	*Condition*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*	*MD*	*BCa 95% CI*
PTE	1. Positive Performance	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2. Negative Performance	1.46***	[0.74, 2.17]	-	-	-	-
	3. Positive Moral Behavior	-0.13	[-0.79, 0.52]	-1.60***	[-2.20, -0.97]	-	-
	4. Immoral Behavior	2.26***	[1.52, 3.00]	0.80	[0.13, 1.47]	2.39***	[1.74, 3.04]
MTE	1. Positive Performance	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2. Negative Performance	0.43	[-0.25, 1.12]	-	-	-	-
	3. Positive Moral Behavior	-1.28***	[-1.96, -0.60]	-1.72***	[-2.33, -1.10]	-	-
	4. Immoral Behavior	1.55***	[0.90, 2.20]	1.12**	[0.52, 1.70]	2.83***	[2.23, 3.43]

Note. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Black sheep regret. Ultimately, the last set of hypotheses regarding regret and the target athlete's behavior (i.e., $H_{5b_{5\text{-}7}}$) were tested by using the various forms of reported regret as factors in the analyses. For these tests, product, social media, and decision (i.e., referring to trait evaluations) regret were each dichotomized using a median split to facilitate group comparisons between high and low levels of regret. In a similar vein, time and team identification were retained as covariates across these analyses. Due to the influence of the type of post-transgression behavior on previous outcomes, we utilized this variable as an additional covariate in these tests. Ultimately, given that we did not measure regret stemming from social media behaviors, we did not test for the influence of BSR on these outcomes.

Product choice. In testing for the presence of BSR within both jersey and product choices, the Generalized Estimating Equations (GEE; Liang & Zeger, 1986) procedure was employed. GEE further develops the generalized linear model to assess the effects of changes between repeated-measures binary responses (Hallemans, Beccu, van Loock, Ortibus, Truijen, & Aerts, 2009). Specifically, we utilized a logistic GEE with an assumed binomial distribution and an unstructured working correlation matrix to investigate the effects of BSR on product choice. For our hypotheses, we performed post-hoc pairwise comparisons on each of the levels of the interaction between the nature of the post-transgression behavior and the level of product regret using Holm's (1979) Sequential Bonferroni correction. This adjustment functions similar to the traditional Bonferroni correction by dividing alpha by the number of conducted tests to reduce the probability of making a Type I error (Abdi, 2010). However, Holm's (1979) sequential procedure first performs all comparisons and then orders the ensuing

p values from smallest to largest. The test with the lowest *p* value is then adjusted using the Bonferroni correction with all the number of tests applied. Subsequently, the remaining tests are adjusted utilizing the Bonferroni correction involving one less test and so on for all following comparisons (Abdi, 2010).

With regards to the GEE for jersey choice, higher product regret was strongly linked with more choices related to the athlete. Follow-up pairwise comparisons among each of the groups constructed by the nature of post-transgression behavior × product regret interaction term revealed significant differences between fans who felt lower regret related to positive post-transgression actions and those with higher regret associated with negative behavior (sequential Bonferroni adjusted $p < .001$). In addition, there were significant differences in the jersey choices between fans experiencing high regret from positive post-transgression behaviors and those who experienced low regret related to negative actions (sequential Bonferroni adjusted $p < .001$). Ultimately, fans who felt less regret from negative athlete behavior differed in terms of their jersey choice from those experiencing greater regret from negative post-transgression actions (sequential Bonferroni adjusted $p = .01$).

The GEE model for accessory choice illustrated that positive post-transgression behaviors were significantly related to an increase in player-related accessory choices compared to negative actions. Contrasts among each of the nature of post-transgression behavior × product regret groups uncovered differences between fans who felt higher regret related to positive behaviors and those who felt both lower regret from positive actions (sequential Bonferroni adjusted $p < .001$) as well as lower regret associated with negative post-transgression behaviors (sequential Bonferroni

adjusted p = .001). Overall, the results from the GEE models provided partial support of H_{5b_5}. Table 78 provides an overview of the specific contribution of each factor to the GEE model for both forms of product choice.

Table 78

Generalized Estimating Equations (GEE) Results for Black Sheep Regret Controlling for Time, Team Identification, and Type of Post Transgression Behavior on Product Choice

Outcome	*Predictor*	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* X^2	*p*
Jersey Choice[a]	Nature of Post-Transgression Behavior	-0.13	0.30	0.20	.66
	Product Regret	1.08	0.37	8.39	.004
	Nature of Post-Transgression Behavior × Product Regret	0.58	0.59	-0.58	.32
	Covariates				
	Time	0.20	0.33	0.38	.54
	Team Identification	-0.27	0.16	2.97	.09
	Type of Post-Transgression Behavior	-0.07	0.24	.08	.78
Accessory Choice[b]	Nature of Post-Transgression Behavior	-1.02	0.50	4.08	.04
	Product Regret	0.62	0.64	0.96	.33
	Nature of Post-Transgression Behavior × Product Regret	1.23	0.85	2.07	.15
	Covariates				
	Time	0.56	0.44	1.60	.21
	Team Identification	0.07	0.22	0.10	.75
	Type of Post-Transgression Behavior	-0.04	0.34	0.02	.90

Note. [a]Included N = 669. [b]Included N = 670.

Social media comments. To assess the influence of BSR on the nature of social media comments, we utilized an identical GEE procedure as employed in the analyses for product choice. Results from this model revealed that higher regret from the previous social media post tended to give rise to more negative social media comments. Follow-up contrasts among each of the nature of post-transgression behavior × social media regret groups established significant differences between fans

who felt higher regret related to negative post-transgression behavior and individuals who experienced low regret from both positive (sequential Bonferroni adjusted $p = .01$) and negative actions (sequential Bonferroni adjusted $p = .02$). Thus, the results from the GEE model for social media comments partially supported H_{5b_6}. The contributing factors of the GEE are presented in Table 79.

Table 79

Generalized Estimating Equations (GEE) Results for Black Sheep Regret Controlling for Time, Team Identification, and Type of Post-Transgression Behavior on Social Media Comments

Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*Wald* X^2	*p*
Nature of Post-Transgression Behavior	0.56	0.34	2.66	.10
Social Media Regret	0.95	0.34	7.82	.01
Nature of Post-Transgression Behavior × Social Media Regret	-0.39	0.47	0.70	.40
Covariates				
Time	-0.17	-0.29	0.34	.56
Team Identification	-0.19	0.14	1.85	.17
Type of Post-Transgression Behavior	0.50	0.23	4.56	.03

Note. Included $N = 648$.

***Trait evaluations*.** To evaluate the effects of BSR between the initial negative action and post-transgression behavior, the change in the performance and moral trait evaluation scores were investigated using a set of repeated-measures ANOVAs. For these evaluations, there was a significant effect of both the nature of the post-transgression behavior and the level of decision regret. That is, those exposed to negative behavior reported significantly greater changes in trait evaluations than fans presented positive post-transgression behavior. In addition, the change in performance

and moral trait evaluations between fans who experienced higher regret was significantly greater than those who reported lower regret. Regarding the team identification covariate, fans with higher team identification underwent higher changes in both trait evaluations than those with lower identification. As an additional comparison, we also utilized the type of post-transgression behavior as a covariate in these analyses and found that there were no significant changes in evaluations between fans subjected to performance- or moral-related actions. The results from this analysis can be found in Table 80.

Table 80

Repeated-Measures ANOVA Results for Black Sheep Regret Controlling for Time and Team Identification on Performance (PTE) and Moral Trait Evaluations (MTE)

	PTE			*MTE*		
Factor	*F*	*p*	η_p^2	*F*	*p*	η_p^2
Nature of Post-Transgression Behavior	17.00	***	.05	11.49	***	.03
Decision Regret	14.51	***	.04	33.89	***	.09
Nature of Post-Transgression Behavior × Decision Regret	1.71	.19	.01	.30	.58	.001
Covariates						
Time	0.20	.66	.001	0.01	.91	.00
Team Identification	11.46	***	.03	8.92	.003	.03
Type of Post-Transgression Behavior	0.85	.36	.003	0.05	.83	.00

Note. ***$p < .001$.

Post-hoc comparisons on the nature of post-transgression behavior × decision regret interaction term using Games-Howell correction revealed that fans who experienced higher regret related to positive post-transgression behavior provided significantly greater performance ratings than those who underwent both higher and

lower regret associated with negative post-transgression behavior. Additionally, both fans with lower regret related to positive actions and those with higher regret associated with negative behavior offered higher performance evaluations than did fans who experienced lower regret connected to negative post-transgression behavior. For moral trait evaluations, fans who felt higher regret related to positive behavior rated the athlete significantly more favorably than did those with low regret associated with positive behavior and both high and low regret stemming from negative post-transgression behaviors. Finally, fans with higher regret related to negative actions provided significantly lower moral trait evaluations than did those who experienced lower regret from negative behavior. Taking the results of these post-hoc tests into consideration (see Table 81), H_{5b_7} was sufficiently supported.

Table 81

Games-Howell Post-Hoc Tests for Performance (PTE) and Moral Trait Evaluations (MTE) for Black Sheep Regret (BSR)

		1	2	3
Outcome	*Condition*	*MD*	*MD*	*MD*
PTE	1. Positive Behavior – High Regret	-	-	-
	2. Positive Behavior – Low Regret	0.54	-	-
	3. Negative Behavior – High Regret	0.72*	0.18	-
	4. Negative Behavior – Low Regret	1.64***	1.10**	0.92*
MTE	1. Positive Behavior – High Regret	-	-	-
	2. Positive Behavior – Low Regret	1.39***	-	-
	3. Negative Behavior – High Regret	0.93***	-0.46	-
	4. Negative Behavior – Low Regret	1.92***	0.53	-0.98**

Note. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Discussion

Findings and Theoretical Implications

The present study offers insight into the effects of regret on fan perceptions of post-transgression athlete behavior. More specifically, Study 5B demonstrates how varying types of both on-field and off-the-field actions can influence sports fans' decisions to consume certain products, comment and engage in certain behaviors on social media, and ultimately, evaluate deviant athletes. In addition, the current study also introduces and provides empirical evidence to support the utility of BSR, a novel concept to the field of sport management instituted by this research. Consequently, this study provides an application of RT (Bell, 1982; Loomes & Sugden, 1982) into a sports context, thereby testing how regret can drive fans to either support or further derogate an ingroup athlete. This study also extends the BSE by providing a channel between economic and psychological frameworks within a sport management context.

Through the proposition of BSR, we demonstrated how ingroup derogation can be affected by post-transgression behaviors and regret and thus, influence reevaluation and consumer decisions related to the athlete. Given the lack of investigation into the distinction between performance and moral transgressions, this research simultaneously explores both these types of behaviors and experimentally assesses the potency and influence of each type of behavior on fans. In doing so, this project furthers a multidisciplinary application and approach of psychology, economic theory, and sport fan behavior to the field of sport management. Overall, Study 5B along with Study 5A offer contributions to sport management by (a) introducing a novel concept to the field by bridging the gaps between several domains and (b) providing unique insights into the

concurrent use of both naturalistic and experimental methods through the amalgamation of various techniques.

Initial negative action. In terms of the findings from Study 5B, our results illustrated a general support for our hypotheses (i.e., $H_{5b1\text{-}7}$). Regarding behaviors following the initial negative action, sports fans displayed a proclivity to select more team-related merchandise in comparison to player-related products for both choices involving jerseys and those concerning accessories (i.e., wristbands). However, inspection of variances between the types of initial negative action revealed that fans selected more player-related items following negative performance compared to immoral behavior. Thus, these findings suggest that initial poor performance may not override fans' preference for the player. In contrast, immoral behavior may give rise to fans' redirecting their support of the player towards the team itself as a means to curtail negative associations (Boyle & Magnusson, 2007; Fisher & Wakefield, 1998).

Relatedly, fans also exhibited this propensity to remit poor performance in their comments toward the athlete's social media post and simulated behaviors on each outlet. Although fans did not display a tendency to derogate the athlete following exposure to the initial negative actions, there were differences between the types of behaviors presented. Specifically, fans tended to provide harsher comments to the target athlete when he had engaged in immoral behavior rather than inadequate play. This result is reminiscent of tactics utilized in perceptions of moral-related behaviors within the BSE (Marques & Paez, 1994), wherein fans sought to severely derogate the deviant of the ingroup following immoral behavior (Abrams et al., 2008; Cramwinckel et al., 2015). Likewise, the nature of such comments was illustrated behaviorally through

fans' tendencies to stray away from liking, sharing, or utilizing various reactions, albeit in both the negative performance and immoral behavior conditions. However, there was also a decreased likelihood of engaging in such behaviors for fans who were presented immoral behavior by the target athlete. Although each of these behavioral results were predominantly reflected by users of Facebook, these findings may speak to the importance of how immoral behaviors can spur greater changes in social media use compared to simply poor performance.

With respect to trait evaluations following the initial negative action, the results did not indicate any differences in fans' evaluations of performance. However, fans did judge the athlete more harshly on moral traits after the initial exposure to negative behavior. Further analyses on trait ratings revealed that differences in the type of initial negative action persisted. In other words, fans continued to accentuate the immorality of the athlete's actions in comparison to those involving performance by providing higher performance and moral trait evaluations to the poor-performing athlete compared to the immoral behaving one. Thus, findings from the initial trait evaluations and those from the initial product choice and social media analyses provide support for previous research in social psychology on *negativity effects* concerning deleterious, but more prominently immoral, behavior (Anderson & Hubert, 1963). That is, these effects suggest that individuals may place more emphasis on negative rather than positive information when making judgments of others, wherein these trait evaluations are particularly polarized for assessments of moral behaviors (Ellemers, Pagliaro, & Barreto, 2013; Trafimow & Trafimow, 1999).

Post-transgression behavior. Findings from the analyses on post-transgression behavior resembled those found in the tests of the initial negative action. Herein, fans tended to select more player-related items (i.e., both jersey and accessory products), offer more supportive comments on social media, and provide higher evaluations following positive post-transgression behavior in comparison to any ensuing negative actions. In regards to the contrasts performed on each of the post-transgression groups, there was a penchant for supporting athletes who reflected strong performance and positive moral behaviors following each outcome. Concerning product choices, fans were more inclined to select merchandise related to the player following positive performance when set against poor performance or immoral behavior. In relation to research by Bishop (2001), these findings are suggestive of product choices denoting a sense of admiration toward the target athlete. In doing so, fans who tended to select player-related items concomitantly reflected their allegiance to the team and a specified loyalty to the player.

In a similar vein, findings from the comparisons involving social media comments illustrated a tendency to support the athlete following positive performance and derogate the player after immoral behavior. This outcome sustains both models concerning negativity effects and the BSE, seeing as fans embraced positive performance through pleasant comments and dismissed immoral behavior through ingroup extremity. Likewise, results from the analyses of social media behaviors substantiated such effects. Among primarily Facebook users, fans were motivated to utilize the love reaction and like the athlete's page and post following positive performance when contrasted against immoral behavior. The aftermath of these results

may be likened to established literature in behavioral psychology, wherein fans may have been initiating responses inflected by *behavioral equity* (Feldman & Smith, 2014). Simply put, in comparison to immoral behavior, fans could have been stimulated to engage in the justified allocation of increased liking behaviors and appreciative emotive reactions due to assumptions of good-faith following superior performance by the athlete. Thus, positive self-reported commenting on the athlete's social media post may have translated to the fans' inclination to offer such behavioral responses toward the athlete.

Considering the outcomes of the trait evaluation analyses following post-transgression behavior, fans provided the highest performance trait evaluations when the athlete performed positively and offered the highest ratings of moral traits to the athlete following positive moral behavior. These findings are indicative of favorability toward normative behavior in the corresponding domain, in the manner of SGD (Marques et al., 1998a, 1998b). To be precise, when the athlete engaged in normative behavior involving ratings of performance (i.e., superior performance), fans evaluated the athlete's performance-related traits more favorably than in cases involving poor performance, positive moral behavior, and immoral actions, as was also the case in assessments of moral traits following positive moral behavior. Appropriately, in both instances, immoral behavior was rated harshest by fans. In line with research by van der Toorn et al. (2015), individuals engaged in more defensive tactics by treating the immoral actor as a severely deviant member of the ingroup.

Black sheep regret. Based on the results of Study 5B, we found evidence to support the concept of BSR. As indicated by the GEE models for product choice,

stronger levels of regret spurred an increase in player-related selections for only jersey choices. In addition, higher regret stemming from negative post-transgression behavior appeared to diminish product choices related to the athlete for selections involving player jerseys. Although positive post-transgression behavior did increase player-related accessory choices, the contrasts among the groups only indicated a marginally significant decrease in player-related selections following negative actions (i.e., $p = .07$). Thus, even though BSR was shown in the case of jersey choices, it appeared that accessory selections were not significantly affected by the combination of post-transgression behavior and regret.

This marginally significant outcome could be the result of the importance placed on the product itself. That is, previous research by M'Barek and Gharbi (2011) has found that consumers tend to regret the purchase of more expensive products (e.g., jerseys) as opposed to lower priced items (e.g., wristbands). For instance, authentic team and player jerseys, such as those of the San Francisco Giants, can cost upwards of $100 (MLBshop.com, 2017), while team and player wristbands are often priced below $10 (Skootz, 2017). As a result, the difference in the price points may have increased the level of post-purchase consumer regret, specifically regret due to under-consideration, (Lee & Cotte, 2009) felt by the fan following choices involving jerseys. Therefore, the significant change in jersey selection from the initial negative action following positive post-transgression behavior fully supported the function of BSR.

In the context of comments on the athlete's social media post, higher regret from fans' previous comments induced more negative-natured remarks following the initial negative action to the post-transgression behavior, thereby supporting an effect of

process regret and regret due to foregone alternatives in sports fans (Lee & Cotte, 2009). More specifically, fans who experienced lower regret owing to negative post-transgression actions as well as those who felt lower regret from positive behaviors displayed a propensity to comment more harshly on the athlete's post than fans who felt higher regret associated with negative post-transgression behavior. Consequently, these fans did not significantly alter the nature of their comments due to lower regret associated with their previous comments. Although there was no significant effect of higher regret from positive post-transgression behavior to fully support the presence of BSR in this context, these findings do provide some construct validity.

As displayed in Figure 16, the model for BSR hypothesizes that positive post-action behavior would incite regret within fans and increase positive reevaluations, whereas negative post-action behavior would perpetuate the negative evaluations drawn from the initial negative action. Given that regret did not spur significant changes in the nature of the comments, this result may be indicative of an effect related to a sort of *black sheep perpetuance* (BSP). Although we did not find any significant positive reevaluations to sustain the full effects of BSR, our results concerning the potential impact of BSP introduce a potential boundary condition within the model for contexts involving social media, as also found in Study 5A. To be specific, prior literature has illustrated that social media users often have a general reluctance to contradict themselves and create discrepancies on social media (Marder, Joinson, & Shankar, 2012). Following exposure to the experimental conditions, users would have to contradict their initial public derogation of the athlete by providing support following positive post-transgression behavior, which could have potentially generated a sense of

cognitive dissonance in self-presentation (Festinger, 1957, 1964; Marder et al., 2012). As a result, the nonsignificant effect of positively-related regret could be explained by users' apprehension to present a conflicting self-image on social media, hence driving users to perpetuate the black sheep of the ingroup.

Ultimately, findings from the analyses regarding trait evaluations revealed that negative post-transgression behavior drove fans to provide harsher evaluations of the athlete. In addition, higher regret provoked greater changes in the fans' trait assessments of both performance and moral qualities. The results of the planned comparisons sustained these findings, as greater regret associated with positive post-transgression actions enhanced ratings of the athlete's traits in comparison to regret related to negative behaviors. Moreover, such regret from negative post-transgression actions diminished these trait evaluations. Taking these results into consideration, the manifestation of BSR was confirmed within the context of the fans' assessments of the athlete's traits. The findings from this study also provided support for experienced regret (Zeelenberg & Beattie, 1997) such that when presented new information about the athlete, fans who faced greater levels of regret displayed a proclivity to alter their previous evaluations. In doing so, Study 5B extends the domain of RT and literature on regret by offering a novel plane where these phenomena may transpire, as encouraged by previous work (Gilovich & Medvec, 1995).

Practical Contributions

The findings of this experiment have several implications for sport managers, teams, and corporations within the applied sector of the field. Specifically, Study 5B may aid sport managers in employing consumer regret to their advantage. In view of this,

managers may be able to leverage positively-related regret in fans and highlight the post-transgression actions, performance- or moral-related, to promote financial returns (e.g., product choices related to the athlete). For example, following the propagation of Tiger Woods' extramarital affair, while many sponsors fled from the negative publicity, Nike continued to support Woods. When Woods regained his status as the world's number 1 ranked golfer, Nike released an ad campaign highlighting his post-transgression actions, signified by their "Winning takes care of everything" tagline (Martinez, 2013). Although such advertising may have distressed Nike's public image, it may have not upset their bottom line. Rather, Nike may have been able to enhance their sales of golf products due to Woods' credibility and performance as a golfer, as also shown empirically in prior research by Lohneiss and Hill (2014).

Using social media, practitioners may be able to better gauge how the image of a deviant athlete may be affected by various forms of scandal. In doing so, our study may inform the industry on how to better regulate any lasting negative effects related to the athlete's transgression. This may have some importance for both free agency signings or potential sponsorship deals that the athlete could receive. Given that teams and corporations must contend with fan responses to their activities (Cunningham, 2016), the potential hostility in response by fans on social media (e.g., harsh comments on the social media accounts of the team, corporation, and/or athlete) to the signing of a deviant athlete must be ruminated.

For instance, following his involvement in the famed dogfighting scandal, Michael Vick was released from his team at the time (i.e., the Atlanta Falcons) as well as many sponsorship deals, such as those with Nike, Reebok, AirTran Airways, Upper Deck,

Rawlings, and Donruss, as is also presently the case with Ray Rice, who currently has no working endorsement deals (Pasquarelli, 2009; Roberts & Snyder, 2014). Accordingly, the leadership response by teams and corporations often requires some sort of reprimand for wrongdoings, as fans have been found to appreciate strong organizational reactions (Fink et al., 2009). However, in doing so, athletes like Vick and Rice may be unable to regain the multitude of endorsements they had prior to their respective incidents due to concerns over image toxicity (Berr, 2014). Of note, however, Vick was able to reclaim a sponsorship from Nike (Roberts & Snyder, 2014), though terms of the deal are unknown (Peralta, 2011) and almost certainly do not come close to contracts he had in place before the dogfighting scandal.

Unfortunately, athletes involved in such momentous scandals will unremittingly face backlash from sports fans and consumers. For example, even though Nike may have forgiven Vick for his indiscretions, fans and consumers may not be easily swayed. In other words, fans may continue to engage in the possible BSP, which may repel teams and endorsers from reengaging with the athlete. In Vick's case, there have been many petitions seeking to cancel any endorsement deals related to him or prevent his signing with certain teams (e.g., the Pittsburgh Steelers) over detriments to integrity and other moral qualities through organizations such as Change.org (Guske, 2016; Lindell, 2016). Although such online petitions may merely be an effect of *slacktivism* (i.e., political or social activities that have no tangible impact on real-life outcomes, but function as a way to augment the ego of a participant; Kristofferson, White, & Peloza, 2014; Morozov, 2009), these requisitions nevertheless negatively impact the athlete's

image and could potentially inflict damage upon any associated parties (e.g., teams and corporations).

However, it is also possible that athletes can diminish the lasting effects of BSP and convert such attitudes and behaviors by fans to BSR by engaging in actions that operate to mend public perceptions by fans. As a case in point, in 2010, Lebron James notoriously departed the Cleveland Cavaliers for the Miami Heat through a televised event which aired on ESPN, named “The Decision” (Botte & Leonard, 2016). Following this, James experienced a great deal of backlash from Cavaliers’ fans on social media through derogatory comments and depictions of individuals burning his jersey (Associated Press, 2010). Nevertheless, in 2014, James returned to the Cavaliers and following the 2015-16 season secured an NBA championship for the city of Cleveland (Botte & Leonard, 2016). Accordingly, Cavaliers’ fans heralded James as a hero for his efforts on virtually all fronts including social media. Some fans even went as far as to give him a grand welcome outside his home upon his return to Bath Township, Ohio (Joseph, 2016). Consequently, sport managers who do go on to sign such troubled or ostracized athletes may benefit by highlighting positive post-transgression behaviors in order to bring about feelings of regret that motivate consumers to reevaluate their prior judgments, as has been the case with not only Lebron James, but also Ray Lewis, as previously noted (Botte & Leonard, 2016; Busbee, 2013).

Limitations

The evident limitation of our design was our utilization of only fans of professional baseball in Study 5B as our samples of convenience. Although this may allow for a more homogenous sample with reduced error variance, it may have limited the

generalizations of our study to the broader spectrum of fans of different sports. However, by testing across both naturalistic (e.g., in Study 5A with fans of professional football) and experimental settings (e.g., in Study 5B) amongst these fans, we may have been able to constrain some of the boundary conditions imposed by our sampling methods. As a result, the effects of BSR may be reinforced by the compilation of varying research techniques.

Due to contact with merely one athlete as our primary stimuli in Study 5B, we may have potentially encountered difficulties with the potency of the stimuli. In other words, this mere exposure may not have been puissant enough to detract certain fans from their respective comments on social media and/or purchase of team- or player-related products. One possible instance of this may have occurred following the tests of BSR within social media. Although we have rationalized this inconclusive finding as a consequence of discrepancies in public self-presentation (Marder et al., 2012), it could be that some fans may not have been influenced to alter their previous responses. However, given the concentration on a single athlete as opposed to team evaluations and related outcomes as well as the results of our manipulation checks, it appeared that the stimuli operated as envisioned.

An additional limitation to the present study was the discrepancies between the group sizes of the various social media platforms. Within our analyses of social media behaviors, we had a disproportionate number of participants who reported Facebook as their primary social media outlet. Suitably, most of the significant effects obtained from our tests of social media behaviors originated from mainly Facebook users due to the larger sample size. However, it could also be that some participants suffered from lower

digital literacy. According to Marsden (2013), “digital literacy refers to an individual’s ability to recognize when information is needed and to locate, evaluate, and use information via digital technology” (p. 6). As such, Livingstone and Helsper (2007; as cited in Vandoninck, d’Haenens, & Donoso, 2010) have noted that higher levels of digital literacy are indicated by a more complex utilization of such digital technology (e.g., the internet), particularly through content creation or involvement with society through these mediums. In the present study, the lack of familiarity with certain social media platforms may have discouraged certain individuals from reporting other, newer outlets, such as Instagram or Snapchat, as their primary means for social media (Watkins, Hjorth, & Koskinen, 2012).

Despite Facebook’s status as one of the more established social media sites (i.e., founded in 2004; Maranto & Barton, 2010) and most popular one (Duggan et al., 2015), future studies should aim for a balance among users of the different outlets as a means to harmonize results and bolster statistical power. This could be accomplished by selectively sampling an equal number of users of the various social media outlets, such as those used in the current study (i.e., Facebook, Instagram, Snapchat, and Twitter). As such, results from similar tests of social media behaviors using more balanced group sizes may be able to clarify the true reactions to various athlete behaviors by sport fan users.

Conclusions

Overall, Study 5B was conducted to demonstrate the effects of BSR under conditions involving post-transgression athlete behavior. In light of the results, the present research provides robust support of this model and outlines the process by

which this phenomenon can occur. Although we have solely focused on the experimental stimulation of BSR in a baseball context, our results nevertheless provide insight into how athlete behavior along with regret can alter fan responses. The findings revealed that regret from positive post-transgression behavior can incite a change in fans' previous reaction to an initial negative behavior by an athlete. By taking a holistic approach to this concept through the testing of product consumption, social media behaviors, and self-reported trait evaluations, Study 5B elucidates how such regret can interact with athlete behavior to produce BSR within various situations in sports fans.

Taken together, we hope our study has provided a greater understanding of not only the singular effects of the BSE and RT, the keystones behind the current study, but also their coalescence through the introduction and confirmation of BSR. Although complementary research is necessary in order to further validate this construct, our study presents evidence to suggest its occurrence within sports fans. In doing so, we hope to encourage the usage of multidisciplinary approaches in examining how individuals as sports fans and consumers perceive situations surrounding various athletes. With such comprehension, sport scholars and practitioners can better identify how fan responses (e.g., regret) may affect merchandise consumption, social media behaviors, and public perceptions of athletes. To this end, the activity of teams and corporations alike could be enriched by accounting for such findings established within the academic literature.

CHAPTER VII

Conclusion

Summary of Findings and Contributions to Field

Although extant research in sport management has offered useful inquests into athlete behavior, literature on the processes by which fans go about evaluating athletes has been deficient. In addition, the field itself has suffered from an overall lack of empirical study on the potential correlates of fan responses to athlete transgressions. Across five main experimental studies, the current project bridges together several conceptually noteworthy domains of research (i.e., group dynamics, social psychology, sports psychology, behavioral economics, decision-making, and sport management). Although these bodies of study are individually important and relevant to sport management, they have not been collectively applied in a comprehensive investigation of fan behavior. In light of this, the present dissertation contributes to the existing literature in each of these theoretical spheres, while also filling gaps in sport management through an enhanced understanding of the psychological underpinnings and processes of consumption behavior within sports fans.

Study 1. Using subjective group dynamics (SGD; Marques et al., 1998a, 1998b) as its motivating framework, Study 1 examined how violations of performance expectations (e.g., poor performance) could impel fans to utilize ingroup derogation toward a potential, but fabricated, recruit for their identified university football team.

Moreover, we also inspected how team identification could impact this relationship and whether such performance violations could produce threat within fans. The results from our first experiment granted support for the occurrence of ingroup derogation, whereby fans subjected to poor performance offered harsh evaluations of the target athlete's perceived competence and performance-related traits, while also experiencing higher threat. Highly identified fans provided higher competence and trait assessments, but did not report any increased threat. However, highly identified fans who were exposed to poor performance displayed a tendency to diminish performance and competence evaluations and a proclivity to augment one form of identity threat.

Therefore, through this first study, we identified an additional context for the operation of SGD and established preliminary evidence of ingroup derogation in sports fans. In spite of past research showing the prevail of ingroup favoritism among fans (Wann & Grieve, 2005; Wann et al., 2006), Study 1 indicated that fans could be driven to derogate an athlete recruited to their favorite team based on low performance. In addition, our first experiment supports the application of psychological theory to fan behavior research. Through the observation of the identity moderation hypothesis and SGD identification hypothesis (Abrams et al., 2003), we were able to demonstrate the utility of these frameworks in a sports context. Consequently, our research illustrates the efficacy of intermingling two related fields of study.

Study 2. Building upon these notions, Study 2 sought to explore how the black sheep effect (BSE; Marques et al., 1988) would operate amongst sports fans. Through the use of cases of both a fictional ingroup (i.e., from the University of Michigan) and outgroup athlete (i.e., from Old Dominion University), we investigated how not only trait,

competence, and threat assessments could be influenced by performance, but also how these factors could impact fans' intentions to purchase the target athlete's jersey and engage in communicative behaviors on social media. The analyses of this experiment offered evidence to mainly sustain our findings regarding ingroup derogation from Study 1. In addition, fans reduced any intentions to use social media or purchase the athlete's jersey following poor performance. Remarkably though, higher threat was actually correlated with greater social media intentions.

However, these results did not fully support the BSE. Given that the phenomenon implicates an amplified desire to derogate a deviant ingroup member more severely than comparable outgroup members and should translate behaviorally, we found that fans tended to equate the deviant ingroup athlete to a similar behaving outgroup one. That is, fans exhibited a bias towards higher performance (i.e., normative behavior), in line with notions expressed by SGD (Marques et al., 1998b). In examining any moderating effects of team identification a la the identity moderation hypothesis, team identification generally heightened differences among the performance groups, wherein more highly identified fans displayed an inclination to more favorably evaluate the high-performing athlete, regardless of group membership. Additionally, these fans also displayed a greater intention to share information on social media and an increased desire to purchase the high-performing athlete's jersey. Ultimately, such fans also directed less threat toward athletes reflecting high performance.

Reminiscent of Study 1, the findings from our second experiment sustained the effects of SGD within sports. Although the BSE was not completely reproduced in this context, the results did provide a stronger inquiry into this concept through the

consideration of team identification as a factor and the use of more robust, validated stimuli. Furthermore, this study affirms the notion of a common ingroup identity (Gaertner et al., 1993) in the case of outgroup teams that do not threaten fans of the ingroup (e.g., the juxtaposition between a university with a longstanding track record of elite performance in sports [the University of Michigan] and one with no such history [Old Dominion University]). Nevertheless, when fans did experience threat, Study 2 revealed that individuals displayed a stronger desire to utilize social media. These increased intentions add to the literature on social media as a potential coping mechanism for individuals experiencing personal crises or threats to the identity (Bronstein & Knoll, 2015). All in all, this second study offers an extension to not only group dynamics literature through the contextual depiction of how the BSE may operate in fans, but also the emergent research on social media use by elaborating how fans under threat seek out such outlets.

Study 3. In order to expand this approach, Study 3 inspected the effects of outgroup and member saliency within sports, which may take the form of rival teams and varying statuses of athletes, respectively. Specifically, this study developed a conceptual model to examine how these variables could give rise to SGD or the BSE and thereby, affect the evaluation, threat, social media, and purchase outcomes described in Study 2. In addition, the relationships between these dependent outcomes were inspected through the formulated model. We also investigated how direct team-related product choices and how commenting behaviors on social media could be impacted by these factors.

The results of Study 3 indicated that fans tended to display ingroup biases, while treating the non-rival and rival outgroup athlete similarly in their evaluations. Akin to Study 2, fans tended to more favorably judge and offer more positive social media comments to high-performing athletes than low-performing ones and ingroup athletes compared to outgroup players. However, fans also exhibited a general penchant to avoid rival athletes on social media during situations where higher threat was experienced and those in which the fan allocated higher performance evaluations to the rival athlete. Nevertheless, higher perceptions of rivalry between the teams increased negative social media intentions. With respect to product choices, team identification guided this outcome, wherein higher team identification led to more team-licensed merchandise selections.

To our knowledge, Study 3 is the first attempt to survey the effects of varying types of group saliency by appraising how fans concurrently evaluate athletes from the ingroup (i.e., the University of Michigan), rival outgroup (i.e., Ohio State University), and non-rival outgroup teams (i.e., the University of Oregon). In addition, this experiment also simultaneously observed member saliency through player status by assessing the effects of performance by an elite and low-profile athlete. Furthermore, Study 3 also provides one of the first concomitant examinations of the social media behaviors within sport management for users of three leading social media sites in the United States today, those being: Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter (Experian, 2016). The present work also diversifies existing methods within the field by implementing more practical measures of social media by allowing fans to provide comments to social media posts by athletes, measures that have received scant attention in sport management. As with

Studies 1 and 2 which supported SGD in sports, this experiment also verifies research on the appeal of licensed product choices over utilitarian ones and the influence of team identification on such selections in fans (Apostolopoulou et al., 2010, 2012). Thus, Study 3 offers a holistic approach to the study of fan behavior by exploring how the origin and credibility of the athlete can affect both cognitive and behavioral outcomes.

Study 4. By and large, the actions of athletes are not unidimensional. That is, athletes are evaluated both on-field through their performances during sporting events and off-the-field through their behaviors in society. Given this occurrence, Study 4 intended to delve further into the process of evaluation by fans. To accomplish this, we employed supplementary features of the BSE and existing literature on athlete behavior by including an examination of moral- as well as performance-related actions by athletes. Furthermore, we also incorporated how fans would process these various behaviors by exploring how moral reasoning strategies (i.e., moral rationalization, moral decoupling, and moral coupling; Bhattacharjee et al., 2013; Bowman & Menzel, 1998; Eriksson, 2014; Keefer, 1993; Lee & Kwak, 2015a; Stahl, 1976) would influence the function of fan group dynamics in terms of evaluations, product choices, and social media reactions. Most importantly, seeing as our first three experiments utilized fictitious cases of athletes, Study 4 sought to examine actual athletes from the target and rival universities (i.e., Rashan Gary of the University of Michigan and Nick Bosa of Ohio State University), thereby increasing its ecological validity.

Findings from our fourth experiment illustrated a bias against the outgroup athlete and negative-natured behaviors in fans' social media comments. In particular, rival athletes and negative behaving players garnered more disparaging comments.

Further analysis showed that moral behaviors by rival athletes received harsher comments in general. However, in this study, product choices did not seem to be affected by any factor, including team identification. Similar to Study 3, fans also showed signs of an ingroup bias and preferences for positive-natured behaviors in their evaluations of the athlete, with team identification further strengthening these predilections. Regarding moral reasoning strategies, it appeared that only moral rationalization affected evaluations by increasing fans' assessments of the athlete. In contrast, moral coupling and moral decoupling played much weaker and generally nonsignificant roles in these relationships. Ultimately, an augmented perception of rivalry between the teams lowered fans' evaluations of the rival athlete. For negative behaving rival athletes, higher feelings of rivalry further diminished all forms of trait assessments.

The results from Study 4 contribute to a greater understanding of moral-related behaviors by athletes, revealing that fans may engage in a pseudo-BSE by equating moral deviants from the ingroup to those of the outgroup. In doing so, fans will derogate the moral deviant to the same degree, regardless of group membership, as was the case in Study 2 in the context of poor performance. In addition, whereas Study 3 did not substantiate the influence of rivalry, our fourth experiment corroborated such effects through evaluations of outgroup athletes, particularly those engaging in negative behaviors. Moreover, Study 4 also exposed an inclination toward utilizing moral rationalization over moral coupling and moral decoupling in fans' evaluation of the athlete. Considering this finding, fans could have been more oriented toward using rationalization strategies as opposed to (de)coupling schemes in these circumstances.

With respect to communication on social media, the results of Study 4 provided contributions toward a general avoidance for outgroup athletes on such outlets. However, this study also illustrated that fans who did seek out contact with outgroup athletes disparaged the player by commenting harshly or engaging in negative social media behaviors. Taken together, Study 4 furthered the literature on social media reactions and the impact of rivalry on perceptions of outgroup athletes (Havard & Eddy, 2013; Havard et al., 2013). Overall, Study 4 identified the function of moral-related behaviors within SGD and the use of moral reasoning strategies by fans. Consequently, we pinpointed factors that may influence responses to the outgroup, while also underscoring the importance and value that fans place on the ingroup.

Studies 5A and 5B. Through our first four studies, we established that SGD and the BSE were complimentary processes operating within fans that could function interdependently following exposure to various types of athlete behavior. As such, in the final segment of this dissertation, we designed a bipartite experiment to assess the unique effects of regret on ingroup athlete evaluations. By utilizing both an initial negative action and ensuing post-transgression behavior by an athlete, Studies 5A and 5B sought to analyze how various sequences of actions could affect the initial and succeeding processes of trait evaluations, product choices, and social media behaviors. Through this series of studies, we formulated a novel concept for the field of sport management (i.e., black sheep regret [BSR]). Through a naturalistic experiment in Study 5A using Ray Rice as our case study, we demonstrated that fans do react harshly to unscrupulous acts by athletes, but will offer more constructive feedback following positive post-transgression behavior. However, there was no significant change in the

response from the initial negative action to the novel positive behavior. As a result, Study 5A did not support the utility of BSR on social media.

To remedy these inconclusive findings, Study 5B utilized a controlled, experimental setting to illustrate the occurrence of BSR within fans. Using fictitious articles about an actual target athlete (i.e., Christian Arroyo of the San Francisco Giants minor league affiliate), our final experiment conceded sound support of BSR. Herein, while the initial negative action spurred harsh responses from fans in terms of their evaluations, product choices, and social media behaviors, positive post-transgression behavior meaningfully altered the negative response to the athlete. In doing so, higher regret from such positive actions gave rise to changes in the fans' assessment of the athlete's traits and also increased player-related jersey selections. Taken as a whole, BSR was corroborated by findings from the analyses for trait evaluations and product choices. Although the initial harsh social media behaviors were not amended by novel information about the athlete, this finding delivered a potential black sheep perpetuance (BSP) of deviant athletes on public platforms (e.g., social media sites). Thus, results for the social media behaviors from Studies 5A and 5B illustrated that fans may have an affinity for maintaining a consistent self-image on such outlets by engaging in BSP (Marder et al., 2012), thereby introducing yet another relevant phenomenon to sport management that may occur within fans.

These final pieces of the current dissertation provide fresh insights into how fans may initially respond to negative behavior by an athlete and subsequently perceive novel post-transgression behavior. Although Study 5A did not concede support for BSR, the latter half of our fifth study provided confirmation of its presence in an experimental

setting. As a result, Study 5B serves as the first effort of studying the concept of regret theory (Bell, 1982; Loomes & Sugden, 1982) in sports fans from evaluative, consumptive, and social media perspectives. Regarding such social media behaviors, Study 5B expands the approach of Study 3 by exploring not only the activities of Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter users, but also one of the most rapidly rising social media outlets through an investigation of Snapchat users. Furthermore, the present research also offers an extended application of post-purchase consumer regret (PPCR; Lee & Cotte, 2009) to sports-based product choices and athlete-directed commenting on social media by fans. Such findings regarding BSR as well as BSP have significant ramifications for not only sports scholars, but also theorists from other fields (e.g., psychology, decision-making, and the like). That is, initially deviant parties who go on to engage in more positive behavior could influence the evaluative judgments, choice behavior, and social media activity for followers of a specific domain, lending multiple directions for future research based upon a plethora of contexts (e.g., business research, corporate marketing, political situations, and so on). For an illustrative summation of the findings from this dissertation, see Figure 17.

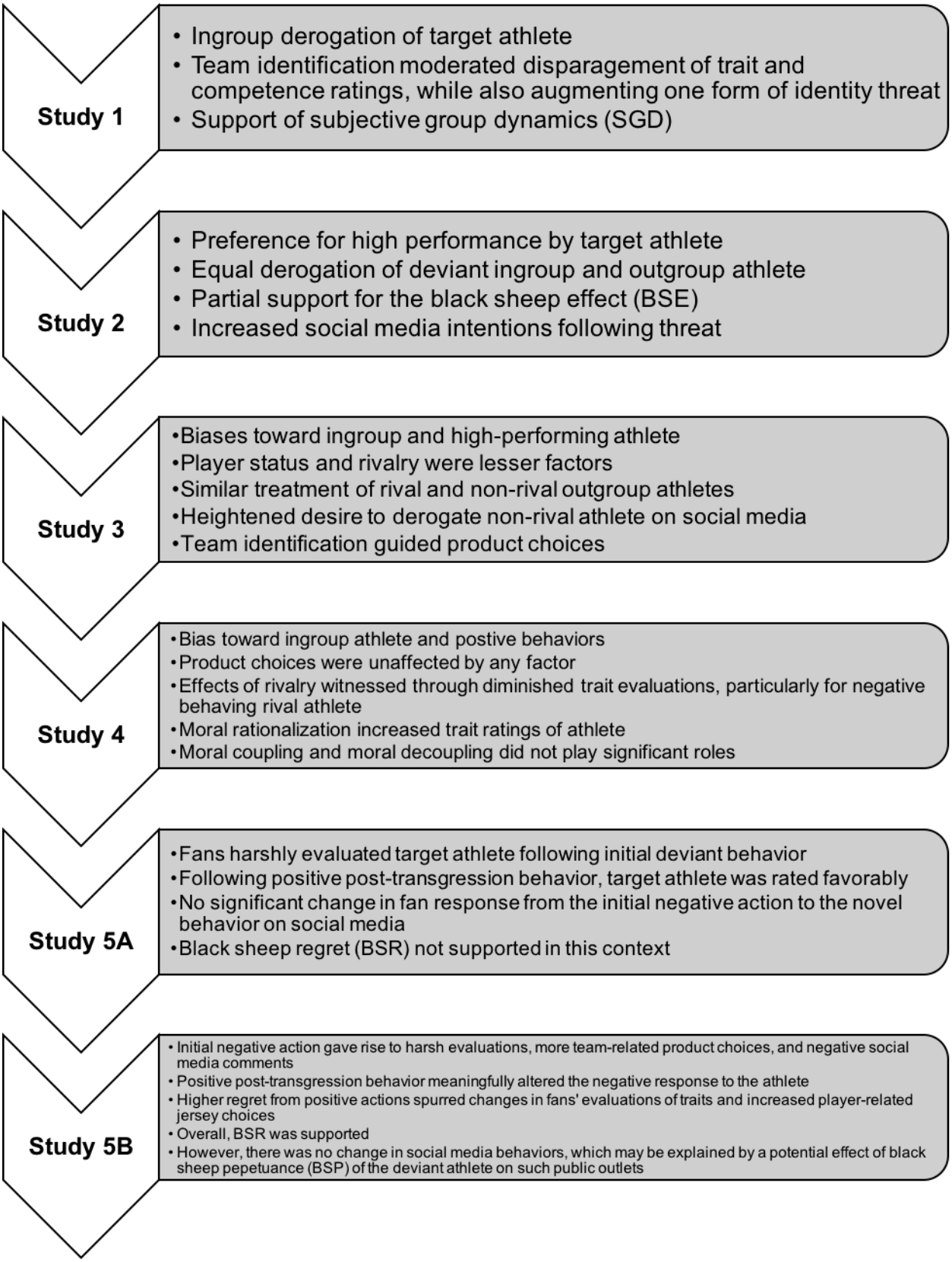


Figure 17. Summary of dissertation findings.

Major Limitations and Future Directions for Research

Despite the useful contributions of this project to the field of sport management, the reported studies do have some overarching limitations. Although we have independently discussed some limitations of each of the conducted studies, one major limitation to this dissertation was the use of athletes from only team sports. Within each of the studies, we selected to utilize athlete cases from sports such as football and baseball. Although all stimuli functioned as intended (see manipulation checks from Studies 1 through 5B), the current project could have been strengthened by the inclusion of athletes from individual-level sports (e.g., tennis, track and field, golf). Considering this, it may be worthwhile for future research to investigate the variations in fan evaluations of deviant athletes between followers of team- and individual-level sports.

As Wann, Grieve, Zapalac, and Pease (2008) noted, there are a number of sport type differences that exist between spectators of team and individual sports. Through a categorical analysis of 13 different sports, the authors established a classification scheme based on several dichotomies, those being: *individual* (e.g., figure skating or golf) versus *team* (e.g., professional baseball, football, or basketball), *aggressive* (e.g., wrestling or football) versus *nonaggressive* (e.g., baseball or figure skating), and *stylistic* (e.g., gymnastics) versus *nonstylistic* sports (e.g., professional hockey). Particularly, these disparities between these domains originated from the fans' motivation to consume and follow each sport. On one hand, Wann et al. found that aesthetic reasons to follow a sport were pronounced amongst fans of individual sports. On the other hand, fans of team sports were driven by eustress, self-esteem, group affiliation,

entertainment, and family motives. Given these differences between sports established by prior research (Wann, Schrader, & Wilson, 1999; Wann et al., 2008), future investigations should concurrently examine how fan responses to athlete transgressions differ between sports. In doing so, such research could further determine the conditions by which fans would go on to engage in more supportive tactics via SGD or derogatory behaviors (e.g., the BSE) based on the nature of the sport.

Furthermore, this dissertation simply focused on fans of male athletes from two of the major American sports. However, there still exists a wider spectrum of fans of both genders. Specifically, fans of women's sports may differ in terms of their level of support of a deviant athlete when compared to fans of men's sports. As previous research has shown, there is a lack of gender equity in media coverage and fan support via event attendance between male and female sports (Lagaert & Roose, 2016; Schmidt, 2016). For instance, analysis from journalism research has found that sports articles from *The New York Times* focused on men's sports and male athletes approximately 86.7 percent of the time, while women's sports and female athletes received only about 5.2 percent of the spotlight (Schmidt, 2016).

More precisely, Pradhan (2016) has noted that deviant behavior (e.g., doping by athletes) may fluctuate based on not only gender, but also race, among other factors, through a process known as *system justification* (i.e., the motivational tendency to uphold status quos or stereotypes in society; Jost & Banaji, 1994). Accordingly, future research could explore how the BSE or BSR may function when gender or race of the athlete is utilized as a factor. We may expect that fans may utilize system-justifying behaviors when making their initial evaluations, product choices, or social media

behaviors as well as their follow-up assessments about an athlete. In addition, race may influence fans to provide harsher criticisms based on stereotypes, such as the notions surrounding African American athletes who are often perceived as being more athletic than athletes of other races (Azzarito & Harrison, 2008), for example.

In fact, society has satirized such beliefs about athleticism and race through films like *White Men Can't Jump*, which uses the sport of basketball to highlight how society allows stereotypes to often deceive individuals. Likewise, some fans tend to engage in such race-based stereotyping by inequitably pardoning certain athletes for engaging in doping. This process is justified by the reasoning for the transgressed athlete to keep pace with unrivaled, superior competition (e.g., rationalizing Russian women's tennis star Maria Sharapova's use of meldonium to further challenge and remain even with African American icon Serena Williams; Esco, 2016). Consequently, future research could utilize this domain of study in order to determine how concepts studied in this dissertation (e.g., SGD, the BSE, BSR, and/or BSP) may operate through stereotypes. Such empirical inquiry into these matters would extend theory by integrating multiple epistemological frameworks (i.e., social psychology, sport management, and stereotyping research), while also exposing certain societal perceptions of commonly stereotyped groups using the unique context of sports.

Final Points

Sports are an ever-present and perpetually growing phenomenon in society today. Case in point, PricewaterhouseCoopers (2016) has projected that the North American sports industry will reach a market value of $75.7 billion by the year 2020, an estimated compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of approximately four percent from the

year 2015. In view of such expected financial maturity, greater examination is needed in order to uncover the various influencers of sport fan consumer behavior. By accomplishing this, research could more accurately understand the processes by which sport consumers go about evaluating athletes from their favorite, outgroup, and rival teams, instances which each affect theory and practice. In fact, athletes are often cognizant of such evaluations by fans. As noted by Warriors' forward, Andre Iguodala, "if we didn't play [...], [the fans] wouldn't give a damn about who we were as people. No one would invest any time in us [and] who we are. But I guess we give them an outlet or an escape from their lives. They're emotionally attached to us. But when we do things that aren't in their best interest, there's an action and a reaction" (Haynes, 2017). In light of such recognition by even athletes and given the expansive collection of fan behaviors, inquiry into supplementary reactions, such as those involving purchase intentions, product choices, social media behaviors, and other outcomes, seems assiduous.

Research in itself is a never-ending inquisition into human behavior. Put simply by Yogi Berra in 1973 (as cited in Berra, 1998, p. 130), "it ain't over till it's over." Although Berra was referring to the MLB's National League pennant when he uttered yet another of his renowned Yogisms, this sentiment can be applied to fan behavior research. In the present context, as sports begin to evolve and adapt to changing times, researchers will need to keep abreast to not only continue developing theory, but to also inform leaders in the industry. As sport scholars begin to invoke techniques from various bodies of knowledge (e.g., psychology, group dynamics, economics, sociology), the analysis of fan behavior will be enriched by applying the diverse perspectives inherent

to these fields. In doing so, the academic world may be able to play a larger part in the initiatives of direct actors in the sport industry (e.g., teams and corporations).

As an example, the current dissertation has offered findings that could inform theorists and practitioners on the reactions of fans to deviant athletes, or black sheep of teams. More specifically, we provide novel results into how team identification, group membership, rivalry, the nature and types of various behaviors, and regret among other factors can affect sport consumer behaviors. Through each of our studies, our findings culminate to the conception and corroboration of BSR to explain the sequential process of fans' evaluations based on various cycles of athlete behavior. By drawing upon both psychological and economic theory in sport management, this project encourages the usage of concepts from different fields of study to generate more rigorous and impactful thinking in not only fan behavior research, but also within science itself. Notwithstanding, we hope this project will encourage researchers to apply multidisciplinary applications to "observe a lot [more] by [just] watching" human behavior through different scholarly lenses.

REFERENCES

Abdi, H. (2010). Holm's sequential Bonferroni procedure. In N. Salkind (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of research design* (pp. 574-578). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Abendroth, L. J., & Diehl, K. (2006). Now or never: Effects of limited purchase opportunities on patterns of regret over time. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *33*(3), 342-351.

Abrams, D., & Rutland, A. (2008). The development of subjective group dynamics. In S.R. Levy & M. Killen (Eds.), *Intergroup attitudes and relations in childhood through adulthood* (pp. 47-65). New York, NY: Oxford University Press

Abrams, D., Marques, J. M., Bown, N., & Henson, M. (2000). Pro-norm and anti-norm deviance within and between groups. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *78*(5), 906-912.

Abrams, D., Rutland, A., & Cameron, L. (2003). The development of subjective group dynamics: Children's judgments of normative and deviant in-group and out-group individuals. *Child Development*, *74*(6), 1840-1856.

Abrams, D., Rutland, A., Ferrell, J. M., & Pelletier, J. (2008). Children's judgments of disloyal and immoral peer behavior: Subjective group dynamics in minimal intergroup contexts. *Child Development*, *79*(2), 444-461.

Ahn, T., Suh, Y., Lee, J., & Pedersen, P. M. (2012). Sport fans and their teams' redesigned logos: An examination of the moderating effect of team identification on attitude and purchase intention of team-logoed merchandise. *Journal of Sport Management*, *26*, 11-23.

Aiken, K. D., Campbell, R., & Park, R. (2005). An empirical examination of unusual fan behaviors: Basking in reflected failure and cutting off reflected success. In B.A. Walker & M.B. Houston (Eds.), *American Marketing Association Educators Proceedings* (pp. 116-122). Chicago, IL: American Marketing Association.

Aiken, L.S., & West, S.G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Alards-Tomalin, D., Ansons, T. L., Reich, T. C., Sakamoto, Y., Davie, R., Leboe-McGowan, J. P., & Leboe-McGowan, L. C. (2014). Airport security measures and their influence on enplanement intentions: Responses from leisure travelers attending a Canadian University. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, *37*, 60-68.

Alexiev, A. S., Volberda, H. W., & van den Bosch, F. A. (2015). Interorganizational collaboration and firm innovativeness: Unpacking the role of the organizational environment. *Journal of Business Research*, *69*(2), 974-984.

Alter, C. (2015, May). The Tom Brady suspension shows the NFL plays in its own warped moral universe. *Time*. Retrieved from http://time.com/3854871/brady-deflategate/

Anderson, N. H., & Hubert, S. (1963). Effects of concomitant verbal recall on order effects in personality impression formation. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, *2*(5-6), 379-391.

Apostolopoulou, A., Papadimitriou, D., & Damtsiou, V. (2010). Meanings and functions in Olympic consumption: A study of the Athens 2004 Olympic licensed products. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, *10*(4), 485-507.

Apostolopoulou, A., Papadimitriou, D., Synowka, D., & Clark, J. S. (2012). Consumption and meanings of team licensed merchandise. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing*, *12*(1-2), 93-110.

Aquino, K., & Reed, A. (2002). The self-importance of moral identity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *83*(6), 1423-1440.

Aquino, K., Reed, A., Thau, S., & Freeman, D. (2007). A grotesque and dark beauty: How moral identity and mechanisms of moral disengagement influence cognitive and emotional reactions to war. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *43*(3), 385-392.

Arai, A., Ko, Y. J., & Ross, S. (2014). Branding athletes: Exploration and conceptualization of athlete brand image. *Sport Management Review*, *17*(2), 97-106.

Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, *14*(1), 20-39.

Associated Press. (2010, July). Cavs fans upset with decision. *ESPN*. Retrieved from http://www.espn.com/nba/news/story?id=5365516

Associated Press. (2016, June). Ben Affleck stands by expletive-filled 'Deflategate' rant. Retrieved from http://pro32.ap.org/article/ben-affleck-stands-expletive-filled-deflategate-rant

Azzarito, L., & Harrison, L. (2008). "White Men Can't Jump": Race, gender and natural athleticism. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, *43*(4), 347-364.

Babiak, K., Mills, B., Tainsky, S., & Juravich, M. (2012). An investigation into professional athlete philanthropy: Why charity is part of the game. *Journal of Sport Management*, *26*(2), 159-176.

Bandura, A. (1991). Social cognitive theory of moral thought and action. In W.M. Kurtines & J.L. Gewirtz (Eds.), *Handbook of moral behavior and development* (Vol. 1, pp. 45-103). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Bandura, A. (1999). Moral disengagement in the perpetration of inhumanities. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *3*(3), 193-209.

Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (1996). Mechanisms of moral disengagement in the exercise of moral agency. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *71*(2), 364-374.

Barchia, K., & Bussey, K. (2011). Individual and collective social cognitive influences on peer aggression: Exploring the contribution of aggression efficacy, moral disengagement, and collective efficacy. *Aggressive Behavior*, *37*(2), 107-120.

Bartko, J. J. (1994). Measures of agreement: A single procedure. *Statistics in Medicine*, *13*(5-7), 737-745.

Batra, R., & Ahtola, O. T. (1991). Measuring the hedonic and utilitarian sources of consumer attitudes. *Marketing Letters*, *2*(2), 159-170.

Baucus, M. S., & Beck-Dudley, C. L. (2005). Designing ethical organizations: Avoiding the long-term negative effects of rewards and punishments. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *56*(4), 355-370.

Baum, J. R., Locke, E. A., & Smith, K. G. (2001). A multidimensional model of venture growth. *Academy of Management Journal*, *44*(2), 292-303.

Beentjes, J. W., van Oordt, M., & van der Voort, T. H. (2002). How television commentary affects children's judgments on soccer fouls. *Communication Research*, *29*(1), 31-45.

Begue, L. (2001). Social judgment of abortion: A black-sheep effect in a Catholic sheepfold. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *141*(5), 640-649.

Behrend, T. S., Sharek, D. J., Meade, A. W., & Wiebe, E. N. (2011). The viability of crowdsourcing for survey research. *Behavior Research Methods*, *43*(3), 800-813.

Bell, D. E. (1982). Regret in decision-making under uncertainty. *Operations Research*, *30*(5), 961-981.

Bell, D. E. (1985). Disappointment in decision-making under uncertainty. *Operations Research*, *33*(1), 1-27.

Belson, K. (2015, November). Domestic violence is a recurring quandary for the N.F.L. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from https://www.nytimes.com/2015/11/11/sports/football/domestic-violence-is-a-recurring-quandary-for-the-nfl.html

Bender, R., & Grouven, U. (1998). Using binary logistic regression models for ordinal data with non-proportional odds. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*, *51*(10), 809-816.

Benoit, W. L., & Hanczor, R. S. (1994). The Tonya Harding controversy: An analysis of image restoration strategies. *Communication Quarterly*, *42*(4), 416-433.

Berr, J. (2014, September). Ray Rice is out of the endorsement game, too. *CBS MoneyWatch*. Retrieved from http://www.cbsnews.com/news/ray-rices-career-as-a-product-endorser-is-probably-over/

Berra, Y. (1998). *The Yogi Book*. New York, NY: Workman Publishing.

Berra, Y. (2009). *You can observe a lot by watching: What I've learned about teamwork from the Yankees and life.* New York, NY: Wiley.

Bhattacharjee, A., Berman, J. Z., & Reed, A. (2013). Tip of the hat, wag of the finger: How moral decoupling enables consumers to admire and admonish. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *39*(6), 1167-1184.

Biernat, M., Vescio, T. K., & Billings, L. S. (1999). Black sheep and expectancy violation: Integrating two models of social judgment. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *29*(4), 523-542.

Bishop, R. (2001). Stealing the signs: A semiotic analysis of the changing nature of professional sports logos. *Social Semiotics*, *11*(1), 23-41.

Bjälkebring, P., Västfjäll, D., Svenson, O., & Slovic, P. (2016). Regulation of experienced and anticipated regret in daily decision-making. *Emotion*, *16*(3), 381-386.

Bleichrodt, H., & Wakker, P. P. (2015). Regret theory: A bold alternative to the alternatives. *The Economic Journal*, *125*(583), 493-532.

Boardley, I. D., & Kavussanu, M. (2011). Moral disengagement in sport. *International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, *4*(2), 93-108.

Bonesteel, M. (2015, December). Michael Vick is now an animal-rights activist. *Washington Post*. Retrieved from https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/early-lead/wp/2015/12/07/michael-vick-is-now-an-animal-rights-activist/?utm_term=.cca63c7784ac

Botte, P., & Leonard, P. (2016, July). Kevin Durant's move to leave Thunder for Warriors is worse than LeBron James' 'Decision': That's debatable. *New York Daily News*. Retrieved from http://www.nydailynews.com/sports/basketball/worse-durant-chapter-lebron-decision-article-1.2702517

Bowen, M., & Stumpf, T. (2015). *Do scandals affect YOU as an athletic sportswear consumer?* (Master's thesis). Lund University, Lund, Sweden. Retrieved from http://lup.lub.lu.se/luur/download?func=downloadFile&recordOId=5472982&fileOId=5473022

Bowman, J. S., & Menzel, D. C. (1998). *Teaching ethics and values in public administration programs: Innovations, strategies, and issues*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Boxill, J. (2003). The moral significance of sport. In J. Boxill (Ed.), *Sport ethics: An anthology* (pp. 1-12). Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishing.

Boyan, A. (2014, November). *Social exchange processing in a sports context: Implications for sports commentary research*. Paper presented at Annual Meeting of the National Communication Association, Chicago, IL.

Boyle, B. A., & Magnusson, P. (2007). Social identity and brand equity formation: A comparative study of collegiate sports fans. *Journal of Sport Management*, *21*(4), 497-520.

Brady, J. (2016, March). Lack of transparency on Deflategate made journalism tougher to judge. *ESPN*. Retrieved from http://espn.go.com/blog/ombudsman/post/_/id/624/on-deflategate-espn-air-balls-on-transparency

Braithwaite, S. R., Mitchell, C. M., Selby, E. A., & Fincham, F. D. (2016). Trait forgiveness and enduring vulnerabilities: Neuroticism and catastrophizing influence relationship satisfaction via less forgiveness. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *94*, 237-246.

Brand, R., & Koch, H. (2016). Using caffeine pills for performance enhancement. An experimental study on university students' willingness and their intention to try neuroenhancements. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *7*, 1-11.

Branscombe, N. R., & Wann, D. L. (1991). The positive social and self concept consequences of sports team identification. *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, *15*(2), 115-127.

Branscombe, N. R., Ellemers, N., Spears, R. & Doosje, B. (1999). The context and content of social identity threat. In N. Ellemers, R. Spears, & B. Doosje (Eds.), *Social identity: Context, commitment, content* (pp. 35-58). Oxford, UK: Blackwell Science.

Branscombe, N. R., Wann, D. L., Noel, J. G., & Coleman, J. (1993). In-group or out-group extremity: Importance of the threatened social identity. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *19*(4), 381-388.

Brazeal, L. M. (2008). The image repair strategies of Terrell Owens. *Public Relations Review*, *34*(2), 145-150.

Bredemeier, B. (1994). Children's moral reasoning and their assertive, aggressive, and submissive tendencies in sport and daily life. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, *16*(1), 1-14.

Bredemeier, B. J. & Shields, D. L. (1986). Moral growth among athletes and nonathletes: A comparative analysis. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, *147*(1), 7-18.

Bredemeier, B. J., Shields, D. L., & Horn, J. C. (1985). Values and violence in sports today: The moral reasoning athletes use in their games and in their lives. *Psychology Today*, *19*(10), 22-32.

Bredemeier, B. J., Weiss, M. R., Shields, D. L., & Cooper, B. (1986). The relationship of sport involvement with children's moral reasoning and aggression tendencies. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, *8*(4), 304-318.

Bredemeier, B.J., & Shields, D.L. (1994). Applied ethics and moral reasoning in sport. In J. R. Rest & D. Narvaez (Eds.), *Moral development in the professions: Psychology and applied ethics* (pp. 173-188). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Brehaut, J. C., O'Connor, A. M., Wood, T. J., Hack, T. F., Siminoff, L., Gordon, E., & Feldman-Stewart, D. (2003). Validation of a decision regret scale. *Medical Decision-making*, *23*(4), 281-292.

Bretland, E. (2016, March). Bayern Munich apologise for Twitter graphic perceived as referencing Auschwitz ahead of Champions League clash with Juventus. *Mail Online*. Retrieved from http://www.dailymail.co.uk/sport/sportsnews/article-3495582/Bayern-Munich-apologise-Twitter-graphic-perceived-referencing-Auschwitz-ahead-Champions-League-clash-Juventus.html

Brewer, M. B. (1999). The psychology of prejudice: Ingroup love and outgroup hate? *Journal of Social Issues*, *55*(3), 429-444.

Brewer, M. B. (2001). Ingroup identification and intergroup conflict: When does ingroup love become outgroup hate? In R. D. Ashmore, L. Jussim, & D. Wilder (Eds.), *Social identity, intergroup conflict, and conflict reduction* (Vol. 3, pp. 17-41). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Bristow, D. N., & Sebastian, R. J. (2001). Holy cow! Wait 'til next year! A closer look at the brand loyalty of Chicago Cubs baseball fans. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *18*(3), 256-275.

Broersma, M., & Graham, T. (2013). Twitter as a news source: How Dutch and British newspapers used tweets in their news coverage, 2007–2011. *Journalism Practice*, *7*(4), 446-464.

Bronstein, J., & Knoll, M. (2015). Blogging motivations of women suffering from infertility. *Information Research*, *20*(2), 1-14.

Brooker, M. G., & Dolling, C. H. S. (1969). Pigmentation of sheep. III. Piebald pattern in Merinos. *Crop and Pasture Science*, *20*(3), 523-532.

Brown, A. (2008). 'Our club, our rules': Fan communities at FC United of Manchester. *Soccer & Society*, *9*(3), 346-358.

Brown, J. R., & Dant, R. P. (2014). The role of e-commerce in multi-channel marketing strategy. In F.J. Martinez-Lopez (Ed.), *Handbook of strategic e-business management* (pp. 467-487). Heidelberg, DE: Springer Berlin Heidelberg.

Brown, M. J., & Groscup, J. (2009). Perceptions of same-sex domestic violence among crisis center staff. *Journal of Family Violence*, *24*(2), 87-93.

Brown, N. A., & Billings, A. C. (2013). Sports fans as crisis communicators on social media websites. *Public Relations Review*, *39*(1), 74-81.

Brown, N. A., Brown, K. A., & Billings, A. C. (2015). "May no act of ours bring shame:" Fan-enacted crisis communication surrounding the Penn State sex abuse scandal. *Communication & Sport*, *3*(3), 288-311.

Brown, R., Vivian, J., & Hewstone, M. (1999). Changing attitudes through intergroup contact: The effects of group membership salience. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *29*(56), 741-764.

Buckland, S. T. (1983). Monte Carlo methods for confidence interval estimation using the bootstrap technique. *Journal of Applied Statistics*, *10*(2), 194-212.

Buhrmester, M., Kwang, T., & Gosling, S. D. (2011). Amazon's Mechanical Turk a new source of inexpensive, yet high-quality, data? *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *6*(1), 3-5.

Busbee, J. (2013, January). How did Ray Lewis go from murder suspect in 2000 to NFL royalty in 2013? *Yahoo! Sports*. Retrieved from http://sports.yahoo.com/news/nfl--how-did-ray-lewis-go-from-murder-suspect-to-nfl-royalty--201947666.html

Byrne, B. M. (2013). *Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Campbell, R., Aiken, D., & Kent, A. (2004). Beyond BIRGing and CORFing: Continuing the exploration of fan behavior. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *13*(3), 151-157.

Carlson, B. D., & Donavan, T. D. (2013). Human brands in sport: Athlete brand personality and identification. *Journal of Sport Management*, *27*(3), 193-206.

Carmines, E. G., & Mciver, J. P. (1981). Analyzing models with unobserved variables: Analysis of covariance structures. In G.W. Bohinstedt & E.F. Borgatta (Eds.), *Social measurement: Current issues* (pp. 65-115), Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Cascardi, M., Avery-Leaf, S., O'Leary, K. D., & Slep, A. M. S. (1999). Factor structure and convergent validity of the Conflict Tactics Scale in high school students. *Psychological Assessment*, *11*(4), 546-555.

Castano, E., Yzerbyt, V., Bourguignon, D., & Seron, E. (2002). Who may enter? The impact of in-group identification on in-group/out-group categorization. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *38*(3), 315-322.

Castano, E., Yzerbyt, V., Paladino, M. P., & Sacchi, S. (2002). I belong, therefore, I exist: Ingroup identification, ingroup entitativity, and ingroup bias. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *28*(2), 135-143.

Chadwick, S. (2009). From outside lane to inside track: Sport management research in the twenty-first century. *Management Decision*, *47*(1), 191-203.

Chen, F. F., Sousa, K. H., & West, S. G. (2005). Teacher's corner: Testing measurement invariance of second-order factor models. *Structural Equation Modeling*, *12*(3), 471-492.

Cheung, C. M., & Lee, M. K. (2012). What drives consumers to spread electronic word of mouth in online consumer-opinion platforms. *Decision Support Systems*, *53*(1), 218-225.

Cheung, G. W., & Rensvold, R. B. (2002). Evaluating goodness-of-fit indexes for testing measurement invariance. *Structural Equation Modeling*, *9*(2), 233-255.

Cho, Y. (2015). Materiality of an online community: Everyday life of global sport fans in South Korea. In L. Hjorth & O. Khoo (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of new media in Asia* (pp. 130-140). New York, NY: Routledge.

Cialdini, R. B., Borden, R. J., Thorne, A., Walker, M. R., Freeman, S., & Sloan, L. R. (1976). Basking in reflected glory: Three (football) field studies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *34*(3), 366-375.

Cicchetti, D. V. (1994). Guidelines, criteria, and rules of thumb for evaluating normed and standardized assessment instruments in psychology. *Psychological Assessment*, *6*(4), 284-290.

Claybourn, M. (2011). Relationships between moral disengagement, work characteristics and workplace harassment. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *100*(2), 283-301.

Cohen, J. E. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Cooke, A. D., Meyvis, T., & Schwartz, A. (2001). Avoiding future regret in purchase-timing decisions. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *27*(4), 447-459.

Coricelli, G., Critchley, H. D., Joffily, M., O'Doherty, J. P., Sirigu, A., & Dolan, R. J. (2005). Regret and its avoidance: A neuroimaging study of choice behavior. *Nature Neuroscience*, *8*(9), 1255-1262.

Corrion, K., Gernigon, C., Debois, N., & D'Arripe-Longueville, F. (2013). Factor validity and reliability of the resistive self-regulatory efficacy in sport scale (RSRESS) in a French sample. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, *44*, 128-144.

Cramer, P., & Westergren, H. (1999). Gender identity: Affected by social change? *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *73*(1), 19-30.

Cramwinckel, F. M., van den Bos, K., & van Dijk, E. (2015). Reactions to morally motivated deviance. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, *6*, 150-156.

Crawford, M. T., McConnell, A. R., Lewis, A. C., & Sherman, S. J. (2002). Reactance, compliance, and anticipated regret. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *38*(1), 56-63.

Croucher, S. M. (2016). Further development of integrated threat theory and intergroup contact: A reply to Aberson (2015). *Communication Monographs*, *83*(2), 1-7.

Cummins, J., & Hextrum, K. (2013). The Management of Intercollegiate Athletics at UC Berkeley: Turning Points and Consequences. Research & Occasional Paper Series: CSHE. 12.13. *Center for Studies in Higher Education*.

Cunningham, N. R. (2016). *The influence of team and athlete identification on sport consumer behavior and fan response to negative information* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Texas, Austin, Texas. Retrieved from https://repositories.lib.utexas.edu/bitstream/handle/2152/44437/CUNNINGHAM-DISSERTATION-2016.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y

Czalbowski, A. E. (2015). *A cruel angel's thesis: A quantitative study of online privacy values dependent on social factors* (Master's thesis). Iowa State University, Aimes, Iowa. Retrieved from http://lib.dr.iastate.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=5765&context=etd

Dalakas, V., Madrigal, R., & Anderson, K. L. (2004). 'We are number one!' The phenomenon of basking-in-reflected-glory and its implications for sports marketing. In Kahle, L.R. & Riley, C. (Eds), *Sports marketing and the psychology of marketing communication* (pp. 67-79). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Davidson, M., & Lickona, T. (2007). Smart and good: Integrating performance character and moral character in schools. *Independent School*, *66*(2), 24-30.

Davis, A., & Bremner, G. (2006). The experimental method in psychology. In G. M. Breakwell, S. Hammond, C. Fife-Schaw & J. A. Smith (Eds.), *Research methods in psychology* (3rd ed.) (pp. 64-87). London, England: Sage.

Dawes, J. G. (2008). Do data characteristics change according to the number of scale points used? An experiment using 5 point, 7 point and 10 point scales. *International Journal of Market Research*, *51*(1), 1-19.

Dawson, J. F., & Richter, A. W. (2006). Probing three-way interactions in moderated multiple regression: Development and application of a slope difference test. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*(4), 917-926.

Delaney, T. (2016, February-March). Sports and deviant behavior. *Philosophy Now*, *41*. Retrieved from https://philosophynow.org/issues/41/Sports_and_Deviant_Behavior

Deleersnyder, B., Geyskens, I., Gielens, K., & Dekimpe, M. G. (2002). How cannibalistic is the Internet channel? A study of the newspaper industry in the United Kingdom and the Netherlands. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, *19*(4), 337-348.

Delia, E. B. (2015). The exclusiveness of group identity in celebrations of team success. *Sport Management Review*, *18*(3), 396-406.

Dhar, R., & Wertenbroch, K. (2000). Consumer choice between hedonic and utilitarian goods. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *37*(1), 60-71.

Dietz-Uhler, B., End, C., Demakakos, N., Dickirson, A., & Grantz, A. (2002). Fans' reactions to law-breaking athletes. *International Sports Journal*, *6*(1), 160-170.

Dionisio, P., Leal, C., & Moutinho, L. (2008). Fandom affiliation and tribal behaviour: A sports marketing application. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, *11*(1), 17-39.

Duck, J. M., Hogg, M. A., & Terry, D. J. (1995). Me, us and them: Political identification and the third-person effect in the 1993 Australian federal election. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *25*(2), 195-215.

Duggan, M., Ellison, N. B., Lampe, C., Lenhart, A., & Madden, M. (2015, January). *Social media update 2014*. Pew Research Center's Internet and American Life Project. Retrieved from http://www.pewinternet.org/2015/01/09/social-media-update-2014/

Dunne, Á., Lawlor, M. A., & Rowley, J. (2010). Young people's use of online social networking sites-a uses and gratifications perspective. *Journal of Research in Interactive Marketing*, *4*(1), 46-58.

Duró, M. M., & Denis, R. (2012). *Parameter uncertainty assessment in the calculation of the overvoltages due to transformer energization in resonant networks*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Cigré Session, Paris, FR.

Eastman, S. T., & Riggs, K. E. (1994). Televised sports and ritual: Fan experiences. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, *11*(3), 249-274.

Edison Research & Triton Digital. (2016a, March). Percentage of U.S. population with a social network profile from 2008 to 2016. In *Statista - The Statistics Portal*. Retrieved from http://www.statista.com.proxy.lib.umich.edu/statistics/273476/percentage-of-us-population-with-a-social-network-profile/

Edison Research & Triton Digital. (2016b, March). Reach of leading social media and networking sites used by teenagers and young adults in the United States as of February 2016. In *Statista - The Statistics Portal*. Retrieved from http://www.statista.com.proxy.lib.umich.edu/statistics/199242/social-media-and-networking-sites-used-by-us-teenagers/

Eitzen, D. S. (2005). Ethical dilemmas in American sport: The dark side of competition. In D.S. Eitzen (Ed.), *Sport in contemporary society: An anthology* (pp. 165-174). New York, NY: Worth Publishers.

Ellemers, N., Pagliaro, S., & Barreto, M. (2013). Morality and behavioural regulation in groups: A social identity approach. *European Review of Social Psychology*, *24*(1), 160-193.

Elsbach, K. D., & Bhattacharya, C. B. (2001). Defining who you are by what you're not: Organizational disidentification and the National Rifle Association. *Organization Science*, *12*(4), 393-413.

eMarketer. (2016, June). Number of social network users worldwide from 2010 to 2019 (in billions). In *Statista - The Statistics Portal*. Retrieved from http://www.statista.com.proxy.lib.umich.edu/statistics/278414/number-of-worldwide-social-network-users/

End, C. M., Davis, M. C., Kretschmar, J. M., Campbell, J., Mueller, D. G., & Worthman, S. S. (2009). Missed call? A reexamination of sports fans' and nonfans' alcohol usage and alcohol-related experiences. *Sociological Spectrum*, *29*(5), 649-658.

End, C. M., Eaton, J., Campbell, J., & Kretschmar, J. M. (2003). Outcome's influence on sport fans' computer-mediated attributions. *International Sports Journal*, *7*(2), 128-139.

Enright, R. D., & Zell, R. L. (1989). Problems encountered when we forgive one another. *Journal of Psychology and Christianity*, *8*(1), 52-60.

Eriksson, D. (2014). *Moral (De)coupling: Moral disengagement and supply chain management* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Borås, Borås, Sweden. Retrieved from https://www.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:877098/FULLTEXT01.pdf

Erni, J. N. (1998). Queer figurations in the media: Critical reflections on the Michael Jackson sex scandal. *Critical Studies in Media Communication*, *15*(2), 158-180.

Esco. (2016, June 8). Maria Sharapova was forced to take steroids if she ever wanted to beat Serena Williams again [Blog post]. Retrieved from https://theaveragemiamian.wordpress.com/2016/06/08/maria-sharapova-was-forced-to-take-steroids-if-she-ever-wanted-to-beat-serena-williams-again/

Experian. (2016, November). Most popular social network websites in the United States in August 2016, based on share of visits. In *Statista - The Statistics Portal*. Retrieved from https://www-statista-com.proxy.lib.umich.edu/statistics/265773/market-share-of-the-most-popular-social-media-websites-in-the-us/

Fanatics. (2016, January). NFL Game-Day Traditions [Blog post]. Retrieved from http://wearefanatics.com/nfl-game-day-traditions/

Farrar, D. (2012, October). 10 years later, Herm Edwards' 'You PLAY to WIN the GAME!!!' rant still resonates. *Yahoo! Sports*. Retrieved from http://sports.yahoo.com/blogs/shutdown-corner/10-years-later-herm-edwards-play-win-game-225650424--nfl.html

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Lang, A. G., & Buchner, A. (2007). G*Power 3: A flexible statistical power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behavior Research Methods*, *39*(2), 175-191.

Feldman, Y., & Smith, H. E. (2014). Behavioral equity. *Journal of Institutional and Theoretical Economics*, *170*(1), 137-159.

Ferrin, D. L., Kim, P. H., Cooper, C. D., & Dirks, K. T. (2007). Silence speaks volumes: The effectiveness of reticence in comparison to apology and denial for responding to integrity-and competence-based trust violations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(4), 893-908

Festinger, L. (1957). *A theory of cognitive dissonance*. Evanston, IL: Row, Peterson.

Festinger, L. (1964). *Conflict, decision, and dissonance* (Vol. 3). Palto Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.

Festinger, L., Riecken, H. W., & Schachter, S. (1956). *When prophecy fails: A social and psychological study of a modern group that predicted the end of the world*. New York, NY: Harper-Torchbooks.

Fiese, B. H. (1992). Dimensions of family rituals across two generations: Relation to adolescent identity. *Family Process*, *31*(2), 151-162.

Filiz-Ozbay, E., & Ozbay, E. Y. (2007). Auctions with anticipated regret: Theory and experiment. *The American Economic Review*, *97*(4), 1407-1418.

Fincham, F. D., Jackson, H., & Beach, S. R. (2005). Transgression severity and forgiveness: Different moderators for objective and subjective severity. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, *24*(6), 860-875.

Fink, J. S., Parker, H. M., Brett, M., & Higgins, J. (2009). Off-field behavior of athletes and team identification: Using social identity theory and balance theory to explain fan reactions. *Journal of Sport Management*, *23*(2), 142-155.

Finkel, E. J., Rusbult, C. E., Kumashiro, M., & Hannon, P. A. (2002). Dealing with betrayal in close relationships: Does commitment promote forgiveness?. *Journal of Personality and Social psychology*, *82*(6), 956-974.

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

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error: Algebra and statistics. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *18*(3), 382-388.

Frankel, T.C. (2016, January). Why the entire city of St. Louis is furious at the Rams' owner. *The Washington Post*. Retrieved from https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/wonk/wp/2016/01/08/why-the-entire-city-of-st-louis-is-furious-at-the-rams-owner/?utm_term=.287d11ba7750

Franklin, D. (2011). League parity: Bringing back unlicensed competition in the sports fan apparel market. *Chi.-Kent L. Rev.*, *86*, 987.

Frati, P., Kyriakou, C., Del Rio, A., Marinelli, E., Montanari Vergallo, G., Zaami, S., & P Busardo, F. (2015). Smart drugs and synthetic androgens for cognitive and physical enhancement: Revolving doors of cosmetic neurology. *Current Neuropharmacology*, *13*(1), 5-11.

Friedberg, J. P., Suchday, S., & Shelov, D. V. (2007). The impact of forgiveness on cardiovascular reactivity and recovery. *International Journal of Psychophysiology*, *65*(2), 87-94.

Friedman, M., & Savage, L. J. (1948). The utility analysis of choices involving risk. *The Journal of Political Economy*, *56*(4), 279-304.

Funk, D. C., & James, J. (2001). The psychological continuum model: A conceptual framework for understanding an individual's psychological connection to sport. *Sport Management Review*, *4*(2), 119-150.

Gaertner, S. L., Dovidio, J. F., Anastasio, P. A., Bachman, B. A., & Rust, M. C. (1993). The common ingroup identity model: Recategorization and the reduction of intergroup bias. *European Review of Social Psychology*, *4*(1), 1-26.

Games, P. A., Keselman, H. J., & Rogan, J. C. (1981). Simultaneous pairwise multiple comparison procedures for means when sample sizes are unequal. *Psychological Bulletin*, *90*(3), 594-598.

Gao, L., Wheeler, S. C., & Shiv, B. (2009). The "shaken self": Product choices as a means of restoring self-view confidence. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *36*(1), 29-38.

Garcia-Prieto, P., & Scherer, K. R. (2006). Connecting social identity theory and cognitive appraisal theory of emotions. In Brown, R. & Capozza, D. (Eds.), *Social Identities: Motivational, Emotional and Cultural Influences* (pp. 189-208). East Sussex, UK: Psychology Press.

Gaskin, J. (2012). Stat tools package: Group differences. *Gaskination's StatWiki*. Retrieved from http://statwiki.kolobkreations.com

Gibbons, S. L., Ebbeck, V., & Weiss, M. R. (1995). Fair play for kids: Effects on the moral development of children in physical education. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, *66*(3), 247-255.

Gilligan, C. (1977). In a different voice: Women's conceptions of self and of morality. *Harvard Educational Review*, *47*(4), 481-517.

Gilovich, T., & Medvec, V. H. (1995). The experience of regret: What, when, and why. *Psychological Review*, *102*(2), 379-395.

Goldstein, J. H. (1989). Violence in sports. In J.H. Goldstein (Ed.), *Sports, games, and play: Social & psychological viewpoints* (pp. 279-297). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Gottschalk, P. G., & Dunn, J. R. (2005). Determining the error of dose estimates and minimum and maximum acceptable concentrations from assays with nonlinear dose–response curves. *Computer Methods and Programs in Biomedicine*, *80*(3), 204-215.

Grayson, K. (2014). Morality and the marketplace. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *41*(2), vii-ix.

Grégoire, Y., Tripp, T. M., & Legoux, R. (2009). When customer love turns into lasting hate: The effects of relationship strength and time on customer revenge and avoidance. *Journal of Marketing*, *73*(6), 18-32.

Grohs, R., Reisinger, H., & Woisetschläger, D. M. (2015). Attenuation of negative sponsorship effects in the context of rival sports teams' fans. *European Journal of Marketing*, *49*(11/12), 1880-1901.

Guske, D. (2016, February). Cancel Michael Vick's endorsement deal. *Change*. Retrieved from https://www.change.org/p/nike-cancel-michael-vick-s-endorsement-deal

Hagger, M. S., Anderson, M., Kyriakaki, M., & Darkings, S. (2007). Aspects of identity and their influence on intentional behavior: Comparing effects for three health behaviors. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *42*(2), 355-367.

Haidt, J. (2001). The emotional dog and its rational tail: A social intuitionist approach to moral judgment. *Psychological Review*, *108*(4), 814-834.

Haidt, J. (2007). The new synthesis in moral psychology. *Science*, *316*(5827), 998-1002.

Hair, J., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, L., & Black, W. C. (1992). *Multivariate data analysis with readings*. New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Hallemans, A., Beccu, S., van Loock, K., Ortibus, E., Truijen, S., & Aerts, P. (2009). Visual deprivation leads to gait adaptations that are age-and context-specific: I. Step-time parameters. *Gait & Posture*, *30*(1), 55-59.

Hallgren, K. A. (2012). Computing inter-rater reliability for observational data: An overview and tutorial. *Tutorials in Quantitative Methods for Psychology*, *8*(1), 23-34.

Hantman, S., & Cohen, O. (2010). Forgiveness in late life. *Journal of Gerontological Social Work*, *53*(7), 613-630.

Haridakis, P. M. (2012). *Sports viewers and intergroup-related communication.* In H. Giles (Ed.), *The handbook of intergroup communication* (pp. 344-356). New York, NY: Routledge.

Havard, C. T., & Eddy, T. (2013). Qualitative assessment of rivalry and conference realignment in intercollegiate athletics. *Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletics*, *6*, 216-235.

Havard, C. T., Gray, D. P., Gould, J., Sharp, L. A., & Schaffer, J. J. (2013). Development and validation of the Sport Rivalry Fan Perception Scale (SRFPS). *Journal of Sport Behavior*, *36*(1), 45-65.

Hayes, A. F. (2012). *PROCESS: A versatile computational tool for observed variable mediation, moderation, and conditional process modeling* [White paper]. Retrieved from http://www.afhayes.com/public/process2012.pdf

Hayes, A. F. (2013). *An introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York, NY: Guilford Press

Hayes, A. F., & Krippendorff, K. (2007). Answering the call for a standard reliability measure for coding data. *Communication Methods and Measures*, *1*(1), 77-89.

Haynes, C. (2017, February). Sources: Kevin Durant traveling with enhanced security on OKC visit. *ESPN*. Retrieved from http://www.espn.com/nba/story/_/id/18664693/kevin-durant-hires-additional-security-oklahoma-city-return

He, M., & Li, A. (2016). The impact of sad-spending on emotional recovery process. *Psychology*, *7*(1), 85-91.

Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relations*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Herring, T. E., Zamboanga, B. L., Olthuis, J. V., Pesigan, I. J. A., Martin, J. L., McAfee, N. W., & Martens, M. P. (2016). Utility of the athlete drinking scale for assessing drinking motives among high school athletes. *Addictive Behaviors*, *60*, 18-23.

Herrmann, J. L., Kacha, M., & Derbaix, C. (2016). “I support your team, support me in turn!”: The driving role of consumers’ affiliation with the sponsored entity in explaining behavioral effects of sport sponsorship leveraging activities. *Journal of Business Research*, *69*(2), 604-612.

Hill, J. (2007, April). Apology to Duke lacrosse players not enough. *ESPN*. Retrieved from http://espn.go.com/espn/page2/story?page=hill/070412

Hirschman, E. C., & Holbrook, M. B. (1982). Hedonic consumption: emerging concepts, methods and propositions. *Journal of Marketing*, *46*(3), 92-101.

Hogg, M. A., & Terry, D. I. (2000). Social identity and self-categorization processes in organizational contexts. *Academy of Management Review*, *25*(1), 121-140.

Hogg, M. A., Hardie, E. A., & Reynolds, K. J. (1995). Prototypical similarity, self-categorization, and depersonalized attraction: A perspective on group cohesiveness. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *25*(2), 159-177.

Holm, S. (1979). A simple sequentially rejective multiple test procedure. *Scandinavian Journal of Statistics*, *6*(2), 65-70.

Hooper, D., Coughlan, J., & Mullen, M.R. (2008). Structural equation modelling: Guidelines for determining model fit. *Journal of Business Research Methods*, *6*, 53-60.

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

Hughes, G. (2017, January). Timeline of Jeremy Lin's rise to Linsanity and journey to where he is today. *Bleacher Report*. Retrieved from http://bleacherreport.com/articles/1747434-timeline-of-jeremy-lins-rise-to-linsanity-and-journey-to-where-he-is-today

Hughes, S., & Shank, M. (2005). Defining scandal in sports: Media and corporate sponsor perspectives. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *14*(4), 207-216.

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

Iacus, S. M. (2009). *Simulation and inference for stochastic differential equations: With R examples*. New York, NY: Springer-Verlag.

Indianapolis Colts. [Colts]. (2016, January 13). We've had some @NFL fans reach out to us due to some recent events... #JustSaying. Image: https://pbs.twimg.com/media/CYnVYatWAAAF86B.jpg:large [Tweet]. Retrieved from https://twitter.com/Colts/status/687315034582704128/photo/1

Inman, J. J., & Zeelenberg, M. (2002). Regret in repeat purchase versus switching decisions: The attenuating role of decision justifiability. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *29*(1), 116-128.

Inman, J. J., Dyer, J. S., & Jia, J. (1997). A generalized utility model of disappointment and regret effects on post-choice valuation. *Marketing Science*, *16*(2), 97-111.

Jacobson, H., & Ovid. (1974). *Ovid's Heroides*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

James, H. (1956). The correspondence of Carlyle and Emerson. In H. James & L. Edel (Eds.), *The American essays* (p. 33). Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Jetten, J., Postmes, T., & McAuliffe, B. J. (2002). 'We're all individuals': Group norms of individualism and collectivism, levels of identification and identity threat. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *32*(2), 189-207.

Jones, I. (1997). Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods in sports fan research. *The Qualitative Report*, *3*(4), 1-8.

Jonsen, A. R., & Toulmin, S. E. (1988). *The abuse of casuistry: A history of moral reasoning*. Oakland, CA: University of California Press.

Joseph, A. (2016, June). Cavaliers fans gave LeBron James a hero's welcome outside his house. *USA Today Sports*. Retrieved from http://ftw.usatoday.com/2016/06/cavaliers-fans-lebron-james-house-bath-ohio-nba-finals-game-7

Jost, J. T., & Banaji, M. R. (1994). The role of stereotyping in system-justification and the production of false consciousness. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *33*(1), 1-27.

Jussim, L., Coleman, L. M., & Lerch, L. (1987). The nature of stereotypes: A comparison and integration of three theories. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *52*(3), 536-546.

Kausel, E. E., Culbertson, S. S., Leiva, P. I., Slaughter, J. E., & Jackson, A. T. (2015). Too arrogant for their own good? Why and when narcissists dismiss advice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *131*, 33-50.

Keefer, M. W. (1993). *Gilligan's moral orientation hypothesis: Strategies of justification and practical deliberation*. Retrieved from ERIC Database (ED357236).

Kennedy, J. (2010). Image reparation strategies in sports: Media analysis of Kobe Bryant and Barry Bonds. *The Elon Journal of Undergraduate Research in Communications*, *1*(1), 95-103.

Kenny, D.A. (2011, September). Respecification of latent variable models. Retrieved from http://davidakenny.net/cm/respec.htm

Khajehzadeh, S., Oppewal, H., & Tojib, D. (2014). Consumer responses to mobile coupons: The roles of shopping motivation and regulatory fit. *Journal of Business Research*, *67*(11), 2447-2455.

Kirk, J. (2014, June). NCAA president faces fact that colleges sell jerseys with real player numbers. *SB Nation*. Retrieved from http://www.sbnation.com/college-football/2014/6/20/5827802/ncaa-player-jerseys-numbers-mark-emmert-obannon

Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Klinger, G. D. (1994). Law as communicative praxis: Toward a rhetorical jurisprudence. *Argumentation and Advocacy*, *30*(4), 236-247.

Knowles, M. L., & Gardner, W. L. (2008). Benefits of membership: The activation and amplification of group identities in response to social rejection. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *34*(9), 1200-1213.

Koernig, S. K., & Boyd, T. C. (2009). To catch a tiger or let him go: The match-up effect and athlete endorsers for sport and non-sport brands. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *18*(1), 25-37.

Kohlberg, L. (1984). *Essays on moral development: The psychology of moral development*. New York, NY: Harper.

Kohlberg, L., Levine, C., & Hewer, A. (1983). *Moral stages: A current formulation and a response to critics*. Basel, Switzerland: Karger.

Kretchmar, R.S. (1998). Soft metaphysics: A precursor to good sports ethics. In M.J. McNamee & S.J. Parry, *Ethics and sport* (pp. 19-34). London, UK: Routledge.

Kristofferson, K., White, K., & Peloza, J. (2014). The nature of slacktivism: How the social observability of an initial act of token support affects subsequent prosocial action. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *40*(6), 1149-1166.

Kruse, J. A., Hagerty, B. M., Byers, W. S., Gatien, G., & Williams, R. A. (2014). Considering a relational model for depression in navy recruits. *Military Medicine*, *179*(11), 1293-1300.

Kumari, K., Usmani, S., & Hussain, J. (2015). Responsible leadership and intellectual capital: The mediating effects of effective team work. *Journal of Economics, Business and Management*, *3*(2), 176-182

Kunda, Z. (1990). The case for motivated reasoning. *Psychological Bulletin*, *108*(3), 480-498.

Kwak, D. H., Kwon, Y., & Lim, C. (2015). Licensing a sports brand: Effects of team brand cue, identification, and performance priming on multidimensional values and purchase intentions. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, *24*(3), 198-210.

Kwak, H., Lee, C., Park, H., & Moon, S. (2010, April). What is Twitter, a social network or a news media?. *Proceedings of the 19th International Conference on World Wide Web*. Paper presented at the International World Wide Web Conference, Raleigh, NC (pp. 591-600). New York, NY: Association for Computer Machinery.

Kyle, G., Graefe, A., & Manning, R. (2005). Testing the dimensionality of place attachment in recreational settings. *Environment and Behavior*, *37*(2), 153-177.

Lagaert, S., & Roose, H. (2016). The gender gap in sport event attendance in Europe: The impact of macro-level gender equality. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 1-17. doi: 10.1177/1012690216671019.

Lanter, J. R. (2011). Spectator identification with the team and participation in celebratory violence. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, *34*(3), 268-280.

Laucella, P. C. (2010). Michael Vick: An analysis of press coverage on federal dogfighting charges. *Journal of Sports Media*, *5*(2), 35-76.

Lee, E., Ahn, J., & Kim, Y. J. (2014). Personality traits and self-presentation at Facebook. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *69*, 162-167.

Lee, J. S., & Kwak, D. H. (2015a). Consumers' responses to public figures' transgression: Moral reasoning strategies and implications for endorsed brands. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1-13.

Lee, J. S., & Kwak, D. H. (2015b, October). Forgetting or forgiving? A longitudinal assessment of post-transgression behaviors on athlete trust restoration. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Sport Marketing Association, Atlanta, GA. Abstract retrieved from http://static1.squarespace.com/static/54358491e4b0e09faedc4a1b/t/560a9e06e4b0a09442e470ca/1443536390063/Lee_Joon_Sung.pdf

Lee, J. S., & Kwak, D. H. (2016). Can winning take care of everything? A longitudinal assessment of post-transgression actions on repairing trust in an athlete endorser. *Sport Management Review*. Advance online publication. doi: 10.1016/j.smr.2016.08.007.

Lee, J. S., Kwak, D. H., & Moore, D. (2015). Athletes' transgressions and sponsor evaluations: A focus on consumers' moral reasoning strategies. *Journal of Sport Management*, *29*(6), 672-687.

Lee, M. J. (1985). From rivalry to hostility among sports fans. *Quest*, *37*(1), 38-49.

Lee, M. K., Cheung, C. M., & Chen, Z. (2005). Acceptance of Internet-based learning medium: the role of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. *Information & Management*, *42*(8), 1095-1104.

Lee, S. H., & Cotte, J. (2009). Post purchase consumer regret: Conceptualization and development of the PPCR scale. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *36*, 456-462.

Lee, Y. K. (2016). Impact of government policy and environment quality on visitor loyalty to Taiwan music festivals: Moderating effects of revisit reason and occupation type. *Tourism Management*, *53*, 187-196.

Leigh, B. (2016, January). Grading the top 10 recruits from the 2016 Under Armour All-America game. *Bleacher Report*. Retrieved from http://bleacherreport.com/articles/2604379-grading-the-top-10-recruits-from-the-2016-under-armour-all-america-game

Levine, M., Prosser, A., Evans, D., & Reicher, S. (2005). Identity and emergency intervention: How social group membership and inclusiveness of group boundaries shape helping behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *31*(4), 443-453.

Lewis, A. C., & Sherman, S. J. (2003). Hiring you makes me look bad: Social-identity based reversals of the ingroup favoritism effect. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *90*(2), 262-276.

Lewis, A. C., & Sherman, S. J. (2010). Perceived entitativity and the black-sheep effect: when will we denigrate negative ingroup members? *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *150*(2), 211-225.

Liang, K. Y., & Zeger, S. L. (1986). Longitudinal data analysis using generalized linear models. *Biometrika*, *73*(1), 13-22.

Light, R., & Yasaki, W. (2002). J League soccer and the rekindling of regional identity in Japan. *Sporting Traditions*, *18*(2), 31-46.

Lindell, N. (2016). Say NO to Michael Vick on the Pittsburgh Steelers team. *Change*. Retrieved from https://www.change.org/p/steelers-fans-say-no-to-michael-vick-on-the-pittsburgh-steelers-team

Livingstone, S., & Helsper, E. (2007). Gradations in digital inclusion: Children, young people and the digital divide. *New media & society*, *9*(4), 671-696.

Lloyd, J.V., Schneider, J., Scales, K., Bailey, S., & Jones, R. (2011). Ingroup identity as an obstacle to effective multiprofessional and interprofessional teamwork: Findings from an ethnographic study of healthcare assistants in dementia care. *Journal of Interprofessional Care*, *25*(5), 345-351.

Lohneiss, A., & Hill, B. (2014). The impact of processing athlete transgressions on brand image and purchase intent. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, *14*(2), 171-193.

Longman, J. (1994, January). Jealously on ice. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from http://www.nytimes.com/packages/html/sports/year_in_sports/01.06.html

Loomes, G., & Sugden, R. (1982). Regret theory: An alternative theory of rational choice under uncertainty. *The Economic Journal*, *92*(368) 805-824.

Loomes, G., & Sugden, R. (1986). Disappointment and dynamic consistency in choice under uncertainty. *The Review of Economic Studies*, *53*(2), 271-282.

Loomes, G., & Sugden, R. (1987). Some implications of a more general form of regret theory. *Journal of Economic Theory*, *41*(2), 270-287.

Luellen, T. B., & Wann, D. L. (2010). Rival salience and sport team identification. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *19*(2), 97.

Lumpkin, A., Stoll, S. K., & Beller, J. M. (1999). *Sport ethics: Applications for fair play* (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

Lyons, V., & Turner, B. A. (2015). Examining the influence of gender on athletes' levels of moral reasoning: A comparison of intercollegiate athletes and students. *Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletics*, *8*, 28-49.

M'Barek, M. B., & Gharbi, A. (2011). The moderators of post purchase regret. *Journal of Marketing Research & Case Studies*, 1-16.

MacKenzie, S. B., & Lutz, R. J. (1989). An empirical examination of the structural antecedents of attitude toward the ad in an advertising pretesting context. *The Journal of Marketing*, 48-65.

Madrigal, R., & Chen, J. (2008). Moderating and mediating effects of team identification in regard to causal attributions and summary judgments following a game outcome. *Journal of Sport Management*, *22*(6), 717-733.

Manca, G. (2016, April). NFL's Jaguars, Lions, and Panthers have epic Twitter battle. *The Epoch Times*. Retrieved from http://www.theepochtimes.com/n3/2033829-nfls-jaguars-lions-and-panthers-have-epic-twitter-battle/

Maranto, G., & Barton, M. (2010). Paradox and promise: MySpace, Facebook, and the sociopolitics of social networking in the writing classroom. *Computers and Composition*, *27*(1), 36-47.

Marder, B., Joinson, A., & Shankar, A. (2012, January). Every post you make, every pic you take, I'll be watching you: Behind social spheres on Facebook. In *System Science (HICSS), 2012 45th Hawaii International Conference on* (pp. 859-868). IEEE.

Marques, J. M., & Paez, D. (1994). The 'black sheep effect': Social categorization, rejection of ingroup deviates, and perception of group variability. *European Review of Social Psychology*, *5*(1), 37-68.

Marques, J. M., & Yzerbyt, V. Y. (1988). The black sheep effect: Judgmental extremity towards ingroup members in inter- and intra-group situations. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *18*(3), 287-292.

Marques, J. M., Paez, D., & Abrams, D. (1998a). Social identity and intragroup differentiation as subjective social control. In Worchel, S. and Morales, J. F. (Eds.), *Social identity: International perspectives* (pp. 124-141). London, England: Sage Publications, Inc.

Marques, J. M., Yzerbyt, V. Y., & Leyens, J. P. (1988). The "black sheep effect": Extremity of judgments towards ingroup members as a function of group identification. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *18*(1), 1-16.

Marques, J.M., Abrams, D., Paez, D., & Martinez-Taboada, C. (1998b). The role of categorization and in-group norms in judgments of groups and their members. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *75*(4), 976-988.

Marsden, J. (2013). Stigmergic self-organization and the improvisation of Ushahidi. *Cognitive Systems Research*, *21*, 52-64.

Martin, J. (2016, April). NFL wins 'Deflategate' appeal; Tom Brady's suspension reinstated. *CNN*. Retrieved from http://www.cnn.com/2016/04/25/us/nfl-wins-deflategate-appeal-tom-brady-suspension/

Martinez, M. (2013, March). Can winning really take care of everything in Tiger Woods' troubled life? *CNN*. Retrieved from http://www.cnn.com/2013/03/26/us/nike-tiger-woods/

Matsuoka, H., Chelladurai, P., & Harada, M. (2003). Direct and interaction effects of team identification and satisfaction on intention to attend games. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *12*(4), 244-253.

Matthews, D., & Dietz-Uhler, B. (1998). The black sheep effect: How positive and negative advertisements affect voters' perceptions of the sponsor of the advertisement. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *28*(20), 1903-1915.

McClung, S., & Rynarzewska, A. I. (2015). Purchase intention behind Mercer University's inaugural football team. *International Review on Public and Nonprofit Marketing*, *12*(2), 155-167.

McCullough, M. E., Fincham, F. D., & Tsang, J. A. (2003). Forgiveness, forbearance, and time: the temporal unfolding of transgression-related interpersonal motivations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *84*(3), 540-557.

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

McGraw, K. O., & Wong, S. P. (1996). Forming inferences about some intraclass correlation coefficients. *Psychological Methods*, *1*(1), 30-46.

Mellers, B., Schwartz, A., & Ritov, I. (1999). Emotion-based choice. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, *128*(3), 332-345.

Messner, M. A. (1990). When bodies are weapons: Masculinity and violence in sport. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, *25*(3), 203-220.

Michenaud, S., & Solnik, B. (2008). Applying regret theory to investment choices: Currency hedging decisions. *Journal of International Money and Finance*, *27*(5), 677-694.

Miller, A. J., Worthington, E. L., & McDaniel, M. A. (2008). Gender and forgiveness: A meta-analytic review and research agenda. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, *27*(8), 843-876.

Minnick, B. (2007, September). Duke President apologizes to lacrosse players. *WRAL*. Retrieved from http://www.wral.com/news/local/story/1876463/

MLBshop.com. (2017, January). San Francisco Giants gear. Retrieved from http://www.mlbshop.com/San_Francisco_Giants_Gear

Mochon, D., Norton, M. I., & Ariely, D. (2012). Bolstering and restoring feelings of competence via the IKEA effect. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, *29*(4), 363-369.

Moohr, G.S. (2006). What the Martha Stewart case tells us about white collar crime. *Houston Law Review*, *43*, 591-619.

Moore, C. (2008). Moral disengagement in processes of organizational corruption. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *80*(1), 129-139.

Moore, C., Detert, J. R., Treviño, L.K., Baker, V. L., & Mayer, D. M. (2012). Why employees do bad things: Moral disengagement and unethical organizational behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, *65*(1), 1-48.

Moore, K., & McElroy, J. C. (2012). The influence of personality on Facebook usage, wall postings, and regret. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *28*(1), 267-274.

Morozov, E. (2009, May). Foreign policy: The brave new world of slacktivism. *National Public Radio*. Retrieved from http://www.npr.org/templates/story/story.php?storyId=104302141

Mudrick, M., Miller, M., & Atkin, D. (2016). The influence of social media on fan reactionary behaviors. *Telematics and Informatics*, *33*(4), 896-903.

Mukherjee, P., & Jansen, B. J. (2015). Evaluating pattern for group interactions using second screens. In *Computing, Networking and Communications (CNC), 2015 International Conference on Computing, Networking and Communications (ICNC)* (pp. 433-437). IEEE.

Mullet, E., Houdbine, A., Laumonier, S., & Girard, M. (1998). “Forgivingness”: Factor structure in a sample of young, middle-aged, and elderly adults. *European Psychologist*, *3*(4), 289-297.

Mummendey, A., Klink, A., & Brown, R. (2001). Nationalism and patriotism: National identification and out-group rejection. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *40*(2), 159-172.

Munroe, K., Estabrooks, P., Dennis, P., & Carron, A. (1999). A phenomenological analysis of group norms in sport teams. *The Sport Psychologist*, *13*, 171-182.

Murphy, P. (2010). The intractability of reputation: Media coverage as a complex system in the case of Martha Stewart. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, *22*(2), 209-237.

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

Murtagh, N., Gatersleben, B., & Uzzell, D. (2012). Self-identity threat and resistance to change: Evidence from regular travel behaviour. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *32*(4), 318-326.

NBC Sports. (2016). The rise and fall of Michael Vick. Retrieved from http://www.nbcsports.com/rise-and-fall-michael-vick

Neale, L. (2006). *Toward a better understanding of uncommon loyalty: An application in sport* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from QUT ePrints (Accession Order No. 17007).

Newport, K. (2016, December). Colts attempt to take in St. Louis fans looking for new team as Rams move to LA. *Bleacher Report*. Retrieved from bleacherreport.com/articles/2607570-colts-strike-to-take-in-st-louis-fans-looking-for-new-team-as-rams-move-to-la.

Ngan, H. M., Prendergast, G. P., & Tsang, A. S. (2011). Linking sports sponsorship with purchase intentions: Team performance, stars, and the moderating role of team identification. *European Journal of Marketing*, *45*(4), 551-566.

Ngo, H. Y., Foley, S., & Loi, R. (2009). Family friendly work practices, organizational climate, and firm performance: A study of multinational corporations in Hong Kong. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *30*(5), 665-680.

Nichols, D. P. (1998). Choosing an intraclass correlation coefficient. *SPSS Keywords*, *67*, 1-2. Retrieved from http://www.ats.ucla.edu/stat/spss/library/whichicc.htm

Noel, J. G., Wann, D. L., & Branscombe, N. R. (1995). Peripheral ingroup membership status and public negativity toward outgroups. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *68*(1), 127-137.

Nunnally, J.C. (1970). *Introduction to psychological measurement*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Oberle, W. (2015, July). *Monte Carlo simulations: Number of iterations and accuracy* (DHHS Publication No. ARL-TN-0684). Aberdeen Proving Ground, MD: Army Research Laboratory. Retrieved from http://oai.dtic.mil/oai/oai?verb=getRecord&metadataPrefix=html&identifier=ADA621501

Ong, E. Y., Ang, R. P., Ho, J. C., Lim, J. C., Goh, D. H., Lee, C. S., & Chua, A. Y. (2011). Narcissism, extraversion and adolescents' self-presentation on Facebook. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *50*(2), 180-185.

Onwumechili, C., & Bedeau, K. (2016). Analysis of FIFA's attempt at image repair. *Communication & Sport*, 1-21.

Orathinkal, J., Vansteenwegen, A., & Burggraeve, R. (2008). Are demographics important for forgiveness?. *The Family Journal*, *16*(1), 20-27.

Osofsky, M. J., Bandura, A., & Zimbardo, P. G. (2005). The role of moral disengagement in the execution process. *Law and Human Behavior*, *29*(4), 371-393.

Otterbring, T. (2016). Touch forbidden, consumption allowed: Counter-intuitive effects of touch restrictions on customers' purchase behavior. *Food Quality and Preference*, *50*, 1-6.

Paharia, N., Vohs, K. D., & Deshpandé, R. (2013). Sweatshop labor is wrong unless the shoes are cute: Cognition can both help and hurt moral motivated reasoning. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *121*(1), 81-88.

Paolacci, G., Chandler, J., & Ipeirotis, P. G. (2010). Running experiments on Amazon Mechanical Turk. *Judgment and Decision-making*, *5*, 411-419.

Papadimitriou, D., & Apostolopoulou, A. (2015). Capturing the meanings of sport licensed products. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 1-17. doi: 10.1080/13527266.2015.1065900.

Park, C., & Vertinsky, I. (2016). Reverse and conventional knowledge transfers in international joint ventures. *Journal of Business Research*, *69*(8), 2821-2829.

Parker, M. T., & Janoff-Bulman, R. (2013). Lessons from morality-based social identity: The power of outgroup "hate," not just ingroup "love". *Social Justice Research*, *26*(1), 81-96.

Paskin, W. (2014, February). Still bitter after all these years. *Slate*. Retrieved from http://www.slate.com/articles/sports/fivering_circus/2014/02/nancy_kerrigan_and_tonya_harding_revisiting_figure_skating_s_greatest_scandal.html

Pasquarelli, L. (2009, June). Falcons take cap hit in release of Vick. *ESPN*. Retrieved from http://www.espn.com/nfl/news/story?id=4255981

Peralta, E. (2011, July). Nike signs Michael Vick to new endorsement deal. *National Public Radio*. Retrieved from http://www.npr.org/sections/thetwo-way/2011/07/01/137558149/nike-signs-michael-vick-to-new-endorsement-deal

Pew Research Center. (2016, November). Percentage of U.S. internet users who use Twitter in April 2016, by gender. In *Statista - The Statistics Portal*. Retrieved from https://www-statista-com.proxy.lib.umich.edu/statistics/265643/share-of-us-internet-users-who-use-twitter-by-gender/

Phua, J., Pan, P. L., & Chen, K. J. (2015, January). Fan identification and brand preferences on social media sites: Effects of BIRGing and CORFing on sports fans evaluations of endorsed brands. In *American Academy of Advertising Conference. Proceedings (Online)* (p. 42). American Academy of Advertising.

Pierce, M. C., & Harris, R. J. (1993). The effect of provocation, race, and injury description on men's and women's perceptions of a wife-battering incident. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *23*(10), 767-790.

Pinto, I. R., Marques, J. M., Levine, J. M., & Abrams, D. (2010). Membership status and subjective group dynamics: Who triggers the black sheep effect? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *99*(1), 107-119.

Pitts, B. G., & Slattery, J. (2004). An examination of the effects of time on sponsorship awareness levels. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *13*(1), 43-54.

Pradhan, S. (2016). When can they juice? A theoretical review and association of system justification and sports fan identity to doping by athletes. *International Journal of Sport Management, Recreation & Tourism*, *26*(1), 1-25.

Preacher, K. J., & Selig, J. P. (2012). Advantages of Monte Carlo confidence intervals for indirect effects. *Communication Methods and Measures*, *6*(2), 77-98.

PricewaterhouseCoopers. (2016, October). PwC Sports Outlook. Retrieved from http://www.pwc.com/us/en/industry/entertainment-media/publications/assets/pwc-sports-outlook-2016.pdf

Priest, R. F., Krause, J. V., & Beach, J. (1999). Four-year changes in college athletes' ethical value choices in sports situations. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, *70*(2), 170-178.

Quiggin, J. (1994). Regret theory with general choice sets. *Journal of Risk and Uncertainty*, *8*(2), 153-165.

Rainey, D. W., Larsen, J., & Yost, J. H. (2009). Disappointment theory and disappointment among baseball fans. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, *32*(3), 339-356.

Rainey, D. W., Yost, J. H., & Larsen, J. (2011). Disappointment theory and disappointment among football fans. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, *34*(2), 175-187.

Ramsey, P. H., & Ramsey, P. P. (2009). Power and type I errors for pairwise comparisons of means in the unequal variances case. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology*, *62*(2), 263-281.

Raney, A. A., & Kinnally, W. (2009). Examining perceived violence in and enjoyment of televised rivalry sports contests. *Mass Communication and Society*, *12*(3), 311-331.

Raney, A.A., & Ellis, A. (2014). The enjoyment and possible effects of sports violence in new (and old) media. In A.C. Billings & M. Hardin (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of sport and new media* (pp. 259-270). London, UK: Routledge.

Raymond, N., & Ax, J. (2016, April). Tom Brady's Deflategate suspension restored by U.S. court. *Huffington Post*. Retrieved from http://www.huffingtonpost.com/entry/tom-bradys-deflategate-suspension-restored-by-us-court_us_571e390be4b0d4d3f723dff6

Reddy, S. K. (1992). Effects of ignoring correlated measurement error in structural equation models. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *52*(3), 549-570.

Rees, T., Haslam, S. A., Coffee, P., & Lavallee, D. (2015). A social identity approach to sport psychology: Principles, practice, and prospects. *Sports Medicine*, *45*(8), 1083-1096.

Reiss, M. (2015, May). Bill Belichick deflects Deflategate, says 'We're on to next year'. *ESPN*. http://espn.go.com/boston/nfl/story/_/id/12975790/new-england-patriots-bill-belichick-deflects-deflategate-says-next-year

Rest, J., & Navarez, D. (1994). *Moral development in the professions: Psychology and applied ethics.* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Rhoden, W.C. (2015, October). Yet another comeback attempt for Michael Vick in a career of them. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from https://www.nytimes.com/2015/10/03/sports/football/can-another-michael-vick-comeback-save-the-steelers-season.html

Richelieu, A. (2012). The internationalization of sports teams as brands. In M. Desbordes & A. Richelieu (Eds.), *Global sport marketing: Contemporary issues and practice* (pp.28-46). Oxon, UK: Routledge.

Riek, B. M., Mania, E. W., & Gaertner, S. L. (2006). Intergroup threat and outgroup attitudes: A meta-analytic review. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *10*(4), 336-353.

Ritov, I. (1996). Probability of regret: Anticipation of uncertainty resolution in choice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *66*(2), 228-236.

Roberts, D., & Snyder, B. (2014, September). Ray Rice and 11 other athletes who lost their endorsements. *Fortune*. Retrieved from http://fortune.com/2014/09/20/ray-rice-adrian-peterson-tiger-woods-athletes-dropped-endorsements/

Roberts, T. (2011). Michael Jackson's kingdom: Music, race, and the sound of the mainstream. *Journal of Popular Music Studies*, *23*(1), 19-39.

Rucker, D. D., & Galinsky, A. D. (2009). Conspicuous consumption versus utilitarian ideals: How different levels of power shape consumer behavior. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *45*(3), 549-555.

Rudman, L. A., Feinberg, J., & Fairchild, K. (2002). Minority members' implicit attitudes: Automatic ingroup bias as a function of group status. *Social Cognition*, *20*(4), 294-320.

Rudolph, A. (n.d.). Alan Rudolph Quotes. Retrieved from https://www.brainyquote.com/quotes/authors/a/alan_rudolph.html

Russell, G. W. (1983). Psychological issues in sports aggression. In *Sports violence* (pp. 157-181). New York, NY: Springer.

Sagioglou, C., & Greitemeyer, T. (2014). Facebook's emotional consequences: Why Facebook causes a decrease in mood and why people still use it. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *35*, 359-363.

San Antonio Spurs. [Spurs]. (2016, January 25). On to the next one. Image: https://pbs.twimg.com/media/CZn8-bhWAAADFKm.jpg [Tweet]. Retrieved from https://twitter.com/spurs/status/691862167805693952

Sanderson, A. R., & Siegfried, J. J. (2015). The case for paying college athletes. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, *29*(1), 115-137.

Sanderson, J. (2013). From loving the hero to despising the villain: Sports fans, Facebook, and social identity threats. *Mass Communication and Society*, *16*(4), 487-509.

Sanderson, J., & Emmons, B. (2014). Extending and withholding forgiveness to Josh Hamilton exploring forgiveness within parasocial interaction. *Communication & Sport*, *2*(1), 24-47.

Sanderson, J., & Hambrick, M. E. (2012). Covering the scandal in 140 characters: A case study of Twitter's role in coverage of the Penn State saga. *International Journal of Sport Communication*, *5*(3), 384-402.

Sanderson, J., Hardin, R., & Pate, J. (2014). Embracing the culture of winning in big-time college football: Exploring how fans reinforce coaching power. *Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletics*, *7*, 114-131.

Sank, S. (2015, May). Bayern Munich and Barcelona start Twitter banter war. *90Min*. Retrieved from http://www.90min.com/posts/2127941-bayern-munich-and-barcelona-start-twitter-banter-war

Savage, L. J. (1954). *The Foundations of Statistics. Wiley publications in statistics*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Schmidt, H. C. (2016). Women's sports coverage remains largely marginalized. *Newspaper Research Journal*, *37*(3), 275-298.

Schmitt, M. T., & Branscombe, N. R. (2001). The good, the bad, and the manly: Threats to one's prototypicality and evaluations of fellow in-group members. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *37*(6), 510-517.

Schmittel, A., & Hull, K. (2015). "Shit Got Cray Cray# MYBAD:" An examination of the image-repair discourse of Richie Incognito during the Miami Dolphins' bullying scandal. *Journal of Sports Media*, *10*(2), 115-137.

Schow, A. (2016, March). Ten years after Duke Lacrosse rape hoax, media has learned nothing. *Washington Examiner*. Retrieved from http://www.washingtonexaminer.com/ten-years-after-duke-lacrosse-rape-hoax-media-has-learned-nothing/article/2585793

Schrotenboer, B. (2013, January). Slayings not forgotten, Ray Lewis not forgiven. *USA Today*. Retrieved from http://www.usatoday.com/story/sports/nfl/2013/01/10/ray-lewis-baltimore-ravens-atlanta-murder-2000/1566198/

Schubert, T. W., & Otten, S. (2002). Overlap of self, ingroup, and outgroup: Pictorial measures of self-categorization. *Self and Identity*, *1*(4), 353-376.

Schultz, B., & Sheffer, M. L. (2010). An exploratory study of how Twitter is affecting sports journalism. *International Journal of Sport Communication*, *3*(2), 226-239.

Schumacher-Dimech, A., Brechbühl, A., & Seiler, R. (2016). Dynamics of critical incidents with potentially violent outcomes involving ultra fans: An explorative study. *Sport in Society*, 1-20.

Schwartz, G. S., Kane, T. R., Joseph, J. M., & Tedeschi, J. T. (1978). The effects of post-transgression remorse on perceived aggression, attributions of intent, and level of punishment. *British Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, *17*(4), 293-297.

Segars, A. H. (1997). Assessing the unidimensionality of measurement: A paradigm and illustration within the context of information systems research. *Omega*, *25*(1), 107-121.

Seider, S., Gilbert, J. K., Novick, S. & Gomez, J. (2012). The role of moral and performance character strengths in predicting achievement and conduct among urban middle school students. *Teachers College Record*, *115*, 1-18.

Seidman, G. (2013). Self-presentation and belonging on Facebook: How personality influences social media use and motivations. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *54*(3), 402-407.

Shackelford, T. K., Buss, D. M., & Bennett, K. (2002). Forgiveness or breakup: Sex differences in responses to a partner's infidelity. *Cognition & Emotion*, *16*(2), 299-307.

Shah, J., & Avittathur, B. (2007). The retailer multi-item inventory problem with demand cannibalization and substitution. *International Journal of Production Economics*, *106*(1), 104-114.

Shalev, E., & Morwitz, V. G. (2012). Influence via comparison-driven self-evaluation and restoration: The case of the low-status influencer. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *38*(5), 964-980.

Shaub, M. K. (1995). An analysis of the association of traditional demographic variables with the moral reasoning of auditing students and auditors. *Journal of Accounting Education*, *12*(1), 1-26.

Shayo, M., & Zussman, A. (2010). Judicial ingroup bias in the shadow of terrorism. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, *126*(3), 1447-1484.

Sheehan, R. (2007, April). To the Duke lacrosse team: My bad. *Amarillo Globe News*. Retrieved from http://amarillo.com/stories/042807/opi_7414499.shtml

Simmers, C. S., Damron-Martinez, D., & Haytko, D. L. (2009). Examining the effectiveness of athlete celebrity endorser characteristics and product brand type: The endorser sexpertise continuum. *Journal of Sport Administration & Supervision*, *1*(1), 52-64.

Simpson, C. (2015, September). The impact and influence of hope and hype in decision-making about health technologies. *Healthcare Management Forum*, *28*(5), 218-220.

Sirlin, D. (2005). *Playing to win: Becoming the champion*. Available online at Lulu.com.

Sivanathan, N., & Pettit, N. C. (2010). Protecting the self through consumption: Status goods as affirmational commodities. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *46*(3), 564-570.

Skevington, S. M. (1980). Intergroup relations and social change within a nursing context. *British Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, *19*(3), 201-213.

Skootz. (2017, January). San Francisco Giants MLB wristbands and fan shop. https://www.skootz.com/skootz/san-francisco-giants-mlb-wristbands-fan-shop;jsessionid=36F797998832938CE372D7C48B59C138.jvm1

Sloan, L. R. (1989). The motives of sports fans. In J.H. Goldstein (Ed.), *Sports, games, and play: Social and psychological viewpoints* (2nd ed., pp. 175-240). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Smith, G. J. (1988). The noble sports fan. *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, *12*(1), 54-65.

Smith, L. R., & Smith, K. D. (2012). Identity in Twitter's hashtag culture: A sport-media-consumption case study. *International Journal of Sport Communication*, *5*(4), 539-557.

Snyder, C. R., Lassegard, M., & Ford, C. E. (1986). Distancing after group success and failure: Basking in reflected glory and cutting off reflected failure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *51*(2), 382-388.

Snyder, E. E. (1991). Sociology of sport and humor. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, *26*(2), 119-131.

Solberg, H. A., Hanstad, D. V., & Thøring, T. A. (2010). Doping in elite sport-do the fans care? Public opinion on the consequences of doping scandals. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, *11*(3), 2-16.

Solomon, M. R. (1983). The role of products as social stimuli: A symbolic interactionism perspective. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *10*(3), 319-329.

Son, S., & Kim, D. Y. (2016). The role of perceived management support and trust in mentors on protégés' organizational citizenship behavior. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 1-17.

Spears, N., & Singh, S. N. (2004). Measuring attitude toward the brand and purchase intentions. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, *26*(2), 53-66.

Stahl, R. J. (1976). *Values/moral education: A synthesis model*. Retrieved from ERIC Database (ED129718).

Stewart, N., Ungemach, C., Harris, A. J., Bartels, D. M., Newell, B. R., Paolacci, G., & Chandler, J. (2015). The average laboratory samples a population of 7,300 Amazon Mechanical Turk workers. *Judgment and Decision-making*, *10*(5), 479-491.

Strahilevitz, M. A., & Myers, J. (1998). Donations to charity as purchase incentives: How well they work may depend on what you are trying to sell. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *24*(4), 434.

Sumner, W. G. (1906). *Folkways*. New York, NY: Ginn.

Tajfel, H. (1974). Social identity and intergroup behaviour. *Social Science Information/Sur Les Sciences Sociales*, *13*(2), 65-93.

Tajfel, H. (1982). Social psychology of intergroup relations. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *33*(1), 1-39.

Tajfel, H. & Turner, J.C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W.G. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33-47). Monterey, CA: Brooks-Cole.

Tamarkin, E. (2016). Why forgive Carlyle?. *Representations*, *134*(1), 64-92.

Taylor, T. S., & Hosch, H. M. (2004). An examination of jury verdicts for evidence of a similarity-leniency effect, an out-group punitiveness effect or a black sheep effect. *Law and Human Behavior*, *28*(5), 587-598.

Team Marketing Report. (2014, November). Fan Cost Index of National Hockey League teams in 2014/15 (in U.S. dollars). In *Statista - The Statistics Portal*. Retrieved from http://www.statista.com.proxy.lib.umich.edu/statistics/202635/fan-cost-index-of-the-national-hockey-league/

Team Marketing Report. (2016a, January). Average Fan Cost Index of the National Basketball Association from 2010/11 to 2015/16 (in U.S. dollars). In *Statista - The Statistics Portal*. Retrieved from https://www-statista-com.proxy.lib.umich.edu/statistics/218519/fan-cost-index-of-the-national-basketball-association/

Team Marketing Report. (2016b, April). Fan Cost Index of Major League Baseball teams in 2016 (in U.S. dollars). In *Statista - The Statistics Portal*. Retrieved from https://www-statista-com.proxy.lib.umich.edu/statistics/202611/fan-cost-index-of-the-major-league-baseball/

Team Marketing Report. (2016c, October). Fan Cost Index of National Football League teams in 2016 (in U.S. dollars). In *Statista - The Statistics Portal*. Retrieved from http://www.statista.com.proxy.lib.umich.edu/statistics/202584/nfl--fan-cost-index/

Teevan, J., Ramage, D., & Morris, M. R. (2011, February). # TwitterSearch: a comparison of microblog search and web search. *Proceedings of the Fourth ACM International Conference on Web Search and Data Mining*. Paper presented at the ACM International Conference on Web Search and Data Mining, Hong Kong, CN (pp. 35-44). New York, NY: Association for Computer Machinery.

The World Bank. (2016). Population, total. Retrieved from http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.TOTL

Thompson, W. (2016, April). The secret history of Tiger Woods. *ESPN*. Retrieved from http://espn.go.com/espn/feature/story/_/id/15278522/how-tiger-woods-life-unraveled-years-father-earl-woods-death

Timmons, A. C. (2010). Establishing factorial invariance for multiple-group confirmatory factor analysis. *KUant Guide*, *22.1*.

Tipton, S. M. (2016). Changing faith: The dynamics and consequences of Americans' shifting religious identities. *Contemporary Sociology: A Journal of Reviews*, *45*(1), 82-84.

Tobacyk, J., & Shrader, D. (1991). Superstition and self-efficacy. *Psychological Reports*, *68*(3c), 1387-1388.

Toussaint, L., & Webb, J. R. (2005). Gender differences in the relationship between empathy and forgiveness. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *145*(6), 673-685.

Toussaint, L., Worthington, E. L., van Tongeren, D. R., Hook, J., Berry, J. W., Miller, A. J., & Davis, D. E. (2016). Forgiveness working forgiveness, health, and productivity in the workplace. *American Journal of Health Promotion*. Advance online publication. doi: 10.1177/0890117116662312.

Trafimow, D., & Trafimow, S. (1999). Mapping perfect and imperfect duties onto hierarchically and partially restrictive trait dimensions. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 25*, 686-695.

Tsang, J. A. (2002). Moral rationalization and the integration of situational factors and psychological processes in immoral behavior. *Review of General Psychology*, *6*(1), 25-50.

Tsikerdekis, M., & Zeadally, S. (2014). Online deception in social media. *Communications of the ACM*, *57*(9), 72-80.

Tsiros, M., & Mittal, V. (2000). Regret: A model of its antecedents and consequences in consumer decision-making. *Journal of Consumer Research*,*26*(4), 401-417.

Turner, J. Q., & Giles, H. (1981). The social psychology of intergroup behaviour. *Intergroup Behaviour*, 1-32.

Tuttle, B. (2012, February). The 'Linsanity' Effect: NY Knicks' guard Jeremy Lin's surprise success leads to sold-out arenas, jerseys. *Time*. Retrieved from http://business.time.com/2012/02/13/the-linsanity-effect-ny-knicks-guard-jeremy-lins-surprise-success-leads-to-sold-out-arenas-jerseys/

Twitter Help Center. (2016, November). About verified accounts. Retrieved from https://support.twitter.com/articles/119135

Tyler, B. D., & Cobbs, J. B. (2015). Rival conceptions of rivalry: why some competitions mean more than others. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, *15*(2), 227-248.

Tyralis, H., Koutsoyiannis, D., & Kozanis, S. (2013). An algorithm to construct Monte Carlo confidence intervals for an arbitrary function of probability distribution parameters. *Computational Statistics*, *28*(4), 1501-1527.

USA Today. (2016, December). NFL player arrests database. Retrieved from http://www.usatoday.com/sports/nfl/arrests/

van de Schoot, R., Lugtig, P., & Hox, J. (2012). A checklist for testing measurement invariance. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology*, *9*(4), 486-492.

van der Toorn, J., Ellemers, N., & Doosje, B. (2015). The threat of moral transgression: The impact of group membership and moral opportunity. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *45*(5), 609-622.

van Der Velden, M., & El Emam, K. (2013). “Not all my friends need to know:” A qualitative study of teenage patients, privacy, and social media. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*, *20*(1), 16-24.

van Wyk, A. E. (2007). The end justifies the means. *Taxon*, *56*(3), 645-648.

Vandoninck, S., d'Haenens, L., & Donoso, V. (2010). Digital Literacy of Flemish Youth: How do they handle online content risks? *Communications*, *35*(4), 397-416.

Viera, A. J., & Garrett, J. M. (2005). Understanding interobserver agreement: The kappa statistic. *Family Medicine*, *37*(5), 360-363.

Viki, G. T., Abrams, D., & Winchester, L. (2013). Ingroup identification and evaluations of confessions from ingroup and outgroup members. *Social Psychology*, *44*, 256-263.

Vila, G. O., González, J. D., Martín, J. F., Fuentes-Guerra, J. G., Martín, P. J. J., Sánchez, C. J., ... & Camacho-Miñano, M. J. (2016). Moral development in sports at school age: Towards a fair play behaviours typology expressed in the White Card (Tarjeta Blanca) programme. *Movement & Sport Sciences*, *91*(1), 21-29.

von Neumann, J., & Morgenstern, O. (1947). *Theory of games and economic behavior* (2nd rev. ed.). Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Wang, Y., Norcie, G., Komanduri, S., Acquisti, A., Leon, P. G., & Cranor, L. F. (2011, July). I regretted the minute I pressed share: A qualitative study of regrets on Facebook. In *Proceedings of the Seventh Symposium on Usable Privacy and Security* (p. 1-16). Pittsburgh, PA: Association for Computing Machinery.

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

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

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

Wann, D. L., & Cottingham, M. (2015). The impact of team identification and knowledge of an athlete's physical disability on spectators' impression of players. *Journal of Contemporary Athletics*, *9*(3), 161-171.

Wann, D. L., & Dolan, T. J. (1994). Influence of spectators' identification on evaluation of the past, present, and future performance of a sports team. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, *78*(2), 547-552.

Wann, D. L., & Grieve, F. G. (2005). Biased evaluations of in-group and out-group spectator behavior at sporting events: The importance of team identification and threats to social identity. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *145*(5), 531-546.

Wann, D. L., Grieve, F. G., Zapalac, R. K., & Pease, D. G. (2008). Motivational profiles of sport fans of different sports. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *17*(1), 6-19.

Wann, D. L., Koch, K., Knoth, T., Fox, D., Aljubaily, H., & Lantz, C. D. (2006). The impact of team identification on biased predications of player performance. *The Psychological Record*, *56*(1), 55-66.

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

Watkins, J., Hjorth, L., & Koskinen, I. (2012). Wising up: Revising mobile media in an age of smartphones. *Continuum*, *26*(5), 665-668.

Wawrytko, S. A. (2001). Tracking the “human” in humanistic Buddhism. *Universal Gate Buddhist Journal*, *4*, 1-32.

We Are Social. (2016, September). Most famous social network sites worldwide as of September 2016, ranked by number of active users (in millions). In *Statista - The Statistics Portal*. Retrieved from https://www-statista-com.proxy.lib.umich.edu/statistics/272014/global-social-networks-ranked-by-number-of-users/

Weisel, O., & Böhm, R. (2015). “Ingroup love” and “outgroup hate” in intergroup conflict between natural groups. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *60*, 110-120.

Welfens, P. J. (2014). Issues of modern macroeconomics: New post-crisis perspectives on the world economy. *International Economics and Economic Policy*, *11*(4), 481-527.

White, K., & Argo, J. J. (2009). Social identity threat and consumer preferences. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *19*(3), 313-325.

Williams, S. E., Cumming, J., Ntoumanis, N., Nordin-Bates, S. M., Ramsey, R., & Hall, C. (2012). Further validation and development of the movement imagery questionnaire. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, *34*, 621-646.

Wittink, D. R., & Bayer, L. R. (1994). The measurement imperative. *Marketing Research*, *6*(4), 14-22.

Yates, F. (1934). Contingency tables involving small numbers and the χ^2 test. *Supplement to the Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, *1*(2), 217-235.

Yi, Y. (1990). A critical review of consumer satisfaction. *Review of Marketing*, *4*(1), 68-123.

YouGov. (2015, July). Most commonly regretted types of social media posts according to adults in the United States as of July 2015. In *Statista - The Statistics Portal*. Retrieved July 22, 2016, from http://www.statista.com.proxy.lib.umich.edu/statistics/459369/most-common-social-media-regrets-usa/

Youmans, W. L., & York, J. C. (2012). Social media and the activist toolkit: User agreements, corporate interests, and the information infrastructure of modern social movements. *Journal of Communication*, *62*(2), 315-329.

Yzerbyt, V., Castano, E., Leyens, J. P., & Paladino, M. P. (2000). The primacy of the ingroup: The interplay of entitativity and identification. *European Review of Social Psychology*, *11*(1), 257-295.

Zeelenberg, M. (1999). Anticipated regret, expected feedback and behavioral decision-making. *Journal of Behavioral Decision-making*, *12*(2), 93-106.

Zeelenberg, M., & Beattie, J. (1997). Consequences of regret aversion 2: Additional evidence for effects of feedback on decision-making. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *72*(1), 63-78.

Zeelenberg, M., & Pieters, R. (2006). Looking backward with an eye on the future. In L.J. Sanna & E.C. Chang (Eds.), *Judgments over time: The interplay of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors* (pp. 210-229). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Zeelenberg, M., Inman, J. J., & Pieters, R. G. (2001). What we do when decisions go awry: Behavioral consequences of experienced regret. In E.U. Weber, J. Baron, & G. Loomes (Eds.), *Conflict and tradeoffs in decision-making* (pp. 136-155). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Zeelenberg, M., van Dijk, W. W., Manstead, A. S., & van der Pligt, J. (2000). On bad decisions and disconfirmed expectancies: The psychology of regret and disappointment. *Cognition & Emotion*, *14*(4), 521-541.

Zhou, L., Wang, W., & Chen, K. (2015, May). Identifying regrettable messages from tweets. In *Proceedings of the 24th International Conference on World Wide Web* (pp. 145-146). New York, NY: Association for Computing Machinery.

Zillmann, D., Bryant, J., & Sapolsky, B. S. (1989). Enjoyment from sports spectatorship. In J.H. Goldstein (Ed.), *Sports, games, and play: Social and psychological viewpoints* (2nd ed., pp. 241-278). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Appendix A

Approval Letters from Institutional Review Boards (IRB)

University of Michigan

Sean Pradhan <seanprad@umich.edu>

eResearch Notification: Notice of Exemption for (HUM00109565)

1 message

eresearch@umich.edu <eresearch@umich.edu> Wed, Dec 2, 2015 at 4:18 PM
Reply-To: eresearch@umich.edu
To: seanprad@umich.edu, kwakd@umich.edu

Health Sciences and Behavioral Sciences Institutional Review Board (IRB-HSBS) • 2800 Plymouth Rd., Building 520, Room 1170, Ann Arbor, MI 48109-2800 • phone (734) 936-0933 • fax (734) 998-9171 • irbhsbs@umich.edu

To: Sean Pradhan

From:

There are no items to display

Cc:

Sean	Pradhan
Dae Hee	Kwak

Subject: Notice of Exemption for [HUM00109565]

SUBMISSION INFORMATION:
Title: The Black Sheep Effect and Sports Fan Behavior
Full Study Title (if applicable): The Influence of Performance Expectations and Team Identification on the Black Sheep Effect and Sports Consumption Behavior
Study eResearch ID: HUM00109565
Date of this Notification from IRB: 12/2/2015
Date of IRB Exempt Determination: 12/2/2015
UM Federalwide Assurance: FWA00004969 (For the current FWA expiration date, please visit the UM HRPP Webpage)
OHRP IRB Registration Number(s):

IRB EXEMPTION STATUS:
The IRB HSBS has reviewed the study referenced above and determined that, as currently described, it is exempt from ongoing IRB review, per the following federal exemption category:

> **EXEMPTION #2 of the 45 CFR 46.101.(b):**
> Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless: (i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Note that the study is considered exempt as long as any changes to the use of human subjects (including their data)

remain within the scope of the exemption category above. Any proposed changes that may exceed the scope of this category, or the approval conditions of any other non-IRB reviewing committees, must be submitted as an amendment through eResearch.

Although an exemption determination eliminates the need for ongoing IRB review and approval, you still have an obligation to understand and abide by generally accepted principles of responsible and ethical conduct of research. Examples of these principles can be found in the Belmont Report as well as in guidance from professional societies and scientific organizations.

SUBMITTING AMENDMENTS VIA eRESEARCH:
You can access the online forms for amendments in the eResearch workspace for this exempt study, referenced above.

ACCESSING EXEMPT STUDIES IN eRESEARCH:
Click the "Exempt and Not Regulated" tab in your eResearch home workspace to access this exempt study.

Thad Polk
Chair, IRB HSBS

San José State University

SJSU SAN JOSÉ STATE UNIVERSITY | Office of Research Division of Academic Affairs | San José State University One Washington Square San José, CA 95192-0025 | TEL: 408-924-2272 sjsu.edu/research

To: Dr. Sean Laraway
Department of Psychology
San Jose State University
One Washington Square
San Jose, CA 95192-0120

Sean Pradhan
University of Michigan

From: Pamela C. Stacks, Ph.D.
Associate Vice President
Office of Research

Pamela C Stacks

Date: May 12, 2016

The Human Subjects-Institutional Review Board has registered your study entitled:

"No Take Backs? The Effects of Performance and Moral Actions on Sports Consumption Behavior"

This registration, which provides exempt status under Exemption Category 2 of SJSU Policy S08-7, is contingent upon the subjects participating in your research project being appropriately protected from risk. This includes the protection of the confidentiality of the subjects' identity when they participate in your research project, and with regard to all data that may be collected from the subjects. The approval includes continued monitoring of your research by the Board to assure that the subjects are being adequately and properly protected from such risks. If at any time a subject becomes injured or complains of injury, you must notify Dr. Pamela Stacks, Ph.D. immediately. Injury includes but is not limited to bodily harm, psychological trauma, and release of potentially damaging personal information. This approval for the human subject's portion of your project is in effect for one year, and data collection beyond May 12, 2017 requires an extension request.

Please also be advised that all subjects need to be fully informed and aware that their participation in your research project is voluntary. Further, a subject's participation or refusal to participate, will not affect any services that the subject is receiving or will receive at the institution in which the research is being conducted. If you have any questions, please contact me at (408) 924-2479.

Protocol # F16073

Appendix B

Consent Form

Consent to Participate in a Research Study

Welcome to the College Football Attitudes and Opinions Study

Dr. Dae Hee Kwak and Sean Pradhan of the University of Michigan, Department of Sport Management, invite you to be a part of a research study that examines opinions about college football. The purpose of the study is to gain better insight into fan behavior.

If you choose to participate in this study, you will first need to provide your consent by clicking a button ("Yes, I consent to participate in the study"). You will then begin be asked to complete an online survey about your attitudes and opinions on college football. We expect this survey to take 5 to 10 minutes to complete. Please take time to answer each question honestly.

[For Mturk participants: You will receive $0.50 for your participation for this study.]

[For students: If your instructor has permitted extra credit for your participation, you will also be asked to complete a form to confirm your participation in our study, providing your name, course number, and instructor's name.]

In addition, we hope that this study will contribute to the overall understanding of sports fan behavior.

[For MTurk participants: We believe that the risks of participating in this study are minimal, no different from those encountered in daily life. We plan to store the data on an encrypted, password protected hard drive. Please note that since you are enrolling in this research study through the Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) site, we need to let you know that information gathered through Amazon MTurk is not completely anonymous. Any work performed on Amazon MTurk can potentially be linked to information about you on your Amazon public profile page, depending on the settings you have for your Amazon profile. Any linking of data by MTurk to your ID is outside of the control of the researcher for this study. We will not be accessing any identifiable information about you that you may have put on your Amazon public profile page. We will store your MTurk worker ID separately from the other information you provide to us. Amazon Mechanical Turk has privacy policies of its own outlined for you in Amazon's privacy agreement. If you have concerns about how your information will be used by Amazon, you should consult them directly.]

[For students: We believe that the risks of participating in this study are minimal, no different from those encountered in daily life. We plan to store the data on an encrypted, password protected hard drive.]

Additionally, this research is for residents of the United States over the age of 18. If you are not a resident of the United States and/or under the age of 18, please do not complete this survey. We plan to publish the results of this study, but will not include any information that would identify you.

Participating in this study is completely voluntary. Even if you decide to participate now, you may change your mind and stop at any time. You may skip or refuse to answer any survey question or part of the study that makes you uncomfortable. If you wish to participate in this study, answer “yes” to the appropriate question and then click “NEXT” to begin the survey.

If you have any questions about this research study, you can contact Dr. Dae Hee Kwak at kwakd@umich.edu or Sean Pradhan at seanprad@umich.edu, University of Michigan, Department of Sport Management, 1402 Washington Heights, Ann Arbor, MI 48109.

By answering “yes” to the question below, you are consenting to participate in this research survey.

If you do not wish to participate, click the “x” in the top corner of your browser to exit.

Appendix C

Source Credibility

1. Which is the most credible news source for sports? (Please choose one)

2. Which is the most credible news source for college football and high school recruiting information? (Please choose one)

Choices:

- ❍ ABC Sports
- ❍ Associated Press (AP)
- ❍ BBC Sports
- ❍ CBS Sports
- ❍ Deadspin
- ❍ MaxPreps
- ❍ ESPN
- ❍ Fox News
- ❍ Google Sports
- ❍ NBC Sports
- ❍ Rant Sports
- ❍ Reuters
- ❍ SB Nation
- ❍ Sporting News
- ❍ Sports Illustrated
- ❍ USA Today
- ❍ Yahoo! Sports
- ❍ Other _____

Appendix D

Target Athlete Stimuli

(Study 1)

Fictitious Report

James Wendell is a 5-star (on a scale of 1-star to 5-stars) quarterback recruit who has committed to (selected university team). He is currently a senior in high school and will be joining (selected university team) at the start of next season. On the following pages, you will answer a few questions about James Wendell, view his season statistics, and read a report about him.

Performance Manipulation

Table D1. Expectancy Confirmation Statistics (High Performance)

Here are the top 10 quarterback recruit's statistics for the season. James Wendell's season statistics are also displayed below.

Rank	Name	Position	Passing Yards	Passing Yards Per Game	Completions	Attempts	Completion Percentage	Touchdowns	Interceptions	QB Rating
1	James Wendell	QB	5372	585.6	300	345	86.96%	72	2	198.4
2	Austin Scott	QB	4173	417.3	150	202	74.3%	51	1	151.5
3	Nathan Rourke	QB	3941	375	167	252	66.3%	50	2	150.2
4	Darquez Lee	QB	3750	360.6	170	243	70.0%	49	3	144.5
5	Kurt Rawlings	QB	3714	358.3	173	300	57.7%	48	6	140.8
6	Shelton Eppler	QB	3606	337.6	177	239	74.1%	47	8	135.5
7	Kaylor Sullivan	QB	3249	331	238	414	57.5%	46	9	128.8
8	Omar Salih	QB	3062	298.1	246	358	68.7%	45	10	124.7
9	Osai Brown	QB	2981	295.4	253	387	65.4%	44	11	118.2
10	Derrick Ponder	QB	2979	278.4	264	408	64.7%	43	11	116.7
	Source: MaxPreps (2015)									

Table D2. Expectancy Confirmation Report (High Performance)

In his last few games, 5-star quarterback recruit James Wendell has played quite extraordinarily, leading his team to consecutive victories during that stretch. Last week, during his high school's championship game, Wendell, a committed recruit for (selected university team), single-handedly led his team to victory, completing 85% of his passes, posting over 500 yards passing, and throwing for 5 touchdowns and no interceptions. James Wendell's statistics for the championship game are displayed below.

	Completions /Attempts	Completion percentage	Passing Yards	Average Yards per Attempt	Touchdowns	Interceptions	Sacks (Number of Sacks-Yards Lost)	Quarterback Rating (QBR)	Passer Rating (RTG)
James Wendell	35/40	87.5%	523	13.1	5	0	0-0	99.0	158.3

Table D3. Expectancy Violation Statistics (Low Performance)

Here are the top-10 quarterback recruit's statistics for the season. James Wendell's season statistics are also displayed below.

Rank	Name	Position	Passing Yards	Passing Yards Per Game	Completions	Attempts	Completion Percentage	Touchdowns	Interceptions	QB Rating
1	Austin Scott	QB	4173	417.3	150	202	74.3%	51	1	151.5
2	Nathan Rourke	QB	3941	375	167	252	66.3%	50	2	150.2
3	Darquez Lee	QB	3750	360.6	170	243	70.0%	49	3	144.5
4	Kurt Rawlings	QB	3714	358.3	173	300	57.7%	48	6	140.8
5	Shelton Eppler	QB	3606	337.6	177	239	74.1%	47	8	135.5
6	Kaylor Sullivan	QB	3249	331	238	414	57.5%	46	9	128.8
7	Omar Salih	QB	3062	298.1	246	358	68.7%	45	10	124.7
8	Osai Brown	QB	2981	295.4	253	387	65.4%	44	11	118.2
9	Derrick Ponder	QB	2979	278.4	264	408	64.7%	43	11	116.7
10	James Wendell	QB	1890	171.8	150	325	46.2%	20	44	84.1
	Source: MaxPreps (2015)									

Table D4. Expectancy Violation Report (Low Performance)

In his last few games, 5-star quarterback recruit James Wendell has played quite poorly, letting his team lose consecutively during that stretch. Last week, during his high school's championship game, Wendell, a committed recruit for (selected university team), single-handedly lost the game for his team, completing only 25% of his passes, posting under 100 yards passing with no touchdowns and 5 interceptions, and taking 4 sacks for a loss of over 75 yards. James Wendell's statistics for the championship game are displayed below.

	Completions/ Attempts	Completion percentage	Passing Yards	Average Yards per Attempt	Touchdowns	Interceptions	Sacks (Number of Sacks-Yards Lost)	Quarterback Rating (QBR)	Passer Rating (RTG)
James Wendell	10/40	25%	89	2.22	0	5	4-78	1.0	0.0

Appendix E

Post-Measures

Expectations and Performance

1. A 5-star recruit should be expected to play at a high level.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

2. In football, what is the worst mistake in a game that a quarterback can make?

(Please choose one)

- ❍ Throwing an interception returned for a touchdown (“pick-six”)
- ❍ Getting sacked for a huge loss of yards
- ❍ Turning the ball over when the game is on the line
- ❍ Single-handedly losing the game for his team
- ❍ Getting sacked for a safety
- ❍ Posting horrible statistics in a loss
- ❍ Other _____

3. In football, what is the best play in a game a quarterback can make? (Please choose one)

- ❍ Throwing for the go ahead touchdown when the game is on the line
- ❍ Posting amazing statistics regardless of a win or loss
- ❍ Single-handedly leading his team to victory
- ❍ Other _____

Believability

1. How believable was the report on James Wendell?

- ❍ Very Unbelievable
- ❍ Unbelievable
- ❍ Somewhat Unbelievable
- ❍ Not Sure
- ❍ Somewhat Believable
- ❍ Believable
- ❍ Very Believable

Thoughts

1. What did you think of this study? Please provide your honest opinions.

2. What would you suggest to make the report on James Wendell even more believable?

Appendix F

Demographic Questionnaire

(Study 1)

1. How old are you?

2. What is your gender?

❍ Male

❍ Female

❍ Other _____

3. What is your ethnicity?

❑ Asian / Pacific Islander

❑ Hispanic or Latino

❑ Black or African American

❑ Native American or American Indian

❑ White

❑ Other _____

4. In what state do you reside?

5. What is your highest level of education?

- ❍ Some high school, no diploma
- ❍ High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent (for example: GED)
- ❍ Some college credit, no degree
- ❍ Trade/technical/vocational training
- ❍ Associate degree
- ❍ Bachelor’s degree
- ❍ Master’s degree
- ❍ Professional degree
- ❍ Doctorate degree

Appendix G

Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS)

(Wann & Branscombe, 1993)

1. How important to you is it that (Target Team) wins?

- ❍ Not at all Important
- ❍ A Little Important
- ❍ Slightly Important
- ❍ Neutral
- ❍ Somewhat Important
- ❍ Very Important
- ❍ Extremely Important

2. How strongly do you see yourself as a fan of (Target Team)?

- ❍ Not at all a Fan
- ❍ Not a Fan
- ❍ Not much a Fan
- ❍ Neutral
- ❍ Somewhat a Fan
- ❍ A Fan
- ❍ Very much a Fan

3. How strongly do your friends see you as a fan of (Target Team)?

- ❍ Not at all a Fan
- ❍ Not a Fan
- ❍ Not much a Fan
- ❍ Neutral
- ❍ Somewhat a Fan
- ❍ A Fan
- ❍ Very much a Fan

4. During the season, how closely do you follow (Target Team) via ANY of the following: a) in person or on television, b) on the radio, c) television news, d) through applications on your smartphone, tablet, or computer, e) online sports site or blog?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Very Often
- ❍ Almost Every Day
- ❍ Every Day

5. How important is being a fan of (Target Team) to you?

- ❍ Not at all Important
- ❍ A Little Important
- ❍ Slightly Important
- ❍ Neutral
- ❍ Somewhat Important
- ❍ Very Important
- ❍ Extremely Important

6. How much do you dislike the greatest rivals of (Target Team)?

- ❍ Like Extremely
- ❍ Like Very Much
- ❍ Like Slightly
- ❍ Neither Like nor Dislike
- ❍ Dislike Slightly
- ❍ Dislike Very Much
- ❍ Dislike Extremely

7. How often do you display the name or logo of (Target Team) at your place of work, where you live, in your car, on your cell phone, on your laptop, or on your clothing?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Very Often
- ❍ Almost Every Day
- ❍ Every Day

Appendix H

Performance Trait Evaluation Measure

(as identified in prior literature;

Davidson & Lickona, 2007; Seider, Gilbert, Novick, & Gomez, 2012)

Please rate James Wendell on the following traits:

1. Competence

Not at all competent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very competent*

2. Intelligence

Not at all intelligent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very intelligent*

3. Diligence

Not at all diligent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very diligent*

4. Dependability

Not at all dependable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very dependable*

5. Persistence

Not at all persistent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very persistent*

6. Discipline

Not at all disciplined 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very disciplined*

7. Grit (referring to perseverance and passion for long-term goals)

Not at all gritty 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very gritty*

Appendix I

Competence-Based Trust (CBT) Scale

(Ferrin, Kim, Cooper, & Dirks, 2007)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

1. James Wendell is a very capable quarterback.
2. James Wendell has great knowledge about being a quarterback.
3. I feel very confident about James Wendell's skills as a quarterback.
4. James Wendell is well suited at the quarterback position.

Appendix J

Self-Identity Threat (SIT) Scale

(Murtagh, Gatersleben, & Uzzell, 2012)

Assuming that James Wendell starts as the quarterback of (Target Team) next season, please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

1. It undermines my sense of being a fan of (Target Team).
2. I would have to change who I am as a fan.
3. It makes feel less unique as a fan of (Target Team).
4. It makes me feel less competent as a fan of (Target Team).

Appendix K

Identity Threat Items

(Dietz-Uhler, End, Demakakos, Dickirson, & Grantz, 2002)

Assuming James Wendell is the starting quarterback of (Selected Team) next season:

1. How COMFORTABLE would you feel?

Not at all comfortable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very comfortable*

2. How BOTHERED would you be?

Not at all bothered 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very bothered*

3. How THREATENED would you feel?

Not at all threatened 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very threatened*

4. (Selected Team) should ask James Wendell to revoke his commitment to the team.

- ❍ Strongly Disagree
- ❍ Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Disagree
- ❍ Neither Agree nor Disagree
- ❍ Somewhat Agree
- ❍ Agree
- ❍ Strongly Agree

Appendix L

Evaluative Measure

(Manipulation Check)

Performance Rating

1. How would you rate James Wendell's performance?

- ❍ Far short of expectations
- ❍ Short of expectations
- ❍ Equals expectations
- ❍ Exceeds expectations
- ❍ Far exceeds expectations

Appendix M

Group Membership and Image Congruence Measures

(Manipulation Checks)

Group Membership

1. How much of a part of your favorite team is James Wendell?

Not at all part of the team 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much a part of the team

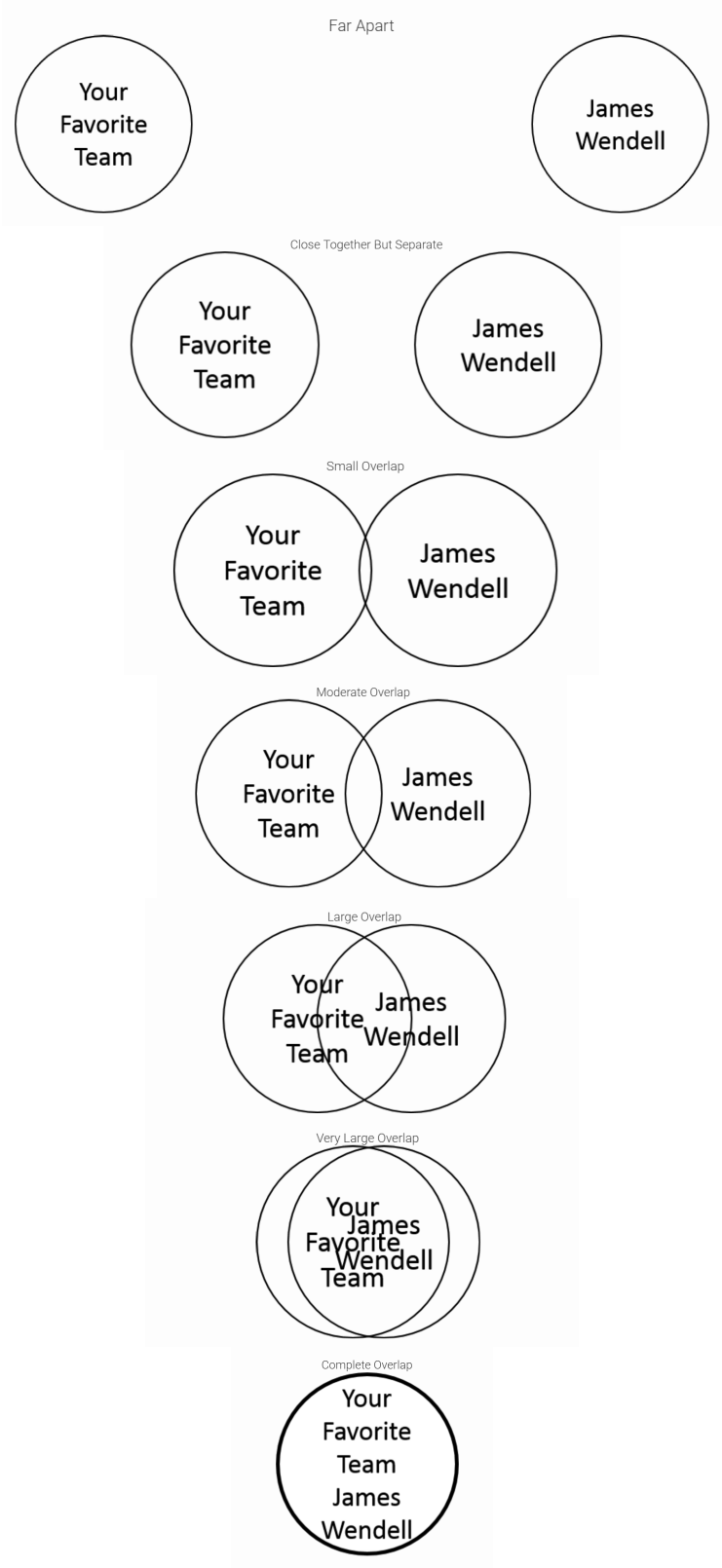
Image Congruence

Overlap of Self, Ingroup, and Outgroup (OSIO; Schubert & Otten, 2002)

Assessment of Ingroup-Outgroup Overlap Subscale

1. Please indicate the degree to which your favorite team's image overlaps with the image of James Wendell, a committed recruit to (Target Team).

- ❍ Far Apart
- ❍ Close Together But Separate
- ❍ Small Overlap
- ❍ Moderate Overlap
- ❍ Large Overlap
- ❍ Very Large Overlap
- ❍ Complete Overlap


Far Apart
Your Favorite Team
James Wendell
Close Together But Separate
Your Favorite Team
James Wendell
Small Overlap
Your Favorite Team
James Wendell
Moderate Overlap
Your Favorite Team
James Wendell
Large Overlap
Your Favorite Team
James Wendell
Very Large Overlap
Your Favorite Team
James Wendell
Complete Overlap
Your Favorite Team James Wendell

Appendix N

Target Athlete Stimuli

(Study 2)

Performance Manipulation

Image N1. Recruit Report – Ingroup

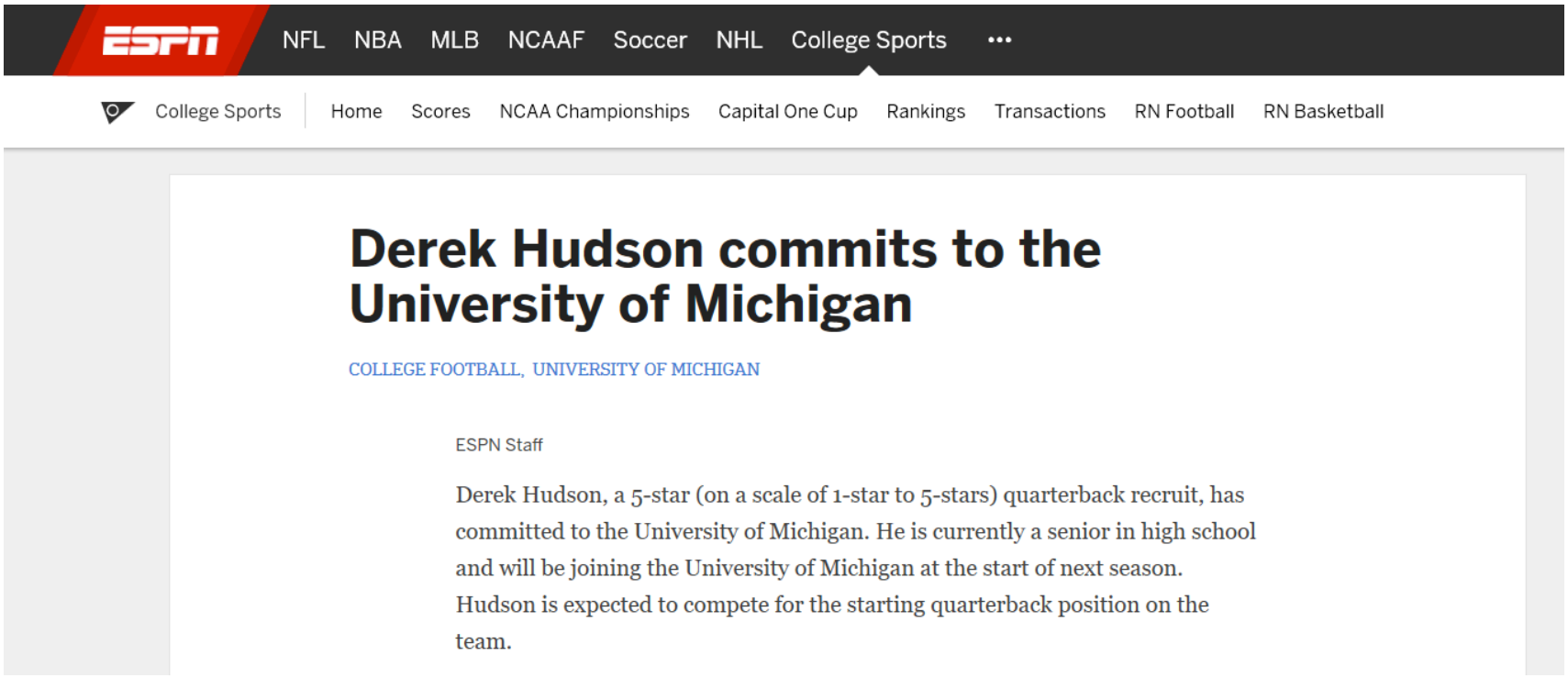


Image N2. Recruit Report – Outgroup

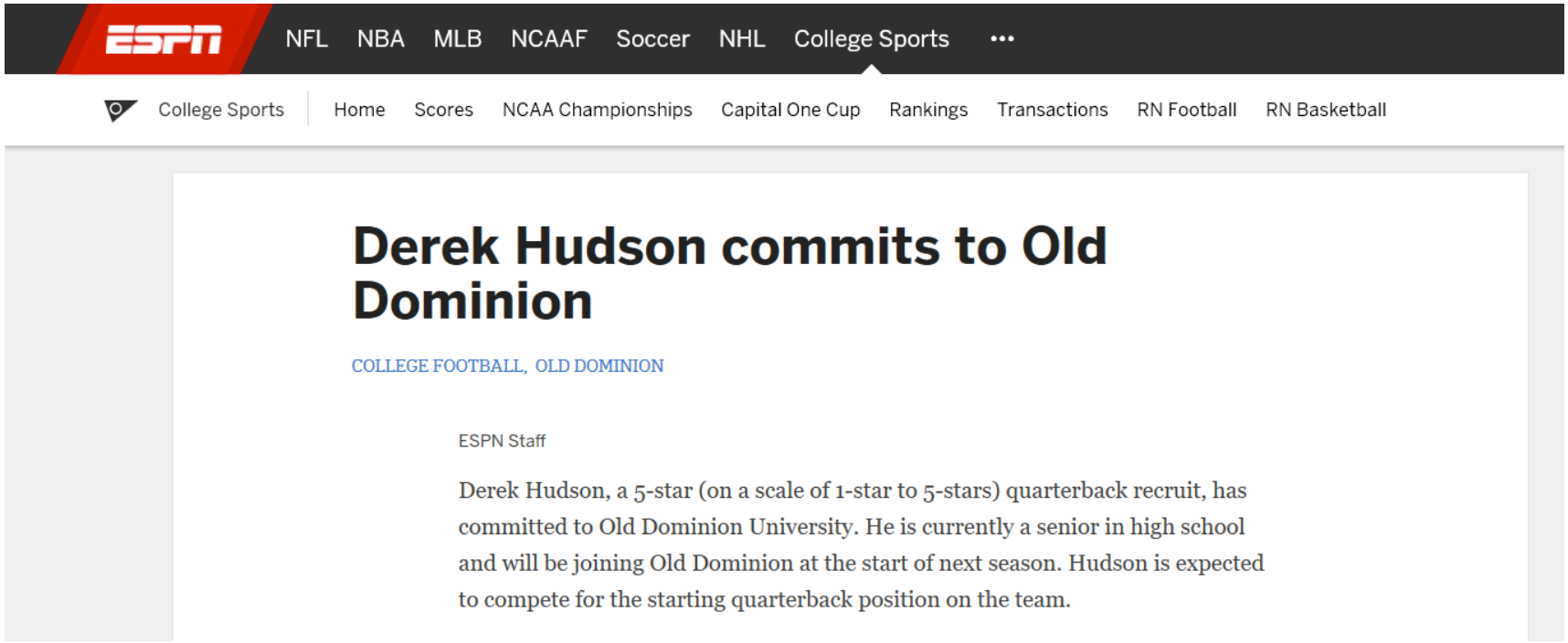


Image N3. Expectancy Confirmation Statistics (High Performance) – Identical for Ingroup and Outgroup

Here are the top 10 quarterback recruit's statistics for the season from ESPN. Derek Hudson's season statistics are also displayed below.

RK	PLAYER	POSITION	COMP	ATT	PCT	YDS	YDS/G	TD	INT	RATE
1	Derek Hudson	QB	282	350	80.6	4,316	479.6	57	3	175.8
2	Austin Scott	QB	150	202	74.3	4,173	417.3	51	1	151.5
3	Nathan Rourke	QB	167	252	66.3	3,941	375	50	2	150.2
4	Darquez Lee	QB	170	243	70.0	3,750	360.6	49	3	144.5
5	Kurt Rawlings	QB	173	300	57.7	3,714	358.3	48	6	140.8
6	Shelton Eppler	QB	177	239	74.1	3,606	337.6	47	8	135.5
7	Kaylor Sullivan	QB	238	414	57.5	3,249	331	46	9	128.8
8	Omar Salih	QB	246	358	68.7	3,062	298.1	45	10	124.7
9	Osai Brown	QB	253	387	65.4	2,981	295.4	44	11	118.2
10	Derrick Ponder	QB	264	408	64.7	2,979	278.4	43	11	116.7

Image N4. Expectancy Confirmation Report (High Performance) – Ingroup

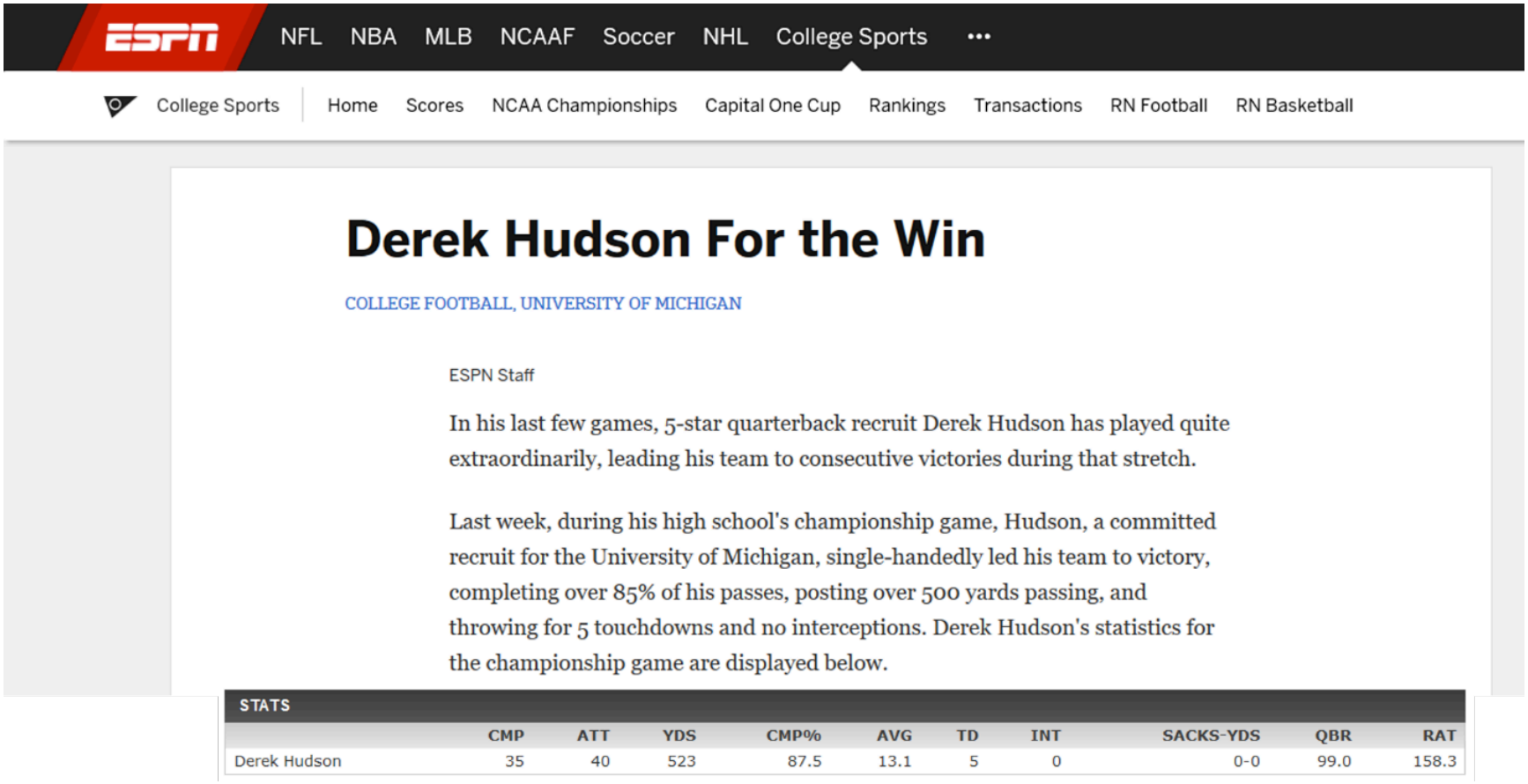
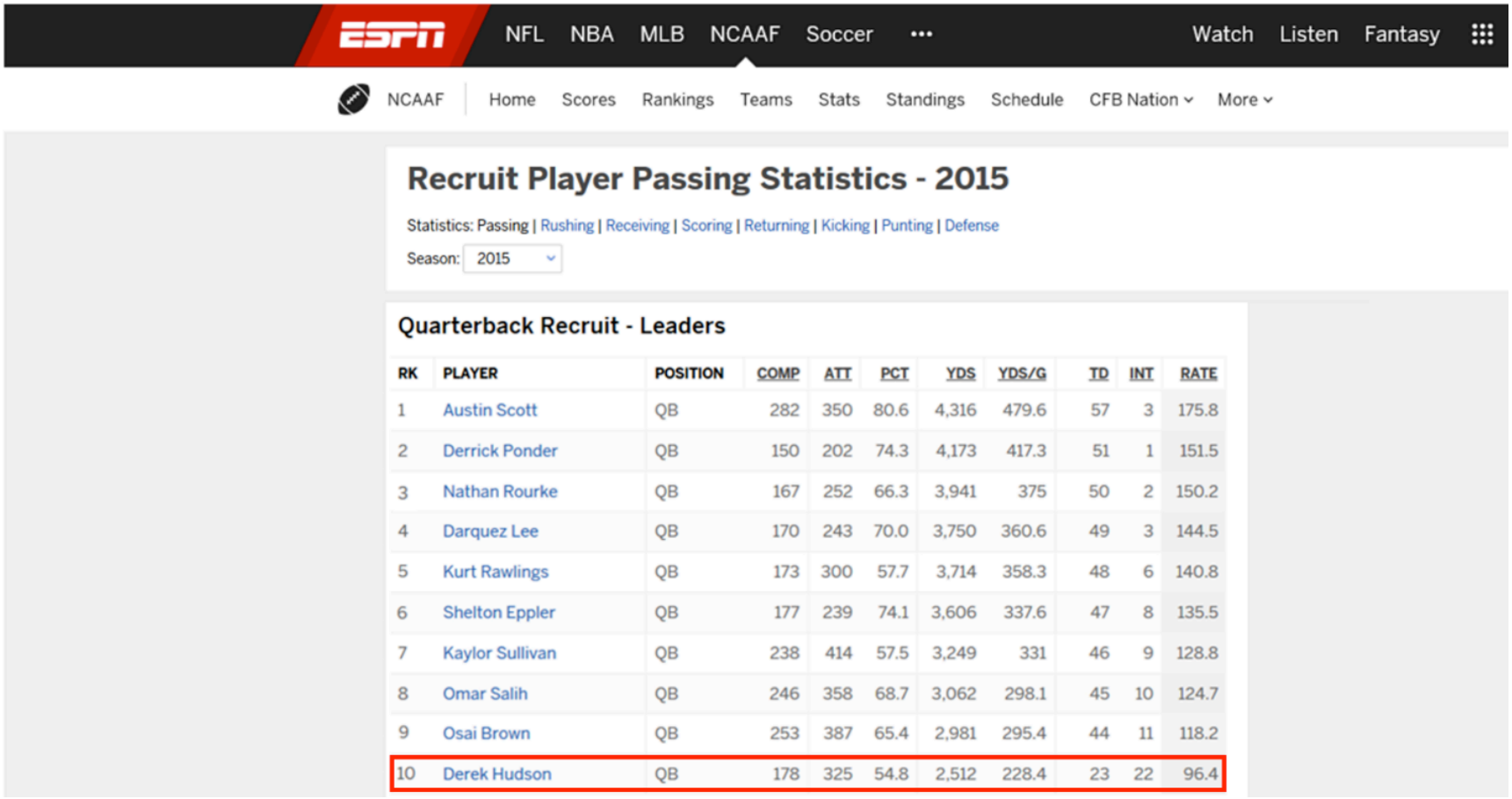


Image N5. Expectancy Violation Statistics (Low Performance) – Identical for Ingroup and Outgroup

Here are the top 10 quarterback recruit's statistics for the season from ESPN. Derek Hudson's season statistics are also displayed below.



RK	PLAYER	POSITION	COMP	ATT	PCT	YDS	YDS/G	TD	INT	RATE
1	Austin Scott	QB	282	350	80.6	4,316	479.6	57	3	175.8
2	Derrick Ponder	QB	150	202	74.3	4,173	417.3	51	1	151.5
3	Nathan Rourke	QB	167	252	66.3	3,941	375	50	2	150.2
4	Darquez Lee	QB	170	243	70.0	3,750	360.6	49	3	144.5
5	Kurt Rawlings	QB	173	300	57.7	3,714	358.3	48	6	140.8
6	Shelton Eppler	QB	177	239	74.1	3,606	337.6	47	8	135.5
7	Kaylor Sullivan	QB	238	414	57.5	3,249	331	46	9	128.8
8	Omar Salih	QB	246	358	68.7	3,062	298.1	45	10	124.7
9	Osai Brown	QB	253	387	65.4	2,981	295.4	44	11	118.2
10	Derek Hudson	QB	178	325	54.8	2,512	228.4	23	22	96.4

Image N6. Expectancy Violation Report (Low Performance) – Ingroup

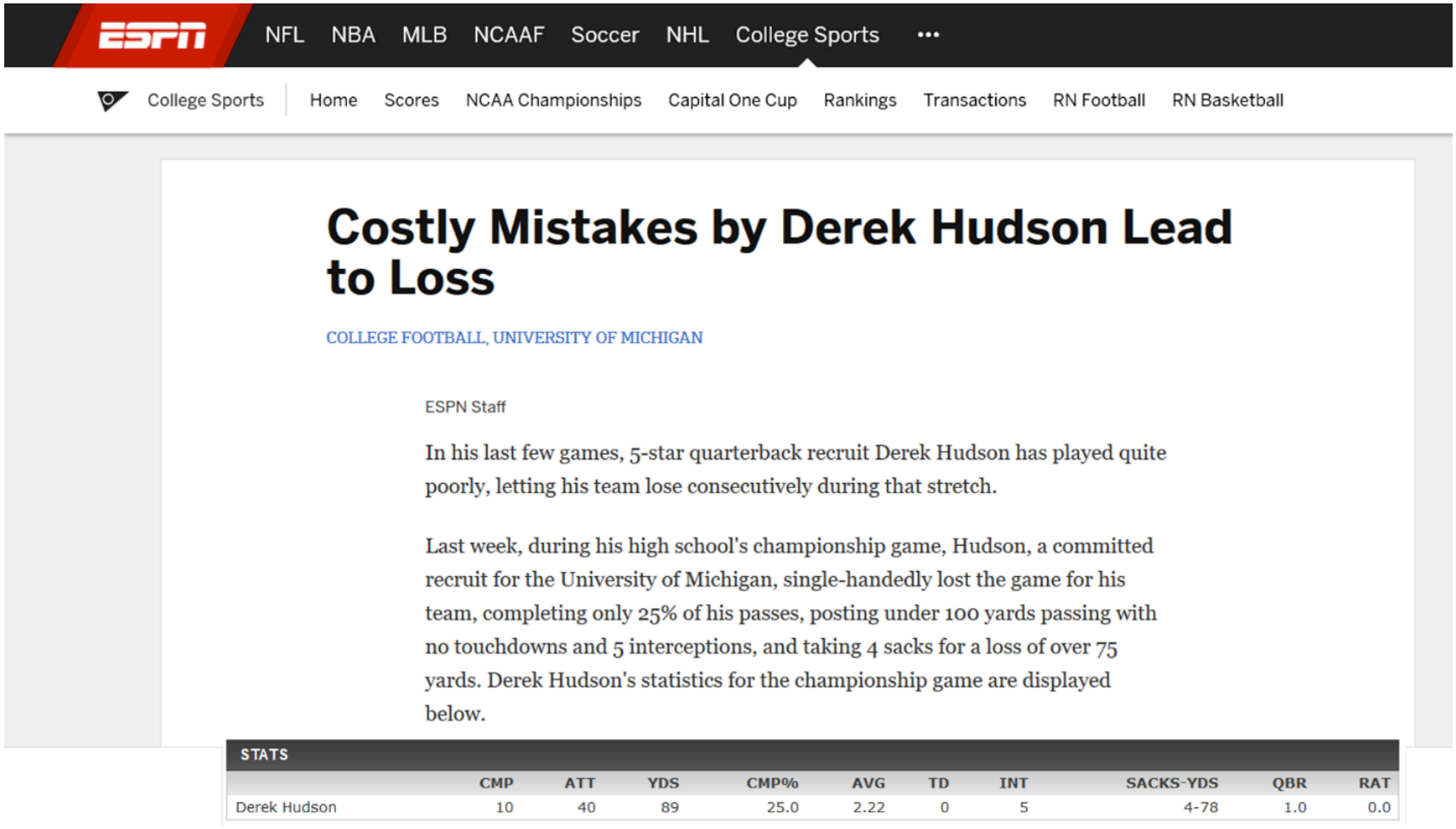


Image N7. Expectancy Confirmation Report (High Performance) – Outgroup

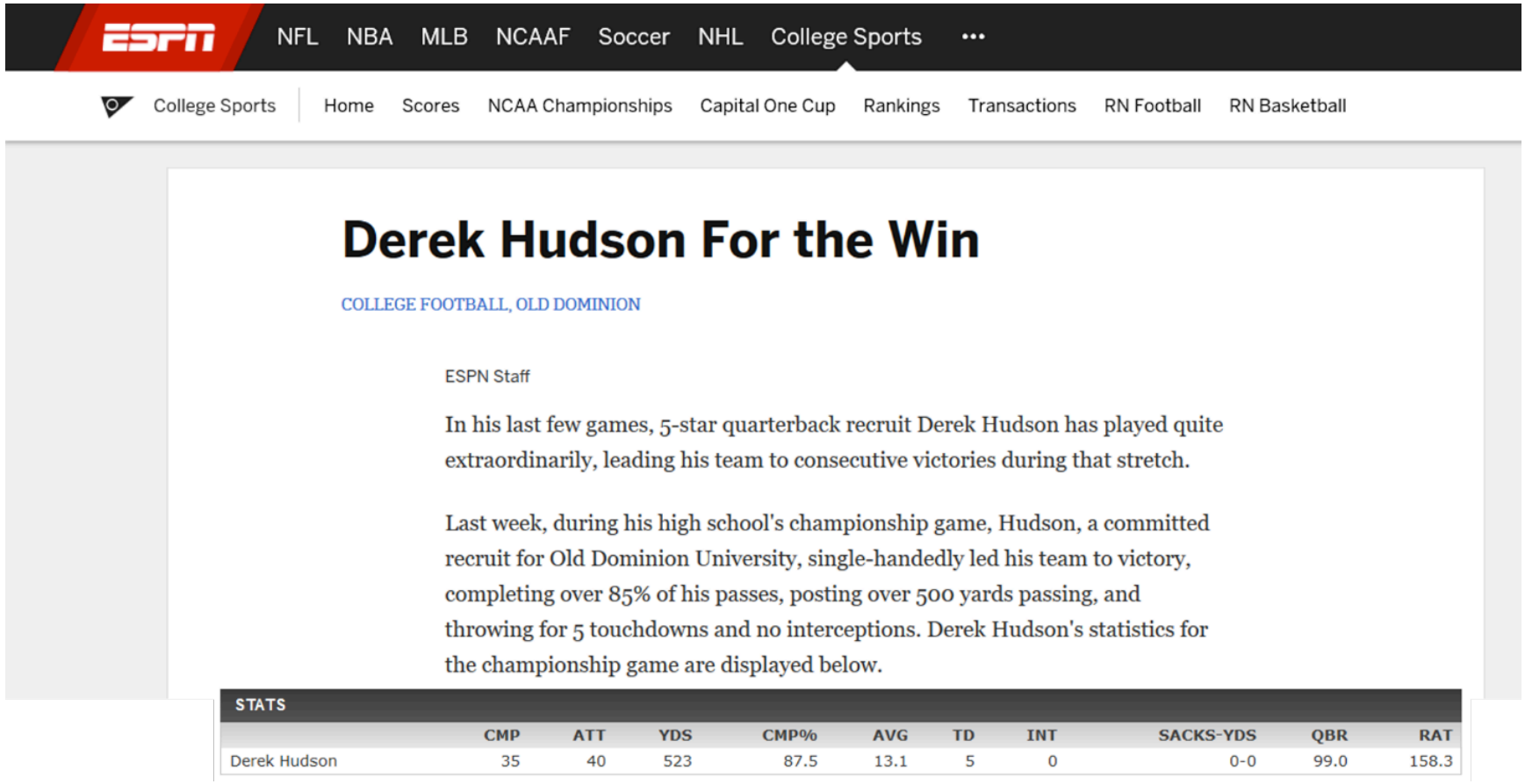
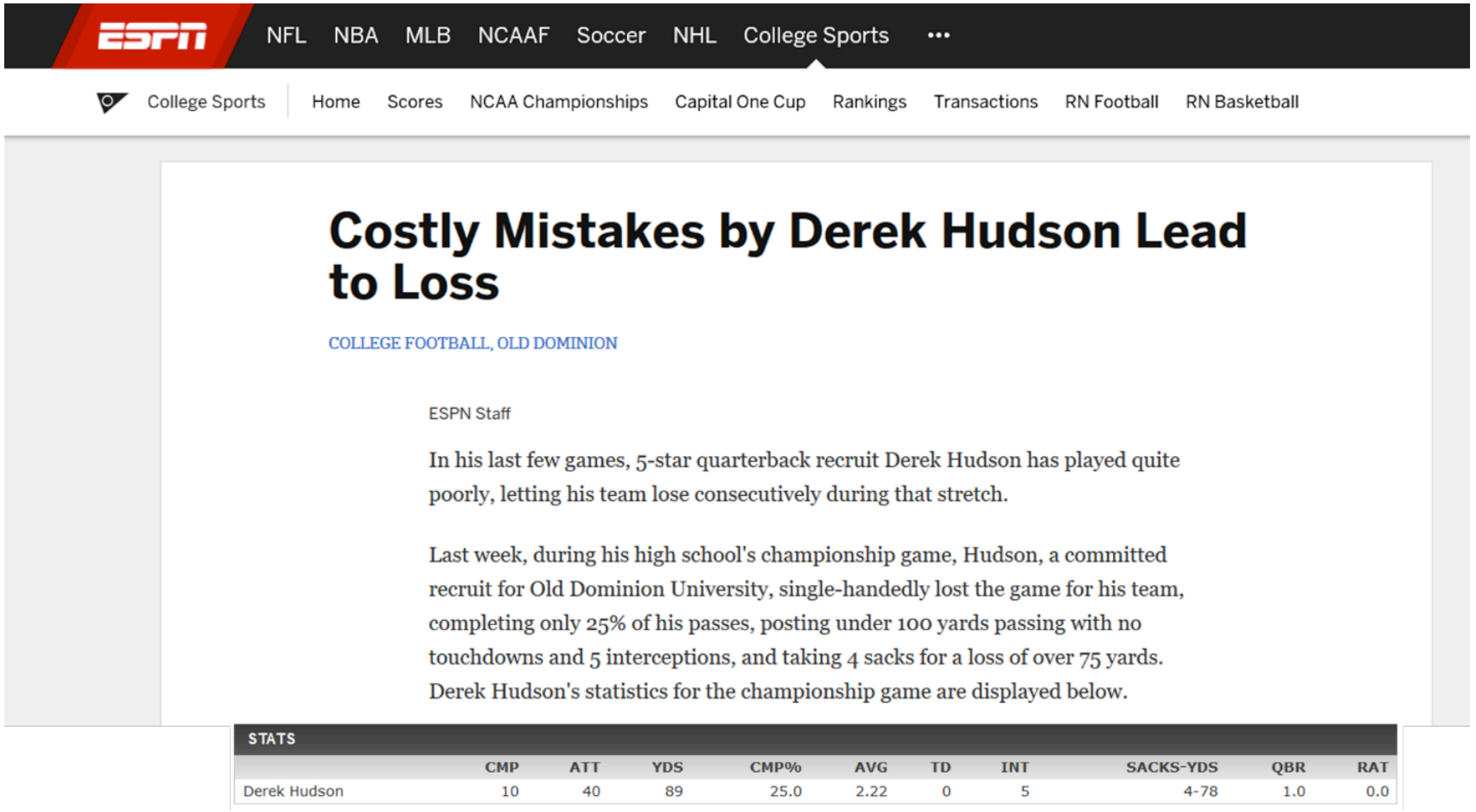


Image N8. Expectancy Confirmation Report (Low Performance) – Outgroup



Appendix O

Demographic Questionnaire

(Study 2)

1. How old are you?

2. What is your gender?

❍ Male

❍ Female

❍ Other _____

3. What is your ethnicity?

❑ Asian / Pacific Islander

❑ Hispanic or Latino

❑ Black or African American

❑ Native American or American Indian

❑ White

❑ Other _____

4. In what state do you reside?

5. What is your highest level of education?

❍ Some high school, no diploma

❍ High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent (for example: GED)

❍ Some college credit, no degree

❍ Trade/technical/vocational training

❍ Associate degree

❍ Bachelor's degree

❍ Master's degree

❍ Professional degree

❍ Doctorate degree

6. Which forms of social media do you use? (select all that apply)

❑ Twitter

❑ Facebook

❑ YouTube

❑ Vine

❑ Instagram

❑ Snapchat

❑ Other _____

Appendix P

Attitudes toward the Athlete (A_{ath}) Measure

(MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989)

1. How would you describe your overall attitudes toward Derek Hudson?

Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	*Good*
Unfavorable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	*Favorable*
Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	*Positive*

Appendix Q

Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM) Scale

(Cheung & Lee, 2012)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

1. I intend to share information about Derek Hudson on social media (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, etc.) and/or sports sites and blogs in the future.
2. I will always provide my opinions on Derek Hudson on social media (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, etc.) and/or sports sites and blogs at the request of others.
3. I will try to share my opinions of Derek Hudson to other fans in a more effective way on social media (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, etc.) and/or sports sites and blogs.

Appendix R

Social Media Measure (SMM)

Please indicate the likelihood that you would engage in the described behavior or activity.

(1 = *very unlikely* to 7 = *very likely*)

1. I would follow Derek Hudson on Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, YouTube, Vine, Snapchat, or on other social media sites.
2. If Derek Hudson was featured in a video on Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, YouTube, Vine, Snapchat, or on other social media sites, I would watch it.
3. If Derek Hudson posted a video on Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, YouTube, Vine, Snapchat, or on other social media sites, I would watch it.
4. I would leave comments on Derek Hudson's page on Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, YouTube, Vine, Snapchat, or on other social media sites.

Appendix S

Target Athlete Jersey Stimuli

(Study 2)

Image S1. Ingroup Scenario and Jersey

When quarterback Derek Hudson joins the University of Michigan next season, he will be wearing number 14. Here is his jersey:

Image S2. Outgroup Scenario and Jersey

When quarterback Derek Hudson joins Old Dominion University next season, he will be wearing number 14. Here is his jersey:

Appendix T

Purchase Intent (PI) Measure

(Spears & Singh, 2004; Yi, 1990)

Given that Derek Hudson will be wearing number 14 next season, please respond to the following questions:

1. If you were to buy a jersey in the future, how likely is it that you would purchase a jersey with the number 14?

Very unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very likely*

2. How would you describe your interest in purchasing a jersey with the number 14?

Very low purchase interest 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very high purchase interest*

3. Would you buy a jersey with the number 14?

Definitely would not buy it 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Definitely would buy it*

Appendix U

Target Athlete Stimuli

(Study 3)

Player Status Manipulation

Image U1. 5-star Recruit Report – Ingroup

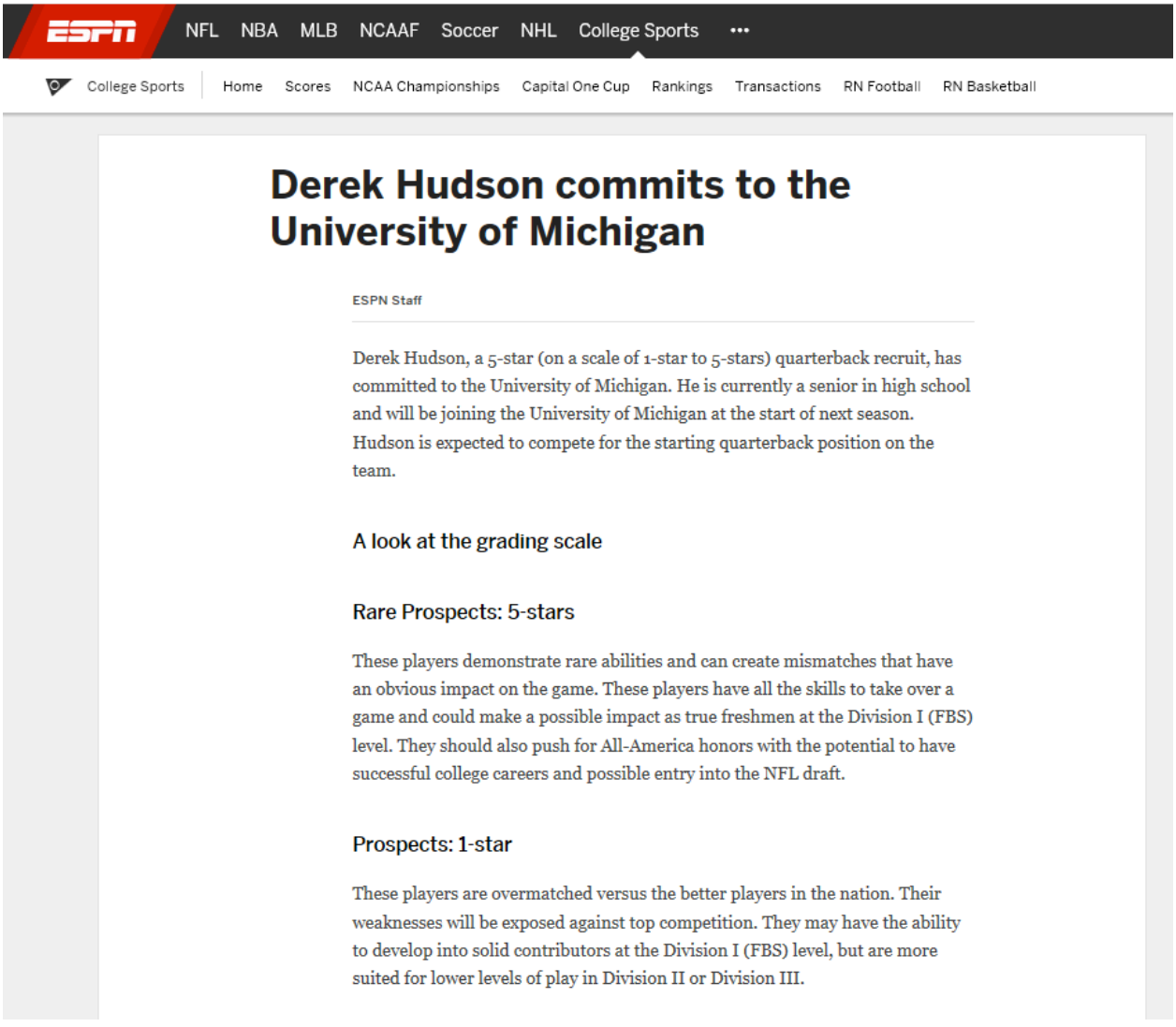


Image U2. 1-star Recruit Report – Ingroup

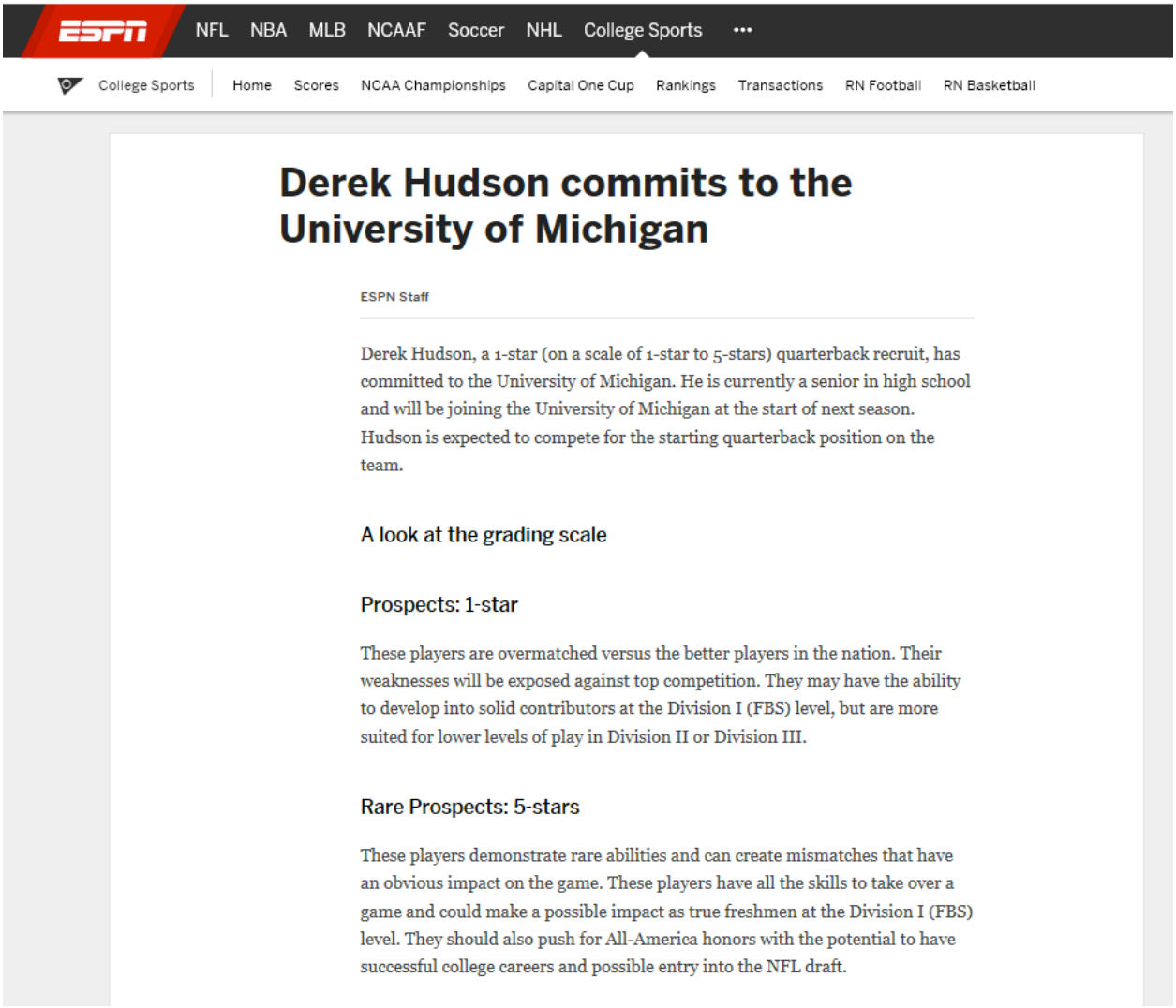


Image U3. 5-star Recruit Report – Outgroup

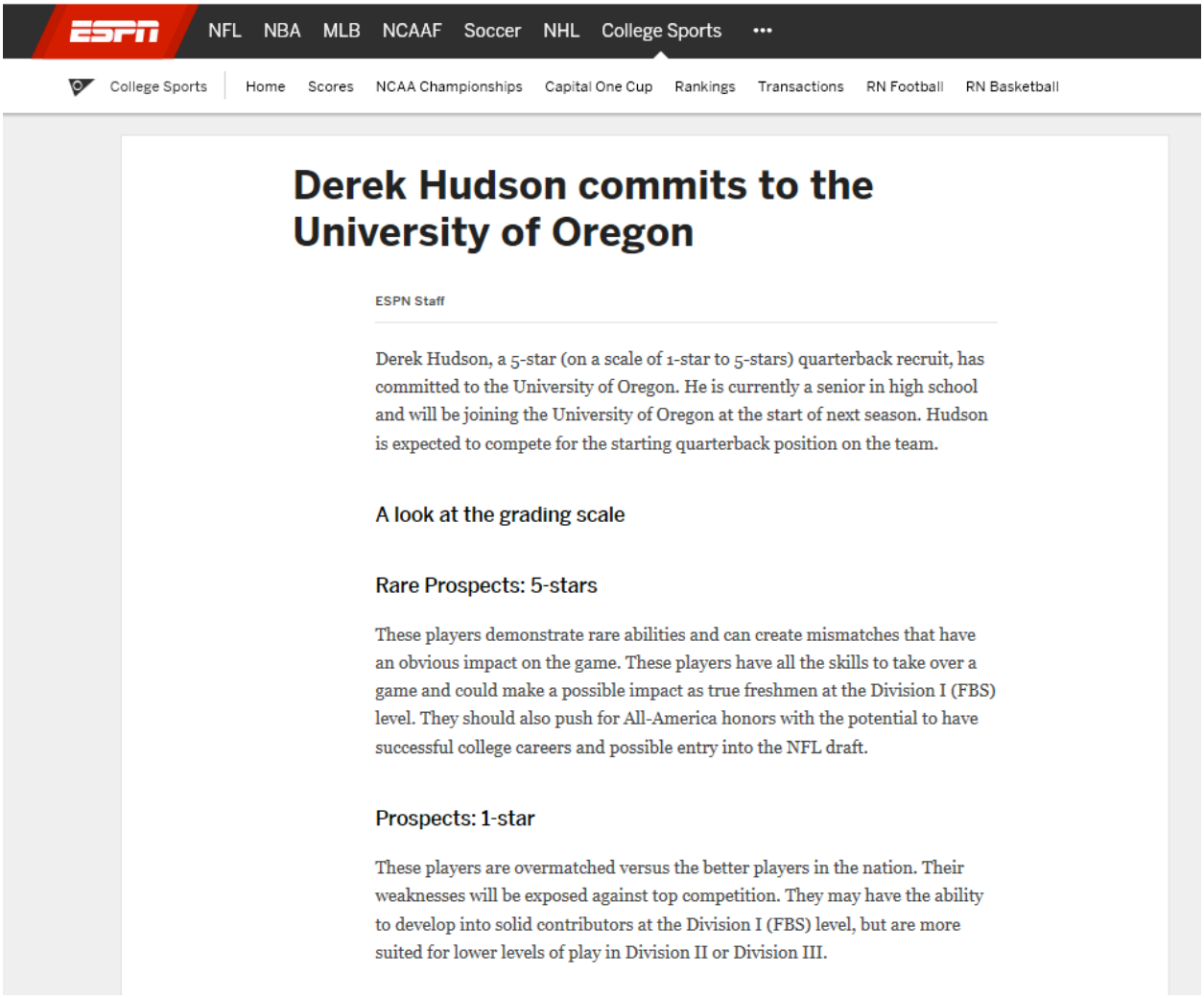


Image U4. 1-star Recruit Report – Outgroup

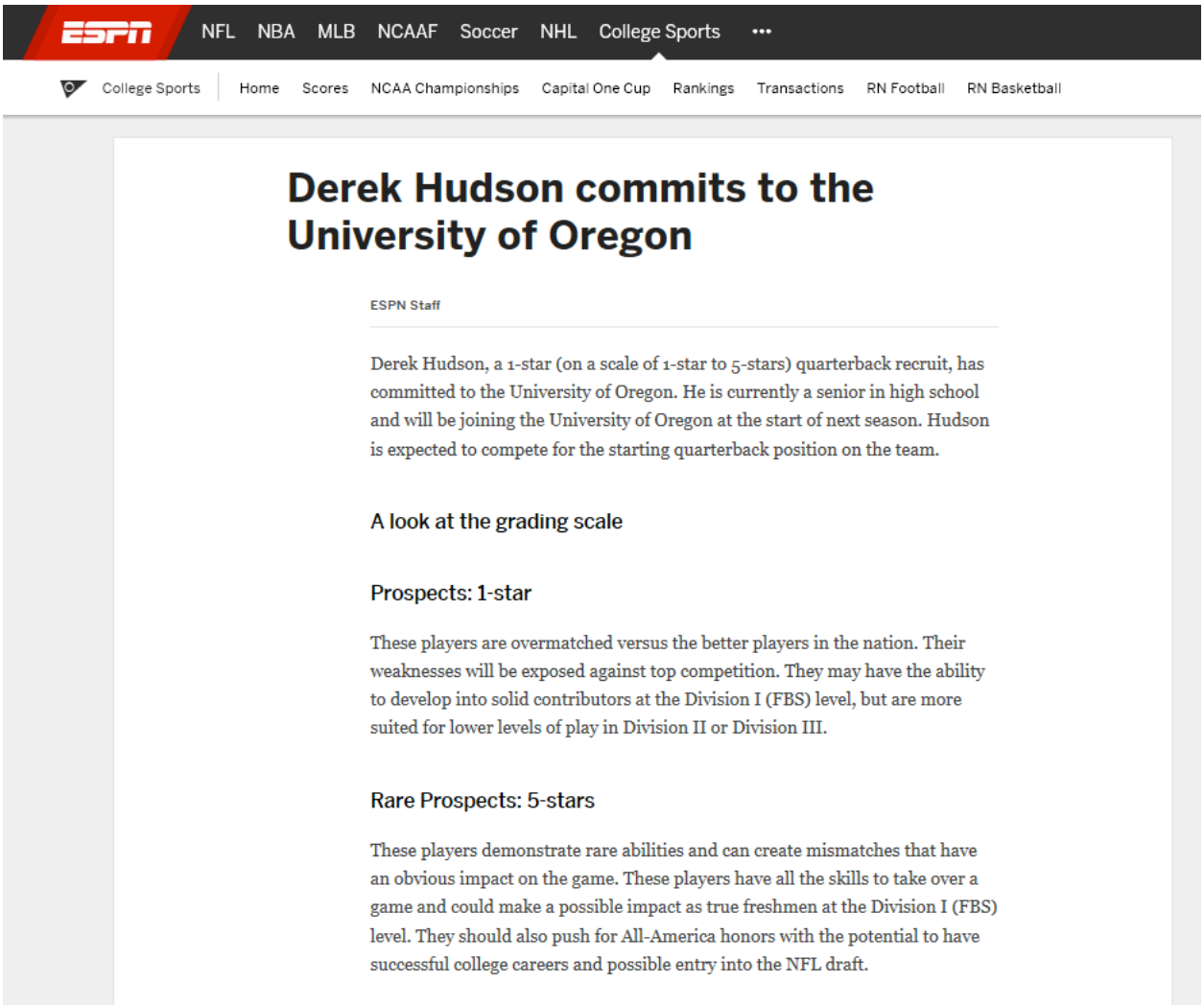


Image U5. 5-star Recruit Report – Rival

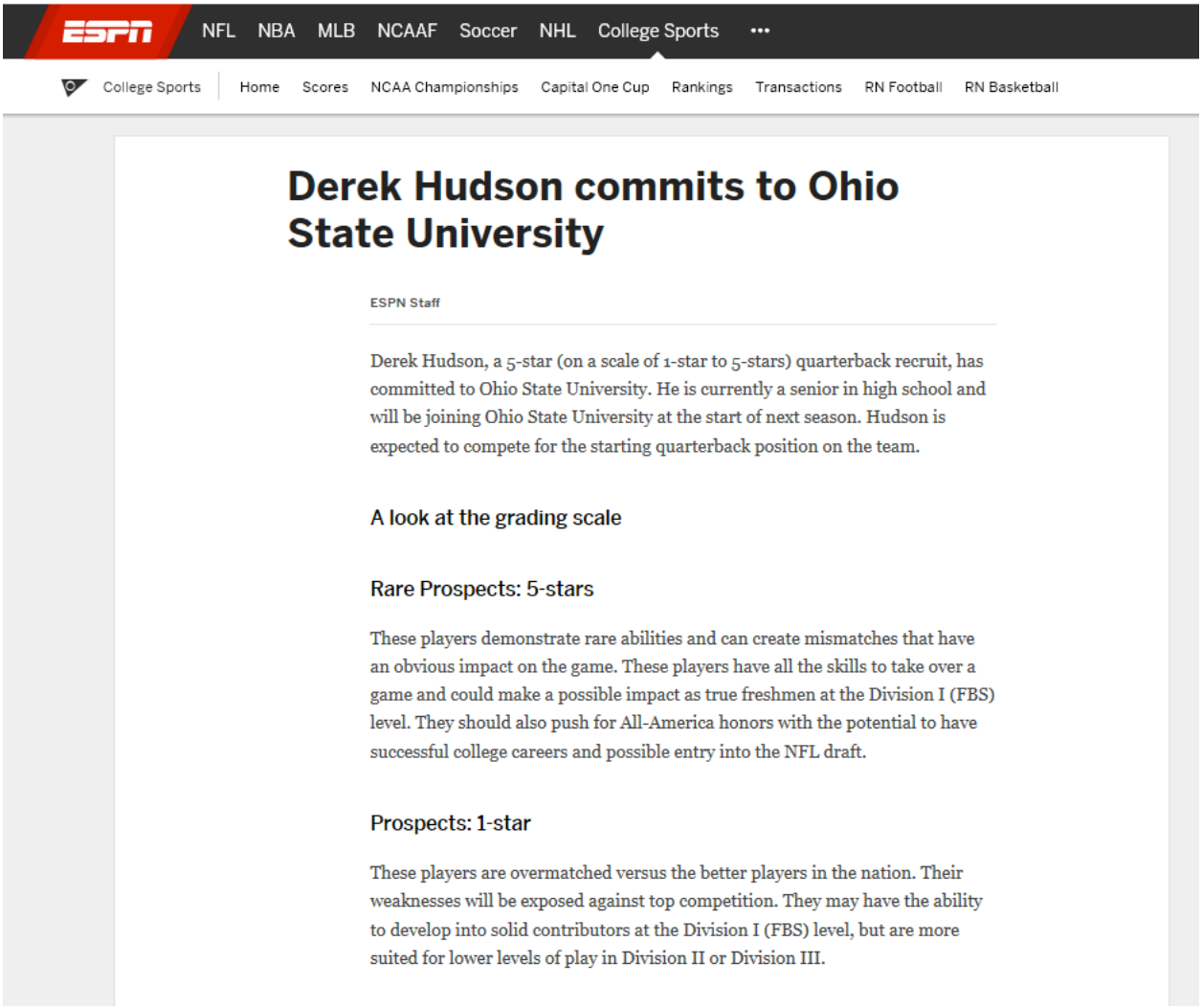
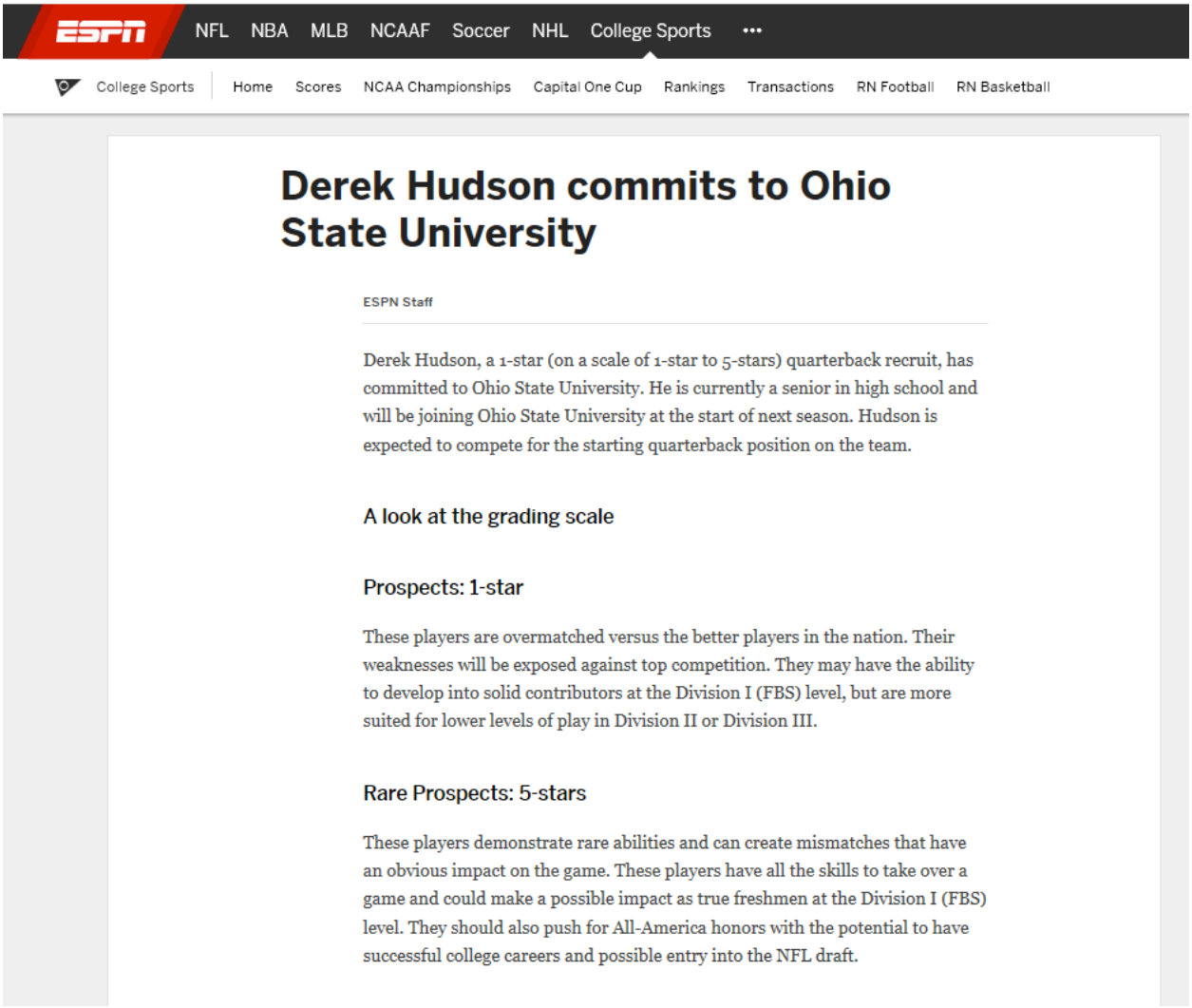


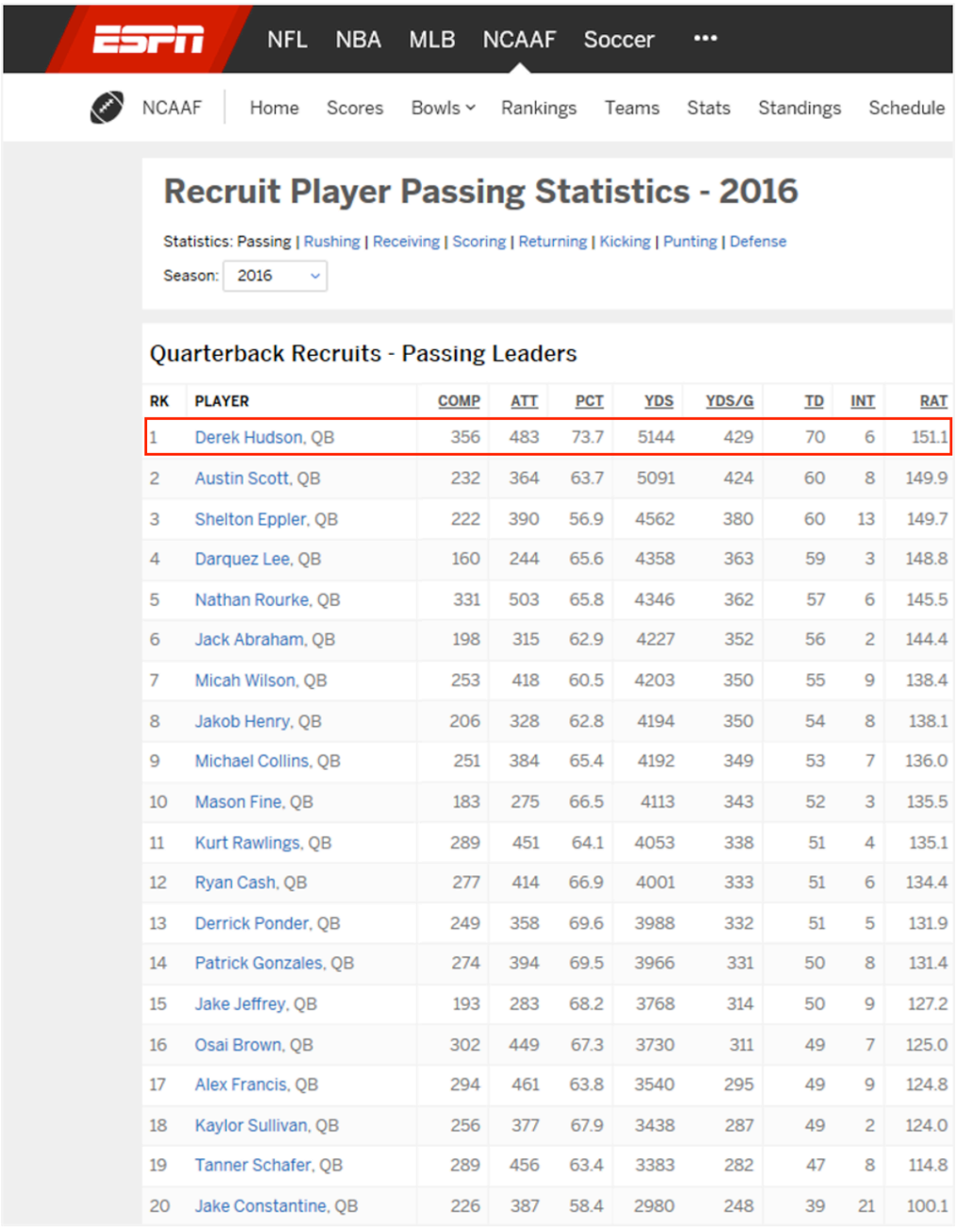
Image U6. 1-star Recruit Report – Rival



Performance Manipulation

Image U7. High Performance Statistics – Identical for Ingroup, Outgroup, and Rival

Here are the top 20 quarterback recruit statistics for the season from ESPN. Derek Hudson's season statistics are also displayed below.



ESPN NFL NBA MLB NCAAF Soccer •••

NCAAF | Home | Scores | Bowls | Rankings | Teams | Stats | Standings | Schedule

Recruit Player Passing Statistics - 2016

Statistics: Passing | Rushing | Receiving | Scoring | Returning | Kicking | Punting | Defense

Season: 2016

Quarterback Recruits - Passing Leaders

RK	PLAYER	COMP	ATT	PCT	YDS	YDS/G	TD	INT	RAT
1	Derek Hudson, QB	356	483	73.7	5144	429	70	6	151.1
2	Austin Scott, QB	232	364	63.7	5091	424	60	8	149.9
3	Shelton Eppler, QB	222	390	56.9	4562	380	60	13	149.7
4	Darquez Lee, QB	160	244	65.6	4358	363	59	3	148.8
5	Nathan Rourke, QB	331	503	65.8	4346	362	57	6	145.5
6	Jack Abraham, QB	198	315	62.9	4227	352	56	2	144.4
7	Micah Wilson, QB	253	418	60.5	4203	350	55	9	138.4
8	Jakob Henry, QB	206	328	62.8	4194	350	54	8	138.1
9	Michael Collins, QB	251	384	65.4	4192	349	53	7	136.0
10	Mason Fine, QB	183	275	66.5	4113	343	52	3	135.5
11	Kurt Rawlings, QB	289	451	64.1	4053	338	51	4	135.1
12	Ryan Cash, QB	277	414	66.9	4001	333	51	6	134.4
13	Derrick Ponder, QB	249	358	69.6	3988	332	51	5	131.9
14	Patrick Gonzales, QB	274	394	69.5	3966	331	50	8	131.4
15	Jake Jeffrey, QB	193	283	68.2	3768	314	50	9	127.2
16	Osai Brown, QB	302	449	67.3	3730	311	49	7	125.0
17	Alex Francis, QB	294	461	63.8	3540	295	49	9	124.8
18	Kaylor Sullivan, QB	256	377	67.9	3438	287	49	2	124.0
19	Tanner Schafer, QB	289	456	63.4	3383	282	47	8	114.8
20	Jake Constantine, QB	226	387	58.4	2980	248	39	21	100.1

Image U8. Low Performance Statistics – Identical for Ingroup, Outgroup, and Rival

Here are the top 20 quarterback recruit statistics for the season from ESPN. Derek Hudson's season statistics are also displayed below.

ESPN NFL NBA MLB NCAAF Soccer •••

NCAAF | Home | Scores | Bowls | Rankings | Teams | Stats | Standings | Schedule

Recruit Player Passing Statistics - 2016

Statistics: Passing | Rushing | Receiving | Scoring | Returning | Kicking | Punting | Defense

Season: 2016

Quarterback Recruits - Passing Leaders

RK	PLAYER	COMP	ATT	PCT	YDS	YDS/G	TD	INT	RAT
1	Austin Scott, QB	356	483	73.7	5144	429	70	6	151.1
2	Jake Constantine, QB	232	364	63.7	5091	424	60	8	149.9
3	Shelton Eppler, QB	222	390	56.9	4562	380	60	13	149.7
4	Darquez Lee, QB	160	244	65.6	4358	363	59	3	148.8
5	Nathan Rourke, QB	331	503	65.8	4346	362	57	6	145.5
6	Jack Abraham, QB	198	315	62.9	4227	352	56	2	144.4
7	Micah Wilson, QB	253	418	60.5	4203	350	55	9	138.4
8	Jakob Henry, QB	206	328	62.8	4194	350	54	8	138.1
9	Michael Collins, QB	251	384	65.4	4192	349	53	7	136.0
10	Mason Fine, QB	183	275	66.5	4113	343	52	3	135.5
11	Kurt Rawlings, QB	289	451	64.1	4053	338	51	4	135.1
12	Ryan Cash, QB	277	414	66.9	4001	333	51	6	134.4
13	Derrick Ponder, QB	249	358	69.6	3988	332	51	5	131.9
14	Patrick Gonzales, QB	274	394	69.5	3966	331	50	8	131.4
15	Jake Jeffrey, QB	193	283	68.2	3768	314	50	9	127.2
16	Osai Brown, QB	302	449	67.3	3730	311	49	7	125.0
17	Alex Francis, QB	294	461	63.8	3540	295	49	9	124.8
18	Kaylor Sullivan, QB	256	377	67.9	3438	287	49	2	124.0
19	Tanner Schafer, QB	289	456	63.4	3383	282	47	8	114.8
20	Derek Hudson, QB	226	387	58.4	2980	248	39	21	100.1

Image U9. 5-star Recruit High Performance Report – Ingroup

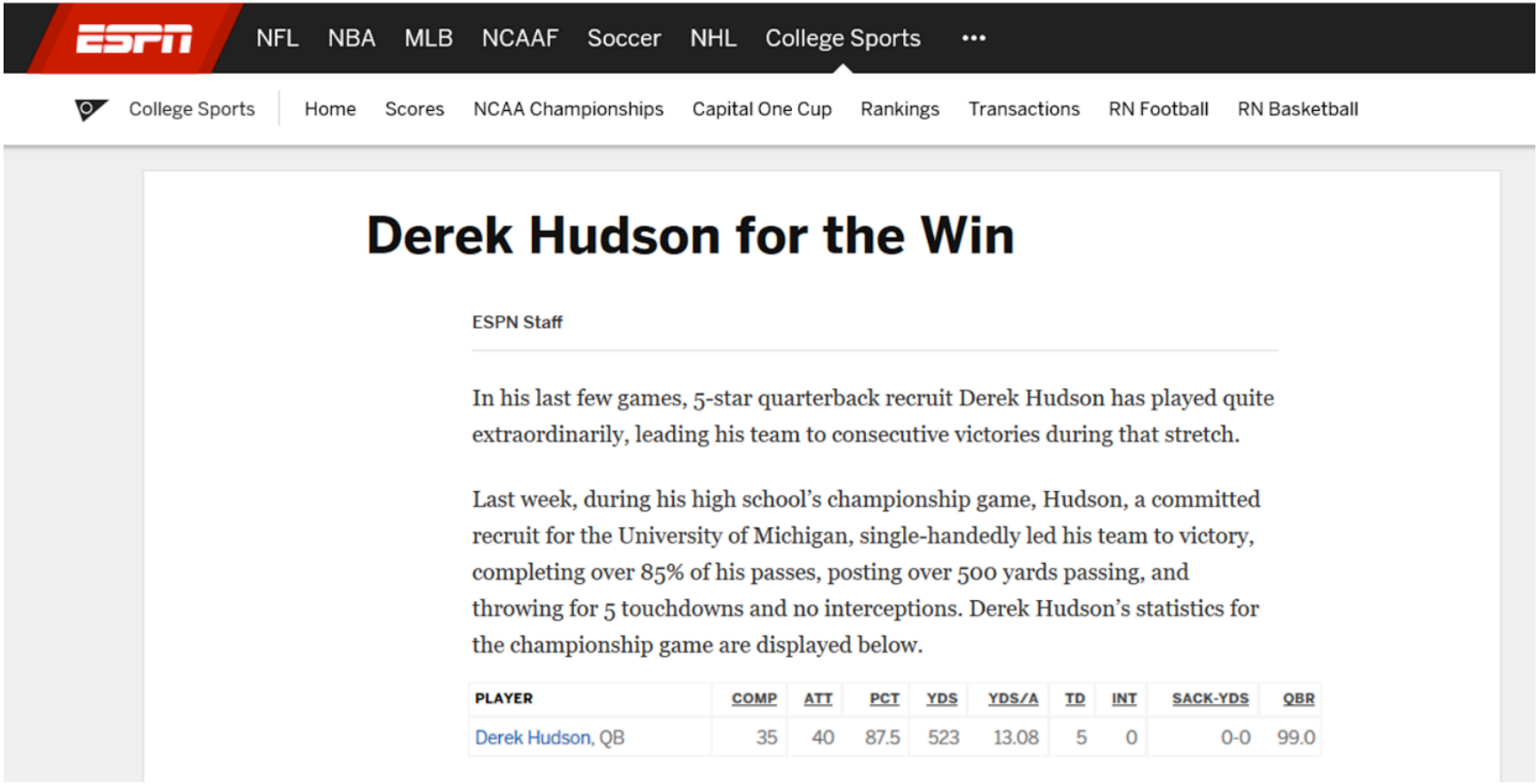


Image U10. 5-star Recruit Low Performance Report – Ingroup

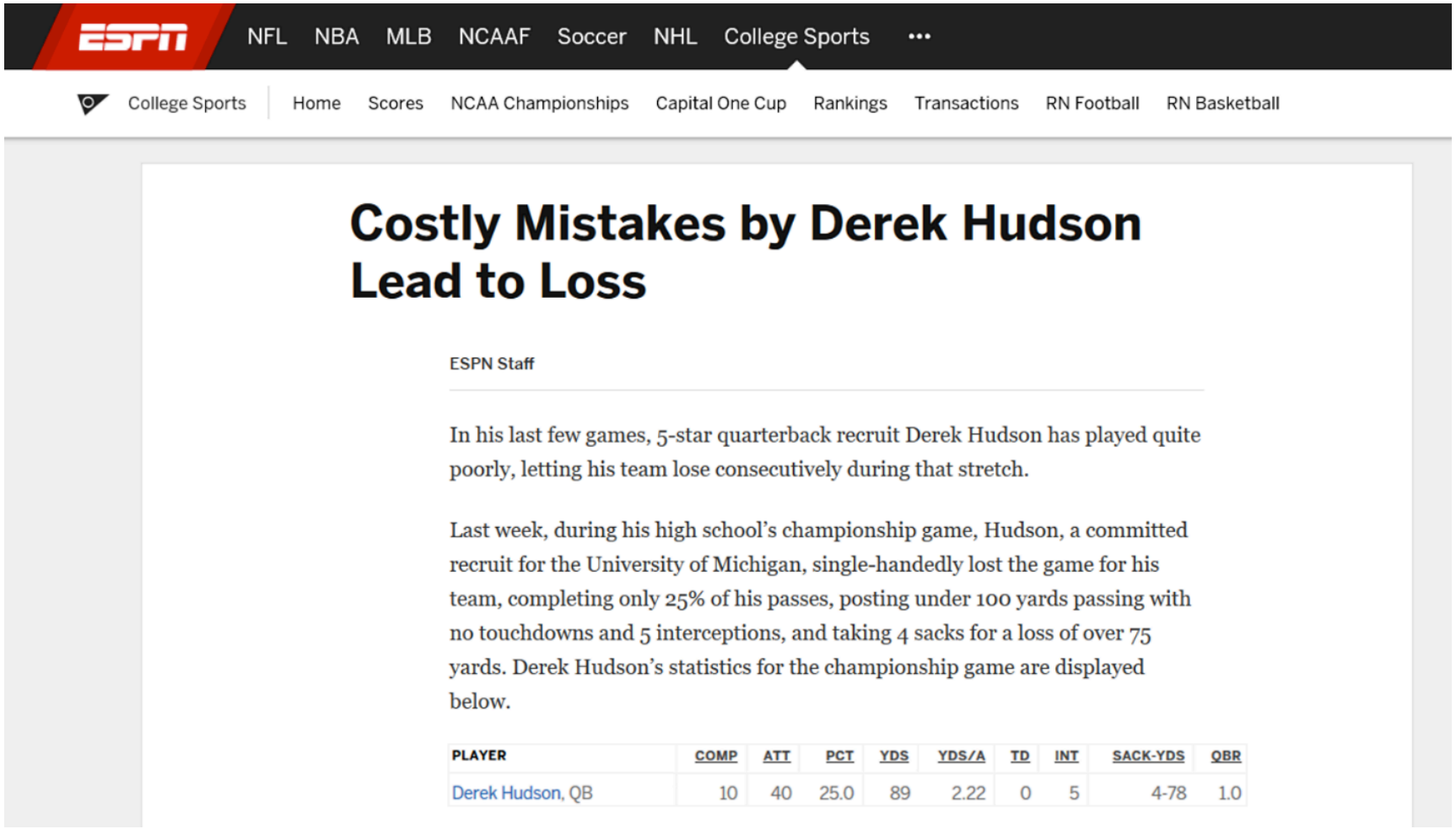


Image U11. 1-star Recruit Report High Performance Report – Ingroup

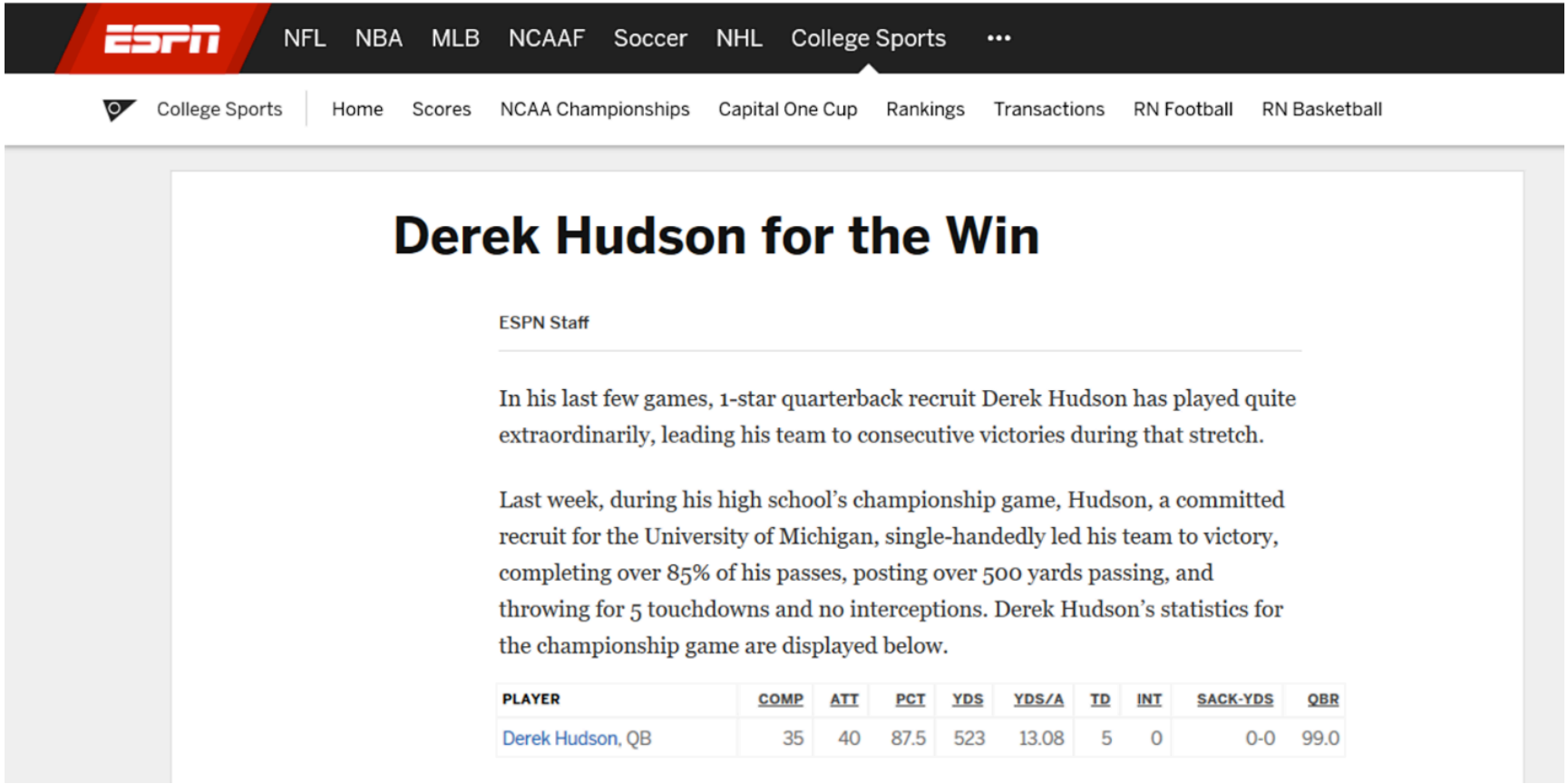


Image U12. 1-star Recruit Low Performance Report – Ingroup

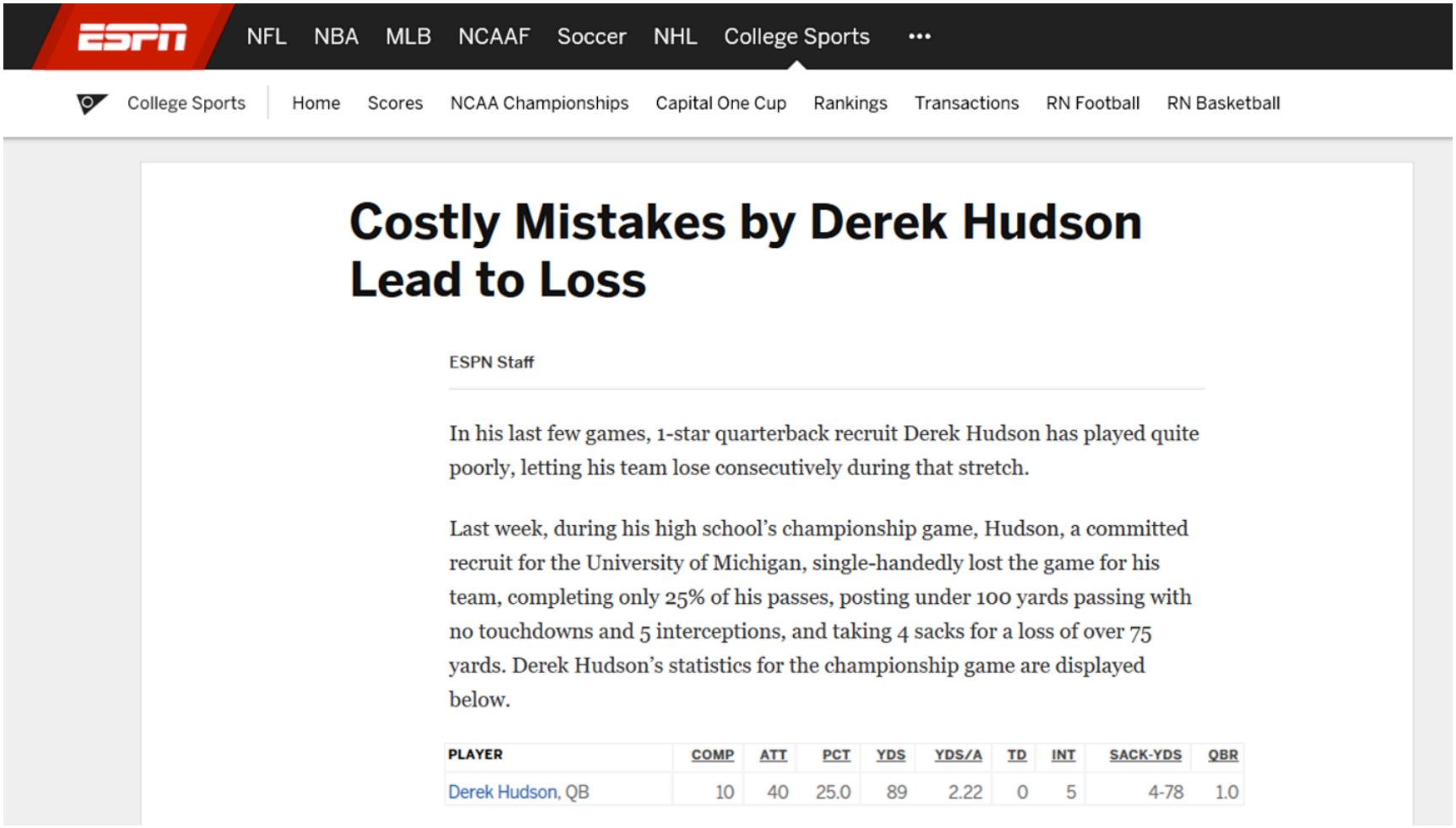


Image U13. 5-star Recruit Low Performance Report – Outgroup

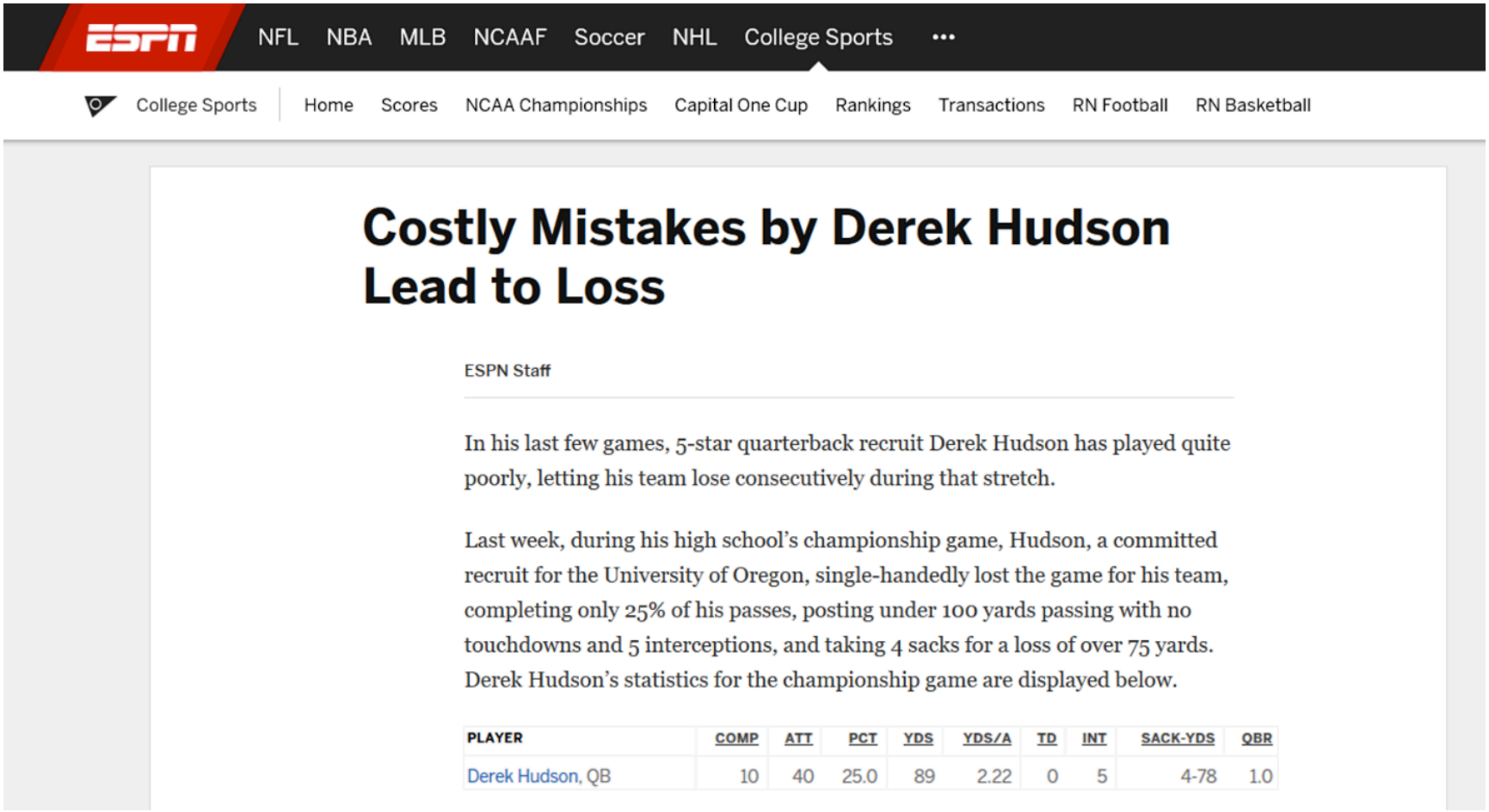


Image U14. 5-star Recruit High Performance Report – Outgroup

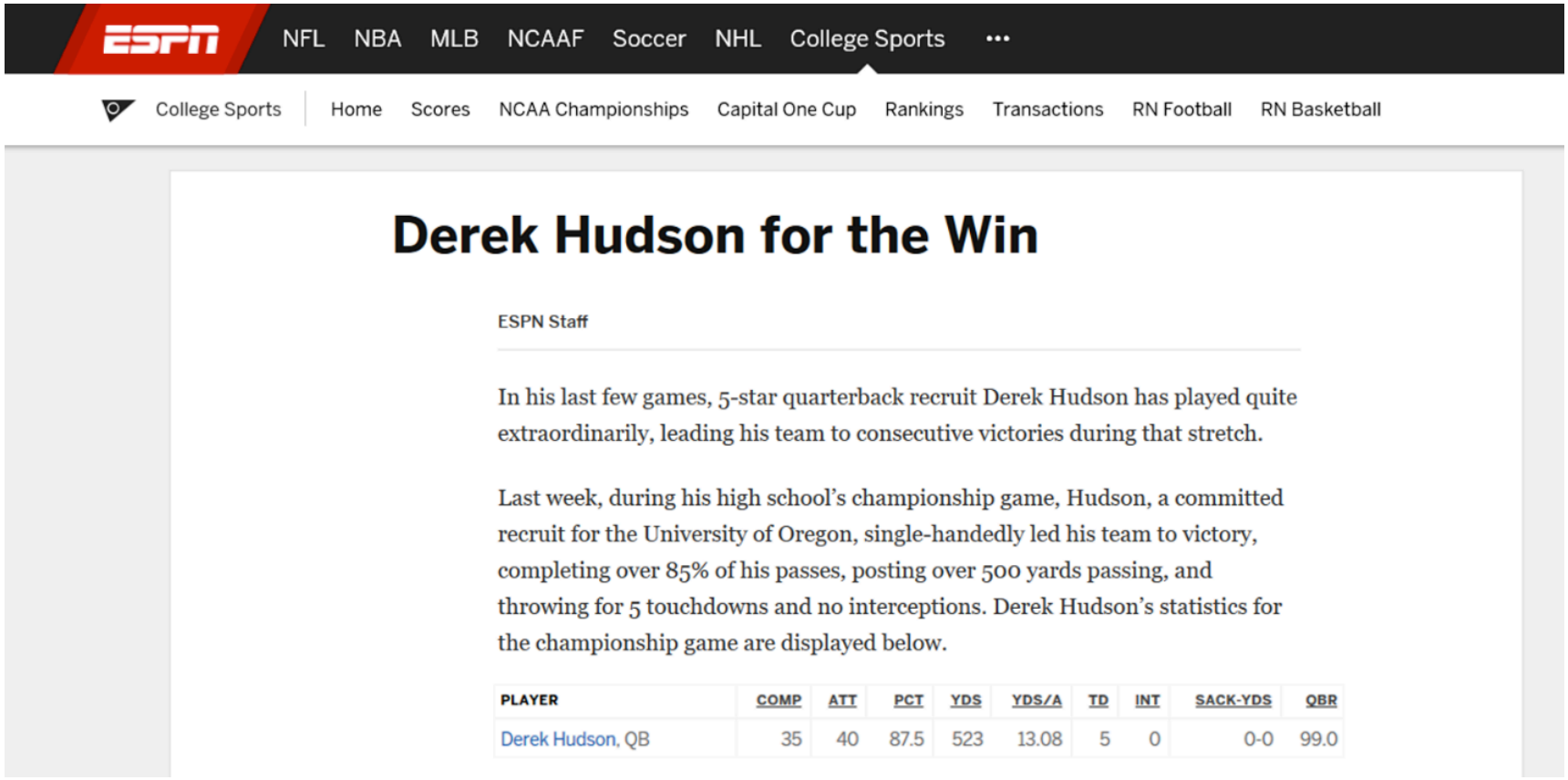


Image U15. 1-star Recruit High Performance Report – Outgroup

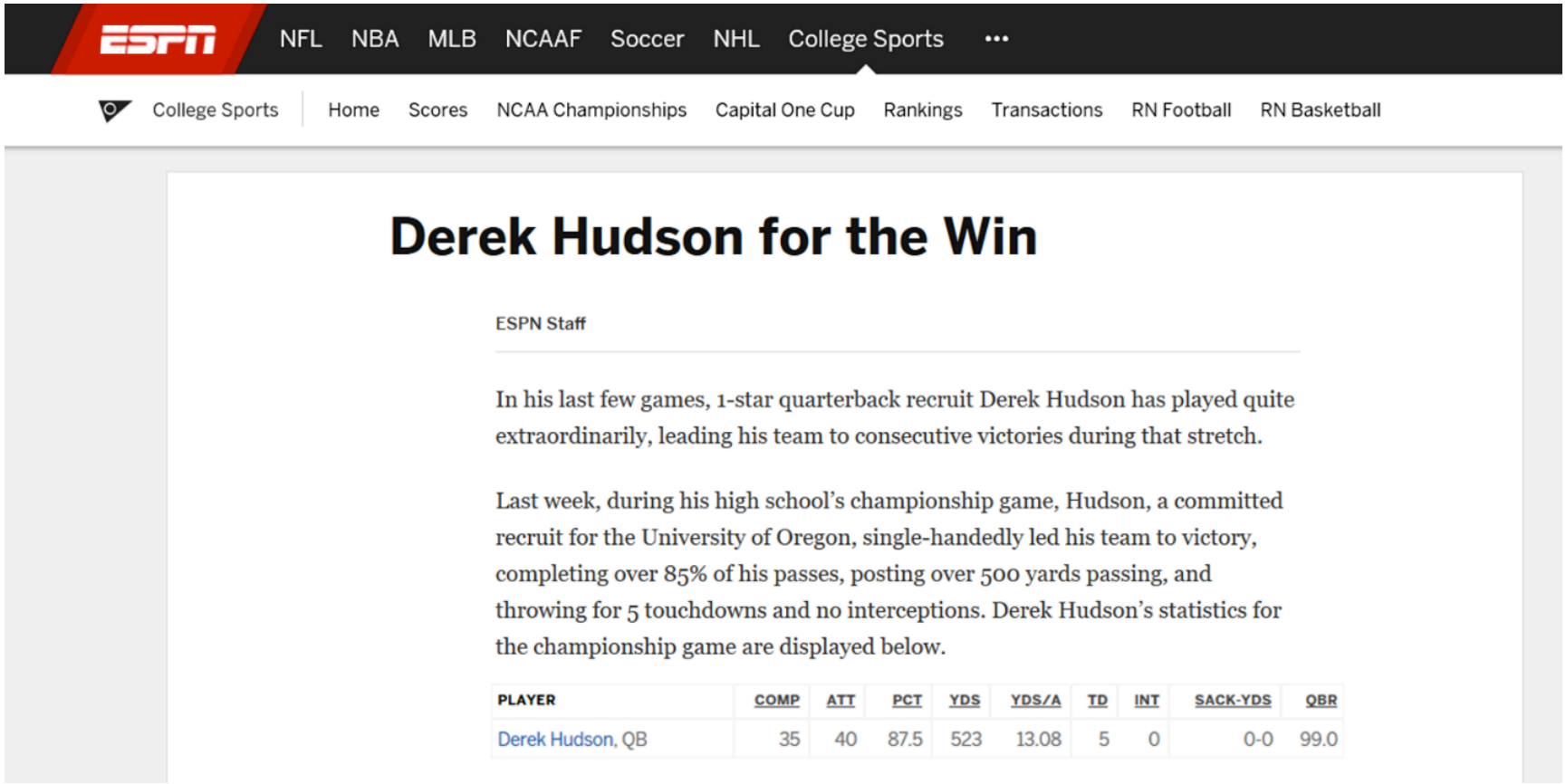


Image U16. 1-star Recruit Low Performance Report – Outgroup

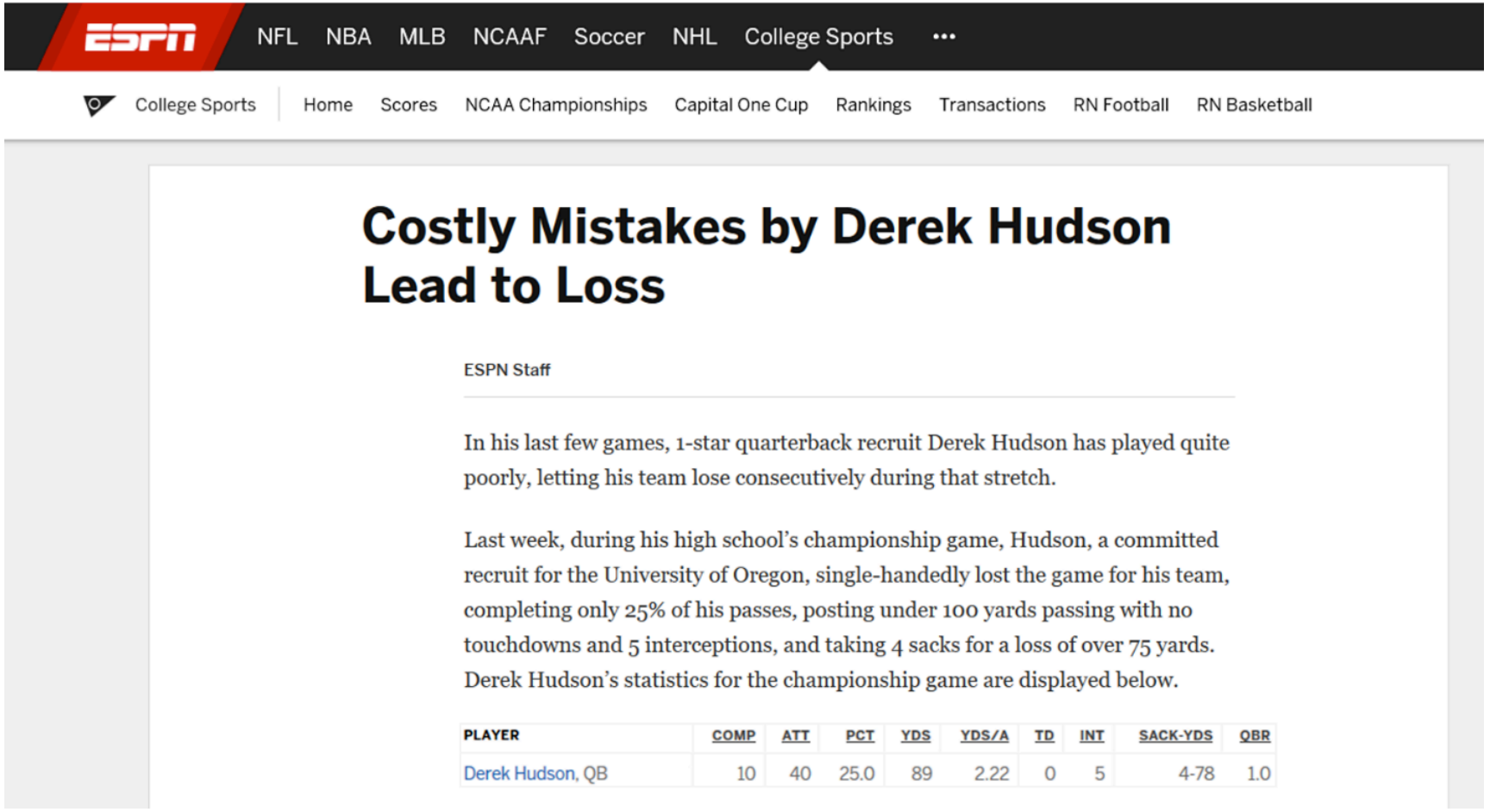


Image U17. 5-star Recruit High Performance Report – Rival

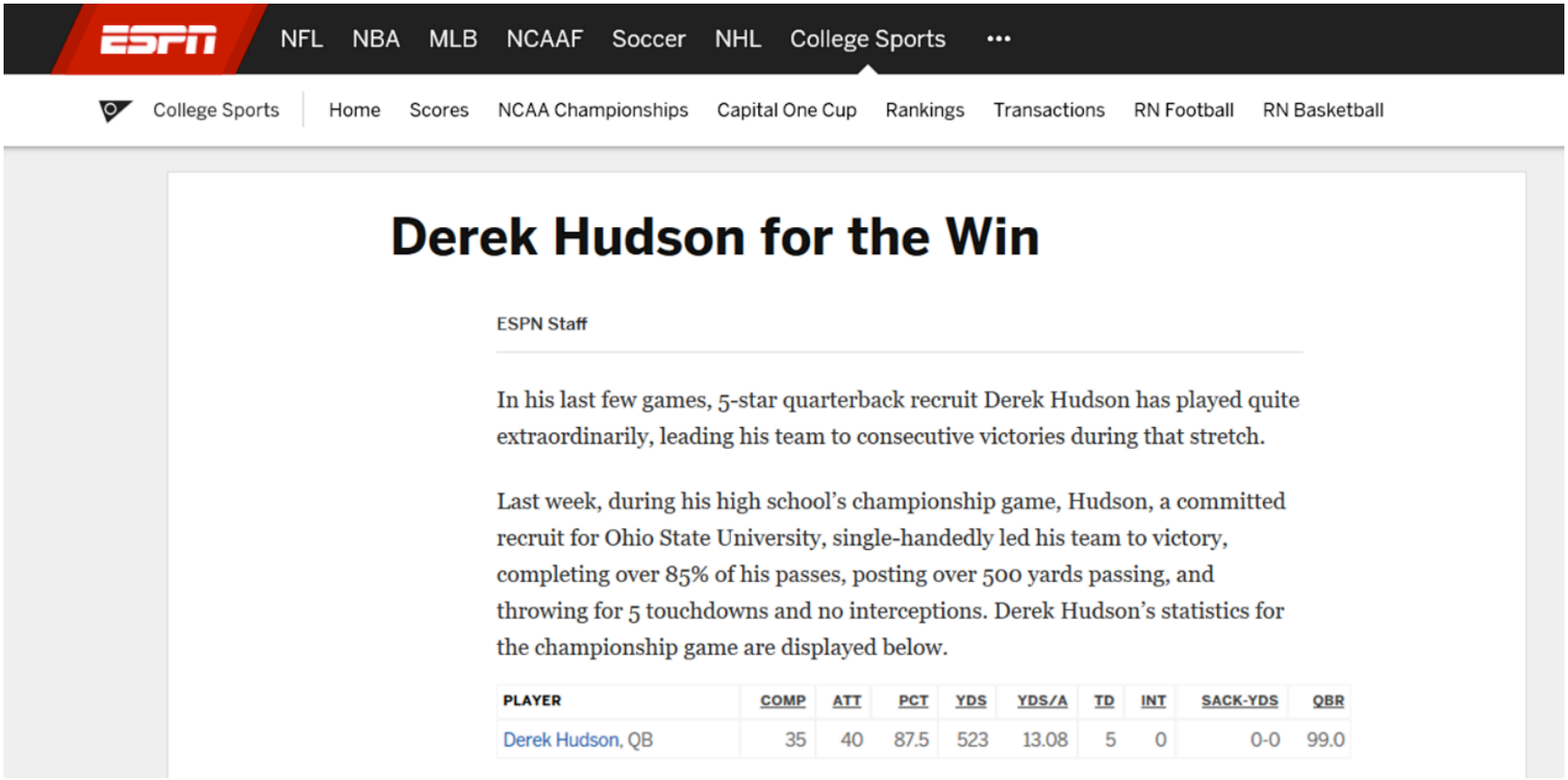


Image U18. 5-star Recruit Low Performance Report – Rival

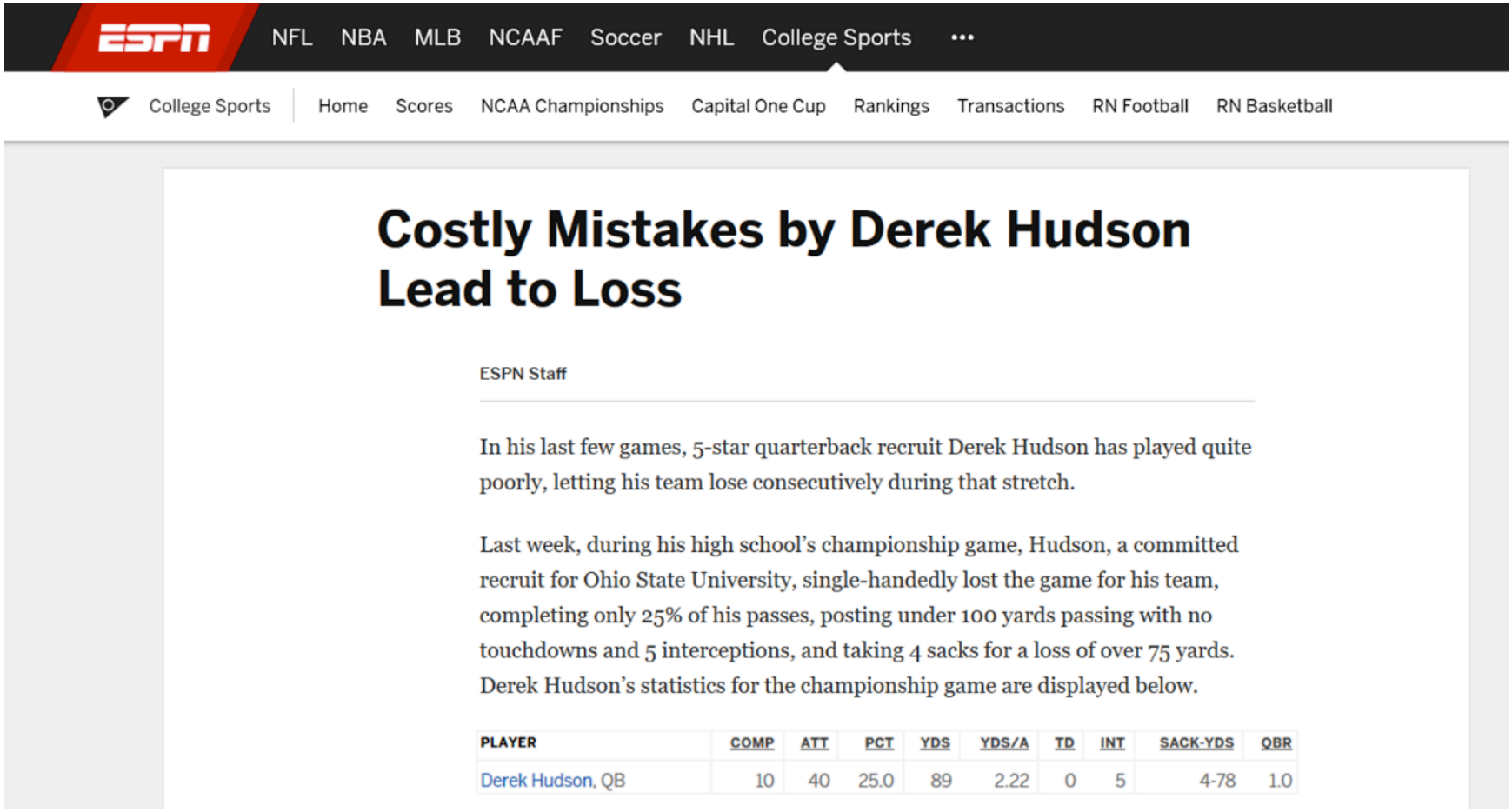


Image U19. 1-star Recruit High Performance Report – Rival

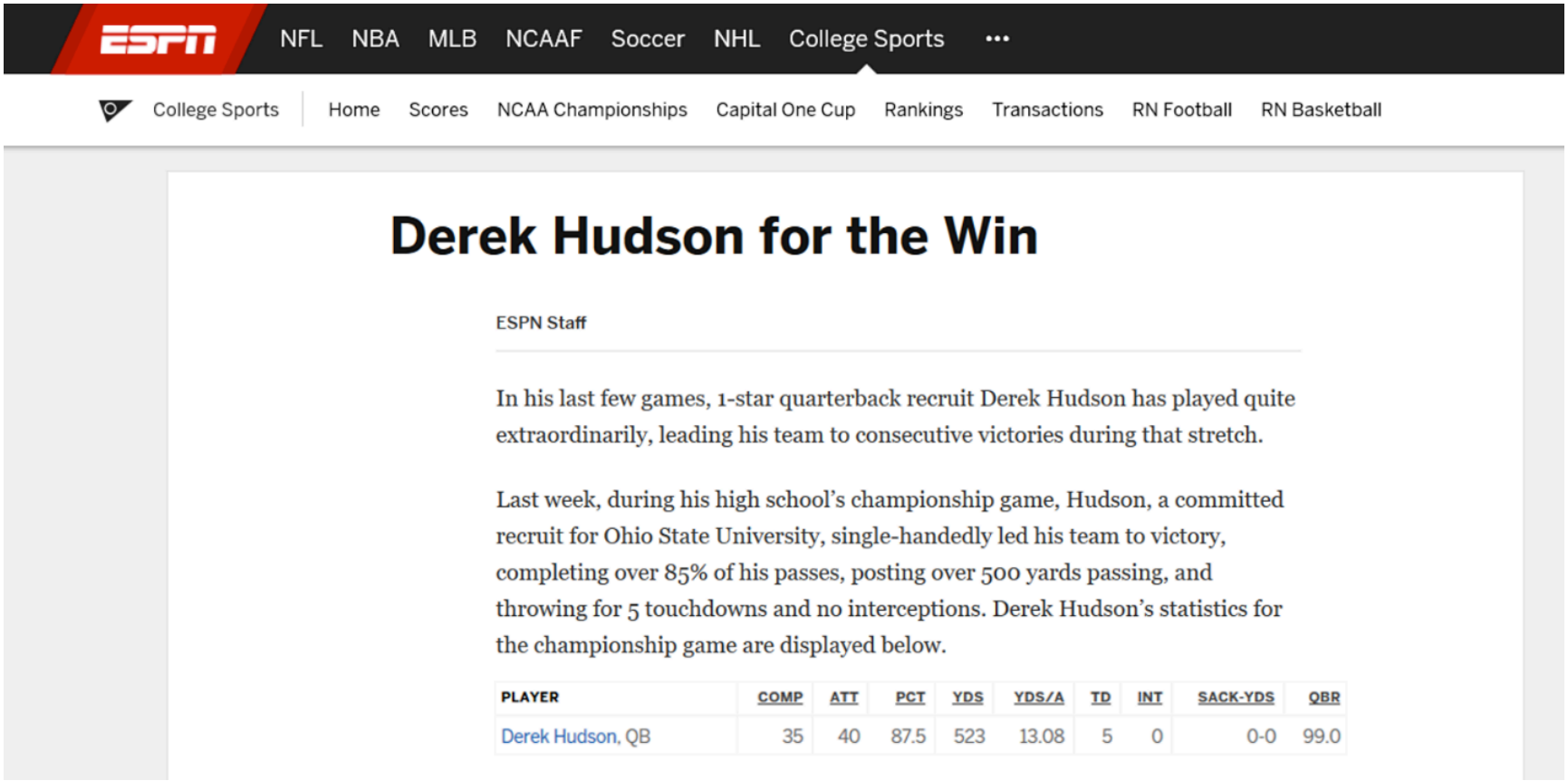
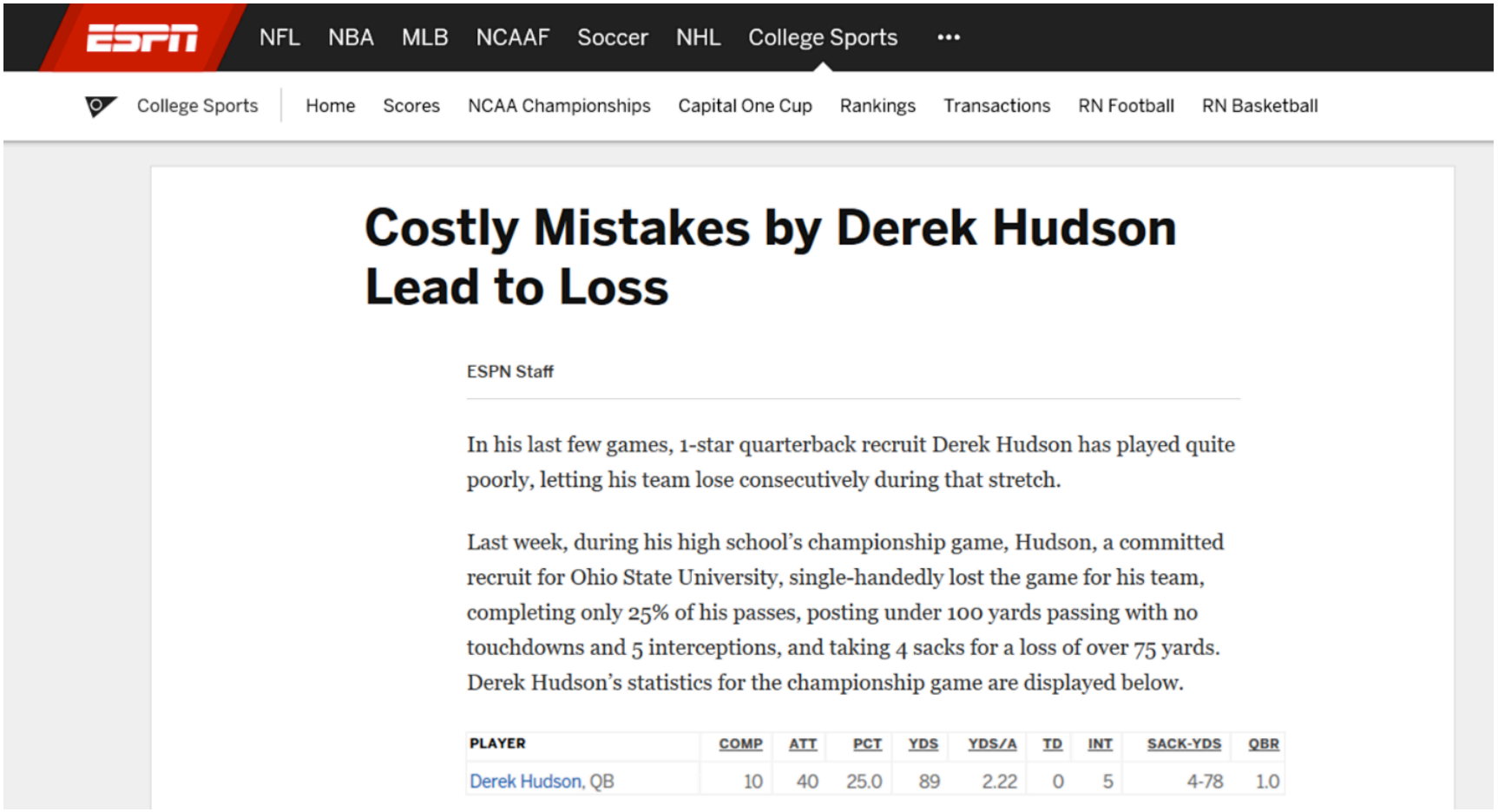


Image U20. 1-star Recruit Low Performance Report – Rival



Appendix V

Demographic Questionnaire

(Study 3)

1. How old are you?

2. What is your gender?

- ❍ Male
- ❍ Female
- ❍ Other _____

3. What is your ethnicity?

- ❑ Asian / Pacific Islander
- ❑ Hispanic or Latino
- ❑ Black or African American
- ❑ Native American or American Indian
- ❑ White
- ❑ Other _____

4. In what state do you reside?

5. What is your highest level of education?

❍ Some high school, no diploma

❍ High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent (for example: GED)

❍ Some college credit, no degree

❍ Trade/technical/vocational training

❍ Associate degree

❍ Bachelor's degree

❍ Master's degree

❍ Professional degree

❍ Doctorate degree

6. Which forms of social media do you use? (select all that apply)

❑ Twitter

❑ Facebook

❑ YouTube

❑ Vine

❑ Instagram

❑ Snapchat

❑ Other _____

7. Do you follow college football recruiting?

❍ Yes

❍ No

8. Do you follow recruiting news related to the University of Michigan?

❍ Yes

❍ No

Appendix W

Revised Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM) Scale

(Cheung & Lee, 2012)

Please indicate the likelihood that you would engage in the described behavior or activity on social media (e.g., Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, YouTube, Vine, Snapchat, etc.):

(1 = *very unlikely* to 7 = *very likely*)

1. I intend to share information about Derek Hudson on social media and/or sports sites and blogs in the future.
2. I will provide my opinions on Derek Hudson on social media and/or sports sites and blogs at the request of others.
3. I will try to share my opinions of Derek Hudson to other fans in a more effective way on social media and/or sports sites and blogs.

Appendix X

General Social Media Measure (GSMM)

Please indicate the likelihood that you would engage in the described behavior or activity on social media (e.g., Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, YouTube, Vine, Snapchat, etc.):

(1 = *very unlikely* to 7 = *very likely*)

1. I would follow Derek Hudson on social media.
2. If Derek Hudson was featured in a video on social media, I would watch it.
3. If Derek Hudson posted a video on social media, I would watch it.
4. I would leave comments on one of Derek Hudson's social media pages.

Appendix Y

Sport Rivalry Fan Perception Scale

(SRFPS; Havard et al., 2013)

Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements.

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

1. I would support (rival team) in a championship game.
2. I would support (rival team) in out-of-conference play.
3. I want (rival team) to win all games except when they play against the University of Michigan.
4. The academic prestige of (rival team) is poor.
5. I feel that people who attended (rival team) missed out on a good education.
6. I feel that the academics at (rival team) are not very prestigious.
7. Fans of (rival team) demonstrate poor sportsmanship at games.
8. Fans of (rival team) are not well-behaved at games.
9. Fans of (rival team) do not show respect for others.
10. I feel a sense of belonging when the University of Michigan beats (rival team).
11. I feel a sense of accomplishment when the University of Michigan beats (rival team).
12. I feel I have bragging rights when the University of Michigan beats (rival team).

Appendix Z

Product Choice (PC) Measure

(Gao, Wheeler, & Shiv, 2009)

If you had $10 to spend, please provide your choice of the product(s) you would purchase from the following items.

- Cost: $10

- Cost: $10

- Cost: $10

- Cost: $10

Appendix AA

Primary Social Media Outlet

1. Between Twitter, Facebook, and Instagram, which site do you use the most for social media?

- ❍ Twitter
- ❍ Facebook
- ❍ Instagram

Appendix AB

Active Social Media Measure with Stimuli Posts

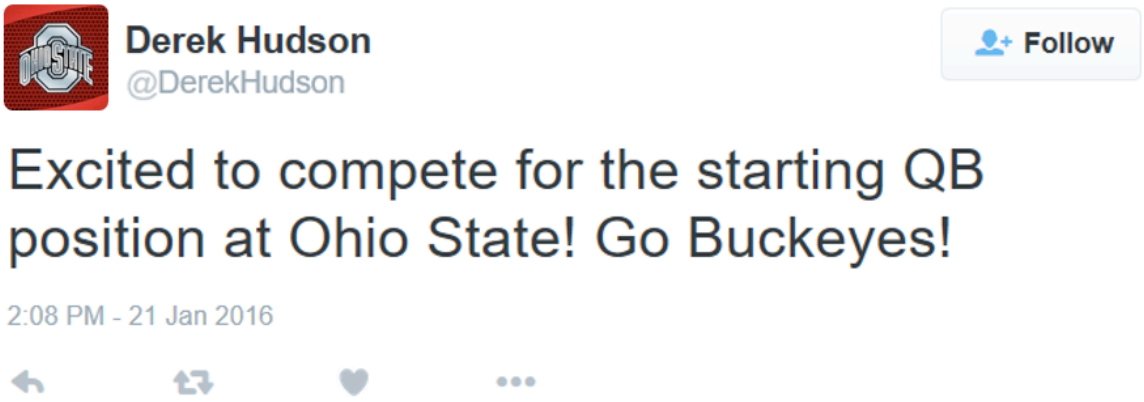
Twitter Post

Derek Hudson recently posted the following tweet on Twitter:

Image AB1. Tweet – Ingroup

Image AB2. Tweet – Outgroup

Image AB3. Tweet – Rival



After viewing Derek Hudson's tweet, if you were able to comment on it, how would you respond?

Please type in your honest response below.

Empty Text Box

Facebook Post

Derek Hudson recently posted the following status on Facebook:

Image AB4. Facebook Status – Ingroup

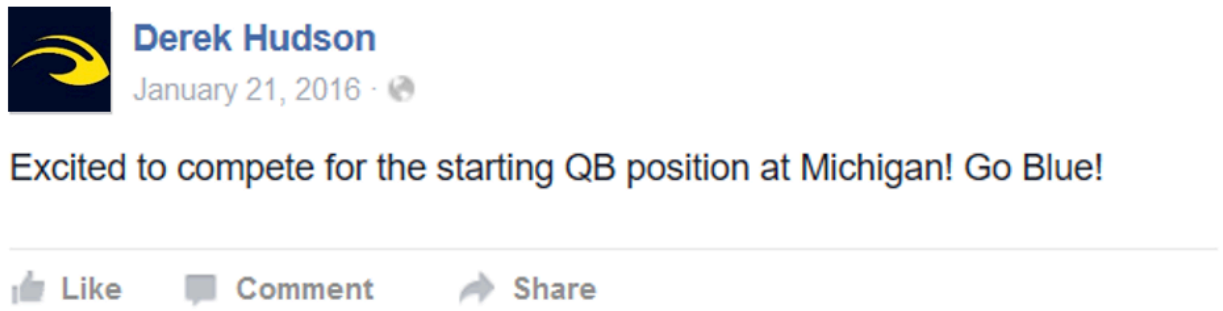
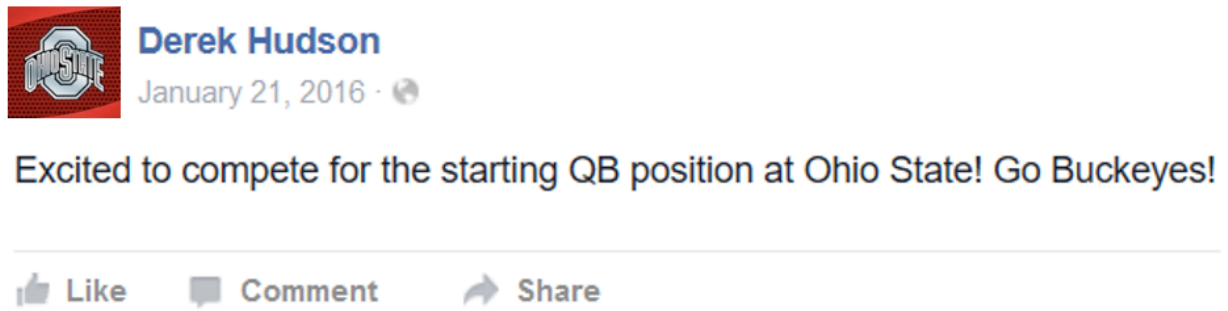


Image AB5. Facebook Status – Outgroup

Image AB6. Facebook Status – Rival



After viewing Derek Hudson's post, if you were able to comment on it, how would you respond?

Please type in your honest response below.

Empty Text Box

Instagram Post

Derek Hudson recently posted the following picture on Instagram:

Image AB7. Instagram Picture – Ingroup

Derek Hudson FOLLOW

Derek Hudson Excited to compete for the starting QB position at Michigan! Go Blue!

Log in to like or comment.

Image AB8. Instagram Picture – Outgroup

Derek Hudson FOLLOW

Derek Hudson Excited to compete for the starting QB position at Oregon! Go Ducks!

Log in to like or comment.

Image AB9. Instagram Picture – Rival

Derek Hudson FOLLOW

Derek Hudson Excited to compete for the starting QB position at Ohio State! Go Buckeyes!

Log in to like or comment.

After viewing Derek Hudson's post, if you were able to comment on it, how would you respond?

Please type in your honest response below.

Empty Text Box

Appendix AC

Negative Social Media Intentions (NSMI)

Please indicate the likelihood that you would engage in the described behavior or activity on social media (e.g., Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, YouTube, Vine, Snapchat, etc.):

(1 = *very unlikely* to 7 = *very likely*)

1. If I was already following Derek Hudson on social media, I would unfollow him.
2. I would post negative comments on one of Derek Hudson's social media pages.
3. I would post negative comments about Derek Hudson on one of my own social media pages.
4. I would tell my friends to unfollow Derek Hudson on social media if they were current followers of him.
5. I would not click the like button on any posts or comments by Derek Hudson on any social media page.
6. I would post negative comments on social media pages of Derek Hudson supporters.

Appendix AD

Evaluative Measure

(Study 3; Manipulation Check)

Performance Rating

1. How would you rate (Target Athlete)'s performance?

❍ Far below expectations

❍ Moderately below expectations

❍ Slightly below expectations

❍ Met expectations

❍ Slightly above expectations

❍ Moderately above expectations

❍ Far above expectations

Appendix AE

Group Manipulation Checks

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

Manipulation Checks – Outgroup

1. I would consider the University of Oregon an outgroup to the University of Michigan. In this situation, outgroup is defined as a team that is not part of the identity or meaningful to fans of the University of Michigan football team.

2. I would consider the University of Oregon a rival of the University of Michigan.

Manipulation Checks – Rival

1. I would consider Ohio State University an outgroup to the University of Michigan. In this situation, outgroup is defined as a team that is not part of the identity or meaningful to fans of the University of Michigan football team.

2. I would consider Ohio State University a rival of the University of Michigan.

Appendix AF

General Cheating in Sports (GCS) Measure

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

1. In any sport, using performance-enhancing drugs (PEDs) to cheat is morally wrong.
2. In any sport, cheating, in and of itself, is morally wrong.

Appendix AG

Degree of Immorality (DI) Scale

(Bhattacharjee et al., 2013)

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

1. It is morally wrong for an athlete to use performance-enhancing drugs (PEDs) as a way to improve performance.
2. I find that an athlete who uses performance-enhancing drugs (PEDs) is engaging in an action that is morally wrong.

Appendix AH

Target Athlete Stimuli

(Study 4)

Group Manipulation

Image AH1. Recruit Report – Ingroup

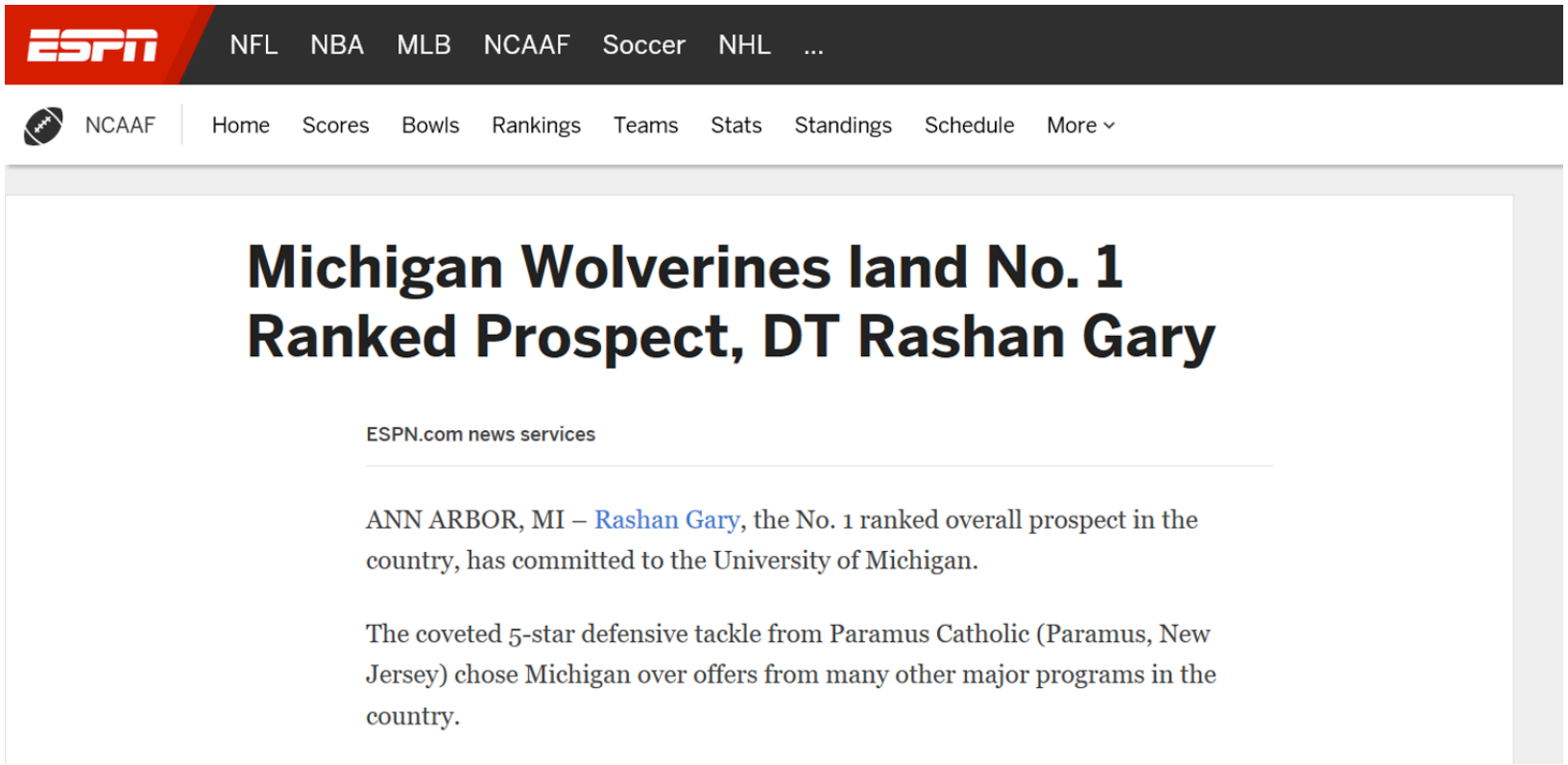


Image AH2. Recruit Report – Outgroup

Performance Manipulation

Image AH3. Positive Performance – Ingroup

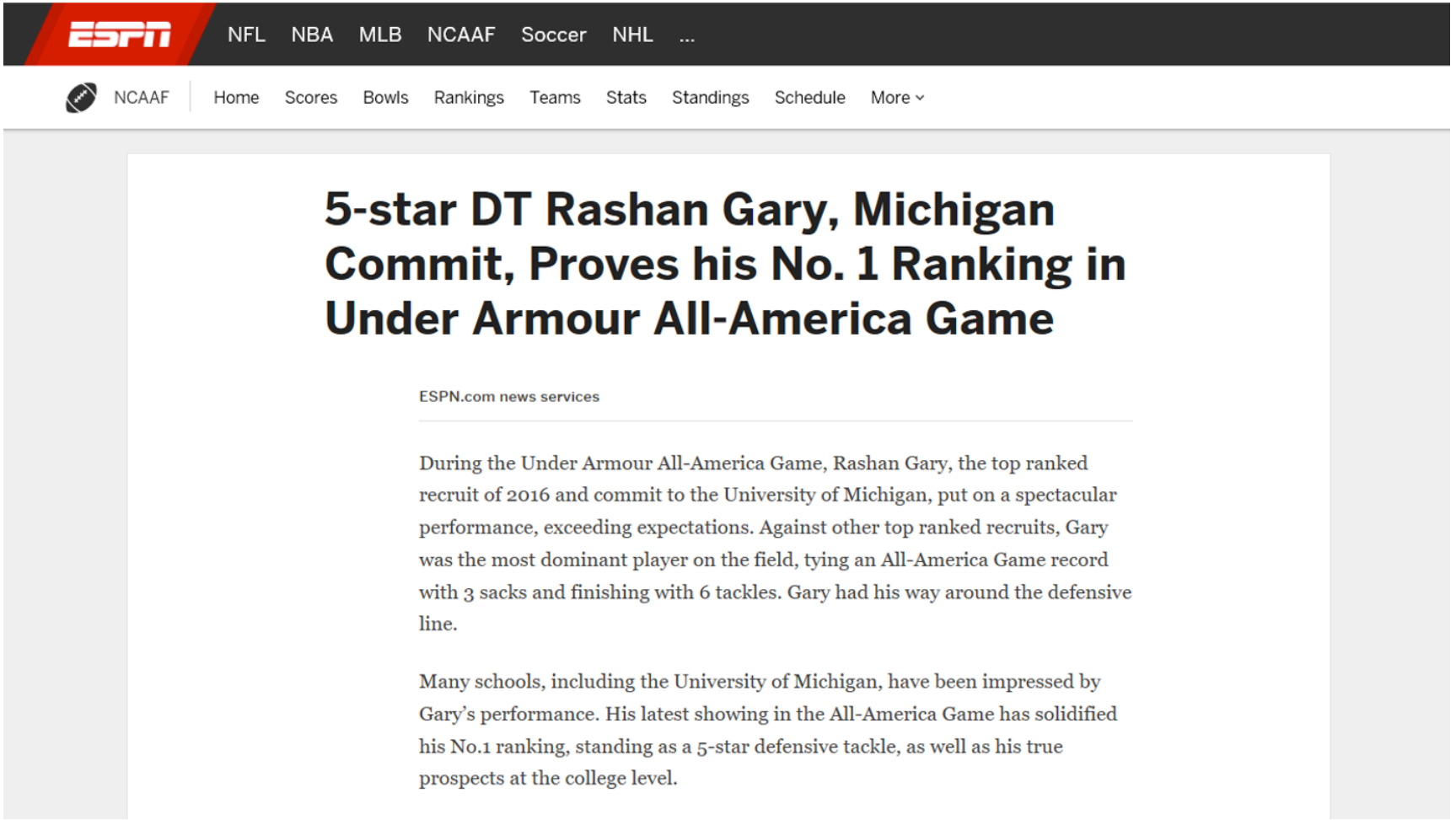


Image AH4. Negative Performance – Ingroup

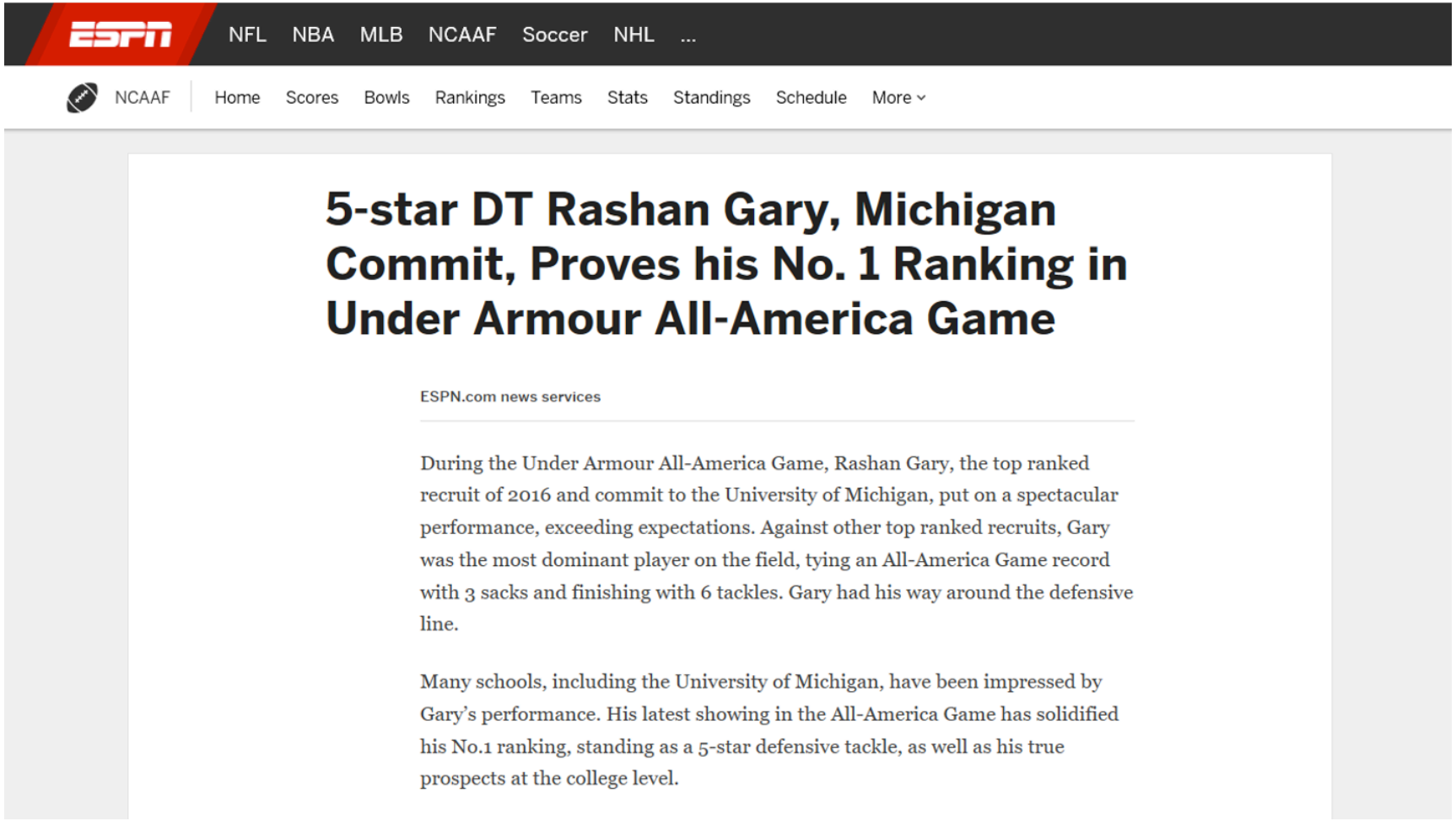


Image AH5. Positive Performance – Outgroup

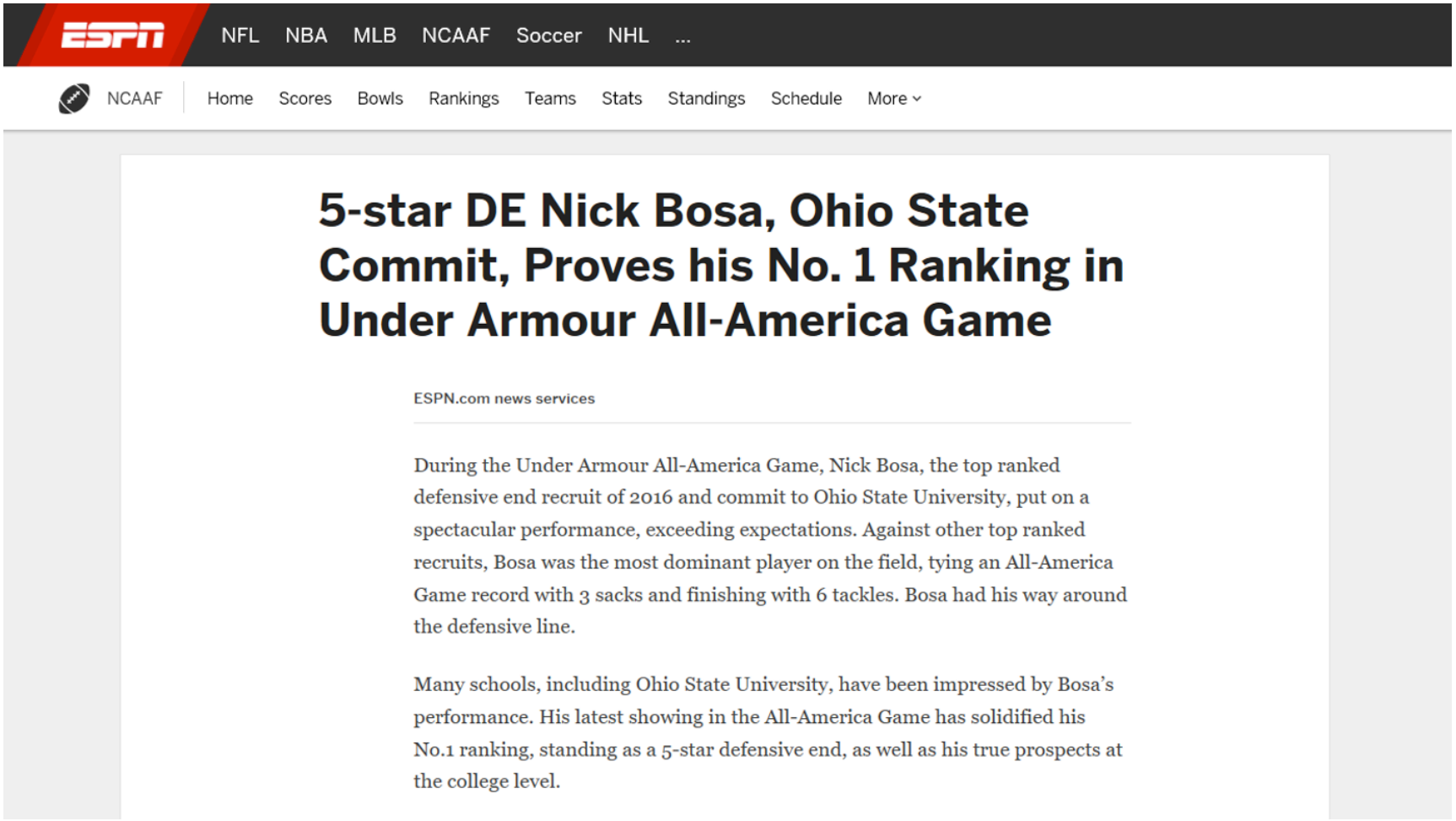
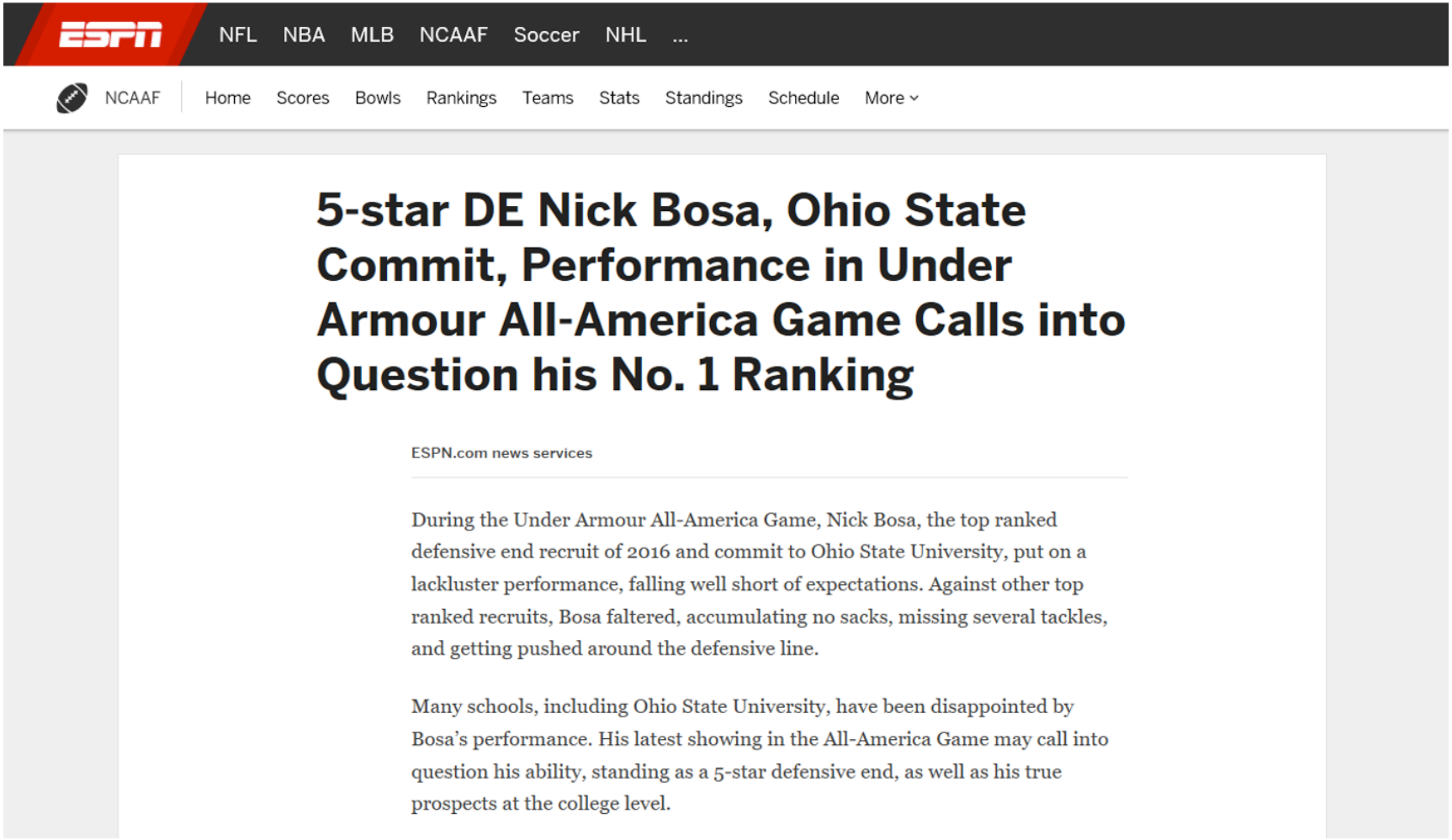


Image AH6. Negative Performance – Outgroup



Moral Manipulation

Image AH7. Positive Moral Behavior – Ingroup

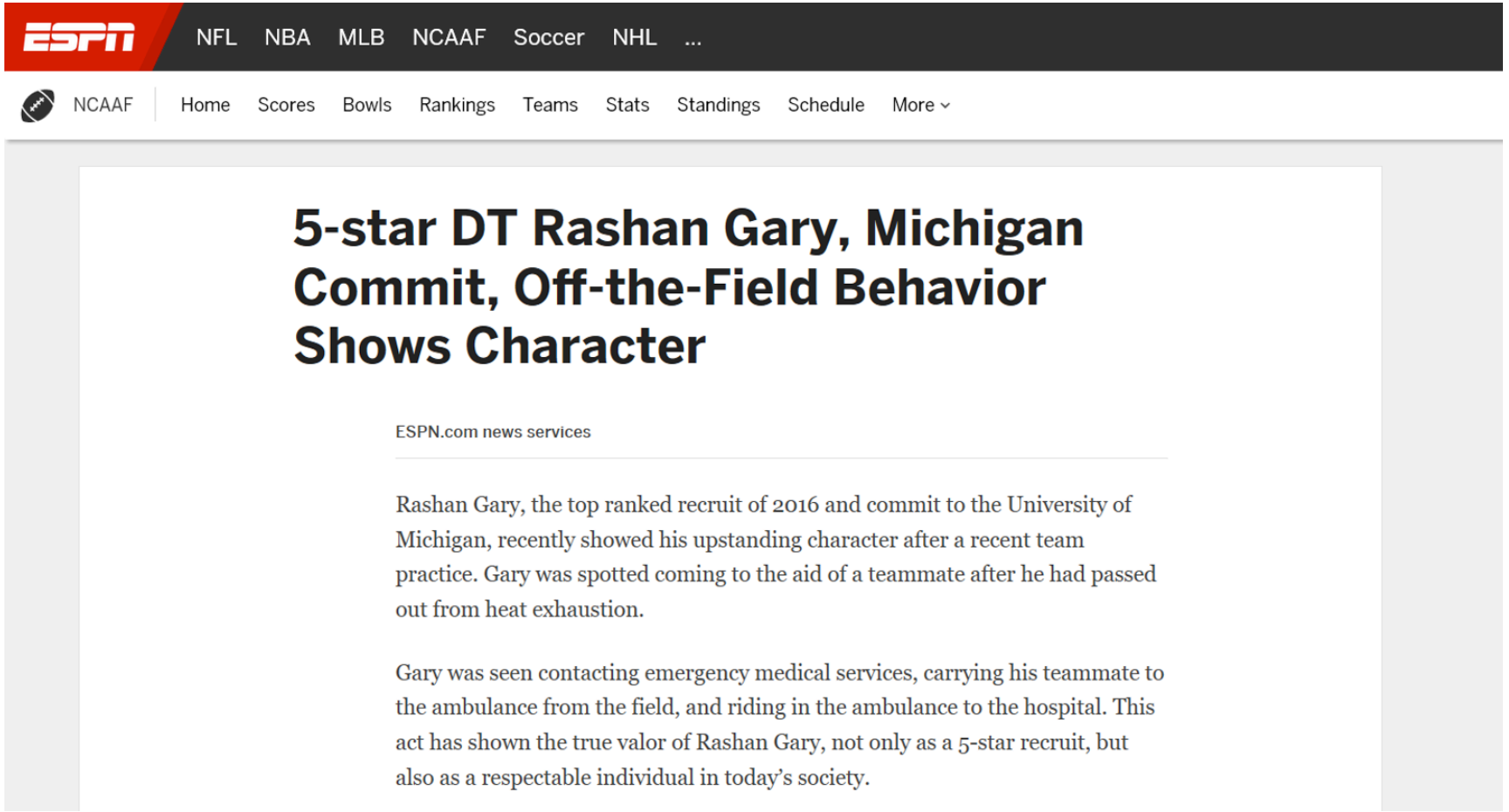


Image AH8. Negative Moral Behavior – Ingroup

Image AH9. Positive Moral Behavior – Outgroup

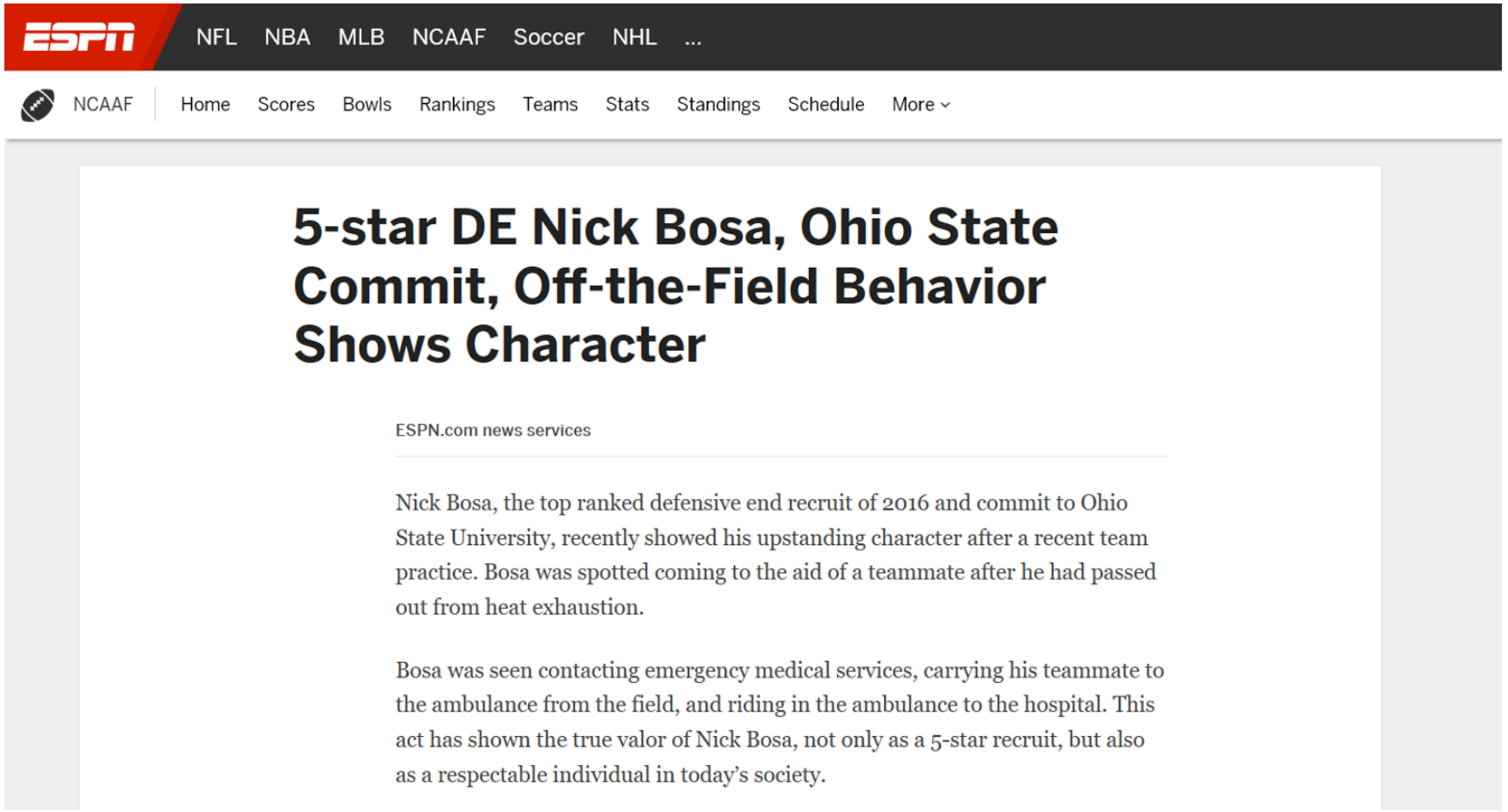


Image AH10. Negative Moral Behavior – Outgroup

Appendix AI

Debriefing Form

(Study 4)

Thank you for your participation in this study. The investigators must include some important information regarding the study.

Aside from the recruit's committed school, all the information presented in this study was either altered or completely fictitious. In no way did the aforementioned individual engage in any of the acts as described in this study.

We ask that you keep this information confidential as our study is currently an ongoing investigation.

We greatly appreciate your cooperation. Thank you again for your time and efforts.

Appendix AJ

Revised Competence-Based Trust (CBT) Scale

(Ferrin et al., 2007)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

1. (Target Athlete) is a very capable defensive tackle (end).
2. (Target Athlete) has great knowledge about being a defensive tackle (end).
3. I feel very confident about (Target Athlete)'s skills as a defensive tackle (end).
4. (Target Athlete) is well suited at the defensive tackle (end) position.

Appendix AK

Revised General Social Media Measure (GSMM)

Please indicate the likelihood that you would engage in the described behavior or activity on social media (e.g., Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, YouTube, Vine, Snapchat, etc.):

(1 = *very unlikely* to 7 = *very likely*)

1. I will try to share my opinions of (Target Athlete) to other fans in a more effective way on social media and/or sports sites and blogs.
2. I will provide my opinions on (Target Athlete) on social media and/or sports sites and blogs at the request of others.
3. I intend to share information about (Target Athlete) on social media and/or sports sites and blogs in the future.
4. I would follow (Target Athlete) on social media.
5. If (Target Athlete) was featured in a video on social media, I would watch it.
6. If (Target Athlete) posted a video on social media, I would watch it.
7. I would leave comments on one of (Target Athlete)'s social media pages.

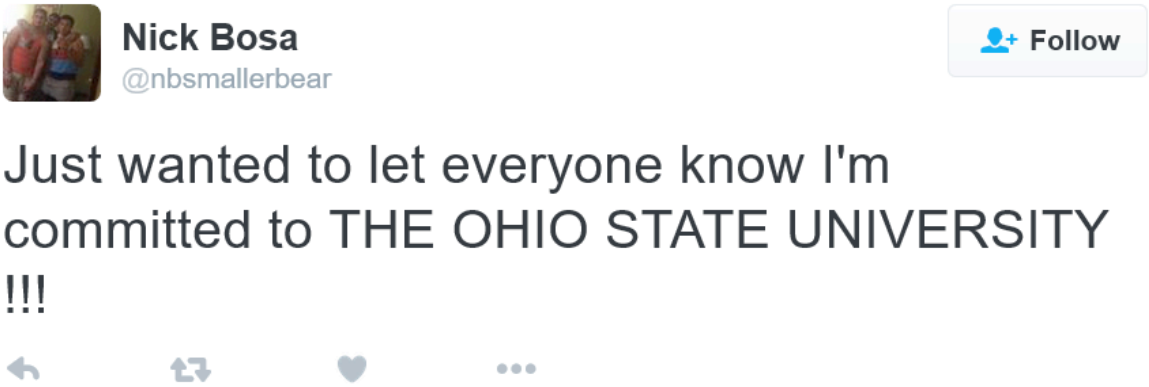
Appendix AL

Active Social Media Measure with Stimuli Posts

(Target Athlete) recently posted the following tweet on Twitter.

Image AL1. Tweet – Ingroup

Image AL2. Tweet – Outgroup



After viewing (Target Athlete's) tweet, if you were able to comment on it, how would you respond?

Please type in your honest response below.

Empty Text Box

Appendix AM

Revised Product Choice Measure

(Gao et al., 2009)

If you were able to purchase any of the following items, please select ONE item that you would purchase from the products below.

- Michigan Jersey

- Rashan Gary Jersey

- Michigan Wristband

- Rashan Gary Wristband

Appendix AN

Moral Trait Evaluation

(Traits identified in Aquino & Reed, 2002; Seider et al., 2012; Shields et al., 2015)

Please rate (Target Athlete) on the following traits:

1. Empathy

Not at all empathetic 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very empathetic*

2. Integrity

Having little integrity 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Having high integrity*

3. Compassion

Not at all compassionate 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very compassionate*

4. Honesty

Not at all honest 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very honest*

5. Ruthlessness

Not at all ruthless 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very ruthless*

6. Fairness

Not at all fair 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very fair*

7. Selfishness

Not at all selfish 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very selfish*

8. Care

Not at all caring 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very caring*

9. Respect

Not at all respectful 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Very respectful*

Appendix AO

Adapted Integrity-Based Trust (IBT) Scale

(Ferrin et al., 2007)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

1. I like (Target Athlete)'s values.
2. (Target Athlete)'s behavior seems to be guided by sound principles.
3. (Target Athlete) will stick to his word.
4. (Target Athlete) has a great deal of integrity.

Appendix AP

Level of Moral Reasoning

(Lee et al., 2015; Bandura et al., 1996; Bhattacharjee et al. 2013)

Assuming (Target Athlete) engaged in the use of performance-enhancing drugs (PEDs; performance and positive moral behavior conditions)/Given that (Target Athlete) tested positive for performance-enhancing drugs (PEDs; negative moral behavior condition), please indicate the extent to which you agree with following statements.

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

Moral decoupling

1. (Target Athlete)'s misconduct would not change my assessment of his performance.
2. Judgments of (Target Athlete)'s performance should remain separate from judgments of morality.
3. Reports of wrongdoing should not affect our view of (Target Athlete)'s achievements.

Moral rationalization

1. (Target Athlete)'s PED use would not be as bad as some other horrible things that people do.
2. It is important to take into account that the (Target Athlete's) use of PEDs does not really do much harm.
3. It would be unfair to blame just (Target Athlete) since his use must also be the fault of others pushing him to perform.

4. (Target Athlete) should not be at fault for his PED use because the pressures of modern society are so high.

Moral coupling

1. People need to consider (Target Athlete)'s PED use when assessing his on-field performance.

2. It is important to take into account (Target Athlete)'s PED use when assessing his on-field performance.

Appendix AQ

Manipulation Checks

(Study 4)

Performance Rating

1. How would you rate (Target Athlete)'s performance?

❍ Far below expectations

❍ Moderately below expectations

❍ Slightly below expectations

❍ Met expectations

❍ Slightly above expectations

❍ Moderately above expectations

❍ Far above expectations

Moral Behavior Rating

(1 = *not at all morally sound* to 7 = *very morally sound*)

1. How would you rate (Target Athlete)'s behavior?

Group Rating

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

1. I would consider Ohio State University an out-group to the University of Michigan.

In this situation, out-group is defined as a team perceived as other than one's own

Rival Rating

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

1. I would consider Ohio State University a rival of the University of Michigan.

Appendix AR

Table AR1

Complete Hierarchal Regression Analysis for Competence-Based Trust (CBT) from Table 43

Model Statistics	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3				Model 4			
R^2			.19				.20				.21				.21	
F			8.77***				5.06***				3.94***				3.82***	
ΔR^2			-				.01				.01				.00	
ΔF			-				0.77				0.46				1.52	
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*
Group	-0.57	.15	-.22***	[-0.84, -0.30]	-0.56	.15	-.22***	[-0.83, -0.27]	-0.56	.15	-.22***	[-0.85, -0.25]	-0.55	.15	-.21***	[-0.84, -0.23]
Behavior	0.06	.14	.02	[-0.22, -0.34]	0.06	.14	.02	[-0.23, 0.33]	0.06	.14	.02	[-0.24, 0.34]	0.08	.15	.03	[-0.21, 0.36]
Nature	-0.60	.15	-.24***	[-0.90, -0.30]	-0.63	.15	-.25***	[-0.93, -0.33]	-0.62	.15	-.24***	[-0.92, -0.32]	-0.61	.15	-.24***	[-0.91, -0.33]
Team Identification	0.25	.08	.17**	[0.08, 0.42]	0.26	.08	.18**	[0.08, 0.44]	0.25	.08	.17**	[0.06, 0.45]	0.24	.09	.17**	[0.05, 0.44]
Moral Decoupling	0.07	.07	.08	[-0.06, 0.19]	0.07	.07	.08	[-0.06, 0.20]	0.09	.07	.09	[-0.04, 0.21]	0.09	.07	.10	[-0.03, 0.21]
Moral Rationalization	0.01	.08	.01	[-0.13, 0.15]	0.02	.08	.02	[-0.13, 0.16]	0.01	.08	.01	[-0.14, 0.16]	0.01	.08	.01	[-0.15, 0.16]
Moral Coupling	0.16	.06	.17**	[0.04, 0.29]	0.18	.06	.19**	[0.05, 0.31]	0.18	.06	.19**	[0.06, 0.31]	0.18	.06	.19**	[0.05, 0.31]
Group × Behavior	-	-	-	-	0.01	.29	.00	[-0.55, 0.54]	0.02	.29	.00	[-0.54, 0.54]	0.02	.29	.01	[-0.54, 0.54]
Group × Nature	-	-	-	-	-0.08	.29	-.02	[-0.65, 0.48]	-0.08	.29	-.02	[-0.67, 0.51]	-0.09	.29	-.02	[-0.68, 0.51]
Group × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-0.30	.17	-.10†	[-0.64, 0.05]	-0.29	.17	-.10†	[-0.65, 0.09]	-0.28	.17	-.10†	[-0.65, 0.09]
Behavior × Nature	-	-	-	-	0.28	.28	.05	[-0.30, 0.87]	0.27	.29	.05	[-0.34, 0.89]	0.29	.29	.06	[-0.32, 0.92]
Behavior × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-0.02	.16	-.01	[-0.36, 0.32]	0.01	.17	.00	[-0.33, 0.36]	-0.01	.17	.00	[-0.34, 0.33]
Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	0.15	.17	.05	[-0.20, 0.48]	0.16	.17	.05	[-0.18, 0.49]	0.14	.17	.05	[-0.20, 0.47]
Group × Behavior × Nature	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.76	.58	.07	[-0.46, 2.02]	0.75	.58	.07	[-0.47, 2.01]
Group × Behavior × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.05	.34	-.01	[-0.75, 0.71]	-0.06	.34	-.01	[-0.76, 0.71]
Group × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.01	.34	.00	[-0.69, 0.63]	-0.04	.34	-.01	[-0.71, 0.59]
Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.15	.34	.03	[-0.56, 0.77]	0.13	.34	.02	[-0.56, 0.73]
Group × Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.83	.67	.07	[-0.60, 2.14]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Appendix AS

Table AS1

Complete Hierarchal Regression Analysis for Performance Trait Evaluation (PTE) from Table 43

Model Statistics	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3				Model 4			
R^2	.32				.40				.41				.42			
F	18.10				13.72***				10.61***				10.48***			
ΔR^2	-				.08				.01				.01			
ΔF	-				6.18***				0.70				5.32*			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*
Group	-0.44	.14	-.16**	[-0.71, -0.15]	-0.48	.14	-.17***	[-0.74, -0.21]	-0.48	.14	-.17***	[-0.74, -0.19]	-0.45	.14	-.16***	[-0.72, -0.15]
Behavior	-0.03	.14	-.01	[-0.30, 0.25]	-0.06	.13	-.02	[-0.33, 0.21]	-0.06	.14	-.02	[-0.33, 0.22]	-0.02	.14	-.01	[-0.29, 0.26]
Nature	-1.31	.15	-.47***	[-1.61, -1.01]	-1.36	.14	-.49***	[-1.63, -1.09]	-1.36	.14	-.49***	[-1.63, -1.10]	-1.35	.14	-.49***	[-1.62, -1.09]
Team Identification	0.03	.08	.02	[-0.15, 0.21]	0.01	.08	.01	[-0.16, 0.17]	-0.01	.08	-.01	[-0.19, 0.16]	-0.03	.08	-.02	[-0.20, 0.14]
Moral Decoupling	0.15	.07	.15*	[0.01, 0.28]	0.13	.07*	.13*	[0.00, 0.26]	0.13	.07	.13*	[0.00, 0.26]	0.14	.07	.14*	[0.02, 0.26]
Moral Rationalization	0.12	.08	.11	[-0.03, 0.27]	0.12	.07	.10	[-0.03, 0.25]	0.11	.08	.10	[-0.04, 0.24]	0.10	.08	.09	[-0.05, 0.23]
Moral Coupling	0.08	.06	.08	[-0.04, 0.19]	0.09	.06	.09	[-0.03, 0.21]	0.09	.06	.09	[-0.03, 0.20]	0.08	.06	.08	[-0.04, 0.19]
Group × Behavior	-	-	-	-	-0.22	.27	-.04	[-0.75, 0.35]	-0.25	.27	-.05	[-0.78, 0.32]	-0.24	.27	-.04	[-0.78, 0.32]
Group × Nature	-	-	-	-	-0.18	.27	-.03	[-0.68, 0.32]	-0.17	.27	-.03	[-0.68, 0.34]	-0.18	.27	-.03	[-0.69, 0.33]
Group × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-0.44	.16	-.14**	[-0.75, -0.13]	-0.43	.16	-.13**	[-0.75, -0.09]	-0.41	.16	-.13**	[-0.74, -0.07]
Behavior × Nature	-	-	-	-	-1.28	.27	-.23***	[-1.81, -0.73]	-1.24	.27	-.22***	[-1.78, -0.69]	-1.21	.27	-.22***	[-1.75, -0.65]
Behavior × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-0.14	.15	-.04	[-0.47, 0.17]	-0.13	.16	-.04	[-0.46, 0.17]	-0.17	.16	-.05	[-0.49, 0.12]
Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-0.20	.16	-.06	[-0.53, 0.08]	-0.20	.16	-.06	[-0.53, 0.09]	-0.23	.16	-.07	[-0.55, 0.06]
Group × Behavior × Nature	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.46	.55	.04	[-0.62, 1.57]	0.45	.54	.04	[-0.62, 1.53]
Group × Behavior × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.32	.32	.05	[-0.35, 0.99]	0.31	.31	.05	[-0.36, 0.98]
Group × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.11	.32	.02	[-0.58, 0.79]	0.05	.32	.01	[-0.63, 0.73]
Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.33	.32	-.05	[-0.99, 0.27]	-0.36	.31	-.06	[-1.01, 0.23]
Group × Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.45	.63	.11*	[0.07, 2.83]

Note. $^{\dagger}p \leq .10$. $^{*}p \leq .05$. $^{**}p \leq .01$. $^{***}p \leq .001$.

Appendix AT

Table AT1

Complete Hierarchal Regression Analysis for Integrity-Based Trust (IBT) from Table 43

Model Statistics	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3				Model 4			
R^2	.34				.55				.56				.56			
F	20.15***				24.86***				19.10***				18.44***			
ΔR^2	-				.21				.01				.01			
ΔF	-				20.26***				0.71				3.82*			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*
Group	-0.47	.16	-.15**	[-0.77, -0.18]	-0.52	.13	-.17***	[-0.77, -0.27]	-0.51	.13	-.17***	[-0.77, -0.25]	-0.49	.13	-.16***	[-0.75, -0.22]
Behavior	-0.22	.15	-.07	[-0.51, 0.08]	-0.25	.13	-.08*	[-0.50, -0.002]	-0.26	.13	-.08*	[-0.52, -0.004]	-0.23	.13	-.07†	[-0.48, 0.03]
Nature	-1.45	.16	-.48***	[-1.77, -1.12]	-1.53	.13	-.50***	[-1.80, -1.26]	-1.52	.13	-.50***	[-1.79, -1.26]	-1.51	.13	-.50***	[-1.78, -1.26]
Team Identification	0.12	.09	.07	[-0.08, 0.33]	0.08	.07	.05	[-0.07, 0.24]	0.07	.08	.04	[-0.09, 0.24]	0.06	.08	.03	[-0.11, 0.22]
Moral Decoupling	0.26	.08	.23***	[0.08, 0.42]	0.22	.06	.20***	[0.08, 0.36]	0.22	.07	.20***	[0.08, 0.36]	0.23	.07	.20***	[0.09, 0.37]
Moral Rationalization	0.02	.08	.02	[-0.15, 0.18]	0.03	.07	.02	[-0.11, 0.16]	0.01	.07	.01	[-0.12, 0.14]	0.00	.07	.00	[-0.13, 0.13]
Moral Coupling	0.03	.07	.03	[-0.11, 0.16]	0.05	.06	.04	[-0.07, 0.17]	0.04	.06	.04	[-0.08, 0.17]	0.03	.06	.03	[-0.09, 0.16]
Group × Behavior	-	-	-	-	0.00	.26	.00	[-0.52, 0.51]	-0.03	.26	-.01	[-0.53, 0.47]	-0.03	.26	.00	[-0.53, 0.46]
Group × Nature	-	-	-	-	0.05	.26	.01	[-0.43, 0.55]	0.04	.26	.01	[-0.46, 0.58]	0.04	.26	.01	[-0.46, 0.57]
Group × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-0.53	.15	-.15***	[-0.83, -0.22]	-0.51	.15	-.15***	[-0.82, -0.18]	-0.49	.15	-.14***	[-0.82, -0.16]
Behavior × Nature	-	-	-	-	-2.52	.25	-.41***	[-3.02, -1.99]	-2.50	.26	-.41***	[-3.01, -1.92]	-2.47	.26	-.41***	[-2.99, -1.88]
Behavior × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-0.35	.15	-.10*	[-0.67, -0.04]	-0.36	.15	-.10*	[-0.68, -0.06]	-0.39	.15	-.11**	[-0.71, -0.10]
Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-0.06	.15	-.02	[-0.37, 0.24]	-0.05	.15	-.02	[-0.36, 0.24]	-0.07	.15	-.02	[-0.40, 0.23]
Group × Behavior × Nature	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.04	.52	.00	[-1.00, 0.87]	-0.05	.52	.00	[-1.00, 0.82]
Group × Behavior × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.06	.30	.01	[-0.58, 0.78]	0.05	.30	.01	[-0.61, 0.81]
Group × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.32	.30	.05	[-0.34, 0.97]	0.27	.30	.04	[-0.38, 0.95]
Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.42	.30	-.06	[-1.03, 0.17]	-0.44	.30	-.06	[-1.05, 0.13]
Group × Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.17	.60	.08*	[-0.15, 2.59]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Appendix AU

Complete Hierarchal Regression Analysis for Moral Trait Evaluation (MTE) from Table 43

Model Statistics	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3				Model 4			
R^2	.27				.50				.50				.51			
F	14.53***				20.06***				15.37***				14.76***			
ΔR^2	-				.23				.00				.01			
ΔF	-				19.51***				0.56				2.73†			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*
Group	-0.41	.14	-.16**	[-0.69, -0.13]	-0.44	.12	-.17***	[-0.67, -0.21]	-0.43	.12	-.17***	[-0.66, -0.19]	-0.42	.12	-.16***	[-0.66, -0.16]
Behavior	-0.01	.14	-.01	[-0.29, 0.26]	-0.04	.12	-.01	[-0.27, 0.20]	-0.04	.12	-.01	[-0.27, 0.21]	-0.01	.12	-.01	[-0.25, 0.24]
Nature	-1.12	.14	-.43***	[-1.42, -0.82]	-1.16	.12	-.45***	[-1.40, -0.92]	-1.16	.12	-.45***	[-1.39, -0.92]	-1.15	.12	-.44***	[-1.39, -0.92]
Team Identification	0.08	.08	.06	[-0.09, 0.25]	0.04	.07	.03	[-0.10, 0.18]	0.03	.07	.02	[-0.12, 0.18]	0.02	.07	.01	[-0.13, 0.16]
Moral Decoupling	0.17	.07	.18*	[0.02, 0.31]	0.14	.06	.15*	[0.03, 0.25]	0.14	.06	.15*	[0.04, 0.25]	0.15	.06	.16**	[0.04, 0.26]
Moral Rationalization	0.04	.08	.03	[-0.12, 0.19]	0.04	.06	.04	[-0.09, 0.16]	0.03	.07	.03	[-0.09, 0.15]	0.03	.07	.03	[-0.10, 0.15]
Moral Coupling	0.03	.06	.03	[-0.10, 0.15]	0.05	.05	.05	[-0.06, 0.14]	0.05	.05	.05	[-0.06, 0.15]	0.04	.05	.04	[-0.07, 0.14]
Group × Behavior	-	-	-	-	0.19	.23	.04	[-0.26, 0.66]	0.15	.23	.03	[-0.30, 0.63]	0.16	.23	.03	[-0.29, 0.63]
Group × Nature	-	-	-	-	0.01	.23	.00	[-0.43, 0.47]	0.00	.23	.00	[-0.46, 0.48]	0.00	.23	.00	[-0.46, 0.48]
Group × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-0.33	.13	-.11*	[-0.61, -0.05]	-0.31	.14	-.10*	[-0.60, -0.01]	-0.30	.14	-.10*	[-0.59, 0.01]
Behavior × Nature	-	-	-	-	-2.36	.23	-.45***	[-2.83, -1.86]	-2.35	.23	-.45***	[-2.82, -1.83]	-2.33	.23	-.45***	[-2.81, -1.81]
Behavior × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-0.10	.13	-.03	[-0.39, 0.18]	-0.09	.13	-.03	[-0.37, 0.19]	-0.11	.14	-.04	[-0.40, 0.16]
Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-0.04	.13	-.01	[-0.31, 0.23]	-0.02	.14	-.01	[-0.31, 0.25]	-0.04	.14	-.01	[-0.33, 0.24]
Group × Behavior × Nature	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.24	.47	.02	[-0.66, 1.13]	0.23	.47	.02	[-0.66, 1.10]
Group × Behavior × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.08	.27	.01	[-0.50, 0.71]	0.08	.27	.01	[-0.53, 0.74]
Group × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.02	.27	.00	[-0.60, 0.57]	-0.05	.27	-.01	[-0.63, 0.54]
Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.36	.27	-.06	[-0.92, 0.10]	-0.38	.27	-.06	[-0.94, 0.09]
Group × Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.89	.54	.08†	[-0.29, 2.13]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Appendix AV

Table AV1

Complete Hierarchal Regression Analysis for Attitudes toward the Athlete (A_{ath}) from Table 43

Model Statistics	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3				Model 4			
R^2	.28				.42				.42				.43			
F	15.00***				14.40***				10.95***				10.73***			
ΔR^2	-				.14				.00				.01			
ΔF	-				10.14***				0.26				4.48*			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*
Group	-1.48	.29	-.28***	[-2.03, -0.93]	-1.56	.26	-.29***	[-2.06, -1.04]	-1.56	.26	-.29***	[-2.08, -1.01]	-1.52	.26	-.28***	[-2.04, -0.94]
Behavior	-0.16	.28	-.03	[-0.72, 0.39]	-0.23	.26	-.04	[-0.73, 0.27]	-0.23	.26	-.04	[-0.74, 0.28]	-0.16	.26	-.03	[-0.67, 0.36]
Nature	-1.90	.29	-.36***	[-2.48, -1.32]	-2.01	.26	-.38***	[-2.52, -1.49]	-2.03	.27	-.38***	[-2.55, -1.50]	-2.01	.27	-.38***	[-2.53, -1.51]
Team Identification	0.21	.16	.07	[-0.10, 0.54]	0.19	.15	.06	[-0.10, 0.49]	0.20	.15	.07	[-0.12, 0.50]	0.17	.15	.06	[-0.15, 0.46]
Moral Decoupling	0.31	.14	.16*	[0.03, 0.57]	0.26	.13	.13*	[0.003, 0.51]	0.24	.13	.13†	[-0.02, 0.50]	0.26	.13	.13*	[-0.003, 0.52]
Moral Rationalization	0.16	.15	.07	[-0.16, 0.46]	0.14	.14	.07	[-0.16, 0.43]	0.15	.14	.07	[-0.16, 0.43]	0.13	.14	.06	[-0.17, 0.42]
Moral Coupling	0.10	.12	.05	[-0.16, 0.34]	0.11	.11	.06	[-0.13, 0.34]	0.10	.11	.05	[-0.14, 0.34]	0.08	.11	.04	[-0.17, 0.33]
Group × Behavior	-	-	-	-	0.54	.51	.05	[-0.48, 1.59]	0.58	.52	.05	[-0.46, 1.64]	0.59	.51	.06	[-0.45, 1.66]
Group × Nature	-	-	-	-	0.78	.51	.07	[-0.18, 1.75]	0.80	.52	.08	[-0.21, 1.81]	0.79	.51	.07	[-0.20, 1.80]
Group × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-1.02	.30	-.17***	[-1.60, -0.46]	-1.06	.30	-.17***	[-1.67, -0.46]	-1.02	.30	-.17***	[-1.64, -0.43]
Behavior × Nature	-	-	-	-	-3.20	.51	-.30***	[-4.23, -2.17]	-3.18	.52	-.30***	[-4.22, -2.15]	-3.12	.51	-.29***	[-4.15, -2.08]
Behavior × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-0.20	.29	-.03	[-0.79, 0.39]	-0.25	.30	-.04	[-0.85, 0.33]	-0.31	.30	-.05	[-0.93, 0.24]
Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-0.26	.30	-.04	[-0.85, 0.30]	-0.30	.30	-.05	[-0.91, .30]	-0.34	.30	-.06	[-0.98, 0.28]
Group × Behavior × Nature	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.89	1.04	-.04	[-2.91, 1.24]	-0.91	1.04	-.04	[-2.89, 1.12]
Group × Behavior × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.09	.60	.01	[-1.16, 1.45]	0.07	.60	.01	[-1.24, 1.48]
Group × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.18	.60	.02	[-1.12, 1.61]	0.09	.60	.01	[-1.21, 1.55]
Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.20	.60	.02	[-1.03, 1.33]	0.16	.60	.01	[-1.09, 1.26]
Group × Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.54	1.20	.10*	[-0.05, 5.58]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Appendix AW

Table AW1

Complete Hierarchal Regression Analysis for General Social Media Measure (GSMM) from Table 44

Model Statistics	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3				Model 4			
R^2	.24				.29				.32				.32			
F	12.42***				8.12***				7.14***				6.72***			
ΔR^2	-				.05				.03				.00			
ΔF	-				2.59*				3.12*				0.03			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	β	*BCa 95% CI*
Group	-0.95	.16	-.32***	[-1.27, -0.62]	-0.91	.16	-.31***	[-1.22, -0.60]	-0.93	.16	-.31***	[-1.23, -0.63]	-0.93	.16	-.31***	[-1.24, -0.63]
Behavior	0.05	.16	.02	[-0.27, 0.37]	0.05	.16	.02	[-0.25, 0.37]	0.06	.16	.02	[-0.25, 0.37]	0.06	.16	.02	[-0.26, 0.39]
Nature	-0.17	.16	-.06	[-0.48, 0.14]	-0.19	.16	-.07	[-0.50, 0.11]	-0.18	.16	-.06	[-0.49, 0.12]	-0.18	.16	-.06	[-0.49, 0.12]
Team Identification	0.21	.09	.12*	[0.03, 0.38]	0.21	.09	.13*	[0.03, 0.39]	0.18	.09	.10†	[0.00, 0.34]	0.17	.09	.10†	[-0.01, 0.34]
Moral Decoupling	0.19	.08	.17*	[0.01, 0.37]	0.18	.08	.17*	[0.01, 0.36]	0.20	.08	.19**	[0.03, 0.39]	0.20	.08	.19**	[0.03, 0.39]
Moral Rationalization	0.24	.09	.20**	[0.05, 0.41]	0.24	.09	.20**	[0.07, 0.40]	0.21	.09	.18*	[0.04, 0.36]	0.21	.09	.17*	[0.04, 0.36]
Moral Coupling	0.09	.07	.08	[-0.06, 0.23]	0.11	.07	.10†	[-0.03, 0.25]	0.12	.07	.11†	[-0.03, 0.26]	0.12	.07	.10†	[-0.03, 0.26]
Group × Behavior	-	-	-	-	0.15	.31	.03	[-0.48, 0.76]	0.24	.31	.04	[-0.39, 0.89]	0.24	.31	.04	[-0.40, 0.90]
Group × Nature	-	-	-	-	0.51	.32	.09	[-0.10, 1.09]	0.55	.31	.09†	[-0.04, 1.11]	0.55	.31	.09†	[-0.04, 1.11]
Group × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-0.44	.18	-.13*	[-0.78, -0.11]	-0.49	.18	-.14**	[-0.84, -0.16]	-0.48	.18	-.14**	[-0.84, -0.15]
Behavior × Nature	-	-	-	-	-0.39	.31	-.07	[-1.01, 0.25]	-0.30	.31	-.05	[-0.94, 0.32]	-0.30	.31	-.05	[-0.94, 0.33]
Behavior × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	0.05	.18	.02	[-0.29, 0.38]	0.03	.18	.01	[-0.32, 0.36]	0.03	.18	.01	[-0.32, 0.35]
Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	0.46	.18	.14*	[0.11, 0.82]	0.40	.18	.12*	[0.02, 0.79]	0.39	.18	.12*	[0.02, 0.79]
Group × Behavior × Nature	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.10	.63	.09†	[-0.06, 2.22]	1.10	.63	.09†	[-0.06, 2.20]
Group × Behavior × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.56	.36	.08	[-0.15, 1.24]	0.56	.36	.08	[-0.16, 1.25]
Group × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.76	.36	.11*	[-0.01, 1.66]	0.76	.37	.11*	[-0.03, 1.67]
Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.53	.36	.08	[-0.20, 1.33]	0.53	.36	.08	[-0.22, 1.34]
Group × Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.12	.73	.01	[-1.43, 1.87]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Appendix AX

Table AX1

Complete Hierarchal Regression Analysis for Negative Social Media Intentions (NSMI) from Table 44

Model Statistics	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3				Model 4			
R^2	.13				.15				.18				.18			
F	5.51***				3.69***				3.32***				3.15***			
ΔR^2	-				.03				.03				.00			
ΔF	-				1.49				1.96†				0.30			
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*BCa 95% CI*
Group	0.50	.16	.19***	[0.19, 0.80]	0.53	.16	.20***	[0.22, 0.82]	0.51	.16	.19***	[0.21, 0.79]	0.52	.16	.19***	[0.21, 0.80]
Behavior	-0.02	.15	-.01	[-0.32, 0.29]	0.01	.15	.01	[-0.30, 0.32]	0.02	.15	.01	[-0.29, 0.32]	0.03	.15	.01	[-0.28, 0.34]
Nature	0.34	.16	.13*	[0.05, 0.63]	0.39	.16	.15*	[0.09, 0.68]	0.39	.16	.15**	[0.09, 0.70]	0.39	.16	.15**	[0.09, 0.70]
Team Identification	-0.07	.09	-.05	[-0.25, 0.09]	-0.09	.09	-.06	[-0.26, 0.08]	-0.12	.09	-.08	[-0.29, 0.05]	-0.12	.09	-.08	[-0.30, 0.04]
Moral Decoupling	-0.10	.08	-.10	[-0.26, 0.07]	-0.09	.08	-.09	[-0.24, 0.08]	-0.08	.08	-.08	[-0.23, 0.09]	-0.08	.08	-.08	[-0.23, 0.10]
Moral Rationalization	0.32	.08	.30***	[0.14, 0.50]	0.33	.09	.30***	[0.14, 0.51]	0.31	.09	.28***	[0.11, 0.49]	0.30	.09	.28***	[0.11, 0.49]
Moral Coupling	-0.06	.07	-.06	[-0.23, 0.11]	-0.05	.07	-.05	[-0.23, 0.11]	-0.05	.07	-.05	[-0.23, 0.12]	-0.06	.07	-.06	[-0.23, 0.12]
Group × Behavior	-	-	-	-	-0.18	.31	-.03	[-0.78, 0.43]	-0.12	.31	-.02	[-0.74, 0.52]	-0.12	.31	-.02	[-0.74, 0.52]
Group × Nature	-	-	-	-	-0.21	.31	-.04	[-0.82, 0.38]	-0.17	.31	-.03	[-0.77, 0.41]	-0.17	.31	-.03	[-0.77, 0.40]
Group × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	0.35	.18	.11*	[0.01, 0.68]	0.31	.18	.10†	[-0.03, 0.63]	0.31	.18	.10†	[-0.03, 0.64]
Behavior × Nature	-	-	-	-	0.40	.31	.08	[-0.20, 1.00]	0.48	.31	.09	[-0.12, 1.05]	0.49	.31	.09	[-0.11, 1.05]
Behavior × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	0.12	.18	.04	[-0.22, 0.45]	0.09	.18	.03	[-0.25, 0.44]	0.08	.18	.03	[-0.25, 0.43]
Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	0.17	.18	.06	[-0.16, 0.52]	0.12	.18	.04	[-0.22, 0.47]	0.11	.18	.04	[-0.22, 0.47]
Group × Behavior × Nature	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.69	.62	.07	[-0.54, 1.94]	0.69	.62	.06	[-0.54, 1.93]
Group × Behavior × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.60	.36	.10†	[-0.09, 1.24]	0.60	.36	.10†	[-0.09, 1.23]
Group × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.57	.36	.09	[-0.08, 1.27]	0.56	.36	.09	[-0.09, 1.28]
Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.34	.36	.06	[-0.35, 1.14]	0.33	.36	.05	[-0.38, 1.17]
Group × Behavior × Nature × Team Identification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.39	.71	.03	[-0.95, 1.71]

Note. †$p \leq .10$. *$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$. ***$p \leq .001$.

Appendix AY

Consent Form for Study 5B

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPATION IN A RESEARCH STUDY

TITLE OF STUDY

San Francisco Giants Fans Study

[For participants assigned to complete the study in two sessions:

San Francisco Giants Fans Study (Part 1/Part 2)]

NAME OF RESEARCHERS

Sean Pradhan, M.A., University of Michigan Doctoral Candidate of Sport Management, San José State University Graduate of Research and Experimental Psychology

Sean Laraway, Ph.D, San José State University, Associate Professor of Psychology

PURPOSE

You have been asked to participate in a research study investigating the behavior of sports fans.

PROCEDURES

You will be asked to answer a few questions about yourself, including demographic information (e.g., age, gender), and questions related to your favorite professional

sports team and its biggest rival. The study will last approximately 15 minutes.

POTENTIAL RISKS

There are no foreseeable risks or discomforts. The risks involved in this study are no greater than those encountered in daily life.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS

You will receive no direct benefits from participating in this study. However, your participation will contribute to the generalizable knowledge on fan behavior.

COMPENSATION

[For students:

No direct compensation is provided for participation in this study. However, if you are Psyc 1 student, you will be provided with 0.5 research credits towards your required Psyc 1 research participation. PARTIAL completion of this study will result in reduced credit, proportional to your participation (e.g., if you only complete 1/2 of the study, you will only receive half credit). If you are enrolled in a different Psychology class, your instructor may provide you with course credit (or extra credit). If you do not wish to participate, you will be provided an alternative assignment to obtain credit.

You will also be entered into a raffle to win the jersey of your favorite player on the San Francisco Giants. By completing both parts of this two-part study, you will secure two entries in the raffle. PARTIAL completion of this study will disqualify you from the raffle.]

[For subjects from MTurk:

You will receive $1.00 for your participation in this study.]

[For subjects from Qualtrics Survey Panel:

You will be compensated by Qualtrics, LLC for your participation in this study.]

CONFIDENTIALITY

Although the results of this study may be published, no information that could identify you will be included. All data will be stored electronically on encrypted computers and storage devices. Only the principal investigators will have access to the data.

PARTICIPANT RIGHTS

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You can refuse to participate in the entire study or any part of the study without any negative effect on your relations with San José State University. You also have the right to skip any question you do not wish to answer. This consent form is not a contract. It is a written explanation of what will happen during the study if you decide to participate. You will not waive any rights if you choose not to participate, and there is no penalty for stopping your participation in the study.

CONTACT INFORMATION

Questions about this research may be addressed to the researchers, Dr. Sean Laraway

(Department of Psychology, San José State University) or Sean Pradhan (Department of Sport Management, University of Michigan).

Complaints about the research may be presented to Lynda Heiden, Ph.D., Chair, Department of Psychology, at (408) 924-5647.

For questions about participants' rights or if you feel you have been harmed in any way by your participation in this study, please contact Dr. Pamela Stacks, Associate Vice President of Graduate Studies and Research, San José State University, at (408) 924-2427.

AGREEMENT TO PARTICIPATE

Please select from one of the choices below. If you click to agree, this indicates that you voluntarily agree to be a part of the study, that the details of the study have been explained to you, that you have been given time to read this document, and that your questions have been answered. Before you indicate your consent on this form, you may print a copy out for your records. The electronic consent of the subject on this document indicates agreement to participate in the study.

I agree to participate in this research study.	**I do NOT agree to participate in this research study.**

Appendix AZ

Stimuli for Initial Negative Action by Target Athlete

(Study 5B)

Performance Manipulation

Image AZ1. Poor Performance

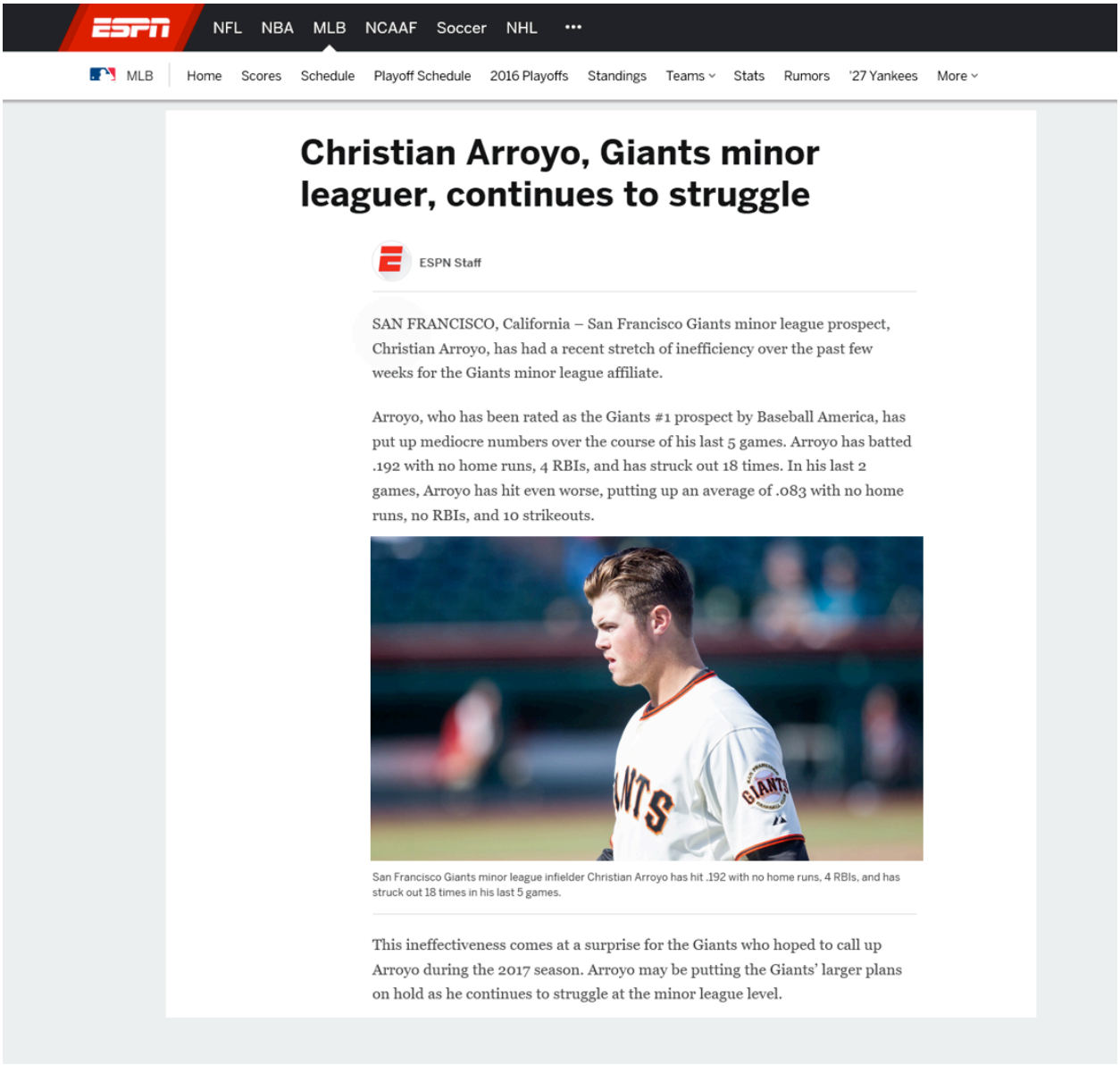
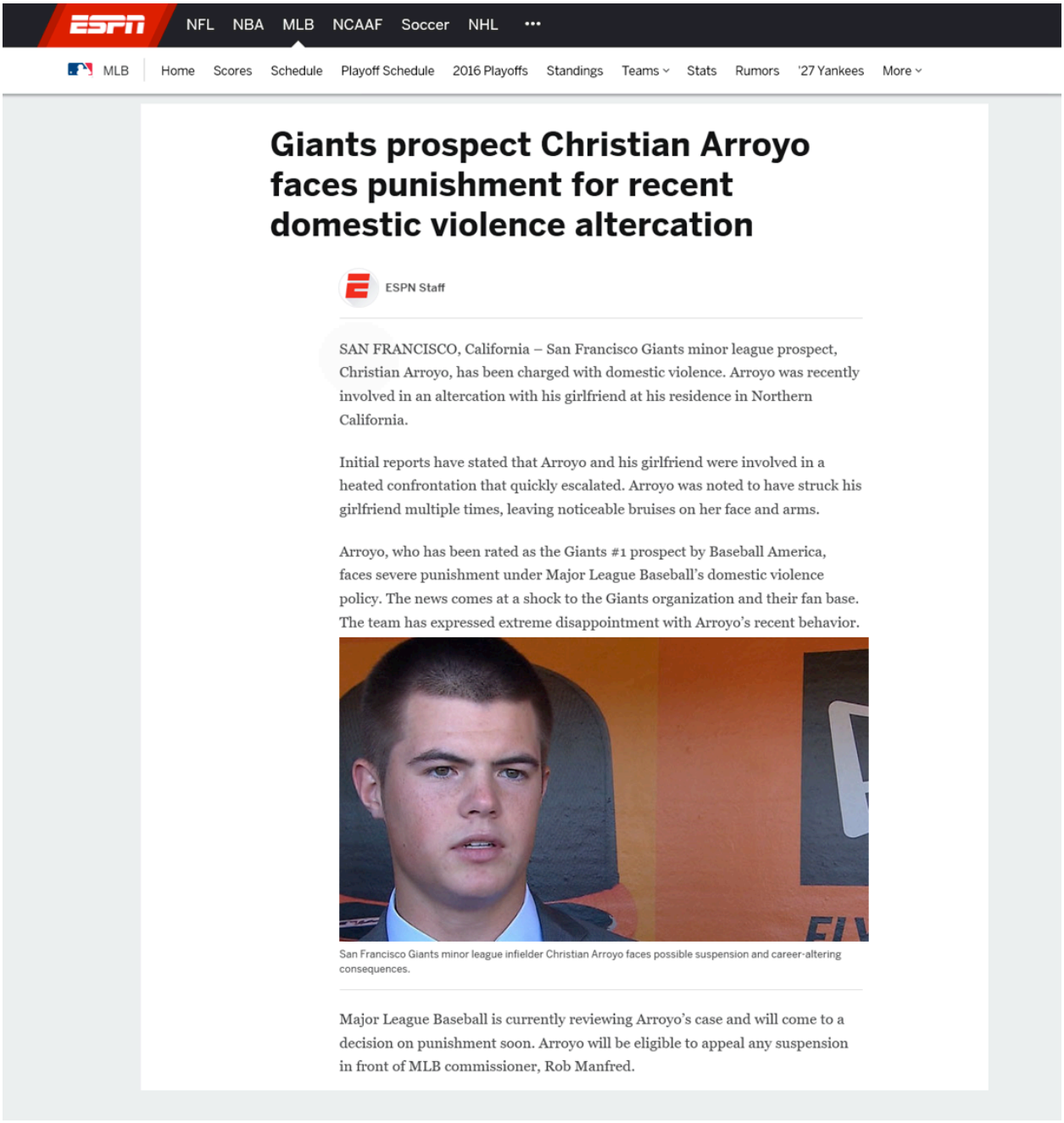


Image AZ2. Immoral Behavior



Appendix BA

Stimuli for Post-Transgression Behavior by Target Athlete

(Study 5B)

Performance Manipulation

Image BA1. Superior Performance

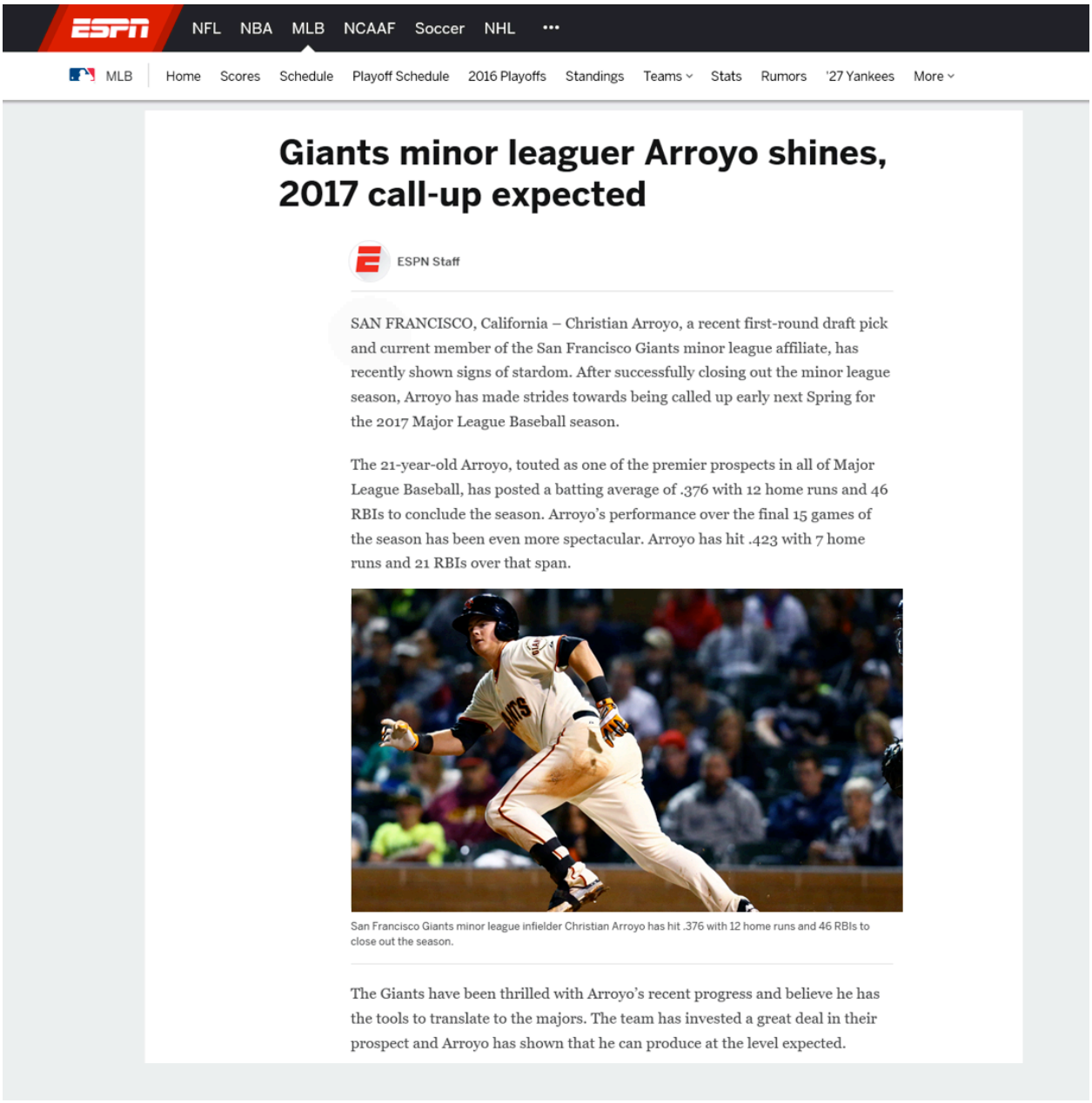


Image BA2. Poor Performance

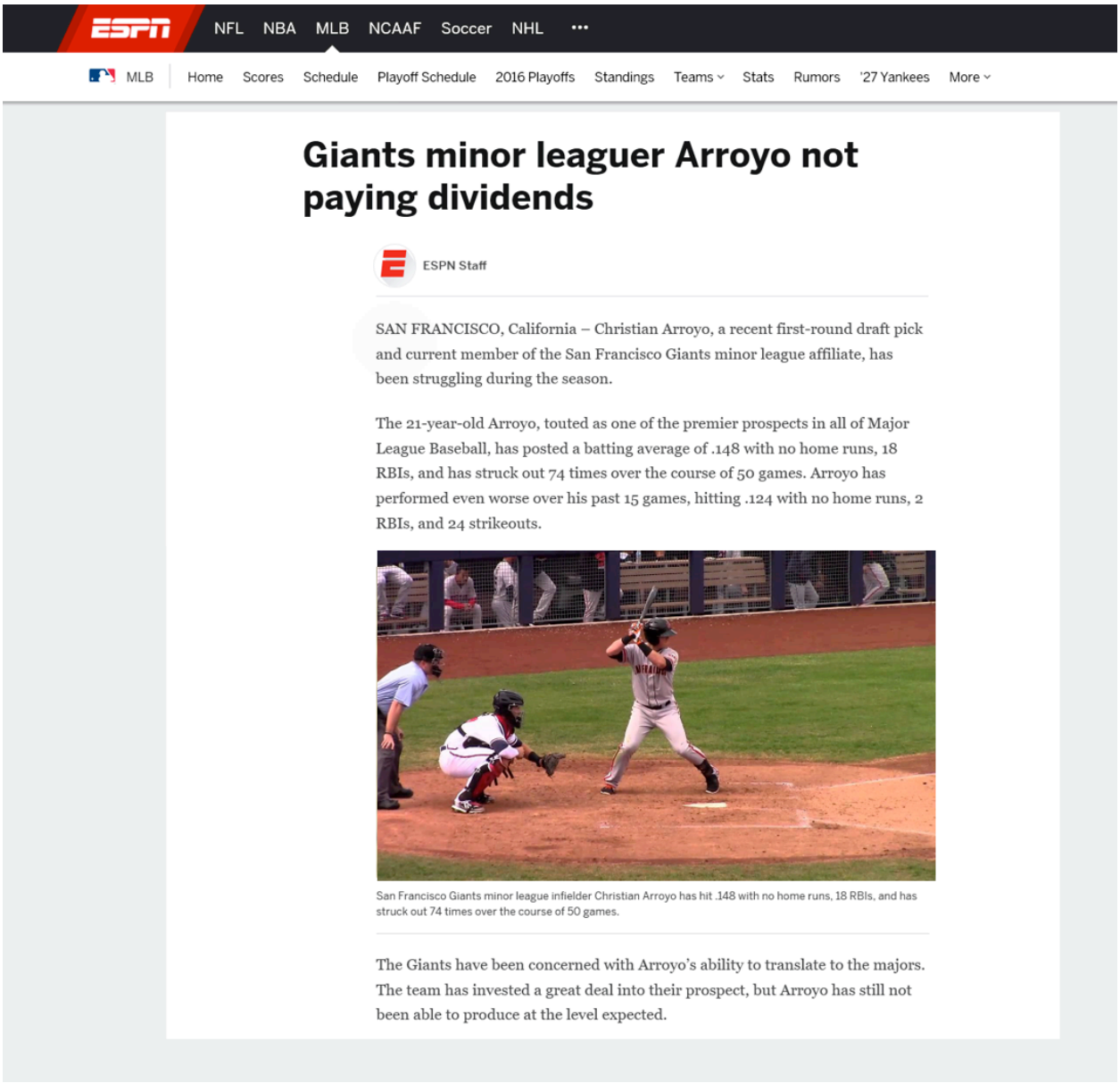


Image BA3. Positive Moral Behavior

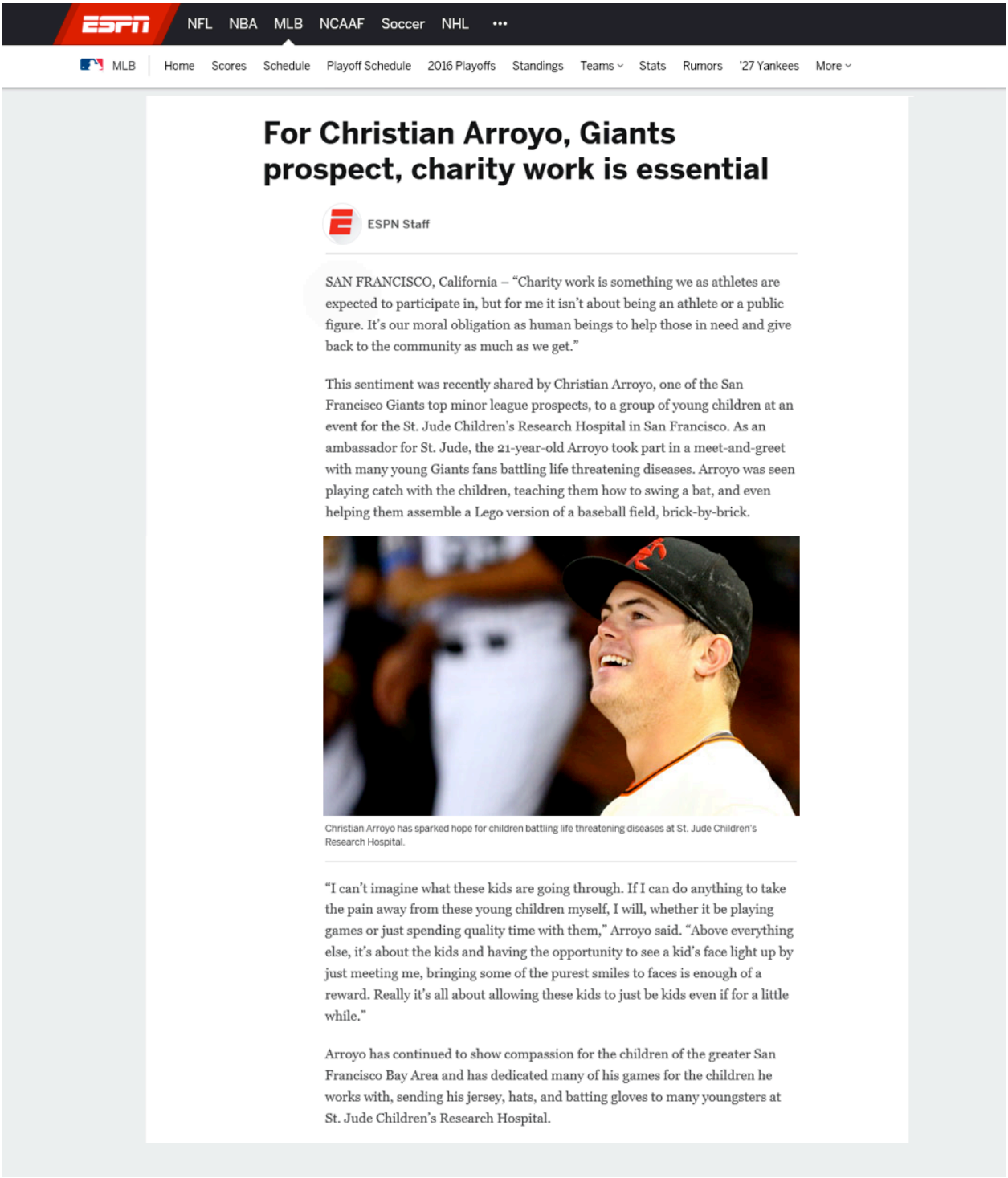
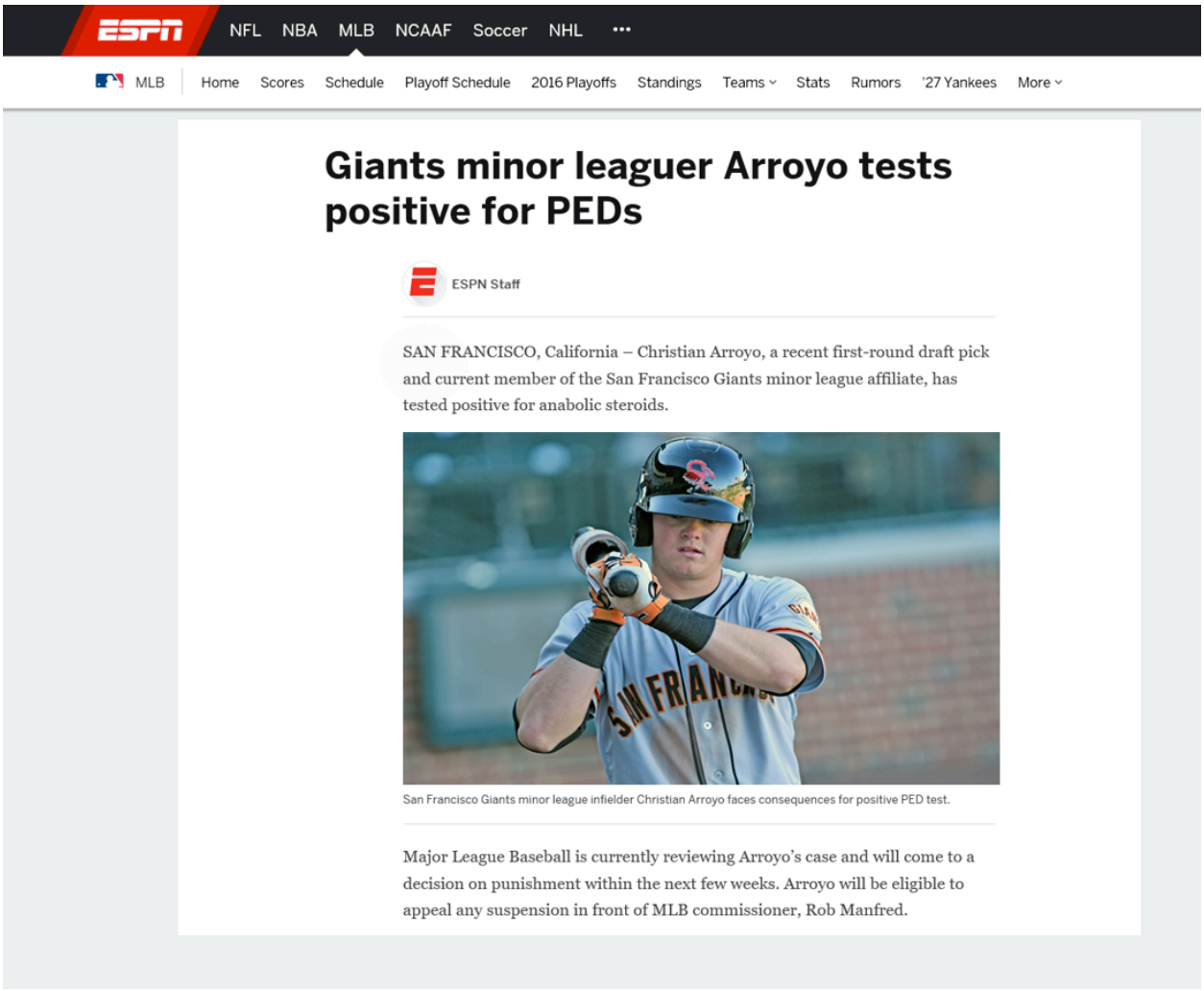


Image BA4. Immoral Behavior



Appendix BB

Demographic Questionnaire

(Study 5B)

1. How old are you?

2. What is your gender?

❍ Male

❍ Female

❍ Other _____

3. What is your ethnicity?

❑ Asian / Pacific Islander

❑ Hispanic or Latino

❑ Black or African American

❑ Native American or American Indian

❑ White

❑ Other _____

4. In what state do you reside?

5. What is your highest level of education?

❍ Some high school, no diploma

❍ High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent (for example: GED)

❍ Some college credit, no degree

❍ Trade/technical/vocational training

❍ Associate degree

❍ Bachelor's degree

❍ Master's degree

❍ Professional degree

❍ Doctorate degree

6. Which forms of social media do you use? (select all that apply)

❑ Twitter

❑ Facebook

❑ YouTube

❑ Vine

❑ Instagram

❑ Snapchat

❑ Other _____

7. Do you follow minor league baseball?

❍ Yes

❍ No

8. Do you follow minor league baseball news related to the San Francisco Giants?

❍ Yes

❍ No

9. Are you familiar with Christian Arroyo?

❍ Yes

❍ No

Appendix BC

Debriefing Form

(Study 5B)

Thank you for your participation in this study. The investigators must include some important information regarding the study.

Aside from Christian Arroyo's status as a member of the San Francisco Giants minor league affiliate, all the information presented in this study was either altered or completely fictitious. In no way did Christian Arroyo engage in any of the acts as described in this study.

This study is an investigation into fan behavior, specifically how fans respond to actions by athletes. Although prior research has examined how fans respond to performances by athletes of their favorite teams, there has been limited investigation into how fans may respond to both moral and performance actions by athletes.

We ask that you do not discuss the nature of the study, as it is an ongoing investigation. Any questions/comments regarding the study can be addressed to the primary investigators, Sean Pradhan at seanprad@umich.edu or Dr. Sean Laraway at sean.laraway@sjsu.edu.

We greatly appreciate your cooperation. Thank you again for your time and efforts.

Appendix BD

Performance Trait Evaluation (PTE) Measure

(Davidson & Lickona, 2007; Seider, Gilbert, Novick, & Gomez, 2012; Study 5B)

Please rate Christian Arroyo on the following traits:

1. **Competence** (referring to *firm or obstinate continuance in a course of action in spite of difficulty or opposition*)

Not at all competent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very competent*

2. **Intelligence** (referring to *the skilled use of reason*)

Not at all intelligent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very intelligent*

3. **Diligence** (referring to *careful and continued hard work*)

Not at all diligent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very diligent*

4. **Dependability** (referring to *being able to be trusted to do or provide what is needed*)

Not at all dependable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very dependable*

5. **Persistence** (referring to *firm or obstinate continuance in a course of action in spite of difficulty or opposition*)

Not at all persistent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very persistent*

6. **Discipline** (referring to *behavior that is judged by how well it follows a set of rules or orders*)

Not at all disciplined 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very disciplined*

7. **Grit** (referring to *perseverance and passion for long-term goals*)

Not at all gritty 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very gritty*

Appendix BE

Moral Trait Evaluation (MTE) Measure

(Aquino & Reed, 2002; Seider et al., 2012; Shields et al., 2015; Study 5B)

Please rate Christian Arroyo on the following traits:

1. **Empathy** (referring to *the ability to understand and share the feelings of another*)

Not at all empathetic 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very empathetic*

2. **Integrity** (referring to *the quality of being honest and fair*)

Having little integrity 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Having high integrity*

3. **Compassion** (referring to *the concern for the sufferings or misfortunes of others*)

Not at all compassionate 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very compassionate*

4. **Sincerity** (referring to *the quality of being free from pretense, deceit, or hypocrisy*)

Not at all sincere 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very sincere*

5. **Ruthlessness** (referring to *having or showing no pity or compassion for others*)

Not at all ruthless 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very ruthless*

6. **Fairness** (referring to *treating people in a way that does not favor some over others*)

Not at all fair 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very fair*

7. **Selfishness** (referring to *seeking or concentrating on one's own advantage, pleasure, or well-being without regard for others*)

Not at all selfish 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very selfish*

8. **Care** (referring to *displaying kindness and concern for others*)

Not at all caring 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very caring*

9. **Respect** (referring to *thoughtfulness or consideration*)

Not at all respectful 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 *Very respectful*

Appendix BF

Revised Sport Spectator Identification Scale

(SSIS; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Study 5B)

1. How important to you is it that the San Francisco Giants win?

- ❍ Not at all Important
- ❍ A Little Important
- ❍ Slightly Important
- ❍ Neutral
- ❍ Somewhat Important
- ❍ Very Important
- ❍ Extremely Important

2. How strongly do you see yourself as a fan of the San Francisco Giants?

- ❍ Not at all a Fan
- ❍ Not a Fan
- ❍ Not much a Fan
- ❍ Neutral
- ❍ Somewhat a Fan
- ❍ A Fan
- ❍ Very much a Fan

3. How strongly do your friends see you as a fan of the San Francisco Giants?

- ❍ Not at all a Fan
- ❍ Not a Fan
- ❍ Not much a Fan
- ❍ Neutral
- ❍ Somewhat a Fan
- ❍ A Fan
- ❍ Very much a Fan

4. During the season, how closely do you follow the San Francisco Giants via ANY of the following: a) in person or on television, b) on the radio, c) television news, d) through applications on your smartphone, tablet, or computer, e) online sports site or blog?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Very Often
- ❍ Almost Every Day
- ❍ Every Day

5. How important is being a fan of the San Francisco Giants to you?

- ❍ Not at all Important
- ❍ A Little Important
- ❍ Slightly Important
- ❍ Neutral
- ❍ Somewhat Important
- ❍ Very Important
- ❍ Extremely Important

6. How much do you dislike the greatest rivals of the San Francisco Giants?

- ❍ Like Extremely
- ❍ Like Very Much
- ❍ Like Slightly
- ❍ Neither Like nor Dislike
- ❍ Dislike Slightly
- ❍ Dislike Very Much
- ❍ Dislike Extremely

7. How often do you display the name or logo of the San Francisco Giants at your place of work, where you live, in your car, on your cell phone, on your laptop, or on your clothing?

- ❍ Never
- ❍ Rarely
- ❍ Sometimes
- ❍ Often
- ❍ Very Often
- ❍ Almost Every Day
- ❍ Every Day

Appendix BG

Revised Product Choice (PC) Measure

(Gao et al., 2009; Study 5B)

Block 1 – Jerseys

If you were able to purchase one of the following jerseys, please provide your choice of the jersey you would purchase.

❍ San Francisco Giants Team Jersey

❍ Christian Arroyo Jersey

Block 2 – Accessories (Wristbands)

If you were able to purchase one of the following wristbands, please provide your choice of the wristband you would purchase.

❍ San Francisco Giants Wristband

❍ Christian Arroyo Wristband

Appendix BH

Revised Active Social Media Measure (ASMM; Study 5B)

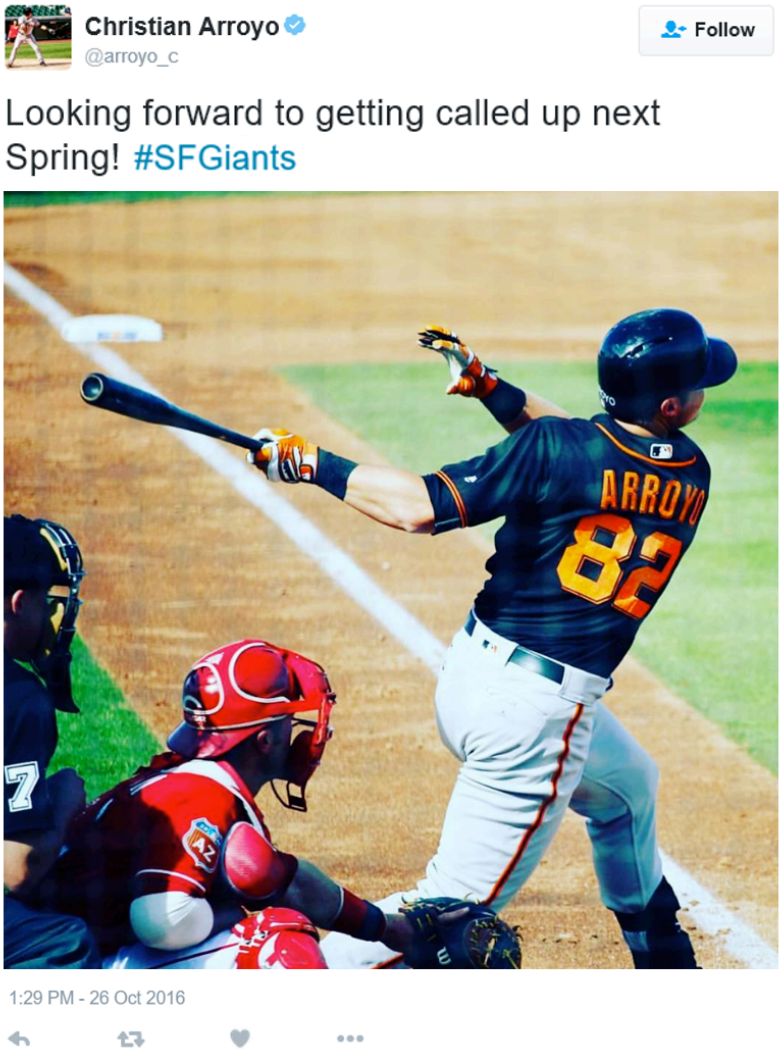
Primary Social Media Outlet

Between Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, and Snapchat, which site do you use the most for social media?

- ❍ Twitter
- ❍ Facebook
- ❍ Instagram
- ❍ Snapchat

Image BH1. Twitter Post

Christian Arroyo recently posted the following tweet on Twitter.



After viewing Christian Arroyo's tweet, if you were able to comment on it or reply to the tweet, how would you respond?

Please type in your honest response below.

Empty Text Box

Social Media Behavior – Twitter

Please indicate with the following buttons how you would react after viewing Christian Arroyo's post.

Follow

- ❍ 

- ❍ I would not follow Christian Arroyo.

Retweet

- ❍ 

- ❍ I would not retweet the post.

Like

- ❍ 

- ❍ I would not like the post.

Image BH2. Facebook Post

Christian Arroyo recently posted the following on Facebook.

After viewing Christian Arroyo's post, if you were able to comment on it, how would you respond?

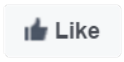
Please type in your honest response below.

Empty Text Box

Social Media Behavior – Facebook

Please indicate with the following buttons how you would react after viewing Christian Arroyo's post.

Like Page

- ❍ 

- ❍ I would not like Christian Arroyo's page.

Share

- ❍ 

- ❍ I would not share the post.

Like

- ❍ 

- ❍ I would not like the post.

Love

- ❍ 

- ❍ I would not love the post.

Haha

❍ Haha

❍ I would not use the haha reaction on the post.

Wow

❍ Wow

❍ I would not use the wow reaction on the post.

Sad

❍ Sad

❍ I would not use the sad reaction on the post.

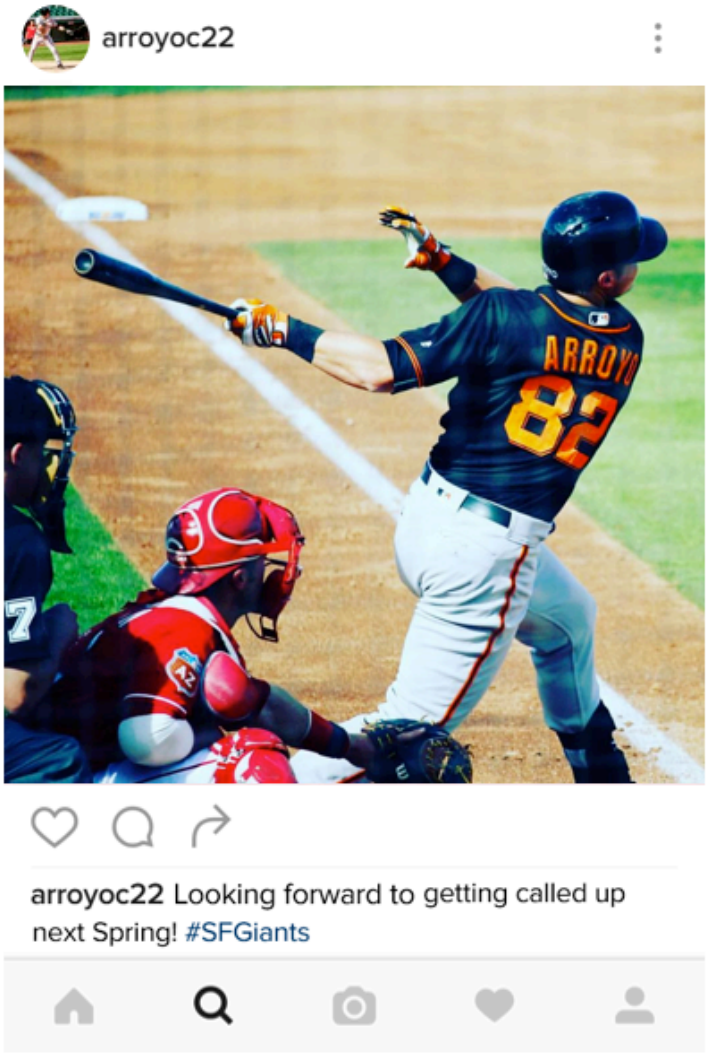
Angry

❍ Angry

❍ I would not use the angry reaction on the post.

Image BH3. Instagram Post

Christian Arroyo recently posted the following on Instagram.



After viewing Christian Arroyo's post, if you were able to comment on it, how would you respond?

Please type in your honest response below.

Empty Text Box

Social Media Behavior – Instagram

Please indicate with the following buttons how you would react after viewing Christian Arroyo's post.

Follow

- ❍ 

- ❍ I would not follow Christian Arroyo.

Share

- ❍ 

- ❍ I would not share the post.

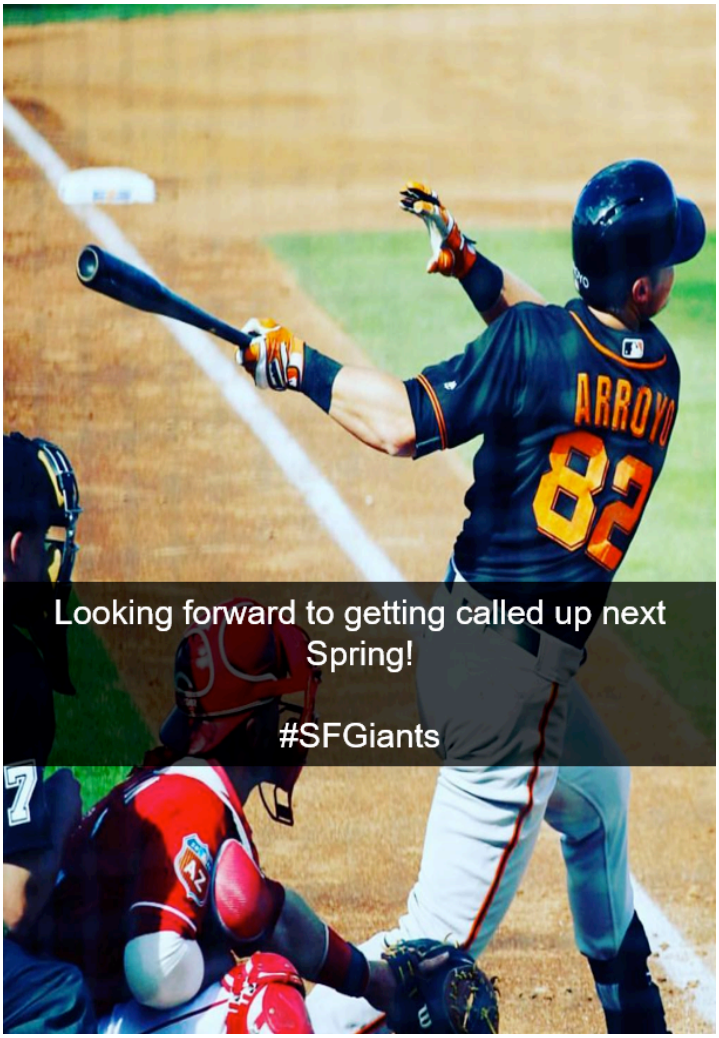
Like

- ❍ 

- ❍ I would not like the post.

Image BH4. Snapchat Post

Christian Arroyo recently posted the following on Snapchat.



After viewing Christian Arroyo's post, if you were able to send a chat to him, how would you respond?

Please type in your honest response below.

Empty Text Box

Social Media Behavior – Snapchat

Please indicate with the following buttons how you would react after viewing Christian Arroyo's post.

Follow (Add as Friend)

❍ 

❍ I would not add Christian Arroyo as a friend.

Share

❍ 

❍ I would not share the post.

Snap

❍ 

❍ I would not send a snap back to Christian Arroyo.

Appendix BI

Decision Regret Scale (DRS)

(Brehaut, O'Connor, Wood, Hack, Siminoff, Gordon, & Feldman-Stewart, 2003)

Please respond to the following questions based on your previous evaluation of Christian Arroyo's traits, competence, and integrity.

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

1. It was the right decision to harshly evaluate Christian Arroyo.
2. I regret the evaluation of Christian Arroyo that I made.
3. I would go for the same evaluation of Christian Arroyo if I had to do it over again.
4. The evaluation of Christian Arroyo made me look bad.
5. The decision to evaluate Christian Arroyo the way I did was a wise one.

Appendix BJ

Post-Purchase Consumer Regret (PPCR) Scale

(Lee & Cotte, 2009)

Regret Due to Under-Consideration

Please respond to the following questions based on your previous product choice.

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

1. With more information, I feel that I could have made a better choice.

2. I feel that I did not put enough consideration into selecting the product.

3. With more effort, I feel that I could have made a better choice.

4. I regret not putting enough thought into my product choice.

Appendix BK

Post-Purchase Consumer Regret (PPCR) Scale

(Lee & Cotte, 2009)

Regret Due to Foregone Alternatives

Please respond to the following questions based on your potential comment of Christian Arroyo's post that you made previously.

(1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*)

1. I should have posted a different comment than the one I did.
2. I regret the choice of words for the comment that I made.
3. I now realize how much better another comment would have been.
4. If I were to go back in time, I would comment differently.