Brand Loyalty and Football: The Role of Commitment

SUPERVISOR

PROF. MATTEO DE ANGELIS

CANDIDATE
TANCREDI FEDERICO
LA ROCCA
MATR. 671201

COSUPERVISOR

PROF. MICHELE COSTABILE

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# Table of Contents

**INTRODUCTION** ............................................................................................................. 2

**CHAPTER ONE** ............................................................................................................. 3
**BRAND LOYALTY** ........................................................................................................ 3
What is loyalty: definitions and different types .............................................................. 3
Sources of brand loyalty ............................................................................................... 11
Brand Loyalty and competitive advantage: the effects on profitability ...................... 18
Brand Loyalty in Entertainment Industry: characteristics of a fan ............................... 22

**CHAPTER TWO** ....................................................................................................... 29
**BRAND LOYALTY IN SPORTS AND FOOTBALL INDUSTRY** ................................. 29
Changes in football consumers in the last decades ....................................................... 32
Variables that influence sport consumers .................................................................. 35
Differences between fans ............................................................................................ 38
Sport consumers motivations ....................................................................................... 45

**CHAPTER THREE** ..................................................................................................... 51
**SURVEY** ..................................................................................................................... 51
Methodology .................................................................................................................. 51
Definition of the objectives ......................................................................................... 62
Results ............................................................................................................................ 66

**APPENDIX** .................................................................................................................. 74

Bibliography ..................................................................................................................... 79
INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this work is to see if Loyalty in football fans has a connection with the Emotions felt during a match or, in general, toward football and favourite teams, the Consumption of football and the Expenditures.

The work is divided in three parts. Chapter One deals with brand loyalty in general. There are several definitions and classification that researchers delivered to literature; after that there is an insight concerning brand loyalty in entertainment industry. Chapter Two deals with brand loyalty in sports industry: many researchers wrote about that argument in literature proposing fans classifications and trying to find the motivations that drive people to some unique and special behaviours. Chapter Three is reserved to the survey in which I asked to 86 respondents from different ages and social classes 27 questions divided in five parts: consumption behaviour, expenditure behaviour, emotions felt, loyalty and geodemographic. After the survey I found the correlation values and the regression coefficients that Loyalty have with Emotions, Consumption and Expenditure.
CHAPTER ONE

BRAND LOYALTY

What is loyalty: definitions and different types

There are many studies about loyalty in literature, in this part of the work I want to analyze the different definitions and classifications that academics give to loyalty. The American Marketing Association (AMA) defines brand loyalty as the situation in which a consumer generally buys the same manufacturer-originated product or service many times rather than buying from different suppliers within the category. Many researchers follow this approach, Dick and Basu defines loyalty as the consumer’s commitment to repurchase or continue to use the brand\(^1\). A similar advise is expressed by Oliver in 1997, he defines brand loyalty as a “deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronize a preferred product or service consistently in the future, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior”\(^2\). In particular Oliver uses the term “rebuy”, that means the consumer willingness to repeat the consumption of a product or service after the satisfaction tried in a previous experience.


In 1974, Sheth and Park define loyalty as “a positively biased emotive, evaluative and/or behavioral response tendency toward a branded, labelled or graded alternative or choice by an individual in his capacity as the user, the choice maker, and/or the Purchasing agent”\(^3\). Indeed, according to this definition, loyalty is an emotional reaction by an individual but there is no necessity to occur a behaviour; in particular Sheth & Park identify three distinct dimensions in which brand loyalty can appear, emotive, evulative and behavioural, and it’s not necessary that all these dimensions are present at the same time. So, a consumer can be loyal toward a brand even if he has never bought a product or a service by this brand. An example for that can be “children who become brand loyal based on consumption experiences rather than buying experiences”, in fact loyalty can often develop by learning from information, imitative behaviour, generalization and consumption behaviour; and, at the same time, even if there is a buying behaviour by the customer, it cannot be an evulative structure underlying his brand loyalty, not only an emotional tendency.

Using the three dimensions, Sheth and Park classify different types of brand loyalty:

- **Behavioural brand loyalty**: in this type of loyalty only the behavioural dimension is present, so the principal characteristic is the “repetitive occurrence of purchase or consumption behaviour”

- **Behavioural-Evalutive brand loyalty**: in this type of loyalty are present only two dimensions and it represents the “classical manifestation of attitude-
behaviour theories in social psychology in which attitudes are determined by
the instrumental or utilitarian evaluation of the brand”; in this sense this type
is probably the closest to the economist’s definitions of the “rational
consumer”.

- Behavioural-Emotive brand loyalty: in this type of loyalty the consumer has
emotive tendencies toward the brand and this arises in behavioural
developments. Often “the behavioural-emotive brand loyalty arises from the
contiguous conditioning and possibly also from the informational sources
which communicate to the consumer directly”.

- Behavioural-Evaluative-Emotive brand loyalty: in this type of loyalty are
present all the dimensions that have a strong relationship among each other;
it is the most common type and it has been often suggested in consumer
psychology and marketing.

- Evaluative brand loyalty: in this type of loyalty emotive and behavioural
dimensions lack, so the loyalty is only based on the perceived utility function
of the brand; this situation arises when the consumer is neither the buyer not
the user of the product but he has the cognitive possibility to give an
evaluation to the brand.
• Evaluative-Emotive brand loyalty: this type of loyalty arises only from informational sources and generalizations (word of mouth); so it’s present in consumers that have no possibility to reach and to buy the products.

• Emotive brand loyalty: in this type of loyalty the individual has a strong emotive tendency toward the brand without any experience or evaluation.

Other authors agree with the concept that loyalty lives in different dimensions but disagree on the role of behaviour, for example Day (1969) and Jacoby&Kyner (1973) found two dimensions, behavioural and attitudinal, in which the behavioural dimension isn’t a sufficient condition to create loyalty. In this sense, Day expressed “These spuriously loyal buyers lack any attachment to brand attributes, and they can be immediately captured by another brand that offers a better deal”\(^4\), this means that without a psychological and/or emotional commitment there is no loyalty.

The study of Gounaris and Stathakopoulos in 2004 criticizes the behavioural model: “a consumer who is unfavorable to the purchase of a certain brand may still purchase the brand (and then stop) when the consumer is no longer forced to keep purchasing the brand”, so, for them, only an increase in attitudinal brand loyalty should lead to a true increase in behavioural brand loyalty\(^5\).


Starting from this point, Gounaris and Stathakopoulos identify four types of brand loyalty determined by three categories of drivers that are Consumers drivers, Brand drivers and Social drivers. Consumers drivers are the individual’s characteristic in deciding to buy a specific brand, Gounaris and Stathakopoulos identify risk adversion and variety seeking: the first refers to the perceived risk that individuals feel when purchase a product, in particular high-involvement products (if a brand manage to reduce the perceived risk it’s easier that loyalty increase), the latter refers to the intrinsic need of consumers to seek something different. Brand drivers are the brand characteristics that influence the willingness to purchase of consumers, these are brand reputation, strong indication of product’s quality and equity, and availability of substitute brands. Finally, social drivers are norms that can influence consumers’ behaviour arrangements, these are social groups influences, resulted from the individual’s susceptibility, the strenght of involvement and the level of product conspicuousness, and peer recommendations.

After that, the four types of loyalty identified by Gounaris and Stathakopoulos are:

- **No Loyalty**: Consumers don’t purchase the brand or have any information or experiences with the brand. No social influences.

- **Covetous Loyalty**: Consumers have high emotional commitment but there is no purchase; this derives from the individual’s perception of the brand: “the brand becomes an extension of the consumer’s own self perception and personality”. This means that the consumer is willing to endorse the brand to peers, friends and relatives.
• **Inertia Loyalty**: There are repeated purchases by consumers but no emotional commitment or social causes; this behaviour derives from habits and high switching costs for the consumers. This means that this relationship “can be easily terminated by a rival product capable of breaking the consumer’s habitual behavioural pattern”. Day (1969) defines this type of loyalty as “spurious loyalty”.

• **Premium Loyalty**: There is high level of emotional attachment, repeated purchases and high levels of social influence. “Premium loyalty propels individuals to suffer various sacrifices in order to acquire their favoured brand…Variation in the price of their favourite brand may affect the quantity of the brand they purchase, but not the brand they choose to buy, since these consumers are committed to the brand”. Football fans are a classical example of this type of loyalty.
In the end, also Keller (2009)\(^6\) distinguishes four levels of brand loyalty quite similar to the ones mentioned before:

- **Behavioural loyalty**: related to Inertia loyalty proposed by Gounaris and Stathakopoulos, there are repeated purchases without a special commitment.

- **Attitudinal attachment**: the buyer has a personal attachment toward the brand and high level of pleasure in buying the brand.

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• **Sense of community**: the customer feels a part of a particular group associated with the brand and develops a feeling of social belonging.

• **Active engagement**: the strongest affirmation of brand loyalty, when customers are willing to invest time, energy, money, or other resources in the brand beyond those expended during purchase or consumption of the brand.
Sources of brand loyalty

Consumer Satisfaction

Among researchers as in business practice, there is an overwhelming agreement that the most important determinant of brand loyalty is customer satisfaction. In the last decades there have been many definitions and measurements of customer satisfaction in literature. Richard Oliver defined satisfaction as “a pleasurable fulfilment”, that is the consumer perception that the consumption fulfill some need, desire or goal and that this fulfill is pleasurable. A different definition of satisfaction came from Kotler and Keller in 2006, they associated customer satisfaction with an expectancy confirmation or disconfirmation paradigm: “person’s feeling of pleasure or disappointment which resulted from comparing a product’s perceived performance or outcome against his/ her expectations”. The same concept expressed by Tse and Wilton in 1988: “satisfaction is an evaluation of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectations and the actual performance of the product”. Even Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) state that one’s attitude toward any given object is a direct function of the values one attaches to the object’s attributes or outcomes weighted by the plausibility one attaches to the existence or occurrence of each attribute or outcome. Obviously not every individual has the same expectation from the consumption of a product or service. According to Anderson, the expectations contain “informations based on not actual consumption experience but accumulated

informations about quality from outside sources, such as advertising, word of mouth and general media... In addition, in forming expectations, consumers use past experiences and non-experiential informations to construct forecasts of the supplier’s ability to deliver quality in the future”\textsuperscript{9}.

Starting from the association between customer satisfaction and customer expectation, two considerations can emerge: the first one is that the products or the services must fit the customer’s expectations to be satisfying, the second one is that the satisfaction consists in a post-consumption perception based on a pre-consumption expectation.

Returning on how and how much it’s different the satisfaction between individuals, in 1991 Johnson and Fornell proposed a framework for comparing customer satisfaction between individuals; they incorporated the key factors indicated by economical and psychological research to study and to measure the differences in customer satisfaction and the behavioural consequences. As illustrated in Figure 1, the initial differences come from Individual (intended as personality, past experiences, social background, etc.) and Product Category, these factors influence the perceived performance and the expectations (that in turn influence perceived performance) and finally these bring the level of satisfaction.

Then, Johnson and Fornell explain the point: “Individuals hold particular expectations and focus on particular performance dimensions. For example, the observation that satisfaction increases with age (Pickle and Bruce 1972) is consistent with older customers being more pessimistic (i.e., holding lower expectations) and/or judging products on more positive dimensions. Similarly, different product categories are evaluated with different expectations and performance dimensions in mind. The point is that expectations and performance perceptions indirectly capture any salient individual or product category differences. If expectations and current performance perceptions are assessed, individual and product category differences are implicitly captured”\textsuperscript{10}.

There are two dimensions for evaluating consumer satisfaction, a transaction-specific evaluation approach, in which customer satisfaction is considered as “post-


http://scholarship.sha.cornell.edu/articles/684
consumption evaluative judgement of a particular purchase experience or activity”\textsuperscript{11}, and a cumulative evaluation approach, in which satisfaction is gauged as the cumulative post-purchase evaluative judgment of a group of discrete purchase activities or transactions for a specific brand or firm over a duration of time. Because the transaction-specific approach accredits customer satisfaction as the result of a single transaction, it may be too restrictive and it can’t have a long predictive power. Instead, according to Richard Oliver, the cumulative evaluation approach is more appropriate to give a long term analysis about customer satisfaction\textsuperscript{12}.

\textit{Emotive Factors}

We have seen before how loyalty arises not only with a behavioural dimension, formed by customer satisfaction, but also with an attitudinal dimension. Emotive factors influence the attitude that consumers have toward a brand.

\textsuperscript{11} Bae, Y.H. (2012). Three essays on the customer satisfaction-customer loyalty association. \textit{University of Iowa}, p.9
An emotion is a psychological status related to a set of sentiments, thoughts and internal or external behaviours; in many cases, consumers don’t seek only products that satisfy their needs, but also products that can generate emotions.

Many researchers tried to analyze emotions using a discrete approach that goes back to the origin of language and the development of words and expressions describing clearly separable states. This approach consists in selecting a set of basic emotions and, alternatively to ask to the respondents: to select terms that best describe the emotion felt (nominal scale), to indicate on a 3- to 5-point scale whether the respective emotion was experienced a little, somewhat, or strongly (ordinal scale), or to use a similar scale to indicate how much an emotion has been experienced.

Some important studies made with this approach are: Rupp and Spencer (2006) that studied the effects of happiness and anger\textsuperscript{13}; Liljander and Strandvik (1997) that identified seven emotions (happiness, hope, positive surprise, anger, depression, guiltiness and humiliation) that have an impact on consumption experience\textsuperscript{14}; Barrett (1998) that found other seven discrete emotions and suggested “particular emotions like happiness, fear, sadness, hostility, guilt, surprise, and interest are considered discrete in that they are assumed to be unique experiential states that stem from distinct causes”\textsuperscript{15}; Zeelenberg and Pieters (1999) and White and Yu (2005) that showed the effect of regret and disappointment on customer’ switching; Yu, White and Xu (2007) that selected nine discrete emotions (happiness, hope, positive


surprise, anger, depression, guiltiness, disappointment, regret and humiliation) and found that only three of them (happiness, hope and regret) have an impact over time on loyalty, in particular with happiness and hope declining, and regret increasing, loyalty declines. All these different selections explain that there are a limitless number of emotions that can influence the consumption experience.

Another approach to the analysis of emotions is the “dimensional approach”. This method was pioneered by Wilhelm Wundt in 1905, he suggested that emotions can be explained by their positions in a three-dimensional space formed by the dimensions of valence (positive–negative), arousal (calm–excited), and tension (tense–relaxed). Later, in 1983 James Russell suggested a bi-dimensional space formed only by valence and arousal. Concretely, the methodology used in this approach consists in asking a respondent how positive or negative and how excited or aroused he or she feels (either in two separate steps or by giving a two-dimensional surface and asking the respondent to determine the appropriate position). In consequence, the emotional feeling of the person is described by a point in this valence-arousal space.

Considering that the previous paragraph talked about how expectations influence perceived performance of a product and, consequently, customer satisfaction, it’s important to analyze how emotions can influence expectations, in that regard DeSteno (2004) theorized that “matches and mismatches between felt emotions and emotional framings of the specific arguments contained within messages would
differentially influence a message’s persuasive impact stating the importance of communication for the result of well perceived performances.

Brand Loyalty and competitive advantage: the effects on profitability

In the previous paragraphs the work has focused on explaining what is brand loyalty and its antecedents. In this part the work will analyze in what brand loyalty can be important for a company, giving a sustainable competitive advantage, and its stakeholders. In fact a brand may create value for the brand owner in a quantitative form such as monetary value, return on investment, income and profit generated by a brand, and also in qualitative form such as brand esteem, brand imagery, and brand loyalty, and these qualitative forms can influence the quantitative forms.

In a study of 2009, Denoue and Saykiewicz found that “strong brands followed by loyal customers contribute to create benefits for various stakeholders in the business process, and ultimately help in the emergence of a competitive advantage for a firm supplying that brand to the market”\(^{17}\). The first beneficiaries are consumers that receive benefits from various functions of the brand:

- Identification function: A customer is able to distinguish a particular product from a competitive supply and is able to attach to it a specific functional or emotional value experienced earlier or acquired from advertising.

- Saving time and effort: A loyal customer that repeats the purchase shortens the decision-making process.

• Guarantee function: A loyal customer trusts the brand for what concern quality and satisfaction; this has a specific relevance in services, in fact most services are produced and consumed at the same time and it is difficult to assess the quality earlier, so the buyer must trust the seller.

• Optimization function: purchase of a selected brand often means choice of the best solution for a customer’s need.

Other beneficiaries are commercial distributors. With high loyalty level brands, a distributor reduces business risk, responds to customer expectations and makes a business more attractive for their customers.

There are benefits also for employees of a high loyalty level brand, in fact working for such brand stimulates productivity, contributes to job satisfaction and develops professional pride, this brings an increasement of motivation and identification with the brand. This value creates an organizational culture and an attraction for prospective employees.

In the end “due to delivered value perception in the eyes of the consumers, benefits to distributors, employees and society, a brand adds value to the business of the brand owner”\(^{18}\).

For what concern profitability, a study of Roger Hallowell focus on the relationship between customer satisfaction, customer loyalty and profitability, in particular he

shows the interference of customer satisfaction in customer retention and the positive effect of customer retention on profitability\(^{19}\). The same advise is expressed by Reichheld and Sasser: “Served correctly, customers generate increasingly more profits each year they stay with a company… the longer a company keeps a customer, the more money it stands to make”\(^{20}\). In order to demonstrate this opinion, they show how in different sectors (credit cards, industrial laundry, industrial distribution and auto-service) the expected profit for customer grows every year, so “when customers defect, they take all that profit-making potential with them”. In addition, for them others economic boons that loyal customers give are:

- Increased purchases resulted from the increased trust

- Price premium that loyal customers are ready to pay

- Free-advertising that loyal customers provide: “Loyal customers do a lot of talking over the years and drum up a lot of business. One of the leading home builders in the United States, for example, has found that more than 60% of its sales are the result of referrals”.

- Reduction of operating costs


Then, the combination of cost savings and added revenues generates a steadily increase in profits over the course of the customer’s relationship with the brand.

Brand Loyalty in Entertainment Industry: characteristics of a fan

Entertainment products such as sport, music, film and theatre obtain uncommon levels of loyalty from their customers, in fact these products are consumercentric, high involvement and high identity products, and they are in many ways alike in how they are consumed. Because the drivers of customer loyalty often are context specific, in this part the work will show the main characteristics that researchers identified to explain brand loyalty in the entertainment industry.

A wide line of research sees customer loyalty as the key for maintaining a high level of revenues in an industry that can be instable like entertainment, for example Neal (2010): “attitudinal loyalty or psychological commitment is conceptually similar to trust, and is necessary for the type of long-term relationships that entertainment marketers would aspire to have with their customer base”\(^\text{21}\)

In a study about the theatrical sector, Shaomian and Heere stated that “one of the most important precursors to loyalty that has been identified is a sense of (brand) community, which provides customers with a sense of moral responsibility towards the organization and fellow consumers, even in hard times”\(^\text{22}\). The concept of community is crucial to understand extremely loyal behaviours in specific sectors like entertainment (music, sports, theatre etc.).


Brand Community

There are a lot of definitions of community and most of all have a common point: people and a geographic area. Allan Johnson defines community simply as a “collection of people who share a common territory and meet their basic physical and social needs through daily interaction with one another”\(^{23}\), Robert Stebbings adds the concept of sharing interests: “Community is a social group with a common territorial base; those in the group share interests and have a sense of belonging to the group”\(^{24}\). With the term Brand Community, brand takes figuratively the role of a geographic area but the concept of people who share interests, passions and emotions remains. In this sense Muniz and O’Guinn stated “the community notion soon overflowed those restrictions and spilled out into a much broader field of meaning…It became a common understanding of a shared identity”\(^{25}\) and for a better explanation they used the definition of Bender (1978): “a community is a network of social relations marked by mutuality and emotional bonds”. Then, in their study, Muniz and O’Guinn found three main characteristics of a community:

- Consciousness of kind: the intrinsic connection that members feel toward one other and the collective sense of difference from others not in the community.


• Shared rituals and traditions: the meaning of the community reproduced and transmitted within and beyond the community.

• Moral responsibility: a fel sense of duty or obligation to the community as a whole, and to its individual members

Returning to the entertainment industry, Shaomian and Heere state that “within the entertainment and art industry, one needs to take into account that for many people, the choice to engage in these kind of activities are not individual decisions, they are often group-based decisions and many people attend these events as part of a group, rather than as an individual”\textsuperscript{26}, this means that in many cases the engagement and, consequently, the loyalty depends on being part of a group of people that share an interest.

\textit{Fanaticism}

Because highly involved entertainment consumers can exhibit fanatical behaviour, Neal (2010) believes that it is important to understand the origins and outcomes of fanaticism to truly understand how entertainment is consumed.

The term fanatic comes from Latin *fanaticus* meaning “inspired by a god”, in fact many studies have shown that consumers can be extremely passionate about “their” sport or product to the extent of assigning them with sacred status. According to Redden and Steiner (2000) a fanatic is obsessed, devoted and loyal, regardless of whether this obsession is dysfunctional\(^{27}\), this means that a fan is often closed-mindedness (Mead 1977) and he is inclined to insist their ideas are the correct ones, ignoring any facts or arguments that may conflict with their thoughts or beliefs (Perkinson 2002). From a marketing perspective, even for Neal fans follow what seen in the previous paragraph: “they exhibit heavy usage and purchase patterns, participate in brand communities, provide strong affirmative word-of-mouth communications and positively influence company profitability”\(^{28}\). This type of customers could be regarded as valuable customers of a brand for a variety of reasons because their support is consistent, persistent, and resistant to any attempts at reducing this attachment, which includes the active disregard of marketing messages from competitor brands.

A study made by Chung et al. in 2008 “has led to further insights into the characteristics and qualities associated with this phenomenon, which were identified to include extraordinary loyalty and devotion, extreme enthusiasm, inertial


(addictive and obsessive-compulsive) involvement, and consumption as an end to itself.\textsuperscript{29}

In the end, the unicity of fanatic consumers is that their interest in a brand is self-sustaining, they voluntarily engage in behaviours beneficial protecting the brand, and ensuring the brand’s continued existence and legacy. In addition this enthusiast and devoted behaviour is often considered infectious in attracting new customers and fellow followers.\textsuperscript{30}

\textit{Identification}

Another factor that characterizes a loyal customer in the entertainment industry is the sense of identification that the brand (a popstar, a theatre, a football team etc.) creates in the individual.

Identity theory states that an individual has a personal identity and a social identity. Personal identity comprises characteristics such as abilities and interests. Social identity arises from how a person sees themselves fitting in with significant and relevant groups such as social groups, club memberships (such as sporting teams)

and employment situations. As said by Freud (1949), a social identification can stimulate individuals to find a personal identity. Same concept expressed by Ashforth and Mael (1989): “individuals classify themselves into various social categories in order to facilitate self-definition within their own social environment”\(^{31}\).

In entertainment group identification distinguishes fans and mere spectators, in this sense Neale states “fans view themselves as members of a group, where an alliance is formed with other fans of the same team, for spectators, no such alliance exists”\(^{32}\).

In fact the extent to which an individual identifies with a group, such as a sport team or a popstar fan base, change the involvement and the degree of loyalty. This is stated by Gwinner and Swanson in a study on fan identification: “spectators low on involvement have a passive relationship with the brand and are likely attracted for the entertainment value, social interaction opportunities, or stress-relieving qualities; instead, fans highly involved with a brand can be extremely loyal, holding a particular brand as central to their identity where brand success and failure is interpreted as personal success and failure”\(^{33}\).


CHAPTER TWO

BRAND LOYALTY IN SPORTS AND FOOTBALL INDUSTRY

Loyalty plays a big role in the attraction of sport. It gives a supporter the satisfaction of having their team or their brand. This loyal fanbase can create a brilliant and strong brand for a sports team, in fact it is one of the ways to be independent from the instability of results typical of sports. Moreover, while in other sectors brand loyalty are declining, creating marketing problems to the companies, sport industry continues to have lifelong fans with unbreakable loyalty and devotion.

Mullin et al. (2000) points out different factors in sport market that can help to understand the context:\(^{34}\):

- **Sports consumers have remarkably high involvement with the product partly due to sport’s salience and strong personal identification:** sport plays a crucial role in the social context, the media talk about sport every day and there are dedicated TV channels and radio frequencies, this means that sport is a daily conversation argument for many people and become an element that creates strong personal identification and high involvement for

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those people.

- **Consumer demand tends to fluctuate widely:** as we’ll see in the next paragraphs not all sports consumers are equally passionate and fanatical, in fact while the fanatical consumers tends to guarantee a permanent interest and, consequently, a permanent consumption, other typologies of consumers follow the wake of team results or the most important seasonal moments. In this sense the present work wants to show how an increase in committed fans can sure an high level of demand to the clubs.

- **Sport is an example of highly intangible and personalised service, so each spectator takes a unique set of benefits:** the consequence and, at the same time, the reason for which sports consumers are different is that anyone sees in sport, someone wants to live emotional moments through sport, someone else wants to see a good performance like it would be a good film, then someone else wants only to spend time with his friends and sport is only a way to do it.

- **Sport is generally publicly consumed and customer satisfaction is related to social facilitation:** the customer satisfaction in sports consumption doesn’t depends only on the team performance, the game result or, in general, a club’s effort to make the consumption satisfying, infact it depends also on the easiness of the arrival to the facilities, the availability of the product on medias and other variables that are not under the club control.
• The sport product is inconsistent and unpredictable (results), consequently the sport marketer has little or no control over the core product: a sport marketer can’t control the team performance and, consequently the results. Then it recurs the importance to have loyal and committed fans that follow the team no matter the results. So, the role of sport marketer primarily consists in making the customer loyal and committed.

• Sport has almost universal demographic appeal worldwide: sport has an almost universal consumption, as we’ll see in the next paragraph some changes in the last decades have brought less differences in sport consumption across social classes, different ages and between males and females.
Changes in football consumers in the last decades

In the last decades historical events and the progress of technologies produced radical changes in the consumption on sports and football. These changes have brought an almost universal consumption and more heterogeneity than before as Quick (2000) summarizes: “the tribal, hard-core fan is but a minor figure in the professional sportscape. In recent decades a number of other fan segments have been identified, each having a different expectation of the sport experience. Moreover, each group, whether consuming the sport product at the event, on the street, or over the Internet, has unique value to the sport organisation; because of this, if possible, the needs and experiences of each group must be accommodated”35

Pay tv

The emergence of Pay tv, occurred at the begin of ‘90s, and the possibility to see every football match on TV, sitting on sofa, was a great revolution in the way to consume football and to support a favourite team.

Focusing on the italian context, until 1993 the Serie A TV rights were an exclusive of public television, RAI, that showed only the second half of the most important match of the day and the highlights of every match in the historical show 90° Minuto.

Considering this, if you wanted to see an entire football match live you had to go to the stadium. Instead now, with Sky Sport, you can see every match of the most important leagues in the world, so there is an offer almost complete that goes further than follow only the favourite team: in many cases consumers watch mostly matches in which their favourite team doesn’t play.

*Revolution in English football: Hillsbourough disaster and Taylor Act*

The Hillsborough disaster happened in 1989 in Sheffield (Hillsborough is the name of Sheffield Wednesday’s stadium) during a FA Cup semifinal between Nottingham Forest and Liverpool. In that day 96 Liverpool’s supporters died literally crushed on the iron barriers between the stands and the pitch because of the excessive number of people inside of the sector. After this tragedy the then Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher instructed the Judge Lord Peter Taylor to draw up a document that explained the causes of the tragedy and the solutions that could be put. The purpose of Taylor Act was to regulate the security of the english football facilities, making available only those with all seat positions, turnstiles at the entry and closed-circuit videogameras. The consequence was that every english football club was forced to restyle its stadium and the result is modern facilities enjoyable 24 hour a day, 7 days a week.
From a marketing perspective this revolution implied a general higher ticket pricing, more products and service to offer inside the facilities besides football matches and, consequently, different typologies of customers\textsuperscript{36}.

This revolution started in UK, moved on other important european countries like Germany and Spain, and now it’s arriving in Italy.

\textit{Social Media}

The Internet is part of the day-to-day life of the vast majority of the world population, and within this environment, a new form of communication has gained prominence in recent years: social networking sites. This new form of communication has also changed the way that football consumers use to interact with the product and with others consumers.

\textsuperscript{36} Tapp, A., Clowes, J. (2002). From “carefree casuals” to “professional wanderers”.
\textit{European Journal of Marketing}, Vol.36, No.11/12, pp.1248-1269
Variables that influence sport consumers

In 2002 Tapp and Clowes proposed a fan segmentation considering the context of English Premier League, but, in order to do this work, they found a set of variables for a better understanding of the segmentation.

The first set of variables is geodemographic. In this case the research confirms what we said in the previous paragraphs about the almost universal consumption of football and the impact of Taylor Act, in particular “there was a range of occupations, highlighting a broad social class mix… The sample reflected the changes of 1990s ‘‘new football’’: finding 30 per cent managers/ professionals, while 30 per cent of supporters said their household income was >£30,000 p.a. and only 8 per cent said they earned less than £10,000 p.a.” Tapp and Clowes identified three geodemographic variables: lifestage, gender and proximity of residence to the club. Lifestage is an important explainer for sports attendance, in the interviews spectators explained that “reasons for non-attendance included family/work commitments, lack of income, and they had simply lost interest, often in their late teens and early 20s. It was concluded that different lifestages created both barriers to attendance (for example socialising or having a young family) and also triggers (for instance, a son or daughter influences parents to attend)”. For what concern gender, women increased their representation in Premier League attendance from 10% to 20% in ‘90s after the Taylor Act’s introduction; the principal reason is the decline of hooliganism and the raised sense of security, in this way “women saw social barriers

37 Tapp, A., Clowes, J. (2002). From ‘‘carefree casuals’’ to ‘‘professional wanderers’’. European Journal of Marketing, Vol.36, No.11/12, p. 1255

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as being rapidly eroded, with ‘all women’ groups now more common, and
daughter/mother units now alongside the traditional father/son dynamic. Culturally,
it was very much the norm for women to attend football matches”. Another key
variable is location, the more committed fans see the club as the main source of local
expression of the city, so there is a very good chance that a committed fan was born
in the city that the club represents. For Tapp and Clowes, in addition to local fans
there is another segment that they call “professional wanderers: “this group were
made up from people (mainly managers/professionals) who have held jobs in a
number of different places who tended to strike up (weakly held) allegiances with
local teams, which they retain when they next move… They did not feel the same
community ties as local people and would usually readily admit to being less loyal”.
The second set of variables is psychographic. Tapp and Clowes focus on the
dichotomy between the quality of the entertainment of the product and the success
of the team. According to Sutton (1997) people associate themselves with
winning sports teams to enhance their prestige in others eyes and even to increase
their own self esteem\(^{38}\), but winning isn’t the only benefit, infact in the interviews
that Tapp and Clowes made for their research fans admit that “if their club would
cease to exist, they would stop watching live football, they are not interested in
transferring their allegiance to another club”\(^{39}\).

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pp.15-22

\(^{39}\) Tapp, A., Clowes, J. (2002). From “carefree casuals” to “professional wanderers”.
*European Journal of Marketing, Vol.36, No.11/12*, p. 1257
Instead in 1999 Stewart and Smith developed a fans classification based on psychographic variables, their reference framework was Australian Rules Football\(^{40}\). The groups they found were:

- **Aficionado**: The fan who seek quality performance, not team loyal but game loyal.

- **Theatre goer**: The fan who seek entertainment and wants a close context.

- **Passionate partisan**: The fan wants his team to win and identifies with team success and losses.

- **Champ follower**: brand switcher based on winning

- **Reclusive partisan**: The fan identifies strongly with team, but does not often attend

The differences that emerge show that changing the context, also the reasons of consumption change.

Differences between fans

As said by Redden and Steiner (2000), not all sports consumers are equally passionate and fanatical nor use their team to confirm their personal identity. In order to have a better understanding of loyalty in sports it’s important to analyze the differences between sport consumers.

Pooley (1978) gives a distinction between casual sport spectators or simple observers and committed fans: the firsts forget about a sporting event at its conclusion, the seconds “continue their interest until the intensity of feeling toward the team becomes so great that parts of every day are devoted to either his team or in some instances, to be broad realm of sports in general.” Madrigal (1995) made another classification for various typologies of fan attendance based on commitment, using the terms “theatre-goers”, “fair-weather fans” and “hardcore fans”. “Theatre-goers” and “fair-weather fans” display temporal and situational involvement with their team/sport whereas “hardcore fans” display enduring involvement.

Balwant Samra and Anna Wos in 2014 proposed a fan typology analysis: “some attend games on a regular basis, while others attend only on special occasions. Some consumers spend most of their time engaging in sport chatter trawling the internet, while others display their fandom by watching pay television sport channels. They

experience sport in different ways, and use the team affiliation to meet a diverse range of needs." They identify three types of fans:

- **Temporary Fan**: the factor that characterizes this type is the time boundary: “the temporary fan’s interest in the phenomenon is time constrained, after the phenomenon of interest is over, the fan is no longer motivated to exhibit behaviour related to the sports object, but rather return to normal behaviour”, this because “being a fan is not used by the temporary fan for self identification”. Then, the explanation of Temporary Fan’s behaviour can be the reflected glory theory (Cialdini 1976), it is an individual tendency to internalize the success of others.

- **Devoted Fan**: “The devoted fan remains loyal to their team or player even if either the specific, short–term event that captivated their temporary attention has ended or if they are removed from the context of the original geographical location”, so, for this typology, being a fan is an important part of self identification, “yet not the most critical or central self-definition in one’s life”.

- **Fanatical Fan**: The fanatical fan is similar to the devoted fan, he is not bounded by time or distance and uses being a fan as a very important part of self identification, the difference is that the fanatical fan “engages in behaviour that is beyond the normal devoted fan, greater level of knowledge

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greater level of anxiety and arousal watching their team compete yet the behaviour is accepted by significant others (family, friends, other fans) because it is considered supportive of the team, player or sport”. The main characteristics of a Fanatical Fan are extreme loyalty.

If these authors proposed a classification in terms of level of fandom, Mullin et al. (2000) identified different groups of customers in terms of consumption and argued that an intelligent approach in sport promotion is to bring consumers progressively up a gradient of involvement and commitment. Talking about the American National Basketball Association (NBA), Mullin divided consumers in different steps:

- **Nonconsumers**: this generic term includes several forms of non-consumption, there are non-aware nonconsumers that are unaware of the existence of the sport product and consequently don’t attend, there are non-consumers that are aware of the product and wish to consume it directly but do not do so because of misinformations or misperceptions like costs or safety concerns (hooligans and violence), in the end there are aware nonconsumer that are aware of the product but do not choose to attend.
• **Indirect consumers:** this typology refers to media consumers, they are aware of the sport product but they don’t consume it directly, they consume it indirectly through media like TV, internet or radio.

• **Light consumers:** Mullin puts in this category consumers that attend to 1-4 matches in a season (a regular season in NBA is composed by 82 matches)

• **Moderate consumers:** consumers that attend to 5-12 matches in a season

• **Frequent consumers:** consumers that attend to 13-24 matches in a season

• **Heavy consumers:** consumers that attend to more than 25 matches in a season

This classification made by Mullin refers to the value that supporters give to the club, similira to this type is the research made by Tapp and Clowes. According to their datas, they divided consumers in Fanatics, Regular and Casual: “those supporters who went to between one and nine games per season are called ”casual” fans, those who went to between 10 to 18 games are dubbed ”regulars”, while those attending more than 18 home games plus some or all away games were classified as ”fanatics””. In addition to that, the study of Tapp and Clowes gives more: in the qualitative and quantitative data, they found links between psychografic and
behavioural variables that enabled the profiling of “Fanatics”, “Regulars” and “Casuals”\textsuperscript{45}:

- **Fanatics**: They spend an average of £350 per annum on tickets and about £75 per annum on merchandise, making them the most important group in terms of income to the club. The Fanatics’ need for a relationship with their club/football stretched beyond the match day experience with 66 per cent of Fanatics saying they would attend supporter evenings compared to only 26 per cent of “casual fans” (those who attended an average of five games per season). Similar numbers of Fanatics (63 per cent) showed more interest in receiving regular information about the club. Finally, in terms of benefits sought, Fanatics were more likely than casual fans to be “winning” rather than “entertainment” oriented. By definition, Fanatics are more behaviourally loyal than Regulars or Casuals, and the research found that this group also emphasised the importance of conspicuous loyalty, infact the act of being loyal, both regular attendance and being one-club fans, is crucial to the credibility of a tribal fanatic supporter.

- **Regulars**: They attend an average of about 15 games a season, spending £300 per annum on tickets and about £35 per annum on merchandise. The qualitative datas show that these are committed fans but held something in

reserve, infact, unlike the Fanatics, football is not considered top priority in their lives. They share the same feelings of Fanatics but they don’t have the same depth of commitment in linking their self image to the club. In addition to that, datas show that this typology is more likely to follow the winning team, infact Regulars have the highest percentage of fans who were more interested in winning than entertainment (53%). In this sense can be retaken the reflected glory theory by Cialdini.

- **Casuals**: They attended an average of five games per year spending about £100 per annum, and also spending an average of £25 per annum on merchandise. The geographic variable is crucial to understand the “Casuals” mentality: “the research found that 67 per cent of Casuals lived outside the city, compared to only 40 per cent of Fanatics” and “the depth interviews completed the picture: none of the Casuals interviewed felt a close part of the local community, in contrast to the Fanatics”. Others datas show that Casuals are more likely than Fanatics to prefer entertainment to winning (77%), this is confirmed by the interviews: “if their team lost they did not feel the sense of depression and pain that regulars get. Instead of fighting for tickets, their response was ”what else shall we do today”. Instead of depression when the team loses, the response was “oh well that was a good game”.46

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Tapp and Clowes add other data about these three typologies: “while over 93 per cent of Regulars and 97 per cent of Fanatics always knew what the club’s next game was, the same was only true of 55 per cent of Casuals”, “Casuals were much more likely to make an active evaluation of alternatives; 82 per cent of Casuals said watching the club was one of several alternatives they considered, while only 6 per cent of Fanatics agreed with this” and finally “34 per cent of Casuals said they would come to more games if contacted directly by the club a few days before, this compared to 5 per cent of Fanatics and 20 per cent of Regulars; Casuals preferred to buy tickets from a variety of sources like phone ordering with credit card, at an automatic dispenser, and at the ticket office, instead most Regulars and Fanatics either had season tickets or bought face to face at the ticket office”\textsuperscript{47}.

\textsuperscript{47} Tapp, A., Clowes, J. (2002). From ``carefree casuals’’ to ``professional wanderers’’. \textit{European Journal of Marketing}, Vol.36, No.11/12, p.1264
Sport consumers motivations

Motivation is an internal force that guides any human behaviour. In 1964 Edward Murray defined a motive as “an internal factor that arouses, directs, and integrates a person’s behaviour... (a motive) is not observed directly but inferred from his behaviour or simply assumed to exist in order to explain his behaviour”\textsuperscript{48}. For what concern the relationship between motivations and devoted behaviours, McClelland stated that “a motive became a strong affective association, characterised by an anticipatory goal reaction and based on past association of certain cues with pleasure or pain”\textsuperscript{49}. Instead, talking about consumer’s motivations and involvement, Richin and Bloch (1986) distinguished between situational motivation and enduring motivation, the first one happens when social pressures or temporary circumstances are the source of the consumer’s motivation, the second one happens when the source of motivation is no context bound and it has no constraints like time or location\textsuperscript{50}; referring to sport and fan, when the fan perceives the sport object as important to himself concept, the motivation is enduring.

In their 2014 work Samra and Wos analyzed a set of motivations that can influence the sport consumer’s behaviours because the understanding of the different needs of consumers is crucial to made an accurate fan classification, infact each type of fans

\textsuperscript{48} Murray, E.J. (1964). Motivation and Emotion. \textit{Prentice-Hall}
\textsuperscript{49} McClelland, D.C. (1951). Personality. \textit{New York: Sloane}
requires special attention and hence special targeting and motivation method. The motivations identified are:

- **Group Affiliation**: as we reported at the beginning of this chapter, sport is generally publicly consumed. This means that sport spectating is a social activity, in fact it tends to be consumed in a group environment like sport arenas, restaurants, bar or even at home with a group of friends. So for many individuals, the desire to spend time with others is the principal reason that bring them to follow sports and a team in particular: “Sport fandom and sport spectating can help to fulfill the human need for social interaction by providing a sense of belongingness. The fact that most spectators consume sport as a member of a social group suggests that fans do indeed use sport to satisfy social interaction needs”51. These groups actively engage in singing and chanting before and during the match and strongly believe that such activities mark them out to as real fans of the team and the backbone of supporters.

- **Self Identity**: Identity salience is related to commitment, to participation in a leisure activity and to the time invested in the activity. So, according to Samra and Wos, the social identity theory, that focuses on the connection between self, role and society “is applicable because fan behaviour is socially visible, involves relationships with others, can lead to the formation of a fan

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role and one can experience satisfaction associated with that role. Therefore, those with high level of identity salience for being a fan of a sporting team will attend more games than those low in identity salience”\textsuperscript{52}. In fact temporary fans lacks this strong identification with the club and hence have low commitment to the club and its players.

- **Economic**: For some individuals the economic motive is principal, in particular “it is the potential economic gain from sport gambling that attracts them to the role of a fan”. This typology is not related to the values, beliefs, attitudes and norms associated with sport fandom, therefore, many economically motivated fans are by definition, not fans at all. Instead, they participate in the pastime simply for the potential monetary rewards that accrue through sport wagering.

- **Emotional Stimulation**: Mahony and Moorman define “eustress” the enjoyable stress and the fun that sport provides to fans\textsuperscript{53}, and Samra and Wos agree that it is one of the major motivational factor for fan attraction: “fans with high level of eustress (i.e. euphoric stress) motivation become involved with the pastime because they enjoy the excitement and arousal they experience watching sport, whether it’s the drama of close game or escape from their everyday routines”. The majority of this typology of fans attends


games regularly and buys game programmes and pies and drinks, there is high level of brand, personal commitment and high level of loyalty and usage.

• **Information Acquisition**: A study by Koivula show that a minority attends sport events to obtain informations about a particular sport and to try to improve their physical fitness by watching these events⁵⁴. “Most of these fans attended the games once a month and managed non league and junior teams and felt that by watching profes- sional teams it would help to improve their team performances. The most devoted and fanatical fans knew team stats and player information of their team players and information on opposing teams”⁵⁵.

• **Group Disassociation**: if group affiliation is one of the major motives that bring people to consume sports, a minority support their teams in a solitary way. This typology of fans came by them- selves, sat by themselves and did not speak to any other fans, they buy a game programme and sat in the same seats (area) every time but did not buy any other form of merchandise.

Then, according to the Samra and Wos research, the motivations that influence sport consumers are Group Affiliation, Self Identity and Emotional Stimulation.
CHAPTER THREE

SURVEY

In this last part of the work I prepared a poll in order to analyse the connections between loyalty, emotions, consumption and, consequently, expenditure among football consumers.

Methodology

Structure of the survey

In order to identify possible connections between loyalty, emotions, consumption and expenditure, I prepared a survey composed by 27 questions divided in four parts. The first part wants to analyse the behavioural side of the sample; the second one wants to identify the level of different emotions that the consumers feel towards their favourite team and football in general; the third one tries to find the crucial elements that characterise brand loyalty (in this case loyalty towards a football club); the last part of the survey asks personal data like age, gender, birthplace and hometown.
The behavioural part is composed by thirteen questions, with the first three the survey wants to understand the regularity of the respondents in following football and their favourite team, in fact the questions consist in the total matches viewed per week, the favourite team and how many favourite team’s matches they follow in percentage per year. The questions number four, five, six and seven involve the ways in which the respondents follow their favourite team and other matches, these questions are important because any mode of following the match implies different feelings, different comforts, different costs and different beneficiaries of the revenues; in order to have measurable values, on question four and five the respondents must select a value between one (nothing) and seven (very much) for a range of options that includes stadium, TV, radio, streaming and public places as pubs or restaurants, instead the questions number six and seven are optional and open for leaving to the respondents the possibility to add other ways that they could use. The question number eight consists in a specific question about how many times the respondent goes to the stadium in a year.

If the first eight questions are dedicated to the consumptions, the questions from nine to thirteen are dedicated to the consumers expenditures. In particular the survey wants to know how much the respondents spend for football, which percentage of income and how much your favourite team obtains from their expenditure. Then the respondents must specific in which way, in percentage, they spend money between stadium, pay tv, merchandising and trips for away matches, even in this case there is the possibility to add other types of expenditures.

The emotional part of the survey is composed by seven questions and the purpose is the understanding of what the respondents feel toward football and their favourite team. This part begins with the question “From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how
much is the day after affected by a result of your favourite team?”, this question is useful to understand the general involvement of the respondents and the impact that football has on their lives. In the next three questions the survey asks to give a measure of how much they feel a set of emotions during a favourite team’s match, a general football match and in general toward a favourite team; the set of emotions is composed by Happiness, Joy, Hope, Surprise, Excitement, Pride, Sadness, Fear, Anxiety, Anger, Depression, Empathic Pain, Regret and Humiliation. The question number eighteen consists in the measure of how much the respondents feel a set of emotions toward a rival team, the emotions considered are Anger, Hate, Envy, Indifference, Respect, Anxiety and Fear. Finally the question number nineteen wants to know how much are relevant some motivations on the football faith; the motivations considered are those analysed by Samra and Wos in “Fan Typology Analysis” and by Tapp and Clowes mentioned in the previous chapter: Team Reputation, Victories, Emotions, Sense of Belonging, Self Identification and Group Affiliation. Even in this case question twenty leaves the chance to add other motivations to the respondents.

The next part of the survey consists in questions that analyse the level of loyalty of the respondents, in fact the factors taken in consideration are the variation of commitment during the time and the level of substitutability that many researchers identified as key for brand loyalty and as we seen in the previous chapters. In particular the questions are “From one (nothing) to seven (very much), how much are your motivations changed in the time?”, “From one (nothing) to seven (very much) how much are you convinced that your motivations will change in the future?”
and “From one (nothing) to seven (very much), how much would you interested in football in case of bankrupt or disappearance of your favourite team?”.

In the end of the survey there are questions about age, gender, birthplace and hometown in order to understand the context in which respondents are and live.

**Characteristics of the sample**

The sample considered for this survey is composed by 86 football consumers located mostly in Lazio (53%) and Piemonte (23%).
This population has a clear discrepancy between males and females. In fact among the 86 respondents, 70 (81%) of them are men and only 16 (19%) are women.

For what concern the age of the respondents, the most of them are between 21 and 30 years old, in particular 28 (32%) are 21-25 years old and 18 (21%) are 26-30 years old. The categories of respondents with age 31-40 and 41-60 have the same number of representants (11) and together make 26% of the population; similar to these two categories is the one of 16-20 with 10 representants. The categories of respondents with age under 16 and over 60 are marginal with 3% and 6% of the population.
Then, it’s possible to note that there is a predominance of Roma fan among the respondents (34%), the second team most voted is Juventus with 13 representants (15%) followed by Inter with 12 representants (14%) and Milan with 11 representants (13%).
In order to understand the chance of consumption that respondents have, it’s also important to distinguish between those that live in the same city in which their favourite team resides and those that live in other cities. Considering this, 42 respondents (49%) live in the same city in which their favourite team plays home matches, the others 44 must trip if they want to go to the stadium. This distinction is important also for a better consideration of the values that respondents put on motivations for football faith; in fact it’s more difficult to feel a sense of belonging or a group affiliation living in another city.
For what concern the level of consumption and interest on the favourite team, the clear majority of the population follow more than 60% of their favourite team matches, in particular 39 (45%) follow 91-100% of the matches, 15 (17%) follow 76-90% of the matches and 10 (12%) follow 61-75% of the matches. This data shows that the sample is relevant because the real interest is high.
Instead, there is a big equality in the general consumption of football per week analysed with the question number 1.
The categories with more representants are those with 1 (22%) and 2 (23%) matches followed per week, so probably fans that follow only their favourite team, and those with more than 5 football matches followed per week (20%), so real passionates for football in general.

For what concern the expenditure for football, the population of the survey shows a majority for the category that spend 101-300€ per year for football with 32 representants (37%). After this category there are those that pay 301-500€ with 20 representants (23%) followed by those that pay 501-800€ with 14 representants (16%). No one in this population pays more than 1000€ per year for football.
Instead it’s complicated the analysis of the sample for what concern the percentage of income spent for football, because almost the half of the population has no work. Anyway the analysis of the population shows that the majority (41%) spend less than 5% of the income for football. The 24% spend 6-10% of the income and the 14% spend 11-15% of the income; only two respondents spend more than 30%.
Definition of the objectives

The purpose of this survey is the identification of possible connections between loyalty, emotions, consumptions and expenditures in football.

In order to understand the level of loyalty of the respondents, the survey uses question number 3, “In percentage, how many matches of your favourite team do you see in a year?”, question number 14, “From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much does a result of your favourite team influence your day after?”, question number 19, “From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much are relevant the following motivations in football faith?” (the motivations selected are Team Reputation, Victories, Emotions, Sense of Belonging, Self Identification and Group Affiliation), question number 21, “From one (very much) to seven (nothing), how much are your motivations changed in the time?”, question number 22, “From one (very much) to seven (nothing) how much are you convinced that your motivations will change in the future?”, and question number 23, “From one (very much) to seven (nothing), how much would you interested in football in case of bankrupt or disappearance of your favourite team?”. In particular, there is a high level of loyalty in case of high value in answers for questions 3, 14, 21, 22 and 23; for what concern motivations, those that highlight loyalty, according to Samra and Wos, are Sense of Belonging and Self Identification. After the survey, every respondents have a Loyalty Value obtained calculating the average between all the values relevant for Loyalty.
In order to understand the emotional level of the respondents in terms of football and favourite team, the survey uses question number 15, “From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much do you feel the following emotions during a match of your favourite football team?”, question number 16, “From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much do you feel the following emotions during a match of a no-favourite football team?”, question number 17, “From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), in general how much do you feel the following emotions towards your favourite football team?”, and question number 18, “From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much do you feel the following emotions towards a rival team?”; for what concern questions 15, 16 and 17, the emotions considered are Happiness, Joy, Hope, Surprise, Excitement, Pride, Sadness, Fear, Anxiety, Anger, Depression, Emphatic Pain, Regret and Humiliation; instead, for what concern question 18, the emotions considered are Anger, Hate, Envy, Indifference, Respect, Anxiety and Fear. Like loyalty, also in this case every respondent will have an Emotional Value found calculating the average between the values that they assigned to the emotions proposed and the importance that they give to the emotions as motivation for football faith.

In order to understand the levels of consumption and expenditure of the respondents, the survey uses questions number 1, “How many football matches do you see in a week?”, number 4, “From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much do you follow the football matches of your favourite team in the following ways?”, number 5, “From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much do you follow the football matches of a no-favourite team in the following ways?”, number 6, “How many times do you
go to the stadium in a year?”, number 7, “In average, how much do you spend in a year for football?”, number 8, “How much percentage of income do you spend for football?”, number 9, “From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much of your football expenditure do you spend in the following ways?”, and number 10, “From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much of your football expenditure become a direct income for your favourite team?”. The ways considered for questions 4 and 5 are Stadium, TV, Radio, Streaming, Public Place (pub, restaurant…); the ways considered in question 9 are Stadium, Pay TV, Merchandising and Trips (away matches etc.); the survey leaves the chance to add other ways in which the respondents follow football matches or spend their money for football.

These questions need to know how much the respondents consume football per week and in which way, and how much they spend and in which way.

After that any respondent will have a Consumption Value and an Expenditure Value. The Consumption Value is obtained by the average of the answers 1, 3, 4 and 5; for what concern question 1, any answer is associated with a value from 1 to 7 (ex. Zero matches seen per week has value 1 and more than 5 matches seen per week has value 7). The Expenditure Value is obtained by the average of the answers 9, 10 and 11 (quantity of the expenditure, the percentage of income and the frequency of expenditure fro selected ways), also in this case any answer is associated to a value between 1 and 7 (value 1 means the lowest level of expenditure and value 7 means the highest level of expenditure).
The final purpose of the survey is to put in correlation the Loyalty Values with Emotional Values, Consumption Values and Expenditure Values in order to see if there is a connection.
Results

*Loyalty Values*

The first step to achieve a result for the survey is to calculate the Loyalty Values for every respondent. As said before, the calculation consists in the average between the values from one to seven put by the respondents to the questions relevant to Loyalty. For what concern the question number 3 “In percentage, how many matches of your favourite team do you see in a year?”, there were seven possible answers (less than 20%, 20-35%, 36-50%, 51-60%, 61-75%, 76-90% and 91-100%) and for every answer has been assigned a value from one to seven (one means less than 20% and seven means 91-100%).

Analysing the Loyalty Values of the sample, we can note that these Values go from a minimum value of 1.857 to a maximum value of 6.857; the average is equal to 5.021, the variance to 1.943 and the standard deviation is 1.394.

*Emotional Values*

After the calculation of Loyalty Values, the second step is the estimation of Emotional Values. This calculation consists in the average of the values that respondents put on the fourteen different emotions proposed by the survey,
concerning what they feel when they follow a match of their favourite football team, what they feel in general toward their favourite football team and what they feel toward a rival team (in this case the emotions proposed by the survey are seven).

Analysing the Emotional Values of the sample, we can note that these Values go from a minimum of 1.232 to a maximum of 6.232; the average is equal to 3.83, the variance is equal to 1.273 and the standard deviation is 1.128. It’s important to add that the factor with highest values is what the respondents feel during a match of their football team, the average value in this situation is 3.896.

Consumption Values

After the estimation of Loyalty and Emotional Values of the respondents, the third step is to calculate the Consumption Values. This calculation arises from the analysis of the answers to the questions number 1, 3, 4 and 5; associating any answer to value from one to seven (one means minimum value and seven means maximum value), it’s possible to give a numeric estimation similar to those in Loyalty and Emotions. The choice of the questions 1 and 3 is generated by the necessity to consider the general consumption of football (question number 1) and the particular consumption
of favourite football team (question number 3). Instead the choice of questions 4 and 5 is generated by the necessity to analyse the frequency of several ways of consumption for favourite team matches and no-favourite team matches.

Analysing the answers of the sample, the Consumption Values have a minimum of 1.08 and a maximum of 5.58; the average is equal to 2.96, the variance is equal to 0.608 and the standard deviation is 0.78.

*Expenditure Values*

The last values that the survey seek are those relatives to the expenditures for football. Unfortunately these values are influenced by the fact that many of the respondents have no job and, consequently, low incomes.

Anyway the calculation of the Expenditure Values consists in the analysis of the answers to the questions 9, 10 and 11 concerning how much the respondents spend for football per year, which percentage of income and in which way they spend their money for football with more frequency. The answers have been divided in seven categories associated to a value from one to seven: value one means the minimum and value seven means the maximum.
Considering this, the Expenditure Values of the sample go from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 5.2; the average value is equal to 3.232, the variance is equal to 1.08 and the standard deviation is 1.04.

Correlations and Regression Lines: Loyalty-Emotions, Loyalty-Consumptions and Loyalty-Expenditures

In this final part of the work I analyse the purpose of the entire thesis: the possible connections between Loyalty and Emotions, Loyalty and Consumptions, Loyalty and Expenditures through the datas obtained with the survey.

The first correlation that the survey shows is between Loyalty and Emotions. The Loyalty Values and the Emotional Values that have been reported for every respondent, have covariance equal to 1.29. Given the respective standard deviations, 1.394 and 1.128, the correlation is equal to 0.821. So, the datas show a strong correlation between Loyalty Values and Emotional Values. This fact can be noted also with the following Scatter Plot.
The regression coefficient beta is equal to 0.6646, the intercept is equal to 0.4933, so the equation is $Y=0.6646X+0.4933$.

The emotions that have more relevance are those felt during the favourite team matches, the average of the values put in this situation is 3.9. The emotion that the respondents feel more is Joy during the matches of their favourite team, the average is 5.72.
The second correlation that the survey shows is between Loyalty and Consumptions. The Loyalty Values and the Consumption Values that have been reported for every respondent, have covariance equal to 0.67. Given the respective standard deviations, 1.394 and 0.78, the correlation is equal to 0.61.

So, the data show a moderate correlation between Loyalty and Consumptions, even if less than between Loyalty and Emotions. The factors that have the greatest impact are the percentage of football matches of favourite teams and the great frequency of TV use as a way to follow the favourite team. The average for the percentage is 5.57, the one for the TV frequency is 6.

This is the Scanner Plot with the regression line that has coefficient beta equal to 0.3445 and intercept equal to 1.2336, so the equation is $Y=0.3445X+1.2336$. 
The third correlation that the survey shows is between Loyalty and Expenditures. The Loyalty Values and the Expenditures Values that have been reported for every respondent, have covariance equal to 1.04. Given the respective standard deviations, 1.394 and 1.04, the correlation is equal to 0.72.

So, the data show a strong correlation between Loyalty Values and Expenditures Values.

The regression line has a coefficient equal to 0.537 and an intercept equal to 0.5357, so the equation is $Y=0.537X+0.5357$. 
The expenditure that has the greatest impact is the one for Pay Tv, the average is 4.99 and 39 respondents (45%) have put value 7.
APPENDIX

Questions

Part One

How many football matches do you see per week? 0 1 2 3 4 5 5+

Which is your favourite team? Juve Inter Milan Napoli Roma Lazio Other

In percentage, how many matches of your favourite team do you see per year?
-20% 20-30% 31-50% 51-60% 61-75% 76-90% 91-100%

From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much do you follow your favourite team in the following ways?
Stadium
Tv
Radio
Streaming
Public Place (pub, restaurant…)

From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much do you follow a no-favourite team in the following ways?
Stadium
Tv
Radio
Streaming
Public Place (pub, restaurant…)

How many times do you go to the stadium?
0 1-2 3-4 5-6 7-8 9-10 10+
In average, how much do you spend for football per year?
0-49€ 50-100€ 101-300€ 301-500€ 501-800€ 801-1000€ 1000€+

Which percentage of income do you spend for football?
0-5% 6-10% 11-15% 16-20% 21-30% 31-50% 50%+

From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much is frequent the expenditure for the following options?
Stadium
Pay Tv
Merchandising
Trips (Away matches)
Other

From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much of your football expenditure is a direct income for your favourite team?

Part Two
From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much a result of your favourite team influence your next day?

From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much do you feel the following emotions during a favourite team match?
Happiness
Joy
Hope
Surprise
From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much do you feel the following emotions toward your favourite team?

Joy
Hope
Surprise
Excitement
Pride
Sadness
Fear
Anxiety
Anger
Depression

Emphatic Pain

Regret

Humiliation

From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much do you feel the following emotion toward a rival team?
Anger
Hate
Envy
Indifference
Respect
Anxiety
Fear

Part Three

From 1 (nothing) to 7 (very much), how much are relevant the following motivations for your football faith?
Victories
Team Reputation
Emotions
Sense of belonging
Identification
Group Affiliation

From 1 (very much) to 7 (nothing), how much your motivations are changed in time?

From 1 (very much) to 7 (nothing), how much do you think that your motivations will change in the future?

From 1 (very much) to 7 (nothing), how much do you think that you will follow football in the same way in case of bankrupt or disappearance of your favourite team?

Part Four

Age
-16 16-20 21-25 26-30 31-40 41-60 60+

Gender
M F

Birthplace

Hometown
Bibliography


Brand Loyalty and Football: The Role of Commitment

SUPervisor
PROF. MATTEO DE ANGELIS

CANDIDATE
TANCREDI FEDERICO LA ROCCA
MATR. 671201

COSUPervisor
PROF. MICHELE COSTABILE

ACADEMIC YEAR 2016/2017
SUMMARY

The purpose of this work is to see if Loyalty in football fans has a connection with the Emotions felt during a match or, in general, toward football and favourite teams, the Consumption of football and the Expenditures.

The work is divided in three parts. Chapter One deals with brand loyalty in general. There are several definitions and classification that researchers delivered to literature; after that there is an insight concerning brand loyalty in entertainment industry. Chapter Two deals with brand loyalty in sports industry: many researchers wrote about that argument in literature proposing fans classifications and trying to find the motivations that drive people to some unique and special behaviours.

Chapter Three is reserved to the survey in which I asked to 86 respondents from different ages and social classes, 27 questions divided in five parts: consumption behaviour, expenditure behaviour, emotions felt, loyalty and geodemographic. After the survey I found the correlation values and the regression coefficients that Loyalty have with Emotions, Consumption and Expenditure.
CHAPTER ONE: BRAND LOYALTY

There are many studies about loyalty in literature, in this part of the work I want to analyse the different definitions and classifications that academics give to loyalty. In 1974, Sheth and Park define loyalty as “a positively biased emotive, evaluative and/or behavioral response tendency toward a branded, labelled or graded alternative or choice by an individual in his capacity as the user, the choice maker, and/or the Purchasing agent”\(^{56}\). Indeed, according to this definition, loyalty is an emotional reaction by an individual but there is no necessity to occur a behaviour; in particular, Sheth&Park identify three distinct dimensions in which brand loyalty can appear, emotive, evalutive and behavioural, and it’s not necessary that all the dimensions are present at the same time. So, a consumer can be loyal toward a brand even if he has never bought a product or a service by this brand. An example for that can be “children who become brand loyal based on consumption experiences rather than buying experiences”, infact loyalty can often develop by learning from information, imitative behaviour, generalization and consumption behaviour; and, at

the same time, even if there is a buying behaviour by the costumer, it cannot be an
evaluative structure underlying his brand loyalty, not only an emotional tendency.
Other authors agree with the concept that loyalty lives in different dimensions but
disagree on the role of behaviour, for example Day (1969) and Jacoby&Kyner (1973)
found two dimensions, behavioural and attitudinal, in which the behavioural
dimension isn’t a sufficient condition to create loyalty.
The study of Gounaris and Stathakopoulos in 2004 criticizes the behavioural model:
“a consumer who is unfavorable to the purchase of a certain brand may still purchase
the brand (and then stop) when the consumer is no longer forced to keep purchasing
the brand”, so, for them, only an increase in attitudinal brand loyalty should lead to
a true increase in behavioural brand loyalty

57 Starting from this point, Gounaris and Stathakopoulos identify four types of brand
loyalty determined by three categories of drivers that are Consumers drivers, Brand
drivers and Social drivers. Consumers drivers are the individual’s characteristic in
deciding to purchase a specific brand, Gounaris and Stathakopoulos identify risk
adversion and variety seeking: the first refers to the perceived risk that individuals
feel when purchase a product, in particular high-involvement products (if a brand
manage to reduce the perceived risk it’s easier that loyalty increase), the latter refers
to the intrinsic need of consumers to seek something different. Brand drivers are the
brand characteristics that influence the willingess to purchase of consumers, these
are brand reputation, strong indication of product’s quality and equity, and
availability of substitute brands. Finally, social drivers are norms that can influence
consumers’ behaviour patterns, these are social groups influences, dependent from

57 Gounaris and Stathakopoulos (2004). Antecedents and Consequences of Brand Loyalty:
the individual’s susceptibility, the strength of involvement and the level of product conspicuousness, and peer recommendations.

After that, the four types of loyalty identified by Gounaris and Stathakopoulos are:

- **No Loyalty**: Consumers don’t purchase the brand or have any information or experiences with the brand. No social influences.

- **Covetous Loyalty**: Consumers have high emotional commitment but there is no purchase; this derives from the individual’s perception of the brand: “the brand becomes an extension of the consumer’s own self perception and personality”. This means that the consumer is willing to endorse the brand to peers, friends and relatives.

- **Inertia Loyalty**: There are repeated purchases by consumers but no emotional commitment or social causes; this behaviour derives from habits and high switching costs for the consumers. This means that this relationship “can be easily terminated by a rival product capable of breaking the consumer’s habitual behavioural pattern”. Day (1969) defines this type of loyalty as “spurious loyalty”.

- **Premium Loyalty**: There is high level of emotional attachment, repeated purchases and high levels of social influence. “Premium loyalty propels individuals to suffer various sacrifices in order to acquire their favoured brand…Variation in the price of their favourite brand may affect the quantity of the brand they purchase, but not the brand they choose to buy, since these consumers are committed to the brand”. Football fans are a classical example of this type of loyalty.
Among researchers as in business practice, there is an overwhelming agreement that the most important determinants of brand loyalty are customer satisfaction and emotions. A definition of satisfaction came from Kotler and Keller in 2006, they associated customer satisfaction with an expectancy confirmation or disconfirmation paradigm: “person’s feeling of pleasure or disappointment which resulted from comparing a product’s perceived performance or outcome against his/her expectations”. So, if expectations influence customer satisfaction, it’s important to analyze how emotions can influence expectations, in that regard DeSteno (2004) theorized that “matches and mismatches between felt emotions and emotional framings of the specific arguments contained within messages would differentially influence a message’s persuasive impact” stating the importance of communication for the achievement of well perceived performances.

Brand loyalty can be important for a company, giving a sustainable competitive advantage, and its stakeholders. In a study of 2009, Denoue and Saykiewicz found that “strong brands followed by loyal customers contribute to create benefits for various stakeholders in the business process, and ultimately help in the emergence of a competitive advantage for a firm supplying that brand to the market”. For what concern profitability, a study of Roger Hallowell focus on the relationship between customer satisfaction, customer loyalty and profitability, in particular he shows the

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interference of customer satisfaction in customer retention and the positive effect of customer retention on profitability.

CHAPTER TWO: BRAND LOYALTY IN SPORTS AND FOOTBALL INDUSTRY

Loyalty plays a big role in the attraction of sport. It gives a supporter the satisfaction of having their team or their brand. This loyal fanbase can create a brilliant and strong brand for a sports team, infact it is one of the ways to be independent from the instability of results typical of sports.
In 2002 Tapp and Clowes proposed a fan segmentation considering the context of English Premier League, but, in order to do this work, they found a set of variables for a better understanding of the segmentation. The first set of variables is geodemographic and they identified three geodemographic variables: lifestage, gender and proximity of residence to the club. The second set of variables is psychographic and they focus on the dichotomy between the quality of the entertainment of the product and the success of the team.

Balwant Samra and Anna Wos in 2014 proposed a fan typology analysis: “some attend games on a regular basis, while others attend only on special occasions. Some consumers spend most of their time engaging in sport chatter trawling the internet, while others display their fandom by watching pay television sport channels. They experience sport in different ways, and use the team affiliation to meet a diverse range of needs”\textsuperscript{60}. They identify three types of fans:

- **Temporary Fan**: the factor that characterizes this type is the time boundary: “the temporary fan’s interest in the phenomenon is time constrained, after the phenomenon of interest is over, the fan is no longer motivated to exhibit behaviour related to the sports object, but rather return to normal behaviour”, this because “being a fan is not used by the temporary fan for self identification”. Then, the explanation of Temporary Fan’s behaviour can be the reflected glory theory (Cialdini 1976), it is an individual tendency to internalize the success of others.

• **Devoted Fan**: “The devoted fan remains loyal to their team or player even if either the specific, short-term event that captivated their temporary attention has ended or if they are removed from the context of the original geographical location”, so, for this typology, being a fan is an important part of self identification, “yet not the most critical or central self-definition in one’s life”.

• **Fanatical Fan**: The fanatical fan is similar to the devoted fan, he is not bounded by time or distance and uses being a fan as a very important part of self identification, the difference is that the fanatical fan “engages in behaviour that is beyond the normal devoted fan, greater level of knowledge, greater level of anxiety and arousal watching their team compete yet the behaviour is accepted by significant others (family, friends, other fans) because it considered supportive of the team, player or sport”. The main characteristics of a Fanatical Fan are extreme loyalty.

In addition to that, Tapp and Clowes divided consumers in Fanatics, Regular and Casual: “those supporters who went to between one and nine games per season are called ‘casual’ fans, those who went to between 10 to 18 games are dubbed ‘regulars’, while those attending more than 18 home games plus some or all away games were classified as ‘fanatics’”; while in qualitative and quantitative data, they found links between psychografic and behavioural variables that enabled the profiling of “Fanatics”, “Regulars” and “Casuals”. In their 2014 work Samra and Wos analyzed a set of motivations that can influence the sport consumer’s behaviours because the understanding of the different needs of consumers is crucial to made an accurate fan classification, infact each type of fans
requires special attention and hence special targeting and motivation method. The motivations identified are:

- **Group Affiliation**: “Sport fandom and sport spectating can help to fulfill the human need for social interaction by providing a sense of belongingness. The fact that most spectators consume sport as a member of a social group suggests that fans do indeed use sport to satisfy social interaction needs”.

- **Self Identity**: the social identity theory, that focuses on the connection between self, role and society “is applicable because fan behaviour is socially visible, involves relationships with others, can lead to the formation of a fan role and one can experience satisfaction associated with that role.

- **Emotional Stimulation**: “Fans with high level of eustress (i.e. euphoric stress) motivation become involved with the pastime because they enjoy the excitement and arousal they experience watching sport, whether it’s the drama of close game or escape from their everyday routines”.

- **Information Acquisition**: A study by Koivula show that a minority attends sport events to obtain informations about a particular sport and to try to improve their physical fitness by watching these events.

- **Group Disassociation**: if group affiliation is one of the major motives that bring people to consume sports, a minority support their teams in a solitary way.
CHAPTER THREE: SURVEY

The purpose of the survey is the identification of possible connections between loyalty, emotions, consumptions and expenditures in football through the correlations between datas and regressions.

The first step to achieve a result for the survey is to calculate the Loyalty Values for every respondent. As said before, the calculation consists in the average between the values from one to seven put by the respondents to the questions relevant to Loyalty.

The same happens for Emotional Values, Consumption Values and Expenditure Values.

Loyalty-Emotions

The first correlation that the survey shows is between Loyalty Values and Emotional Values that have been reported for every respondent. They have covariance equal to 1.29 the correlation equal to 0.821. So, the datas show a strong correlation between Loyalty Values and Emotional Values. This fact can be noted also with the following Scatter Plot.
The regression coefficient beta is equal to 0.6646, the intercept is equal to 0.4933, so the equation is \( Y=0.6646X+0.4933 \).

**Loyalty-Consumption**

The second correlation that the survey shows is between Loyalty Values and Consumptions Values that have been reported for every respondent. They have covariance equal to 0.67 and the correlation is equal to 0.61. This is the Scanner Plot with the regression line that has coefficient beta equal to 0.3445 and intercept equal to 1.2336, so the equation is \( Y=0.3445X+1.2336 \).
The third correlation that the survey shows is between Loyalty Values and Expenditures Values that have been reported for every respondent. The covariance is equal to 1.04 and the correlation is equal to 0.72. The regression line has a coefficient equal to 0.537 and an intercept equal to 0.5357, so the equation is $Y=0.537X+0.5357$. 