

EXPECTATIONS AND ENJOYMENT IN MEDIATED SPORTS:
EXTENDED DISPOSITION THEORY
IN SPORTS ENTERTAINMENT

by

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A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in the College of Communication and Information Sciences
in the Graduate School of
The University of Alabama

TUSCALOOSA, ALABAMA

2009

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ABSTRACT

People tend to seek pleasurable stimuli and avoid unpleasant stimuli. This tendency as reflected in selective exposure theory has come into question when people choose media contents with negative hedonic valance. For example, televised sports games cause viewers to risk being distressed when the affiliated team loses or does not perform well. A theory of expectations is suggested in this study to explain why people act counter theoretically and take this risk. The disposition model suggested in this study integrates expectancy-value theory and expectation-disconfirmation theory. A total of 171 students at the University of Alabama were recruited to watch a recorded Alabama football game. Specially created newspaper articles manipulated the participants' level of expectation, and participants reported their affective response to the success of plays and the result of the game. The results show that a higher level of expectation generally lowered the level of affective response and a lower level of expectation generally heightened the level of affective response for the affiliated team's losing and unsuccessful plays, as hypothesized. However, when the affiliated team won or had a successful play, a higher level of expectation heightened the level of affective response, and a lower level of expectation lowered the level of affective response, which contradicts the hypotheses. In addition, a positive relationship between scores on the sports spectator identification scale and expectation score was found. Limitations include the inability to completely control the suspense value. The discussion of the results contains an explanation of the role of suspense affecting the measures utilized in this study.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my almighty God, who made me and my family in Korea and who gave me endless support while I have been studying in the U.S., my beautiful wife, Eun Hye, and my lovely son, Jun Hee, who has become the reason I live.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

α	Cronbach's index of internal consistency
df	Degrees of freedom: number of values free to vary after certain restrictions have been placed on the data
F	Fisher's F ratio: A ration of two variances
M	Mean: the sum of a set of measurements divided by the number of measurements in the set
N	Size of data set
SD	Standard Deviation: a measure of the variability or dispersion of a population, a data set, or a probability distribution
p	Probability associated with the occurrence under the null hypothesis of a value as extreme as or more extreme than the observed value
r	Pearson product-moment correlation
t	Computed value of t test
$<$	Less than
$=$	Equal to
$\%$	Percentage

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First of all, I thank God, who made me and directed my life to the right way, and would like to give Him the glory for my work and success.

Secondly, I would like to express my deep appreciation to my advisor, Dr. Jennings Bryant. I appreciate that you gave me the opportunity to study at the University of Alabama. Under your direction, your encouragement and support always kept me moving towards my goals. I could never accomplish my doctoral work without your endless support. I also thank Dr. Wilson Lowrey, who has been my research supervisor and a friend for three years. I have been lucky to be able to work with you. I not only learned about being a scholar from you, but also learned from your effort and passion to work as a professor and a teacher. Dr. Johnny Sparks, I will not forget the friendship you have given me for three years. Your friendly smile was always encouraging and helpful. I also thank Dr. Lance Kinney and Dr. John Vincent, who served as my dissertation committee members and showed me full support throughout my entire doctoral process, including my dissertation.

I also deeply appreciate the friendly support I received from Dr. Doo Hwang Lee for the entire process of my dissertation and research. Dr. Eyun-jung Ki and Dr. Yun-jae Cheong, your kind words and advice always encouraged me—that was a big help when I was struggling. Dr. Shoua Zhou, I really appreciate your help for the three years of my doctoral work, and I certainly regret that I could not spend more time to talk with you and study with you.

Ms. Dianne Shaddix, thank you for your warm words and great help. Especially, when I struggled at the end, your total support really meant something to me. Thank you very much. Mr. Ken Gaddy and Mr. David Mize of the Bryant Museum at the University of Alabama also contributed to a major part of my dissertation, especially by providing me with old films of Alabama football. I would never thought about attempting this study without the tremendous support of Mr. Gaddy and Mr. Mize. Thank you very much for providing films and allowing me to use the edited films for my experiments. Your very presence is a big encouragement for scholars in the area of sports communication.

I would like thank my family in Korea: my mom, Young-mi Park, my dad, Byung-taek Woo, my brother, Chang-hyun, and my sister, Cho-a. I hope you know how much I appreciate you and love you. I am sorry that you suffered from supporting my studying here in the U.S. and just not being there with you. I also appreciate my family-in-laws. Thank you very much for your support and prayers.

Last and most importantly, Eun Hye, my lovely wife, your strong support and sacrifice made me what I am today. I will never forget your help for the rest of my life. From now on, I will live for you, as you lived for me for six years of being a student's wife. My son, Jun Hee, you were my vitamin to live. I love you, my son. Eun Hye and Jun Hee, thank you for being with me during this hard time. Both of you are the reasons I live and work hard. I love you.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

People seek pleasurable stimuli from media entertainment (Zillmann & Bryant, 1985). Furthermore, according to cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957), people tend to avoid uncomfortable situations. It is also true that people instinctively seek good things rather than bad things according to their survival instincts (Miron, 2006). It is not necessary to form a theory to say that no one wants an unpleasant outcome in any case. Theories of entertainment have been consistent internally because they always begin with the fundamental assumption that people tend to select pleasurable stimuli. Sometimes people need to do what they do not like, which might or might not ultimately bring good outcomes, but when people watch media entertainment, they rarely have to be exposed to anything to which they have an aversion. There are many more media choices than in the past, so people may watch only what they like. For example, if one's favorite sports team does not have a chance to win in a competition, she or he does not have to watch the team be beaten by another team on television. However, if there is even a tiny chance to win the game, it will create potential to enjoy the game; hence, people may well watch the game. Therefore, those who study media and work in the media industry should make every effort to understand what stimuli television viewers or fans find pleasurable.

Gantz, Wang, Paul, and Potter (2006) said that sports fans are significantly different from other fans because sports fans usually enjoy preparing for the game beforehand and prolong their excitement after the game. Eastman and Riggs (1994) found that devoted sports fans ritualize televised sports: "Some fans seem to blame themselves when their favorite team loses, even

when they only watched an event on television” (p. 249). These devoted fans wear the same uniform and caps as their favorite team when they watch the game on TV in an effort to help the team win. In addition, sports fans habitually root for their affiliated team and have favorite players (Bryant & Raney, 2000). The concept of a protagonist and antagonist, which is after considered a pre-requisite for generating audience enjoyment, clearly exists in sports.

Similarly, Zillmann and Bryant (1994), who developed selective exposure theory along with disposition theory, claimed that the dispositional mechanism of enjoyment is most obvious in sports content. The dispositional mechanism of enjoyment in sports creates pleasant feelings for fans when they witness their favorite team performing well and winning. On the other hand, sports fans experience disappointment if not grief when their team loses. Many cannot watch sports report on television news or listen to radio sports talk shows after their favorite team loses to a big rival. They may want to avoid even glancing at a newspaper that features a picture of opposing team’s celebrating victory on the front page at a newspaper stand. When an opposing team scores a winning touchdown in a football game or a winning buzzer beater in basketball, home fans can be left stunned and speechless. In that specific moment, the faces of home fans may express extreme dysphoria. This is an example of the negative side of excitement. Sports fans should be willing to enjoy positive feelings after the game; however, sometimes they have to experience heartbreak and sadness because of their team’s loss.

Oliver (2003) argued that negative affect might not always be considered as negative, such as when people choose to watch a sad movie or tragic opera. Sometimes people seek negatives hedonically valenced experiences in appropriate ways; for example, at a funeral, people expect to be sad (Erber & Erber, 2000). Martin and Davies (1998) suggested that people seek positive outcomes instead of positive mood. Zillmann (2000) suggested that there are two

types of hedonism: spontaneous hedonism and telic hedonism. People typically seek spontaneous hedonism, which represents immediate and affective excitement or enjoyment, but sometimes people choose to experience telic hedonism, which is enjoyment that ultimately comes only after some negative hedonic valence, such as witnessing a protagonist's overcoming difficulties.

Oliver (1993) insisted that people recognize their emotion and react to some mediated stimuli cognitively rather than affectively (meta-emotion). These explanations about exposure to content that generates negative emotion are very reasonable and have been empirically tested. However, sports content is somewhat different and may not be understandable through these explanations.

The most noticeable difference in sports content compared with other media entertainment is the uncertainty associated with real-time viewing and unscripted outcomes. Mullin, Hardy, and Sutton (2000) quoted Fox Sports President David Hill: "If there's one great thing about sports, it's that it's unscripted. . . . Sports is the last frontier of reality in television" (p. 117). When people choose to watch a sad television program or horror movie, they know the content will make them sad or scared. However, when people watch sports, they really do not know what to expect. In this case, to know what they expect, an economical approach would be more effective. Oliver and Winer (1988) found that consumers often deal with uncertainty when they purchase products. In this case, buyers have to rationally predict what they might get from purchasing certain products. When their *expectations* run into disconfirmation (i.e., performance of product is better than they expected or worse than they expected), expectations influence their satisfaction either positively or negatively.

Entertainment theorists have discussed expectations in a similar way. Raney (2006) stated that "fans of certain genres of programming seek out those contents because of their presumed cognitive benefits" (p. 314). According to affect-dependent theory (Zillmann & Bryant, 1985),

people choose media content to manage their mood. Expectations have always been embedded in entertainment theory due to the fact that people might not know exactly what the outcome of exposing themselves to certain media content would be like. In other words, people choose a certain media content because they expect to be able to manage their mood, not because they actually know the media content would create pleasant feelings. However, these types of expectations have only been speculated about and none not empirically tested. The purpose of this study is to expand entertainment theory by including expectation in the process of the dispositional mechanics of enjoyment. Empirical tests will be conducted to determine the relationship between expectation and enjoyment. Sports contents will be utilized, because it is the most obvious tool to explain dispositional mechanism of enjoyment (Zillmann & Bryant, 1994). In addition, the unknowable outcomes of sporting events obviously create uncertainty, which Oliver and Winer (1988) suggested as one of the dimensions of expectation that influence satisfaction.

Before explaining methods and research design, I will begin with an overall review of how the media influence sports and a discussion of how expectations in economics and marketing research can be integrated into the continuing development of disposition theory.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Media, Marketing, and Sports

Sports fans often have been investigated from a marketing point of view. Creating fanship is one of the most vital considerations of sports marketers, who are concerned about increasing attendance and creating more loyal fans. Loyal fans usually remain fans even when their team does not perform well. They enjoy attending games as well as purchasing team merchandise (Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2002; Neale & Funk, 2006). Marketers have realized the importance of creating fanship and developed a variety of strategies to increase the numbers of fans and enhance their level of fanship; however, systematic research about whether the strategies are effective has been rare.

Recently, most sports marketing research has focused on the motivation of people to be fans and attend games. Win-loss records, ticket prices, star players, the impact of mass media, and socio-demographic factors have been investigated and used in creating marketing strategies (Dick & Sack, 2003). For example, Rivers and DeSchrive (2002) analyzed relationships between multiple factors and attendance at Major League Baseball games. Some notable findings were that household income is inversely correlated with attendance, and that the number of playoff appearances in recent years and upgrading facilities were positively correlated with attendance. The number of star players was not very significantly related with attendance. In other words, teams with equally distributed salary across players were found to draw higher attendance rate than the teams with a few star players who receive higher salary. Neale and Funk

(2006) revealed important factors affecting attendance at Australian Football League games. They also found that player interest was negatively related with attendance and attitudinal loyalty toward teams, which possibly means that people are more interested in their favorite team itself than in specific star players. Team interest was strongly positively related with attendance and loyalty. Neale and Funk, furthermore, found that drama and entertainment factors were significantly related with attendance and loyalty. Researchers in sports marketing have also made an effort to know what motivates people to come to games and become fans.

Sports fans' identification with their favorite team and players was first explained by Kagan (1958), who argued that sports fans identify themselves with their favorite sports teams and respond emotionally against rivals. This perspective helped launch research on sports team identification. Sometime later, scholars interested in sports fans identity adopted the concept of social categorization introduced by Tajfel (1974). Tajfel insisted that mere awareness of being in one group is sufficient to build intergroup discrimination against other groups. In particular, people's motivation for positive social identity produces "a drive for in-group superiority as the sequence of social categorization-social identity-social comparison-positive in-group distinctiveness" (Turner, 1999, p. 8).

Social identity theory further describes team identification, defined as "the extent to which a fan feels a psychological connection to a team and the team's performances are viewed as self-relevant" (Wann, 2006, p. 332). James, Kolbe, and Trail (2002) explained team loyalty as a psychological connection to a team. Kwon and Trail (2003) further defined team identification as a social identity that a group of people have in common in relation to their favorite sport team. Mahony (1995) said team identification is a degree of how much a fan defines himself or herself by the same attribute that defines the sport team. Sports team identification, especially, has

attracted many scholars in communication in recent days, which made sports identity prominent enough to publish a book *Examining Identity in Sports Media* (Hundley & Billings, 2009), dealing with various identity groups, such as gender, race, national identity, and self- and social identities, shaped by sports media.

Based on these explanations of sports team identification, Wann and Brascombe (1993) formed and developed the Sports Spectatorship Identification Scale (SSIS). This instrument is made up of seven questions and has been found to have high validity and reliability. It includes three causes that create team identification: individuals' desires for unity and cohesion with others, their desires to have the team identification by distinguishing the in-group members from out-group members, and environmental factors such as friends, family, and proximity to the team (Wann, 2006). Mahony, Madrigal, and Howard (2000) created the Psychological Commitment to Team (PCT) Scale, which measures individual commitment to a team. Wann and Pierce (2003) compared the two scales and found that the SSIS and PCT were highly correlated and that both predicted fan behavior very well, although the SSIS was found to be a little stronger predictor than the PCT in terms of general sports spectatorship measurement. In this manner, team identification has been considered as a predictor for attending games, purchasing team-related goods (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Greenwood, 2001; Mahony et al., 2000; Wann, Roberts, & Tindall, 1999), and exposure to sports media (Fisher, 1998).

Raney (2006) suggested three motivations for mediated sports consumption: emotional, cognitive, behavioral, and social. According to Raney, team allegiance is influenced by family, friends, team color, and perceived popularity among the masses allegiance is what makes people enjoy a game. Because people have their affiliated team, they are thrilled at that team's victory (Gantz, 1981). Eustress motivation is another type of emotional motivation; the arousal and

excitement experienced during viewing are the reason that people tune into televised sports games (Raney, 2006). Related to team identification theory, the third emotional motivation is to enhance self-esteem. As social identity theory indicated (Turner, 1989), viewers have intentions to strengthen positive in-group distinctiveness. Self-confidence that comes from watching the favored team's win is a crucial emotional motivation (Raney, 2006). Lastly, sports fans watch televised sports just to escape from the stress of daily life. Smith (1988) said people might take a risk of gaining stress while they watch televised sports games, but the relief of gaining a respite by watching is stronger than the stress.

Cognitive motivation includes learning and aesthetic motivation. Learning motivation is closely related with societal function; that is, people would like to learn players, teams, and sports for their own sake in order to have a topic of conversation with their friends. This motivation is observed in female sports fans (Raney, 2006). Aesthetic motivation is a type of cognitive motivation because of its evaluative nature. Some sports, such as gymnastics, figure skating, diving, and so on, are mostly evaluated by aesthetic criteria. In addition, some plays in non-stylistic sports, such as a basketball player's 360 degree slam dunk, an over-head kick in soccer, or a baseball player's dive to catch the ball, draw sports fans with their novelty and aesthetic value. In particular, it has been found that women evaluate sports as elegant and aesthetic rather than as violent or dangerous (Bryant, Comisky, & Zillmann, 1981; Zillmann, 1995).

Finally, behavioral and social motivations include cathartic motivation, intention to have social integration, intention to have a group affiliation, family, and economics. Raney (2006) called it release motivation. Gantz (1981) reported that sports fans applaud, shout, yell, and even express anger while they watch televised sports games. According to Raney, these expressions

might enable viewers to let loose and relieve stress, which has not been tested empirically, however. In addition, sports programming allows people to interact with others whether they know each other or not. Woo, An, and Cho (2008) analyzed message boards on Major League Baseball (MLB) teams' websites and found that many sports fans tried to interact with other people. For example, they tried to make a fantasy sports league and share opinions with others. Furthermore, Smith (1988) argued that sports can help building up the community, promoting the integration of schools, communities, cities, and even nations. Family gathering is another social motivation for mediated sports games. Lastly, Raney suggested that sports programming provides something to do with family members and that some sports fans watch games because of economical reasons such as gambling.

Wann (2006) suggested more general motivations for sports spectators, while Raney (2006) introduced motivations specifically for mediated sports spectators. Their lists of motivations overlap somewhat because media play an important role in enhancing sports spectatorship (Bryant & Raney, 2000). The more than 200 million in live attendances at college and professional football games in the US would be small compared with the size of audiences for televised sports games.

Sports and Media

According to Nielsen Media Research (2007), 93.2 million viewers (42.6% of American homes) watched the Super Bowl XLI game, which was 2007's most-watched television broadcast. According to this measure, more than four out of ten American households fixed on the same telecasted program at the same time. In 2008, the Super Bowl attracted even more viewers, achieving a 43.7% rating, which is the second largest in television history (Bauder,

2008). Furthermore, Super Bowl officials revealed that they would sell air time for about \$3 million for 30 seconds in 2009 (McKay & Vranica, 2008).

Ironically, the sports industry did not welcome television when it was first introduced (Bryant & Holt, 2006; Dunnivant, 2004). Major League Baseball (MLB) attendance declined from 19 percent to 13.7 percent from 1949 to 1950. In college football, there were sizable declines in football ticket sales all across the country after games were shown on television (Dunnivant, 2004). After banning televised games, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) finally signed a television contract worth \$1.14 million in 1951. Now, however, certain college football conference teams, such as those of the Southeastern Conference (SEC), average more than 80,000 fans per game in their attendance and make more than \$70 million per year from the league's television contracts. In spite of initial doubts, television made more people interested in sports, which ultimately doubled and tripled sports revenue.

Considering that media can enhance sports spectatorship, understanding motivation, to watch televised sports is very important to sports marketers. The concept of expectations has been well discussed in the body of economics literature, and it should also be discussed in the context of sports media consumption. By making use of selective exposure theory and an explanation of the dispositional mechanics of enjoyment, this study will have implications for sports media producers as well as sports organizations, since both seek target audiences—the fans.

Expectations

Concepts of Expectations

Thinking about consumers, scholars in marketing have pointed out that expectation is a pivotal factor in consumer satisfaction (Meyer, 1981; Oliver & Winer, 1987). Furthermore,

expectation has been considered in various academic genres such as psychology, economics, and behavioral decision theories (Oliver & Winer). Sheffrin (1996) introduced the idea of “rational expectation,” which implies an interaction between expectations and reality. Muth (1961), an economist, considered expectations as informed predictions of future events that he called *rational*. This concept of rational expectation is similar to the concept of *active* expectation developed by psychologists Kahneman and Tversky (1982). According to them, expectation comes before the event and may lead to surprise. Kahneman and Tversky further suggested a second kind of expectations: *passive* expectations. Active expectation is cognitively formed, requiring the consumer’s consciousness and falling into the class of predictions. Passive expectation occurs automatically and is permanent and primed; for example, people expect windows to be rectangular or that a red traffic signal will follow a yellow signal. Passive expectation is not salient unless it is disconfirmed.

Expectations and Satisfaction

Because satisfaction is a major outcome of marketing activity, researchers have linked expectation to consumer satisfaction since the 1970s (Churchill & Surprenant, 1982). Howard and Sheth (1969) hypothesized that anticipated satisfaction formed by pre-purchase experience would affect post-purchase attitude toward a brand. This idea intrigued other researchers to design consumer satisfaction studies with similar lab experiment settings (e.g., Anderson, 1973; Cardozo, 1965; Cohen & Goldberg, 1970; Olshavsky & Miller, 1972; Olson & Dover, 1969). Cardozo said the relationship between expectation and consumer satisfaction is more complex than in the expectation disconfirmation model. He included an effort factor; that is, people are satisfied when they get what they expected from a product, but they can still be pleased with a product that does not quite match their expectation level if they make a high level of effort. For

example, someone who has tried to find the right car for a long time would express a higher level of satisfaction when he or she finally makes a purchase even though the car is of lower quality than expected.

Anderson (1973) found that at a certain point, consumers realized a disparity between expectation and actual product performance. In this case, expectation generated dissatisfaction. This experience of dissatisfaction was termed *disconfirmation* in the 1970s. In other words, people feel uncomfortable when they get a poorer performance than expected from their products, so their satisfaction is lower. Oliver (1977) borrowed cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) and assimilation theory (Sherif & Hovland, 1961) to explain why disconfirmation occurred and also introduced contrast theory (Sherif & Hovland, 1961), which elaborated that outcomes deviating from expectations would generate favorable or unfavorable reactions. Namely, while the assimilation model along with cognitive dissonance theory explains how product performance perception generates disconfirmation, the contrast model predicts how disconfirmation influences consumer's evaluations of product performance. Expectation disconfirmation, or disparity of expectation, thus significantly affects consumer satisfaction. Oliver (1980) concluded that higher level of expectation drew lower satisfaction for a certain performance. Researchers then suggested some varied ways of thinking about expectations considering disconfirmation as *a* factor, not *the only* factor (e.g., Cadotte, Woodruff, & Jenkins, 1987; Churchill & Surprenant, 1982; Tse & Wilton, 1987; Woodruff, Cadotte, & Jenkins, 1983). Churchill and Surprenant included performance in an experiment. In their study, a certain product (a video disc player) affected consumer satisfaction with its performance rather than the consumer's expectation. Their point was that disconfirmation was not the only antecedent to determine satisfaction. Woodruff et al. and Cadotte et al. suggested social norms as a factor in

individuals' development of certain standards that ultimately create an expectation and influence consumer satisfaction. Tse and Wilton supported the Churchill and Surprenant model, which included performance with expectation, and found that both expectation-disconfirmation and perceived performance had an influence on consumer satisfaction. Kopalle and Lehmann (2001) included personality in their expectation-disconfirmation research setting. A disconfirmation-sensitive person, who is more likely to compare prior expectation and product performance, manages his or her expectation when purchasing a certain product to minimize the level of disconfirmation. Perfectionists are more likely to experience disconfirmation; in other words, they could endure disconfirmation and so have a higher expectation about products and are more realistic. Discussions about expectation-disconfirmation generated from communication theory have been subject to controversy about whether expectation has a bigger effect on satisfaction or is only a small part of satisfaction. Nevertheless, expectation has been considered as an important factor in consumer satisfaction and has often been investigated.

Types of Expectations

Boulding, Kalra, Staelin, and Zeithaml (1993) suggested two main standards of expectations: *prediction* of future events (also called *will expectation*) and *normative* expectation of future events (also called *should expectation*). They argued that expectation was often equated with prediction in expectation-disconfirmation research. Consumers have a great deal of information from which to form their expectation, or in this case, prediction-as-expectation, including word of mouth, prior experience, publicity, and so on. Prior exposure to other similar products would also be considered as possible information (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996). By contrast, Boulding et al. said that *should expectation*, which they also called *ideal expectation*, would not be changed by the performance of the product or its competitors. This

argument is very similar to the concepts of active expectations and passive expectations explained by Kahneman and Tversky (1982). Despite the controversies, Oliver (1997) emphasized the effect of expectation-disconfirmation on consumer satisfaction. In particular, his argument included behavioral decisions based on expectation and people's intention to avoid dissonance. Consumers would decrease their dissonance to enhance confidence in their purchase decisions. Expectations are central to satisfaction, because they provide consumers with a standard for later judgment of product performance. Oliver then questioned whether satisfaction is an emotion, suggesting a dimensional model of emotion and placing satisfaction slightly higher than enjoyment. Other researchers also suggested placing satisfaction in the dimension of arousal; however, placement of satisfaction has been diverse (e.g., Havlena, Holbrook, & Lehmann, 1989; Mano, 1991; Russell, 1980; Watson & Tellegen, 1985). Considering the behavioral aspect of expectation research, Oliver and Winer (1987) also introduced *expectancy-value theory*, which is heavily adapted from information processing models, such as the *theory of reasoned action* (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

Expectancy-Value Theory

Oliver and Winer (1987) suggested expectancy-value theory based on the theories of Tolman (1932), who conducted empirical studies of expectation with animals. Tolman found that memories (mnemonics) of actual experience, perceptions of current stimuli, and inferences from other experiences, such as trials on other stimuli, would form an expectation. These findings are also strongly related to selective exposure theory, which is based on the assumption of instinctive selection of stimuli. Tolman's findings are also suited to consumer behavior, because consumers also behave based on their prior experience, perception of social and environmental stimuli, and trials with other similar products.

The expectancy-value theory or model represents “the relationship of actions to expectations, where these expectations encompass beliefs about the implications of behavior, and where an important set of these implications consists of consequences that have positive or negative perceived value” (Feather, 1982, p. 1). Rosenberg (1956), one of the early researchers who investigated attitude based on expectancy-value theory, found that people have more positive attitudes toward a certain object when the object has a positively valued state or blocks a negatively valued state. That is, beliefs about the value of an object generate a person’s attitude toward the object. Fishbein (1965) said “an individual’s attitude toward any object is a function of (1) the strength of his beliefs about the object and (2) the evaluative aspect of those beliefs” (p. 117). Furthermore, Feather suggested that expectations can even go into a behavioral outcome, and that expectation of success would cause success or failure. In other words, people would try very hard to succeed at a certain task if they expect to be successful at the task; in contrast, people would not try at all if they expect there would be a very small chance of success.

Rokeach (1973, 1979) suggested social institution and human value as antecedents of expectations. Rokeach (1979) said human values such as ethics and morals suggest a set of standards that guide people to make an effort to fulfill their needs. These human values ultimately allow people to maintain and enhance their self-esteem by achieving goals. In the same thread, modern expectancy-value theorists mostly adopted Atkinson’s (1964) model, which emphasized achievement performance, persistence, and choice (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). For example, Weiner’s (1985) *attribution theory* was influenced by Atkinson, and his theory emphasized achievement outcome. According to Weiner, individuals analyze their achievements to determine how they were accomplished, which he called attribution; this attribution leads to subsequent achievement strings. As a result, attributions for achievement outcome become key

motivational beliefs. Eccles (1987) chiefly concentrated on choice; that is, positive or negative interpretation of a certain task influences task choice. Choice always requires cost, because one choice would eliminate other choices. Expectancies and values are influenced by perceptions of competence, the difficulty of different tasks, and individual goals and self-schemata (Eccles & Wigfield). Wigfield and Eccles (2001) also tried to integrate the notion of self-regulation into the expectancy-value model. Bandura (1997) suggested self-efficacy in relation to expectancies for success: people have expectancies about successful outcomes, but not everyone thinks he or she could perform successfully. This represents an expectancy of self-efficacy. Furthermore, there are self-regulated learners who think they can achieve a goal efficaciously and set numerous goals to achieve (Zimmerman, 2000). Self-regulated learners put the most importance on achieving the goal; however, they also think about values, such as if a goal is important to them (Eccles & Wigfield, 2001).

In the literature, people's beliefs and attitudes toward an object are linked. Past expectancy-value research has mainly utilized open-ended questions and focus groups to figure out beliefs or values toward certain object (Cooper, Burgoon, & Roter, 2001). Cooper et al. used 22 beliefs about a health-related news story and measured the influence of beliefs on people's attitude toward the news story. Their experiment revealed that salient beliefs toward a health-related news story were strongly correlated with positive attitudes toward the story containing those salient beliefs in its plot. Kempf and Laczniak (2001) used brand belief, belief confidence, and attribute evaluation as their expectancy-value measure and found that trying a beverage fostered expectancy-value more than did advertising. In addition, trial and advertising together powerfully enhanced expectancy-value and ultimately entailed higher purchase intention. Expectancy-value especially directly influenced the behavioral decision-making. Sabiston and

Crocker (2008) found that competence and belief about physical activity helped adolescents participate in physical activity. Values about HIV/AIDS led teachers in Cape Town, South Africa, to implement appropriate education programs about preventing HIV/AIDS (Matthews, Boon, Flisher, & Schaalma, 2006).

Considering that expectancy-value theory emphasizes the beliefs and values of individuals, it would be related more strongly with passive expectation, or should expectation, than active expectation, or will expectation. In terms of media enjoyment during media exposure, expectations might be embedded in the process to generate enjoyment as an unconscious phenomenon. When people choose media content they would like to be exposed to, expectations would be active consciously because they are still able to choose what they want before they are actually exposed to any content. Entertainment theorists have struggled with figuring out media consumers' selectivity and the main purpose of media exposure: enjoyment.

Entertainment Theory

Every culture creates and consumes certain forms of entertainment. Bryant and Miron (2002) said, "The primary purpose of the preponderance of today's electronic media messages is entertainment" (p. 549).

Selective Exposure: The Fundamental Assumption

The type of entertainment theory developed by Zillmann and Bryant (1985) begins with selective exposure theory or affect-dependent theory of stimulus arrangement. Bryant and Davies (2006) found a historical root for selective exposure research in the propaganda study by Cooper and Jahoda (1947). Cooper and Jahoda conducted a study of propaganda using a cartoon, Mr. Biggott. The cartoon was interpreted differently by prejudiced individuals and non-prejudiced individuals. Their findings also influenced Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory.

Klapper (1960) adopted Festinger's assumption that people seek information that fits with their beliefs and avoids discordant information. Klapper argued that people pay attention selectively (*selective attention*), perceive information as they want (*selective perception*), and remember what they want to remember (*selective retention*). Selective exposure research rooted in these propaganda studies influenced mass media research and ignited new ways of studying media, especially when Katz (1968) claimed that the mass communication research trend had changed from studying how the media influences people to how people use the media (Bryant & Davies, 2006). Bryant and Davies elucidated that the shift also represented the beginning of focusing on emotional antecedents of media use.

Zillmann and Bryant (1985) considered selective exposure an instinctive activity stemming from when people lived in caves. Their sensory organs were created to control the selection of information by focusing on certain information utilizing limited capacities and processing the information in particular ways. Here, both focusing and processing the information imply selection. Early human beings needed to be sensitive to the sounds of animals. They selectively accepted and reduced information to survive; that is, exposures were closely related with their survival from an external threat. However, after they could control the environmental threat, some form of communicative activity continued to develop. Those communicative activities were represented by rituals, which also served to sustain social structure and one's welfare after death. Entertainment was generated by those rites because they also caused amusement and joyous enlightenment (Bryant & Miron, 2002). Here, it is the human beings' fundamental emotion of pleasure seeking, which has led people's to producing and enjoying entertainment. Bryant and Miron (2002) explained this psychological mechanism of pleasure seeking:

Nerve fibers serving pleasure seeking are inextricably interwoven with fibers that control psychological functions that are indispensable for individual and species survival, such as heartbeats, breathing, blood pressures, and sexual excitation. (p. 555)

According to Miron (2006), this explanation represents the limbic system's coordination of the basic survival function by rewarding pleasure. Activities that were rewarded with pleasure have been sustained, and activities that were punished with displeasure have been discouraged. As a result, people use all five senses to minimize discomfort and maximize pleasure.

Zillmann and Bryant (1985) claimed, "Selective exposure, instead, designates behavior that is deliberately performed to attain and sustain perceptual control of particular stimulus events" (p. 2). This instinctive activity parallels the selective activity of the autonomic system, which minimizes resource deployment and supports emergency activities. That discomfort is minimized and pleasure is gained is a fundamental proposition of selective exposure theory. People want to maximize their exposure to pleasant stimuli and minimize their exposure to unpleasant stimuli. This phenomenon is even more obvious amid an unstoppable flood of information from the new media technologies. Bryant and Davies (2006) described the blossoming media industry as "an overstocked Myriad Media Sea" (p. 19). More than 500 channels of television, satellite radio, 24-screen multiplexes, and 24-hour DVD rental stores provide more and more choices to media consumers. Ironically, this so-called Sovereign Consumer, an archetype of the twentieth century portion of the early information age, is overwhelmed by excessive media choices. In this myriad media sea, so-called Overwhelmed Consumers place themselves in niches, and so does the media industry. In particular, what audiences would like to obtain from mediated entertainment is an experience that induces arousal

(Zillmann, 1991). Zillmann (1991) also proposed a model of disposition that represents a mechanism of creating arousal from media consumers while they are watching a drama.

Disposition Theory in Sports

Raney (2002) described the effect of moral judgment in television crime dramas and insisted that moral judgment is a key factor to increasing enjoyment, because it creates likes and dislikes for certain characters, which, in turn, enhances enjoyment. Raney (2004) later termed this an expanded disposition theory. Raney (2002) explained the mechanism of disposition in drama: “Once characters are liked, we are able to empathize with their plights and hope for their triumph over them. In fact, the stronger the positive feelings, the stronger our empathic reaction” (p. 351). Vorderer, Knobloch, and Schramm (2001) also found that when people watched movies, empathy toward protagonists was a very strong predictor for increasing enjoyment.

In sports, there is no “protagonist” as it is classically defined. Team identification is usually already formed when people watch sports games. However, it can be assumed that team identification works like moral judgment when people watch sports. When people watch a game, their team or player is always the protagonist, whereas opposings, of course, are antagonists. Raney (2006) explicated the disposition theory of sports spectatorship: “The theory holds that fanship allegiance with a team or player forms along a familiar continuum of affect from intense liking through indifference to intense disliking” (p. 143). Disposition is the mechanism that entails enjoyment of sports. Earlier, Zillmann, Bryant, and Sapolsky (1979) had made two propositions of disposition theory in sports:

1. Enjoyment derived from witnessing the success and victory of a competing party increases with positive sentiments and decreases with negative sentiments toward that party.

2. Enjoyment derived from witnessing the failure and defeat of a competing party increases with negative sentiments and decreases with positive sentiments toward that party. (p. 312)

These two propositions yield a safe assumption that winning increases enjoyment. Bryant and Raney (2000) also tried to discover factors increasing enjoyment in sports, stating, “The magic formula would appear to be: Always win; constantly find new ways to do so” (p. 168).

Zillmann et al. (1979) conducted an experiment to measure dispositional factors. They showed an American football game to university students. Participants disclosed their disposition toward the two teams (negative, neutral, positive) before they watched the game and rated their enjoyment during the game. Disposition theory was supported as the participants rated a high level of enjoyment when the team they liked ran successful offensive plays. On the other hand, successful offensive plays by the disliked team reduced the level of enjoyment. Sapolsky (1980) also conducted an experiment with a basketball game between an all-White and an all-Black team. Results showed that 89.6% of Black respondents rated higher enjoyment of an all-Black team’s successful offense. Although White respondents did not rate their enjoyment in the same way (only 45.7% of them rated high enjoyment toward an all-White team’s successful offense), the findings supported the hypothesis that there is an ethnic aspect of disposition theory.

Zillmann et al. (1979) also conducted an experiment of disposition theory in an Olympic basketball game and articulated the effect of social bond in sports enjoyment. Research was conducted at Indiana University (IU) and participants rated higher enjoyment when players from IU scored than when other American players scored. Recently, Woo and Kim (2008) also examined dispositional factors with a college football game; their findings supported prior findings by Zillmann et al. These experiments support the existence of a dispositional

mechanism in sports, but enjoyment cannot be generated if people are not exposed to a sports game itself.

Studies of commentaries on sporting events also contain evidence of dispositional mechanics of enjoyment and include direct effects on the audience's excitement toward sports games in mediated spectatorship environments. As early as 1977, Bryant and his colleagues started analyzing sports commentaries (e.g., Bryant, Brown, Comisky, & Zillmann, 1982; Bryant, Comisky, & Zillmann, 1977; Comisky, Bryant, & Zillmann, 1977). They were interested in the "Super Spectator," who had rather escaped the notice of social and behavioral scientists (Bryant et al., 1977). Their first systematic study on sports commentaries was of football telecasts among three national broadcasting networks, ABC, NBC, and CBS. Their analysis revealed that commentators actively create dramatic comments. This finding yielded a statement that sports commentators not only fill a gap between the actual game and the audience, but also strengthen the "human drama of athletic competition" (Bryant et al., 1977, p. 149). Comisky et al. (1977) used ice hockey games, which contained various levels of violent plays. Participants watched the televised ice hockey game with commentary or without. Comisky et al. found that participants did not perceive rougher play with or without commentary as more intense or violent than normal play with the commentary stressing rough action. Further, Bryant et al. (1982) set the experimental situation more rigorously by manipulating the commentary on a tennis match. In the first version of the match, the commentator described the two players as best friends. In the second version, the players were introduced as bitter enemies. The third version did not include any affective relationship between the two players. Participants recorded greater enjoyment on the second version of comments in which the players were combatants. Early investigations by

Bryant and his colleagues supported the argument that commentators play pivotal roles in generating enjoyment of audiences.

In addition to experimental analyses of commentary, Billings and his colleagues have investigated stereotyping in sports commentary (e.g., Billings, Angelini, & Eastman, 2008; Billings & Eastman, 2002, 2003; Billings, Halone, & Denham, 2002; Denham, Billings, & Halone, 2002; Eastman & Billings, 1999, 2001). Their studies have revealed that the content of commentaries is different depending on the gender, race, and nationality of the players. Descriptions of male players often focus on physicality and athleticism, whereas positive consonance, attractiveness, and background are the main focuses of descriptions of female players (Billings et al., 2002; Eastman & Billings, 1999). Billings et al. (2002) also found racial stereotyping among commentators. White athletes are often praised for their leadership and intelligence, whereas African-American athletes are praised for their physical ability and athleticism. More recently, Billings et al. (2008) studied commentary about Michelle Wie, who is unique as a young Asian female professional golfer. They found that Wie was often framed differently from other female players as well as differently from male players. Her ethnicity and relatively young age were highlighted. Billings et al. (2008) concluded that identities, including gender, ethnicity, and age, all alter the discourse of sports commentaries. Billings and Eastman (2002) suggested sports broadcasters should pursue equity in sports coverage, but at the same time, studies by Billings and his colleagues provide evidence of commentators' efforts to create and emphasize identities of sports teams and players, which is a core value of dispositional mechanics of generating enjoyment.

Excitation Transfer and Suspense in Sports

Recently, scholars have followed the traditions of experimental sports spectatorship studies established and encouraged by Zillmann and his colleagues (1977). One of the foci of recent work is the influence that suspense has upon the spectators of a game (e.g., Gan et al., 1997; Knobloch-Westerwick et al., 2008; Peterson & Raney, 2008). One of the reasons for the increased interest in suspense is that it is one of the factors for generating enjoyment (Zillmann, 1978). According to the *three-factor theory* as applied to drama, this includes the proposition that audience dispositions toward characters can be changed during a drama because of increased uncertainty, which would elicit higher arousal. Bryant and Davies (2006) also stated that conflict is one of the ingredients that produce excitement. For instance, when people watch unpleasant scenes on television, they feel distress, but when the outcome of the unpleasant scenes is pleasant, distress becomes pleasure.

Knobloch-Westerwick, David, Eastin, Tamborini, and Greenwood (2008) examined suspense in the dispositional model of enjoyment in sports. They used the Internet to connect with participants during a live televised game between Ohio State University (OSU) and University of Michigan (UM) game and asked about their enjoyment level. They found that participants who identified themselves as OSU or UM fans felt more suspense. In addition, suspense became more intense when there was certainty of the affiliated team losing the game. Knobloch-Westerwick et al. said, “sports viewing can be considered a risky entertainment choice in that this genre does not present meticulously scripted plots” (p. 7). According to excitation transfer theory, the residue of excitation from distressed or threatening stimuli is transformed to greater euphoric experience through the dissolving of the distressing or threatening circumstances (Bryant & Miron, 2002). In this vein, Zillmann et al. (1979) found that risky and

brave plays attracted spectators more than did risk-free and safe plays. Woo and Kim (2008) supported these findings and further found that risky plays generally made people enjoy the game more, regardless of which team made the risky play. Sapolsky (1980) found that a favored team's victory after a close and tense game is more enjoyable than a lopsided and early-decided victory. Bryant, Rockwell, and Owens (1994) also found that a win from a last minute field goal resulted in a stronger level of enjoyment than a win decided early in the game.

Gan et al. (1997) conducted an experimental study using final scores as a suspense factor. Their results indicated that the smaller the gap between scores, the more participants perceived the game as suspenseful. In terms of relationship between suspense and enjoyment, male participants felt the game was more enjoyable with greater levels of suspense, while female participants reported the game to be less enjoyable when the suspense level was high. Peterson and Raney (2008) defined the suspense level as the sum of score gap changes between two teams during the game and stated that suspense level can predict a participant's level of enjoyment during the game. Their results suggested that uncertainty during the sports game increased the level of enjoyment. In addition, nip-and-tuck plays and back-and-forth during the game strengthen the level of suspense and therefore enhance the level of enjoyment. Knobloch-Westerwick et al. (2008) further found that participants showed both positive and negative affects when the game was close, regardless of whether their team was leading or lagging behind. Considering Eccles' (1987) statement that a choice always requires costs, this statement by Knobloch-Westerwick et al. also implies that sports spectators endure a risky choice because they expect to have greater pleasure.

Table 1.

Summary of Literature Review: Sports Enjoyment and Expectations

Antecedent	Study	Outcome	Contents
Team Identification	Rivers and DeSchriver (2002)	Attendance	- Multiple factors of sports fans
	Fink et al. (2002); Neale & Funk (2006)	Purchasing team-related products	- Household income is negatively correlated with attendance - Team identification and purchasing intention are Positively correlated.
	Funk (2006)	Attendance	- Team identification towards a specific player decreases the attendance.
	Fisher & Wakefield (1998); Greenwood (2001); Mahony et al. (2000); Wann et al. (1999)	Attendance & purchasing team-related products	- Team identification is positively correlated with attendance as well as purchasing intention for team-related products.
Disposition	Bryant et al. (1982); Bryant et al. (1977); Comisky et al. (1977); Raney (2002); Voderer et al. (2001); Woo &	Affective Response	- Hope for protagonist's triumph brings about stronger affective response (pleasure).

	Kim (2008); Zillmann et al. (1979)		
Suspense	Bryant et al. (1994); Gan et al. (1997); Knobloch- Westerwick et al. (2008); Peterson & Raney (2009); Sapolsky (1980); Zillmann et al. (1979)	Affective Response	- Risky and noble plays enhances the level of affective response (pleasure). - Suspense level strengthens the level of affective response.
Expectations	Churchill & Surprenant (1982); Howard & Sheth (1969) Cardozo (1965)	Satisfaction Satisfaction	- Anticipated satisfaction would affect post-purchase attitude. - Higher satisfaction comes from an expected quality of products. - Higher level of effort leads higher level of satisfaction after purchasing a product.
	Oliver (1977); Oliver & Winer	Satisfaction	- High expectation generally draws lower satisfaction (expectation

(1987)		disconfirmation)
Feather (1982)	Behavior	- Expectation encompasses beliefs about the implications of behavior, whether it is positive or negative.
Rosenberg (1956)	Attitude change	- Expectancy-value of an object generate a person's attitude toward the object.
Cooper et al. (2001); Rokeach (1973, 1979)	Self-esteem	- Social institution and human value maintain and enhance self-esteem.
Kempf & Laczniak (2001)	Purchase intention	- Advertising enhances brand belief, belief confidence, and attribute evaluation as their expectancy-value and entails higher purchase intention.
Bandura (1997); Eccles & Wigfield (2002); Matthews et al. (2008); Wigfield & Eccles (2001); Zimmerman (2000)	Achievement	- Self-efficacy enhances the chance of achieving one's goal. - Competence and belief about the object leads one's successful achievement of goals.

Expectations in Entertainment Theory: Model Development

Table 1 is a summary of literature about sports enjoyment and the relationship between expectation and satisfaction. The main purpose of this study is implementing the expectation found in literature into the disposition model in sports suggested by Zillmann et al. (1979).

Bandura (2001) said that people are likely to produce a desired outcome, which cannot be tangible before it occurs. However, in the present, a cognitively created future plays a role as a motivator and regulator of current behavior. Zillmann (1991) defined expectation as *hoping for positive outcome* and apprehension as *fearing negative outcome*. In Zillmann's model of disposition, expectation and apprehension are directed to generate enjoyment of media. Marketing studies, however, have empirically demonstrated that expectation leads to satisfaction and ends with a post-purchase behavior. In a similar manner, Nabi and Krcmar (2004) considered enjoyment as attitude. Enjoyment-as-attitude influences behavior before and during viewing. When people decide what to watch, or if they continue to watch, enjoyment-as-attitude cognitively and affectively influences a behavior. In a selective exposure setting, especially, the act of media choice is equated with enjoyment. Therefore, there is a chance to integrate expectation into the disposition model. Miron (2006) also said that human-defining cortical functions are specialized in three areas, which include anticipation along with learning and planning. In disposition theory, people need to hope for a positive outcome and fear for a negative outcome for the protagonist to produce optimal levels of empathy toward the protagonist and ultimately derive enjoyment (Zillmann, 1991). If this is the affective side of behavior, expectation could work as the cognitive side of behavior. According to Nabi and Krcmar, the cognitive part of media enjoyment has been investigated. For example, studies have been conducted in which media enjoyment is found to highly correlate with cognitively judged

morals when people watch a crime drama (Bryant & Raney, 2002; Raney, 2003). Expectation also includes a cognitive side, such as values, beliefs, and predictions based on prior experience.

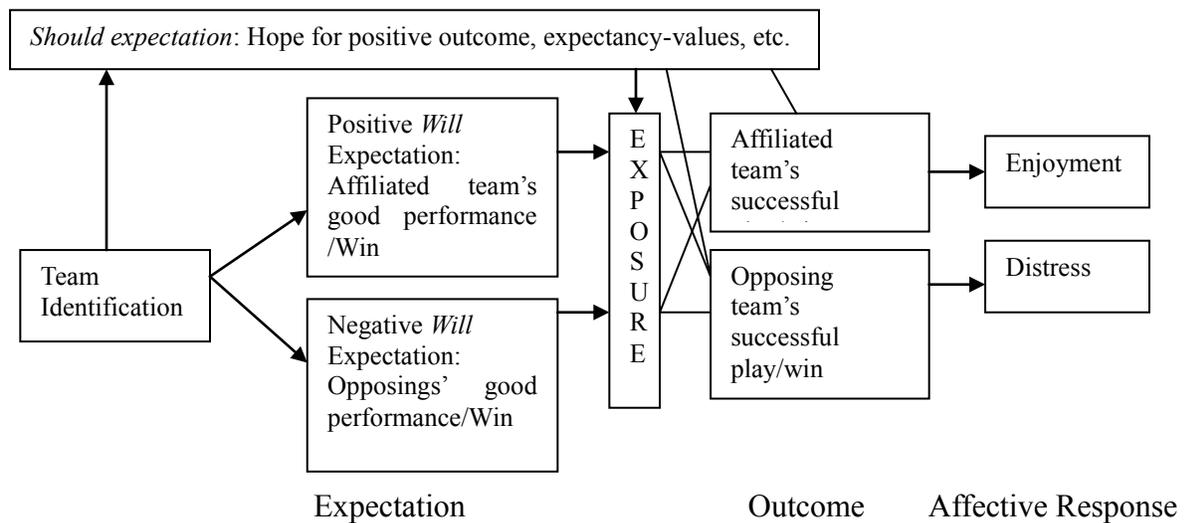
Figure 1 includes two kinds of expectations in sports spectators: *should expectation* and *will expectation*. *Should expectation* is passive, as Zillmann (1991) suggested in his disposition model; people hope for their favorite teams' positive outcome and fear for a negative outcome. In addition, people might have a certain expectancy-value when they are exposed to televised sports game. Considering selective exposure theory and disposition theory, people should want to derive enjoyment from watching a sports game. Their social identity should be enhanced by witnessing their team's win. Team identification might influence the level of expectancy-value; for example, if a person is a very loyal fan, he or she might expect his or her team to win much more often than a mere fan would. Sports spectators with *should expectation*, then, would have both positive and negative *will expectation*. They can form either a positive or negative *will expectation* based on information they have. There are many sports programs and publications which predict the result of a game. Past experience of witnessing a game against same opposing and current rankings would also influence *will expectations*.

Game performance and results, then, should influence the level of Affective Response (AR). Based on disposition theory, a favorite team's win will create a positive AR (enjoyment) while a favorite team's loss will create a negative AR (distress). Finally, when expectations meet disconfirmation, there should be high level of positive or negative AR. Specifically, level of AR would be different when expectations are (a) not met with game performance but the favored team still wins, (b) met with game performance and the favored team wins, (c) exceeded by game performance and the favored team wins, (d) not met with game performance and a favored team loses, (e) met with game performance but the favored team loses, and (f) exceeded by game

performance but the favored team loses. When a positive disconfirmation (expectations are exceeded) occurs and comes from a positive outcome (win), there would be a high level of positive AR. On the other hand, when a negative disconfirmation (expectations are not met) comes from a negative outcome (loss), there would be a high level of negative AR.

However, as Cardozo (1965) insisted, the role of expectation in the process of generating ARs—satisfaction, in the case of marketing research—is complex. The aim of this study is to figure out the complex nature of the psychological response to a televised sports game based on the level of expectations of the audience. Three research questions and four hypotheses are set up to examine this complex process more closely.

Figure 1. Projected Expectancy Dispositional Model of Sports Media Enjoyment



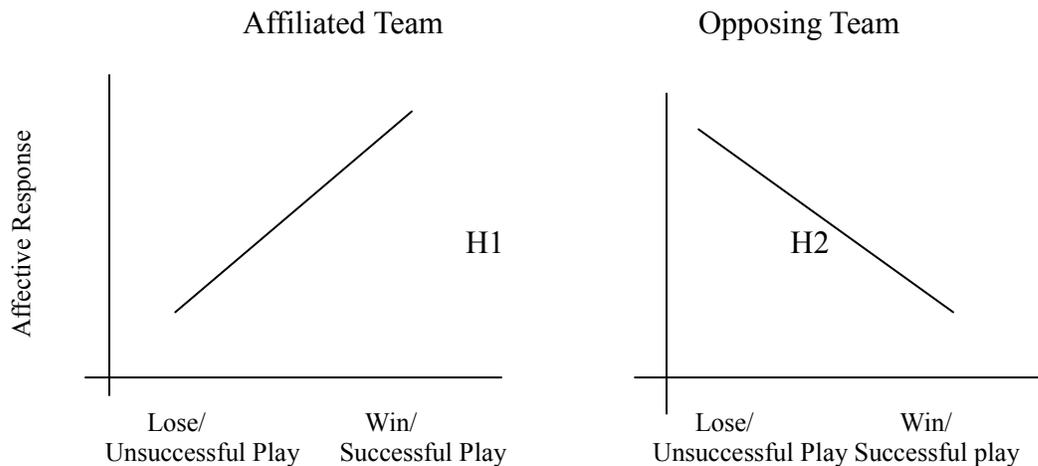
Research Questions and Hypotheses

A dispositional mechanics of enjoyment model has been supported by several scholars (e.g, Sapolsky, 1980; Woo & Kim, 2008; Zillmann, Bryant, & Sapolsky, 1979); that is, the level of enjoyment is increased when people watch their affiliated team's success and the opposing team's failure. In the other hand, the level of enjoyment is decreased when people watch their affiliated team's failure and the opposing team's success. The first two hypotheses guiding this study are based on disposition theory (also see Figure 2):

H1: The level of Affective Response will be increased when people observe affiliated team's successful plays or a win and opposing team's unsuccessful plays or a loss.

H2: The level of Affective Response will be decreased when people observe affiliated team's unsuccessful plays or a loss and opposing team's successful plays or a win.

Figure 2. Graphs for the expected outcome for Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2



In an expectation-disconfirmation setting, a consumer's high expectations drew lower satisfaction (Oliver, 1980). This statement can also be supported by excitation transfer theory.

The residue of excitations resulting from distressed negative expectations before and during a game would be transferred to higher positive affect when the game performances exceed expectations or the favored team comes from behind to win. In contrast, the residue of excitations resulting from positive expectations before and during a game would become greater negative affect when the game performances are not as great as expected or when the team that appears to be winning suffers a setback and loses in the end. In addition, as Knobloch-Westerwick et al. (2008) found, uncertainty that results from suspense leads to an increase of both positive and negative affective states. Oliver and Winer (1980) also placed uncertainty in the dimension of expectation. If sports viewers have a higher expectation score, or, in other words, if they predict their preferred team is more likely to play well and win, they are more optimistic. In this situation, if the preferred team loses or does not play well, the level of Affective Response would be lowered (i.e., people will be more disappointed). However, the preferred team's winning or successful plays would not give optimistic people as a high level of Affective Response as pessimistic people have. On the other hand, people who have low expectation scores or are pessimistic about the performance of their preferred team would feel a higher level of pleasure (i.e., a higher level of Affective Response) when their preferred team wins or plays well in the game. Pessimistic sports viewers may not be as disappointed as optimistic viewers when their preferred team loses or does not play well. However, how uncertainty affects the AR has not been studied. Knobloch-Westerwick et al. (2008) found that the suspense level increases when the viewer is uncertain about who will win the game. The results of their study suggest that uncertainty could affect the level of enjoyment because the level of suspense affects the level of AR. In this study, specific games and plays were selected in order to control the levels of uncertainty and suspense. Games with higher score gaps between

the two teams were selected; however, by nature, uncertainty and suspense could not be totally removed from the game. Suspense value, therefore, has been controlled for in this study. In particular, general expectation-disconfirmation settings are referenced in the third and fourth hypotheses below (see Figure 3):

H3: After controlling for the suspense value, higher Expectation Scores (*should expectation + will expectation*) will negatively moderate the level of Affective Response.

H3a: Higher Expectation Scores (Optimistic Situation) will negatively moderate the level of Affective Response from observing an affiliated team's win or successful plays and an opposing team's loss or unsuccessful plays.

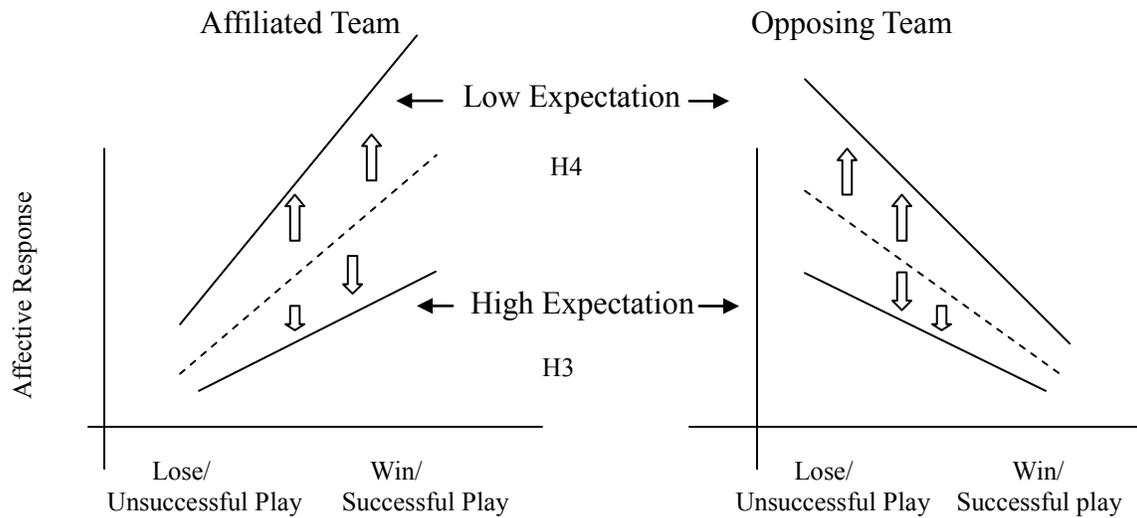
H3b: Higher Expectation Scores (Optimistic Situation) will negatively moderate the level of Affective Response from observing an affiliated team's loss or unsuccessful plays and an opposing team's win or successful plays.

H4: After controlling for the suspense value, lower Expectation Scores (*should expectation + will expectation*) will positively moderate the level of Affective Response.

H4a: Lower Expectation Score (Pessimistic Situation) will positively moderate the level of Affective Response from observing an affiliated team's win or successful plays and an opposing team's loss or unsuccessful plays.

H4b: Lower Expectation Score (Pessimistic Situation) will positively moderate the level of Affective Response from observing an affiliated team's loss or unsuccessful plays and an opposing team's win or successful plays.

Figure 3. Graphs for the expected outcome for Hypotheses 3 and Hypothesis 4



Note. Dashed line indicates the expected outcome for hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2

Personality influences how a person deals with an expectation (Kopalle & Lehman, 2001). In addition, Neale and Funk (2006) argued that the loyalty of true fans would not be affected by team performance. However, the influence of the level of team identification on the level of AR as well as expectation has not yet been empirically tested. Therefore, the first and second research questions are posited here:

RQ1: Is the increase in Sports Spectatorship Identification Scores associated with increases or decreases in the level of Affective Response?

RQ2: Is the increase in Sports Spectatorship Identification Scores associated with increases or decreases in the Expectation Scores?

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

Research Design

To answer the research questions and test the hypotheses, two different statistical analytic models, one utilizing a fixed-factor research design and the other mixed-factors research design, were adopted. For the first statistical model, participants were randomly assigned to one of six different groups, 3 (expectations: optimistic, pessimistic, neutral) \times 2 (result of games; win, lose) between-subject groups. For the second statistical model, participants watched both successful and unsuccessful offensive drives of two competing teams in a game. Accordingly, a 3 (expectation) \times 2 (disposition: affiliated team, opposing team) \times 2 (successfulness: successful, unsuccessful) mixed-subject (repeated measure) design was utilized.

Level of Expectation

As shown in Table 2, college football games played by Alabama against three other teams were chosen based on Alabama's winning and losing record against each team. In addition, the participants' level of expectation before watching the games was manipulated with prepared articles to make it high (optimistic), medium (neutral), or low (pessimistic) (see Appendix A).

Optimistic Expectation. According to the record book at rolltide.com, the official website of the University of Alabama athletic department, Alabama leads the series against the University of Mississippi football team (Ole Miss) with a record of 43 wins, 9 losses, and 2 ties. Based on the record, Ole Miss was chosen as the opposing team for the optimistic expectations group. In

this group, it was expected that people would be optimistic about the result of the game (win) and plays by the affiliated team (successful plays by Alabama).

Pessimistic Expectation. The Notre Dame University football team (Notre Dame) was selected for the low expectation group. Notre Dame leads the series against Alabama with a record of 5 wins and 1 loss. Therefore, people were expected to be pessimistic about the outcome of the game and predict that Alabama might lose the game and play badly against Notre Dame.

Neutral Expectation. The Pennsylvania State University football team (Penn State) was selected for the neutral expectation group, because Alabama’s record is close to Penn State’s with eight wins and five losses. In this group, people might predict Alabama would win against Penn State but could just as easily expect Alabama to lose.

Result of Game

The second factor for the first analytical model is the result of game. Participants of each expectation group watched Alabama win a game or lose a game. Table 2 shows that the groups were randomly assigned to view one of six different games.

Table 2.

Selections of Games based on the Level of Expectation

Game	Expectation level	Opposing	Results and Information
1	Optimistic	Ole Miss	October 22, 1994, 21-10 (Win), ABC
2			October 8, 1988, 12-22 (Loss), WTBS
3	Neutral	Penn State	November 14, 1981, 31-16 (Win), ABC
4			October 25, 1986, 3-23 (Loss), ABC
5	Pessimistic	Notre Dame	October 4, 1986, 28-10 (Win), ABC
6			November 14, 1987, 6-37 (Loss), CBS

Successfulness of Plays

As the third factor, participants in this study reported their feelings during the commercial breaks in contrast to the protocols of Zillmann et al. (1979), in which participants were instructed to report their feelings after each play. Therefore, the author used the notion of “drive,” which is a set of plays that an offensive team runs until it gives the ball back to the opposing team. Zillmann et al. (1979) considered any offensive plays which advanced more than 3 yards as successful plays. In this study, scoring drives, or the set of plays that entailed scoring by the offensive team (including a successful field goal) were considered successful. Drives that did not result in a score were considered unsuccessful. Table 3 illustrates the second analytical model, which indicates that participants in each of the three expectation groups (Optimistic, Pessimistic, Neutral) watched both successful and unsuccessful offensive drives by the affiliated team, as well as by the opposing team.

Experimental Materials

Newspaper Article

Will expectations were the primary objects of manipulation. One of three prepared newspaper articles was given to each participant (See Appendix A). Each article contained information about two teams. The University of Alabama football team was used as the affiliated team. Articles included team rankings and predictions of experts. The first article told participants that Alabama was ranked high, the opposing team was not ranked, and that most experts thought that Alabama would dominate the game. The second article informed participants that Alabama was not ranked and had a poor season record, with most experts saying that Alabama had no chance to win the game. The last article told participants that both teams were

Table 3.

3×2×2 Within-Subject Design (Repeated Measures)

Expectation	Disposition	Successfulness of the play
Optimistic	Affiliated team	Successful drive
		Unsuccessful drive
	Opposing team	Successful drive
		Unsuccessful drive
Neutral	Affiliated team	Successful drive
		Unsuccessful drive
	Opposing team	Successful drive
		Unsuccessful drive
Pessimistic	Affiliated team	Successful drive
		Unsuccessful drive
	Opposing team	Successful drive
		Unsuccessful drive

ranked, and experts believed that the victor was hard to predict because both teams had a chance to win.

Edited Game Films

The Bryant Museum, which was built to commemorate the rich University of Alabama football tradition, provided the recordings of the six games that served as experimental materials for the investigation (See Table 2). The recordings were shortened to approximately 30 minutes each, including commercial breaks. Calfee (1985) mentioned the possible problem of order

effects in within-subject designs. In a within-subject design, participants might become fatigued and overly familiar with the stimuli. In this study, there was a very small risk of this happening, because participants were exposed to a televised game live one they could see on any given day. However, participants were asked to complete questionnaires before, during, and after the game; therefore, possible order effect should be considered. In addition, Reeves and Geiger (1994) pointed out the issue of exemplars in an experiment using messages. That is, sampling messages within a condition may create treatment variances. To prevent treatment variances, random ordering was employed in this study. Each game was edited into three different versions that varied the orders of the drives.

It was projected that a total of eight drives, including two successful (scoring) drives and two unsuccessful (non-scoring) drives by the affiliated team and the opposing team, would be selected for each game. However, all versions of Game 2, Alabama against Notre Dame in 1987, contained three successful drives by the opposing team, instead of two successful drives, because Notre Dame scored only once in Game 2. All versions of Game 4, Alabama against Penn State in 1986, were also edited with three unsuccessful drives by the affiliated team; therefore, it only had one successful drive by the affiliated team. Version 1 of Game 5, Alabama against Ole Miss in 1988, had only one successful drive by the opposing team; in other words, it had three unsuccessful drives by the opposing team. For Game 6, Alabama against Ole Miss in 1994, version 3 contained only one successful drive by the affiliated team; thus, it had three unsuccessful drives by the affiliated team. Rests of the versions of the games were edited as originally projected (see Appendix F). Commercials were selected from the original game films provided by Bryant Museum and randomly assigned to each version.

Practice Session

Reeves and Geiger (1994) suggested holding a practice session to let participants become accustomed to the measures employed in order to reduce Type I error. Because participants would record their enjoyment in this study, there should be criteria for participants to measure their emotion. Therefore, two recent Alabama football highlight video clips, which included exciting winning moments and devastating losing moments, were shown before the actual experiment began, so that participants could practice using these measures to report their level of excitement.

Participants and Sampling

Participants ($N = 171$) were recruited from large communication classes at the University of Alabama. A total of 33 experimental sessions were held between February 5, 2009, and March 31, 2009. Participants signed up for a time that was convenient for them to come to the session, and the games screened were scheduled to ensure a random assignment of participants to each experimental sessions. Extra credit was assigned to participants as a benefit of participation.

Variables

Independent Variables

Demographics. Participants were asked to provide information about their age, gender, and ethnicity.

Sports Spectatorship Identification Scale (SSIS) score. Wann and Brascombe (1993) developed the SSIS, which has seven questions. For this study, the wording of questions was modified for Alabama football fans. In addition, one more question about participants' perception of Alabama's biggest rival was added to give them a better chance of judging the question about

how much they hate Alabama's biggest rival (See Appendix C). Participants answered these questions on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Not at all* to 7 = *A great deal*).

Should expectation (SE). Twenty-five expectancy-value questions were created based on Raney's (2006) and Wann's (2006) analyses of sports spectatorship. Raney's suggestions for the motivation of televised sports viewers were particularly utilized. The overall Should Expectation score (SE) is comprised of the total from questions about Emotional Should Expectation (SEemo), Cognitive Should Expectation (SEcog), and Social Should Expectation (SEsoc). Participants answered how much they agree with each statement on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Not at all* to 7 = *Very much*).

Will expectation (WE). To figure out the level of rational expectation of participants about the game they were assigned, four questions were asked and averaged for analyses. Questions included: Based on the article you have just read, 1) I predict Alabama will win this game, 2) I predict the opposing team will lose this game, 3) I predict Alabama will play well in this game, 4) I predict the opposing team will play badly in this game. Participants answered on a 10-point Likert-type scale (-5 = *I totally disagree* to 0 = *I cannot predict* to 5 = *I totally agree*). The scale can be found in Appendix D.

Dependent Variable

Affective Response (AR). The Self-Assessment Manikin (SAM; Lang, 1985), a drawn character with different facial expressions, was used to measure pleasure (See Appendix E). Mehrabian and Russell (1977) developed a verbal-report measure for pleasure that has been broadly used along with arousal and dominance dimensions in advertising research (Havlena, Holbrook, & Lehmann, 1989). According to Lang, SAM showed a strong correlation with the pleasure dimension (.94). SAM was used in this study for measuring the level of Affective

Response (AR). Participants reported their level of AR before, during, and after watching the edited game film.

Control Variable: Score Gap

Many scholars (e.g., Knobloch-Westerwick et al., 2008; Peterson & Raney, 2008; Zillmann et al., 1979) have used relative game scores as an indicator of suspense in sports. Peterson and Raney investigated score gap during the game and its relationship to level of enjoyment. In addition, considering Knobloch-Westerwick et al.'s statement that people felt more suspense when their affiliated team was losing, a negative value in scoring gap was adopted for this study. In this case, Alabama's score was subtracted from the opposing team's score in a losing game. For purposes of this study, a negative value for the score gap means Alabama is in a losing situation, and a positive value means Alabama is in a winning situation.

Procedure

A pretest was conducted to test the procedures for this experiment. Feedback from the pretest was incorporated into the actual experiment.

Pretest

A total of nine pretest sessions were conducted from January 26, 2009, to January 28, 2009. Participants were recruited from three classes at the University of Alabama ($N = 53$); these participants were then excluded from participation in the actual experiment. Table 4 showed that the pretest included five scoring drives and six non-scoring drives of the affiliated team (Alabama) and the opposing team (Notre Dame). Participants were asked if they agreed that the drive they had just watched was successful (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). As Table 4 showed, the difference in the level of agreement about successful ($M = 4.21$, $S.D. = 0.96$) and

unsuccessful drives of both teams turned out to be significant ($M = 1.47$, $S.D. = 0.79$), $t(260) = 25.241$, $p < 0.001$.

Table 4.

Agreement with sample successful and unsuccessful drives (Pretest)

Drives	Agreement	
	Mean	SD
Successful Drives	4.21***	0.96
BAMA Punt Return Touch Down	4.86	0.39
BAMA Passing Touch Down	4.60	1.06
BAMA Field Goal	3.82	0.64
Notre Dame Passing Touch Down	3.90	1.10
Notre Dame Field Goal	4.13	0.83
Unsuccessful Drives	1.47***	0.79
BAMA fail to convert third down	1.71	0.85
BAMA Quarter Back Fumble Lost	1.32	0.78
BAMA three and out series	1.33	0.62
Notre Dame three and out series	1.24	0.59
Notre Dame Fumble Lost	1.67	1.11
Notre Dame Failed Field Goal	1.75	0.78

Note. Only successful drives and unsuccessful drives were compared.

*** $p < .001$.

Participants in the pretest also completed a questionnaire about their expectancy-value in watching a televised sports game. SEemo scores showed high reliability ($\alpha = 0.782$). SEcog scores also showed high reliability ($\alpha = 0.782$). The last SE scores, SEsoc scores, had a relatively lower reliability ($\alpha = 0.654$); however, the Cronbach's α was increased after eliminating question 25, "win some money after this game" ($\alpha = 0.694$). For the WE score, participants were assigned one of three newspaper articles randomly (See Appendix A) before answering four WE questions. One-way ANOVA disclosed that WE scores for optimistic group ($N = 17$, $M = 3.00$, $SD = 8.958$; *range: -5 to 5*), neutral group ($N = 15$, $M = 0.50$, $SD = 6.698$), and pessimistic group ($N = 21$, $M = -0.905$, $SD = 8.369$) are statistically significantly different, $F(2) = 17.447$, $p < 0.001$. Four questions also showed a high reliability ($\alpha = 0.809$).

Participants then watched recent Alabama football video clips to choose clips to be used in the practice session of the actual experiments. After watching six video clips, participants were asked to choose the happiest video clip and the saddest video clip. Alabama's overtime win over Louisiana State University in 2008 was chosen as the happiest by 49.1% of participants, and the University of Georgia's overtime win over Alabama in 2007 was selected as the saddest by 45.3% (See Table 5). Finally, participants were also asked to report their opinions about the experiment. Opinions included that the quality of audio or the resolution of video was bad, they did not like the commercials, and the length of the experiment was too long. This feedback about the procedure was reflected in the actual experiment.

Table 5.

Participants' Choice of Dummy Video Clips

Contents	Voted for the Happiest (N = 53)	Voted for the Saddest (N = 53)
Alabama's last minute winning touchdown against Arkansas in 2007	N = 18, (34.0%)	N = 1 (1.9%)
Alabama's Overtime win against Louisiana State University in 2008	N = 26, (49.1%)	N = 2 (3.8%)
Tyrone Prothro, Alabama player's amazing catch against Southern Mississippi in 2005	N = 8 (15.1%)	N = 3 (5.7%)
Louisiana State University's came back from behind against Alabama in 2007	N = 1 (1.9%)	N = 14 (26.4%)
Mississippi State University's interception touchdown for 100 yards against Alabama in 2007	-	N = 9 (17.0%)
University of Georgia's overtime win against in 2007	-	N = 24 (45.3%)

Experiment

Participants came to the theater in the Institute for Communication and Information Research at the College of Communications and Information Sciences at The University of Alabama. After a brief introduction and instructions about the experiment, participants

completed questionnaires including basic demographic information, the Sports Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS), and a *should expectation* (SE) survey. Participants were informed that they needed to practice with video clips and set up a baseline. Participants then watched two dummy video clips and measured their level of Affective Response (AR). A prepared newspaper article was then distributed about the game and informed the participants that the actual experiment would begin shortly. After reading the article, participants answered the questionnaire about *will expectation* (WE). Before watching the actual edited game film, participants were asked to report their level of AR to check their pre-game mood. Participants had a commercial break between each offensive drive of both competing teams. During the commercial breaks, participants reported their level of AR in response to the drive they just saw using the Self Assessment Manikin (SAM) measure. After watching the whole edited film, participants reported their final level of AR. At the end, participants were debriefed, thanked, and asked not to share the information about the experiment with their friends.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Descriptive and statistical analyses were performed to address and test two research questions and four hypotheses.

Demographic Analysis

Table 6 showed the descriptive analysis of participants' demographical information for each expectation group. More females participants ($N = 109$, 63.7%) than males ($N = 62$, 36.3%) participated. Except for the group who watched Notre Dame against Alabama in 1986, most groups had a similar distribution of gender. Chi-square test revealed that there were no statistically significant differences in gender ratio of participants by condition, with $\chi^2(5) = 5.140$, $p > 0.10$. In terms of ethnicity, most participants were Caucasians ($N = 151$, 88.3%). The mean age of participants was 20.10 ($SD = 1.7035$). A majority of participants were 19 ($N = 47$, 27.5%) or 20 years old ($N = 41$, 24.0%).

Should Expectation Scores

After eliminating one SE question in order to strengthen the reliability of items, a total of 24 questions were asked to determine the expectancy-value of participants watching a televised sports game. A reliability test was later performed on the scale for actual test, which showed a higher Cronbach's α than the one used in the pretest. The 11 questions resulting in the Emotional Should Expectation (SEemo) score showed relatively high reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.833$). The eight questions resulting in the Cognitive Should Expectation (SEcog) score also showed high reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.807$). The five questions resulting in the Social Should

Expectation (SEsoc) score yielded a somewhat lower reliability index, but it was still deemed satisfactory (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.761$).

Table 6.

Demographic Analysis of Each Expectation Group

Expectation	Game	Result	Female	Male	Age	Caucasian	Black	Asian	Hispanic
Pessimistic	86 Notre Dame	Win	13	15	20.25	24	3	0	1
		(N=28)	(46.4%)	(53.6%)		(85.7%)	(10.7%)		(3.6%)
	87 Notre Dame	Lose	19	8	19.70	24	1	2	0
		(N=27)	(70.4%)	(29.6%)		(88.9%)	(3.7%)	(7.4%)	
	Sub Total		32	23	19.98	48	4	2	1
	(N=55)	(58.2%)	(41.8%)		(87.3%)	(7.3%)	(3.6%)	(1.8%)	
Neutral	81 Penn State	Win	19	11	19.93	26	1	3	0
		(N=30)	(63.3%)	(36.7%)		(86.7%)	(3.3%)	(10.0%)	
	86 Penn State	Lose	21	11	20.44	28	3	0	1
		(N=32)	(65.6%)	(34.4%)		(87.5%)	(9.4%)		(3.1%)
	Sub Total		40	22	20.19	54	4	3	1
	(N=62)	(64.5%)	(35.5%)		(87.1%)	(6.5%)	(4.8%)	(1.6%)	
Optimistic	94 Ole Miss	Win	21	8	20.28	26	2	0	1
		(N=29)	(72.4%)	(27.6%)		(89.7%)	(6.9%)		(3.4%)
	88 Ole Miss	Lose	16	9	19.92	23	2	0	0
		(N=25)	(64.0%)	(36.0%)		(92.0%)	(8.0%)		
	Sub Total		37	17	20.11	49	4	0	1
	(N=54)	(68.5%)	(31.5%)		(90.7%)	(7.4%)		(1.9%)	
Total (N = 171)			109	62	20.10	151	12	5	3
			(63.7%)	(36.3%)		(88.3%)	(7.0%)	(2.9%)	(1.8%)

Emotional Should Expectation (SEemo) Score

Based on the literature review and the result of hypotheses, SE score represents a passive expectation, which automatically occurs, is permanent, and primed, whereas Will Expectation (rational expectation) is cognitively formed and continuously altered based on the situation (Kahneman and Tversky, 1982). One-way ANOVA analysis also revealed no statistically significant differences on SEemo scores among three expectation groups (Optimistic, Neutral, & Pessimistic), with $F(2) = 1.939, p > 0.10$. However, as Table 7 showed that gender differences in SEemo scores were found. Though there were gender differences on most items, SE 3, “when I watch an Alabama football game, I always expect to watch a great competition” and SE 9, “when I watch an Alabama football game, I always expect to feel self esteem,” in particular, showed major differences between female and male participants. Specifically, male participants were more likely to expect to watch great competition ($M = 4.39, SD = 0.732$) than were female participants ($M = 3.92, SD = 0.795$), with $t(169) = -3.384, p < 0.001$. This result was somewhat in the same thread with the results of Gan et al. (1997)’s study in which male participants were found to enjoy close games more than were females, whereas female participants reported distress when they were watching close games. In addition, male participants were much more likely to expect to feel self-esteem by watching televised football game ($M = 3.48, SD = 1.225$) than were female participants ($M = 2.74, SD = 1.109$), with $t(169) = -4.042, p < 0.001$. Male participants were also more likely to expect to relieve stress from daily life by watching sports games ($M = 3.54, SD = 1.183$) than were female participants ($M = 2.88, SD = 1.215$), with $t(169) = -3.412, p < 0.01$. Overall, male participants scored higher on SEemo scores ($M = 3.93, SD = 0.6585$) than did female participants ($M = 3.60, SD = 0.6083$), $t(169) = -3.277, p < 0.01$. In other words, male participants seemingly had a higher level of emotional expectancy-value when

they were watching televised sports games.

Cognitive Should Expectation (SEcog) Score

One-way ANOVA test of SEcog scores among participants of three groups disclosed no statistically significant difference among groups, $F(2) = 2.196, p > 0.10$. As Table 8 showed, overall gender difference on SEcog score was not observed, with $t(169) = -4.740, p > 0.10$. However, gender differences were found among some items of SEcog scores. For example, male participants were more likely to expect to learn about players and teams ($M = 3.77, SD = 1.197$) than were female participants ($M = 2.93, SD = 1.168$), with $t(169) = -4.383, p < 0.001$. In addition, male participants also expected to find a topic to discuss with their friends by watching sports games ($M = 3.89, SD = 1.06$) more frequently than did female participants ($M = 3.23, SD = 1.176$), with $t(169) = -3.599, p < 0.001$. On the other hand, female participants more likely expected to see athletic bodies ($M = 3.29, SD = 1.272$) than were male participants ($M = 2.76, SD = 1.457$), with $t(169) = 2.502, p < 0.05$. Female participants were also more likely to expect to see pretty or handsome faces of players ($M = 2.96, SD = 1.29$) than were male participants ($M = 1.41, SD = 0.921$), with $t(169) = 8.257, p < 0.001$. Overall SEcog score, however, did not yield statistically significant differences. It is reasonable to say that certain aspects of sports play (e.g., game record, players' bio, and aesthetic value of sites and game per se) that both female participants and male participants would like to learn from watching televised sporting events, but what they expected to learn varied.

Table 7.

Gender Differences of Emotional Should Expectation Scores

Questions	Female (N = 109)	Male (N = 62)	Total (N = 171)
When I watch an Alabama football game, I always expect to:			
SE1. Watch Alabama win	3.93*	4.18*	4.02
SE2. Watch Alabama dominate the opposing team	3.71	3.93	3.79
SE3. Watch a great competition	3.92***	4.39***	4.09
SE4. Watch opposing team lose	3.53*	3.92*	3.67
SE5. Be excited by witnessing Alabama's win	4.60	4.67	4.62
SE6. Be excited by the toughness of the player or the game	3.87*	4.20*	3.99
SE7. Be nervous during the game	3.55	3.56	3.55

SE8. Feel emotional bonding with Alabama team	3.25*	3.69*	3.41
SE9. Feel self-esteem	2.74***	3.49***	3.01
SE10. Feel superiority over the fans of the opposing team	3.62	3.84	3.70
SE 11. Relieve stress from daily life	2.88**	3.54**	3.12
SEemo	3.60**	3.93**	3.72

Note. Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.833$.

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

Table 8.

Gender Differences of Cognitive Should Expectation Scores

Questions	Female (N = 109)	Male (N = 62)	Total (N = 171)
When I watch an Alabama football game, I always expect to:			
SE 12. Learn about players and teams	2.93***	3.77***	3.22
SE 13. Learn the rules of the game	3.06	3.07	3.06
SE14. Find a topic to discuss with my friends	3.23***	3.89***	3.46

SE15. Observe some beautiful scenes, such as the stadium, crowd, and places nearby	3.18*	3.64*	3.35
SE16. Observe some aesthetic movements by players in the game	2.95*	3.61*	3.19
SE17. See athletic bodies	3.29***	2.75***	3.10
SE18. See pretty or handsome faces of players	2.96***	1.41***	2.41
SE19. Relieve boredom	3.39	3.66	3.48
SEcog	3.13	3.22	3.16

Note. Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.807$.

* $p < .05$. *** $p < .001$.

Social Should Expectation (SEsoc) Score

Table 10 illustrated that participants were generally expecting social interaction and cathartic moments by watching sports game considering that the overall mean of SEsoc scores were 3.81 ($SD = 0.742$) out of 5 total points, no statistically significant differences between female and male participants were found, with $t(169) = -1.659, p > 0.10$. In particular, male participants expected to reduce anger from daily life ($M = 2.93, SD = 1.293$) and to enjoy a moment of relief after the competition ($M = 3.95, SD = 1.123$). In addition, Table 9 demonstrated

that both female and male participants generally expected to interact with other fans ($M = 4.09$, $SD = 0.903$), have a great time with friends ($M = 4.59$, $SD = 0.656$), and family ($M = 4.27$, $SD = 1.01$), and those scores were relatively high.

Table 9.

Gender Differences of Social Should Expectation Scores

Questions	Female ($N = 109$)	Male ($N = 62$)	Total ($N=171$)
When I watch an Alabama football game, I always expect to:			
SE 20. Reduce anger from daily life	2.23**	2.93**	2.48
SE 21. Enjoy a moment of relief after the competition	3.41**	3.95**	3.61
SE 22. Interact with other fans	4.10	4.08	4.09
SE 23. Have a great time with friends	4.60	4.57	4.59
SE 24. Have a great time with family	4.35	4.13	4.27
SEsoc	3.74	3.93	3.81

Note. Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.761$.

** $p < .01$.

Should Expectation (SE) Scores and Affective Response (AR)

The relationship between Should Expectation Scores and Affective Response was also investigated. Figure 4 illustrated that SE scores influenced the level of AR significantly. The black line indicated the level of AR when the affiliated team (Alabama) made a successful drive. The prediction line¹ showed that higher SE scores led to a higher level of AR. Furthermore, Table 11 specified more detail about SE scores; that is, SEemo scores were the main predictor influencing level of AR. In other words, the more people expected an emotional outcome by watching televised sports game, the more people reported feeling pleasure when the affiliated team made successful drives, with $F(3) = 5.069, p < 0.01$, explaining 6.7% of variances. The SE scores also influenced the level of AR when the affiliated team made unsuccessful drives. The black dashed prediction line² in Figure 4 showed the level of AR for affiliated teams' unsuccessful drives, which indicated higher SE scores led to lower levels of AR. Table 9 showed that the SEemo scores were also a main predictor of level of AR when the affiliated team made unsuccessful drives. That is, people with higher SEemo scores reported experiencing more distress when their affiliated team made unsuccessful drives, with $F(3) = 6.136, p < 0.01$, explaining 8.4% of variances. The gray prediction line³ in Figure 4 indicated the level of AR for opposing team's successful drives. It showed that SE scores influenced the level of AR, specifically, SEemo scores were the main predictor, which means that the more people expected an emotional outcome by watching televised sports game, the more people reported feelings distress when they observed the opposing team's successful drive, with $F(3) = 4.033, p < 0.01$,

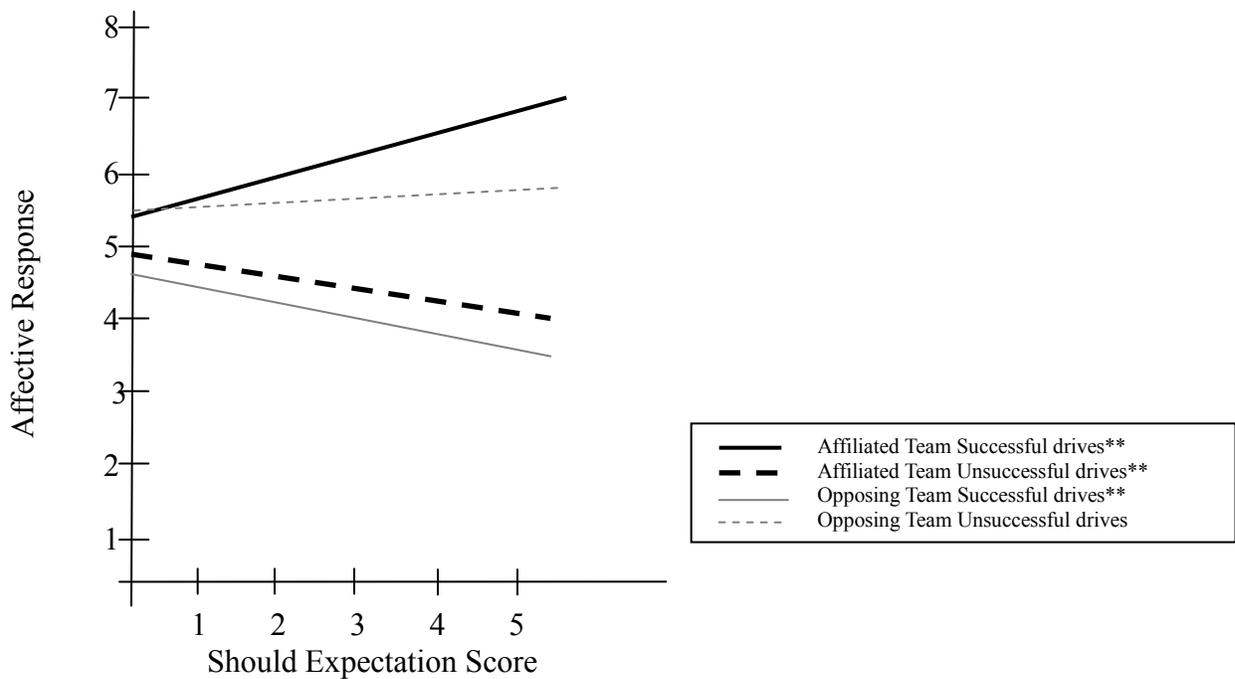
¹ $AR_{\text{AFFILIATED Success}} = 5.436 + 0.173 \times SE$

² $AR_{\text{AFFILIATED Unsuccess}} = 4.944 - 0.150 \times SE$

³ $AR_{\text{OPPOSING Success}} = 4.710 - 0.153 \times SE$

explaining 5.1% of variances. The gray dashed prediction line⁴ in Figure 4 indicated that participants with higher SE scores led to report higher levels of AR; however, this trend was not statistically significant.

Figure 4. Relationship between Should Expectation Scores and Affective Response



** $p < .01$

Should Expectation (SE) Scores and the Result of Game

Figure 5 displayed that the Should Expectation Scores also influenced the level of Affective Response when the affiliated team won and when the affiliated team lost. The black prediction line⁵ showed that higher SE scores generated a higher level of AR when the affiliated team won the game, with $F(1) = 4.910, p < 0.05$. In other words, the more people expected emotional, cognitive, and social outcomes from watching a televised sports game, the more

⁴ $AR_{\text{OPPOSING Unsuccess}} = 5.486 + 0.041 \times SE$

⁵ $AR_{\text{win}} = 6.754 + 0.157 \times SE$

people reported feeling pleasure. On the other hand, the black dashed line⁶ indicated that higher SE created a lower level of AR when the affiliated team lost; however, this trend was not statistically significant, with $F(1) = 2.697, p > 0.10$.

Table 10.

Multiple Regression Analysis of Should Expectation Scores and Affective Response

Dependent Variables	SEemo		SEcog		SEsoc		R ²
	β	t	β	t	β	t	
AR _{AFFILIATED Success} **	0.278	2.978**	-0.064	-1.050	0.018	0.679	0.067
AR _{AFFILIATED Unsuccess} **	-0.295	-3.104**	0.081	1.442	-0.040	-1.110	0.084
AR _{OPPOSING Success} **	-0.245	-2.495*	0.059	1.084	-0.034	-0.887	0.051
AR _{OPPOSING Unsuccess}	0.152	1.531	-0.182	-1.805	0.119	1.101	0.018

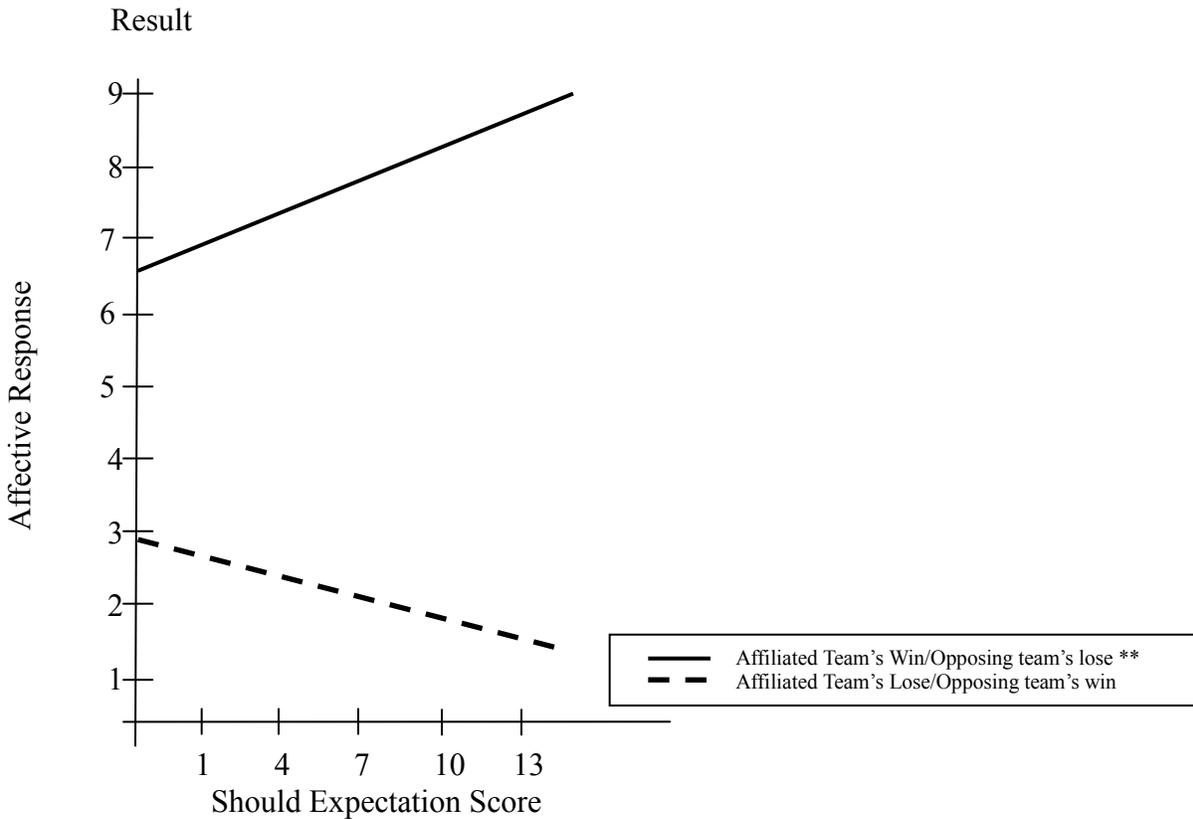
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Will Expectation Scores

The Will Expectation (WE) scores indicated rational expectation of sports spectators. Newspaper articles about the game were created by the author and participants reported their WE after reading the articles. The measure ranged from -5 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). WE score is the mean of four questions (See Appendix D). Figure 6 showed that WE scores were manipulated successfully among projected expectation groups. A one-way ANOVA was conducted and Figure 6 illustrated the mean plots of three expectation groups' WE scores. Mean WE scores for the pessimistic group who watched the Alabama against Notre Dame Game was statistically and significantly lower ($M = -0.9727, SD = 2.3837$) than the mean WE scores of

⁶ $AR_{lose} = 2.97 - 0.116 \times SE$

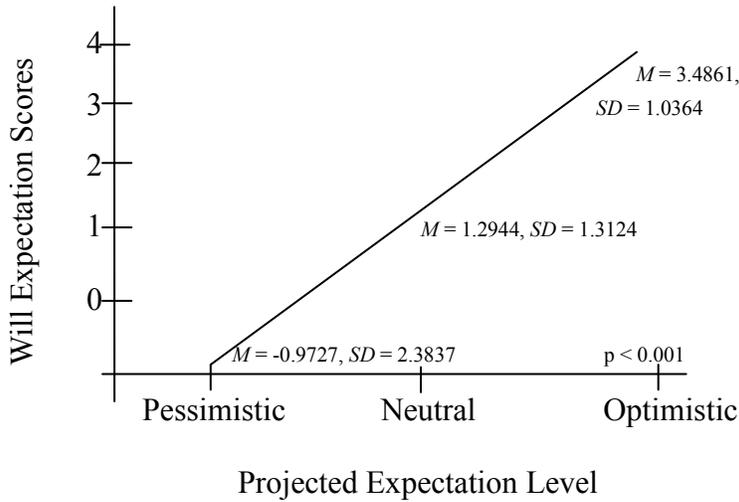
Figure 5. Relationship between Should Expectation Scores and Affective Response by Game



** $p < .01$.

other groups. Mean WE scores for the neutral group who watched the Penn State Game was significantly higher ($M = 1.2944$, $SD = 1.3124$) than the mean WE scores of the pessimistic group and significantly lower than the mean WE scores of the optimistic group ($M = 3.4861$, $SD = 1.0364$), with $F(2) = 97.084$, $p < 0.001$.

Figure 6. Will Expectation Scores by Expectation Group



Will Expectation Scores and the Level of Affective Response

Figure 7 showed the relationship between Will Expectation (WE) scores and the level of Affective Response (AR). The black prediction line⁷ showed that higher WE scores led to higher level of AR when the affiliated team (Alabama) made successful drives, with $F(1) = 18.980, p < 0.001$. In other words, people who were more optimistic about their affiliated team’s successful performance in the game enjoyed the affiliated team’s successful drives more that did people with more pessimistic expectation. The black dashed prediction line⁸ illustrated that the affiliated team’s unsuccessful drives created a high level of distress when people were more optimistic about the game, with $F(1) = 4.510, p < 0.05$. The gray prediction line⁹ demonstrated that higher WE scores drew a lower level of AR when the opposing team made successful drives, with $F(1) = 10.950, p < 0.01$. Therefore, it is safe to say that people reported feeling more distressed about the opposing team’s successful plays when they were more optimistic about the

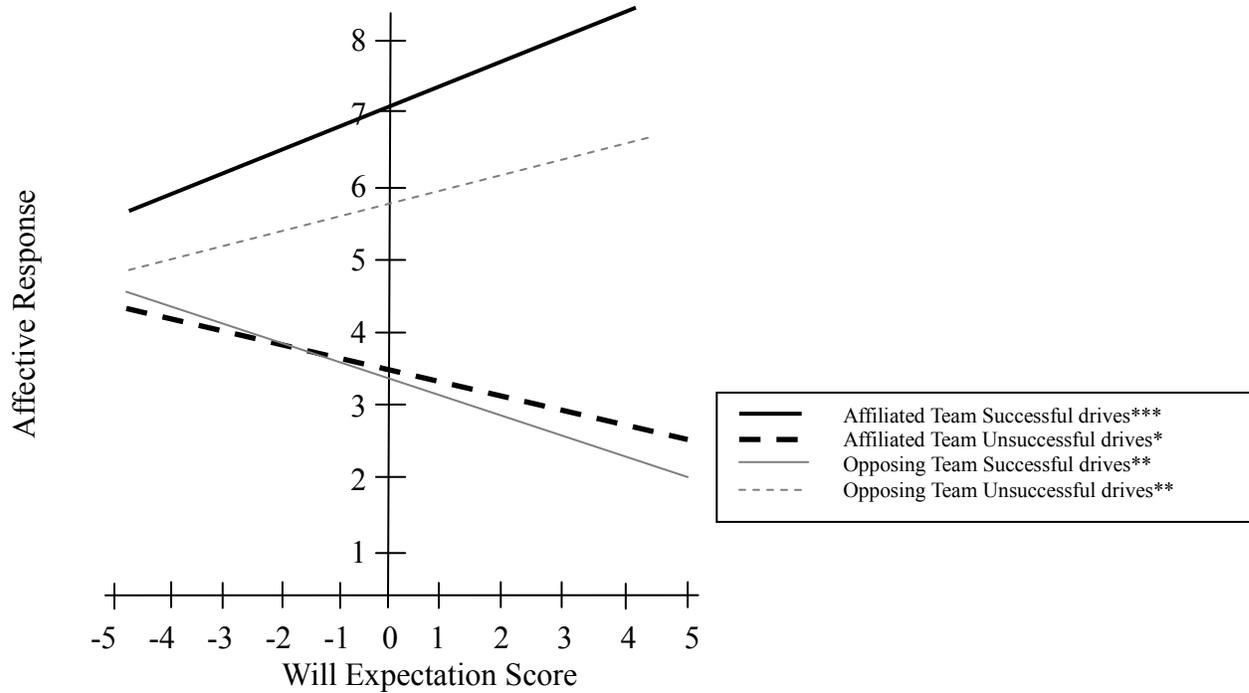
⁷ $AR_{\text{AFFILIATED Success}} = 7.009 + 0.216 \times WE$

⁸ $AR_{\text{AFFILIATED Unsuccess}} = 3.447 - 0.086 \times WE$

⁹ $AR_{\text{OPPOSING Success}} = 3.274 - 0.159 \times WE$

affiliated team’s win or better performance. Lastly, the gray dashed prediction line¹⁰ showed that people who were more optimistic about a win for their affiliated team reported a higher level of AR when the opposing team made unsuccessful drives.

Figure 7. Relationship between Will Expectation Scores and Affective Response



* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Will Expectation (WE) Scores and the Results of the Game

Figure 8 showed the relationship between WE scores and the level of AR when the affiliated team won versus lost. The black prediction line¹¹ illustrated that the WE scores did not influence the level of AR when the affiliated team won, with $F(1) = 0.473, p > 0.10$. People were generally happy (high AR) when their affiliated team won. The black dashed prediction line¹²

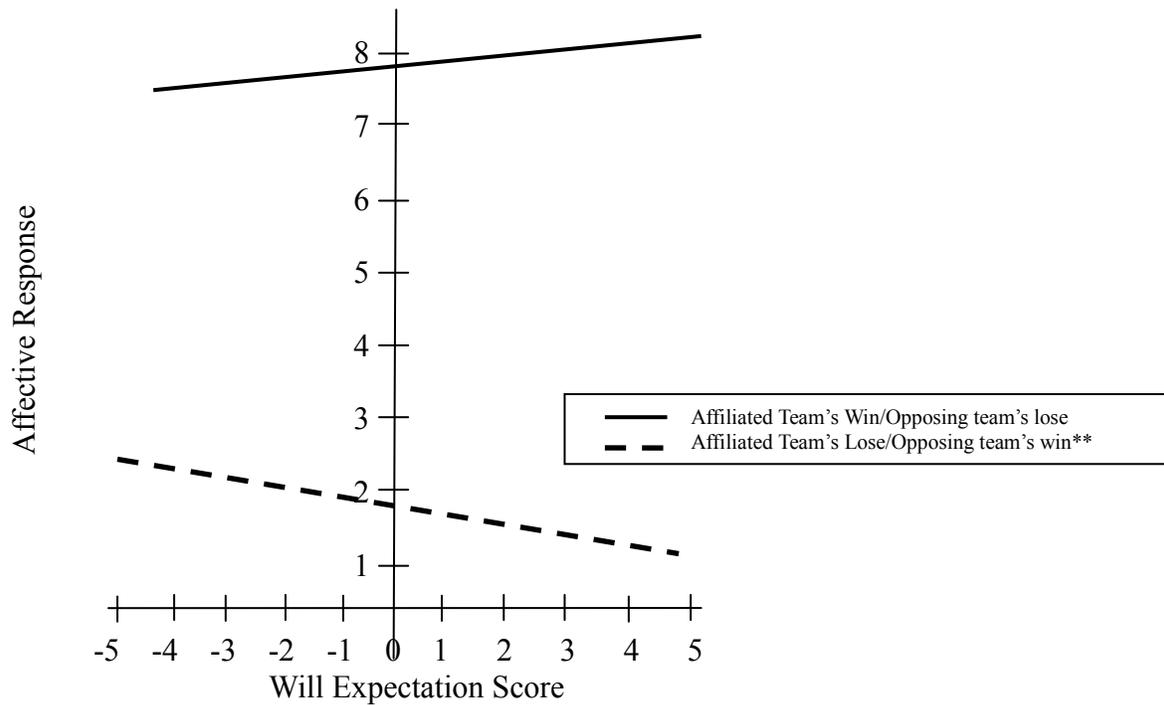
¹⁰ $AR_{\text{OPPOSING Unsuccess}} = 5.773 + 0.124 \times WE$

¹¹ $AR_{\text{win}} = 8.332 + 0.040 \times WE$

¹² $AR_{\text{lose}} = 1.818 - 0.103 \times WE$

showed the changes in the level of AR when the affiliated team lost. There was a statistically significant difference, with $F(1) = 4.076, p < 0.05$, which meant that more optimistic people were about the affiliated team's win, the more they reported feelings a higher level of distress when their affiliated team actually lost.

Figure 8. Relationship between Will Expectation Scores and Affective Response by Game Result



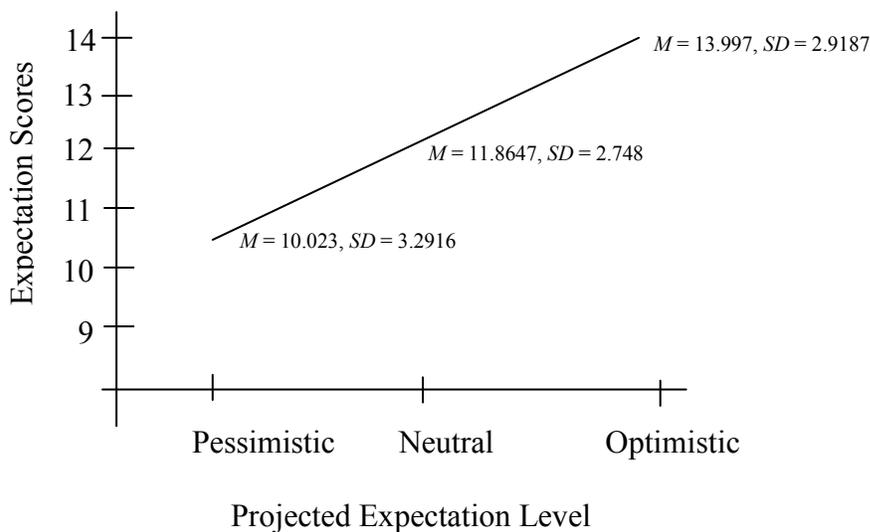
** $p < .01$.

Expectation Scores (ES)

Based on the discussion about expectation, there were two kinds of expectations: Should (Passive) expectations (SE) and Will (Rational) expectations (WE). Expectation Scores (ES), therefore, consisted of both SE scores and WE scores. ANOVA tests revealed no statistically significant differences among the SE scores of the three expectation groups; however, the WE scores of three groups showed a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.001$). Figure 9 showed

that the mean ES scores of the three projected expectation groups were statistically significantly different from each other, with $F(2) = 29.161, p < 0.001$. The mean ES scores of the pessimistic group ($M = 10.023, SD = 3.2916$) were statistically significantly lower than the mean ES scores of the other two groups. The mean ES scores of the neutral group ($M = 11.8647, SD = 2.748$) was found to be statistically significantly higher than the mean ES score of the pessimistic group and statistically significantly lower than the mean ES scores of the optimistic group ($M = 13.997, SD = 2.9187$). Considering that the SE scores of the three groups were not relatively different, these results reflected the difference of the WE scores among the three groups. In other words, sports spectators had consistent expectancy-values (SE) scores, which led them to watch televised sports games; at the same time, they had cognitive expectation (WE) scores, which made their expectation level different, as originally theorized by the author.

Figure 9. Mean Expectation Scores by Expectation Groups



Expectation Score (ES) and the Level of Affective Response

First of all, the question of whether expectation scores played a moderator role in the level of affective response was investigated. Barron and Kenny (1986) indicated that a moderating effect was observed when the interaction between a main predictor (successfulness of plays and result of game) and a moderator (level of expectation) showed statistical significance. In addition, the moderator variable should be uncorrelated with a main predictor. General Linear Model (GLM) analyses revealed an interaction between the result of the game and the level of expectation, with $F(1) = 10.052, p < 0.01$ and a statistically significant correlation effect was not observed between the two variables. In addition, successfulness of plays and Expectation Scores also had an interaction effect when the affiliated team had the ball, with $F(1) = 52.661, p < 0.001$., as well as when the opposing team had the ball, with $F(1) = 20.338, p < 0.001$. Furthermore, there was no correlation effect between the two variables observed, which yields the conclusion that expectation played a moderator role for game results and the successfulness of plays on the level of AR.

Figure 10 then illustrated the impact of respondents' Expectation score (ES) on their level of AR. The black prediction line¹³ showed that people with higher ES scores reported feelings a higher level of pleasure when their affiliated team made successful drives, with $F(1) = 27.332, p < 0.001$, and it explained 13.4% of the variances. The black dashed prediction line¹⁴ predicted that people with higher ES scores would be more distressed when their affiliated team made unsuccessful drives, with $F(1) = 12.175, p < 0.01$, and it explained 6.2% of the variances. The gray prediction line¹⁵ demonstrated that people with higher ES scores also reported feelings

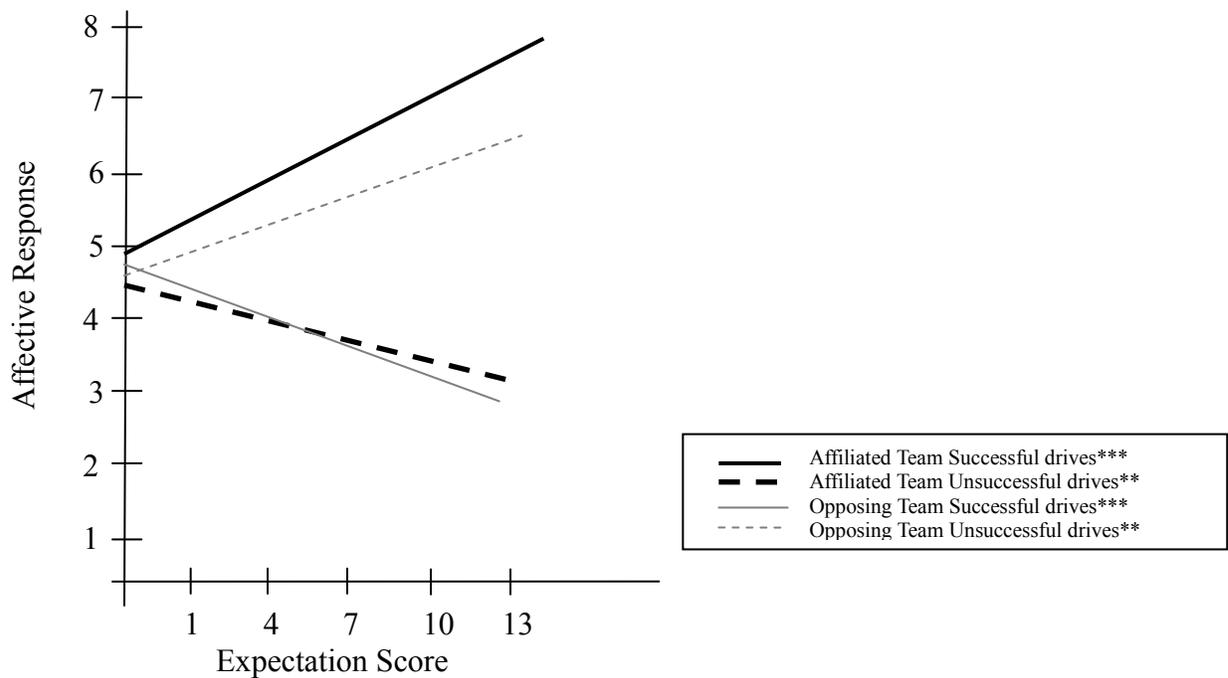
¹³ $AR_{\text{Affiliated Success}} = 4.920 + 0.198 \times ES$

¹⁴ $AR_{\text{Affiliated Unsuccess}} = 4.611 - 0.117 \times ES$

¹⁵ $AR_{\text{Opposing Success}} = 4.899 - 0.153 \times ES$

more distressed than did when their opposing teams played well, with $F(1) = 17.422, p < 0.001$. This prediction explained 8.8% of the variances. Lastly, the gray dashed prediction line¹⁶ showed that the opposing team's unsuccessful drives apparently gave people with higher ES scores more pleasure than did people with lower ES scores, with $F(1) = 8.074, p < 0.01$, and it explained 4% of the variances.

Figure 10. Relationship between Expectation Score and Affective Response



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

Expectation Scores (ES) and the Results of the Game

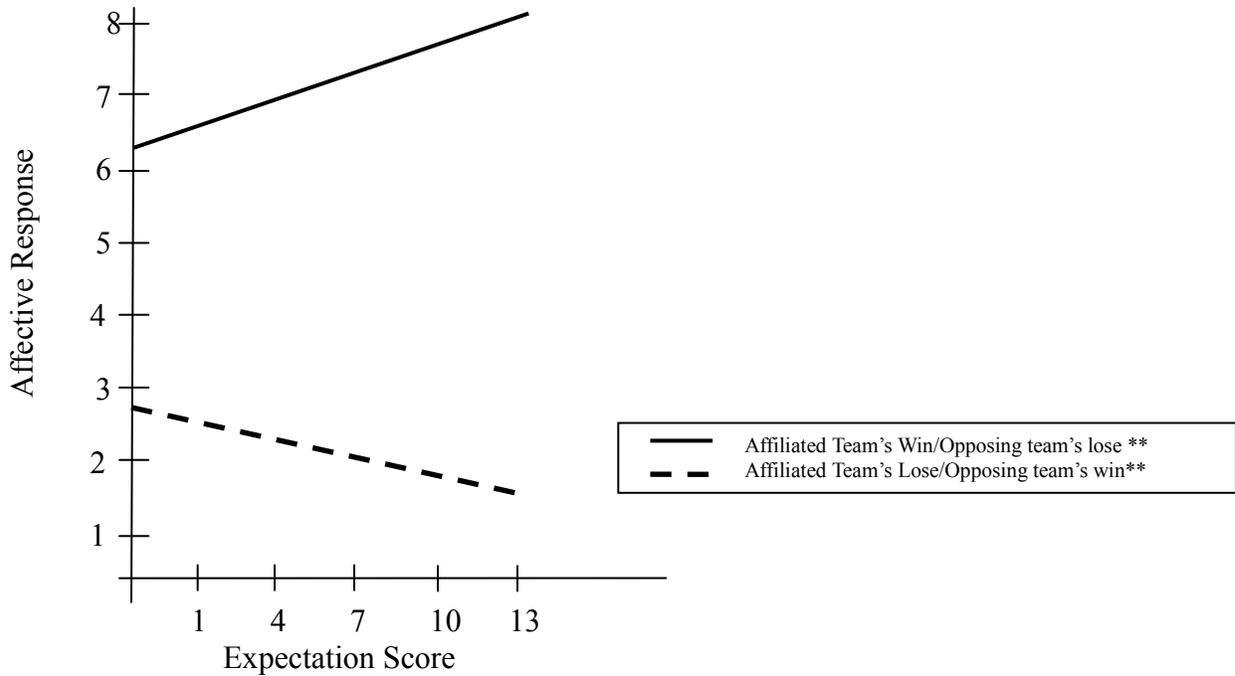
Figure 11 showed the relationship between Expectation Score (ES) and the level of Affective Response. The black prediction line¹⁷ represented the level of AR when the affiliated team won. Higher ES scores predicted higher levels of AR, with $F(1) = 4.047, p < 0.05$, and it

¹⁶ $AR_{\text{Opposing Unsuccess}} = 4.807 + 0.094 \times ES$

¹⁷ $AR_{\text{win}} = 7.328 + 0.090 \times ES$

explained 3.4% of the variances. The black dashed prediction line¹⁸ illustrated that people with higher ES scores reported feelings more distressed when they observed their affiliated team losing than did people with lower ES scores, with $F(1) = 6.415, p < 0.05$, and this relationship explained 6.3% of the variances.

Figure 11. Relationship between Expectation Score and Affective Response by Game Result



** $p < .01$.

Sports Spectatorship Identification Scale (SSIS)

The relationships between participants' scores on the Sports Spectatorship Identification Scale (SSIS) and other predictors as well as the participants' levels of AR were also investigated. SSIS scores ($M = 5.61, SD = 1.22; range: 1 - 7$) showed a slightly skewed distribution ($skewness = -1.090$), but it was close to normal ($kurtosis = 0.876$).

¹⁸ $AR_{lose} = 2.885 - 0.098 \times ES$

Sports Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS) and Expectation Scores (ES)

Table 11 showed that one's score on the SSIS was a statistical predictor of SE scores, with $F(1) = 133.925, p < 0.001$. Look at in more detail, the SSIS scores seemingly significantly influenced SEemo scores, with $F(1) = 163.721, p < 0.001$, explaining 49.7% of the variances. The SEcog ($\beta = 0.477$) scores and the SEsoc ($\beta = 0.558$) scores were also significantly influenced by the scores on the SSIS, these relationships explained 22.7% and 31.2% of the variances each. In other words, the more closely people reported feelings bonded with their affiliated team, the more they reported expected emotional, cognitive, and social outcomes from watching televised sports games featuring their affiliated team. Simple regression analysis revealed that Will Expectation score (WE) was not influenced by SSIS score, with $F(1) = 0.746, p > 0.10$. Because SSIS scores had a significant impact on SE scores, however, ES, which consisted of the SE scores and WE scores, was also significantly influenced by SSIS scores, with $F(1) = 43.364, p < 0.001$.

Table 11.

Relationship between Sports Spectatorship Identification Scale and Should Expectation Scores

Dependent Variable	SSIS		R^2
	β	T	
SEemo	0.705	12.840***	0.497
SEcog	0.477	7.005***	0.227
SEsoc	0.558	8.726***	0.312
Should Expectation	0.668	11.567***	0.446

*** $p < .001$.

Sports Spectatorship Identification Scale (SSIS) and the Level of Affective Response.

Sports Spectatorship Identification Scale (SSIS) scores also directly influenced the level of Affective Response (AR). Figure 12 illustrated the relationship between the SSIS scores and the level of AR. The black prediction line¹⁹ showed that people with higher SSIS scores reported feelings more pleasure when the affiliated team (Alabama) made successful drives, with $F(1) = 15.769, p < 0.001$. The black dashed prediction line²⁰ showed that the higher one's SSIS scores, the more the affiliated team's unsuccessful drives seemed to bring distress, with $F(1) = 33.505, p < 0.001$. The gray prediction line²¹ showed that the opposing team's successful drives created a reduced AR scores for those who initially had higher SSIS scores, with $F(1) = 18.001, p < 0.001$. The gray dashed prediction line²² indicated the level of reported AR of opposing teams' unsuccessful drives. The prediction line showed that people with higher SSIS scores reported feeling more distressed when their affiliated team did not play well, with $F(1) = 6.055, p < 0.05$.

Level of Expectation and the level of Affective Response

Various analyses revealed relationships among SE scores, WE scores, ES scores, SSIS scores, and AR. To analyze the related hypotheses, comparison among three expectation groups was conducted with ANCOVA analyses controlling for the score gap. First of all, after controlling for the score gap, successfulness of drives still predicted the level of AR at a statistically significant level. As Figure 13 showed, the prediction line (a) for the affiliated team's offense²³ showed significant differences in the level of AR between successful drives and

¹⁹ $AR_{\text{AFFILIATED Success}} = 5.049 + 0.397 \times \text{SSIS}$

²⁰ $AR_{\text{AFFILIATED Unsuccess}} = 5.749 - 0.429 \times \text{SSIS}$

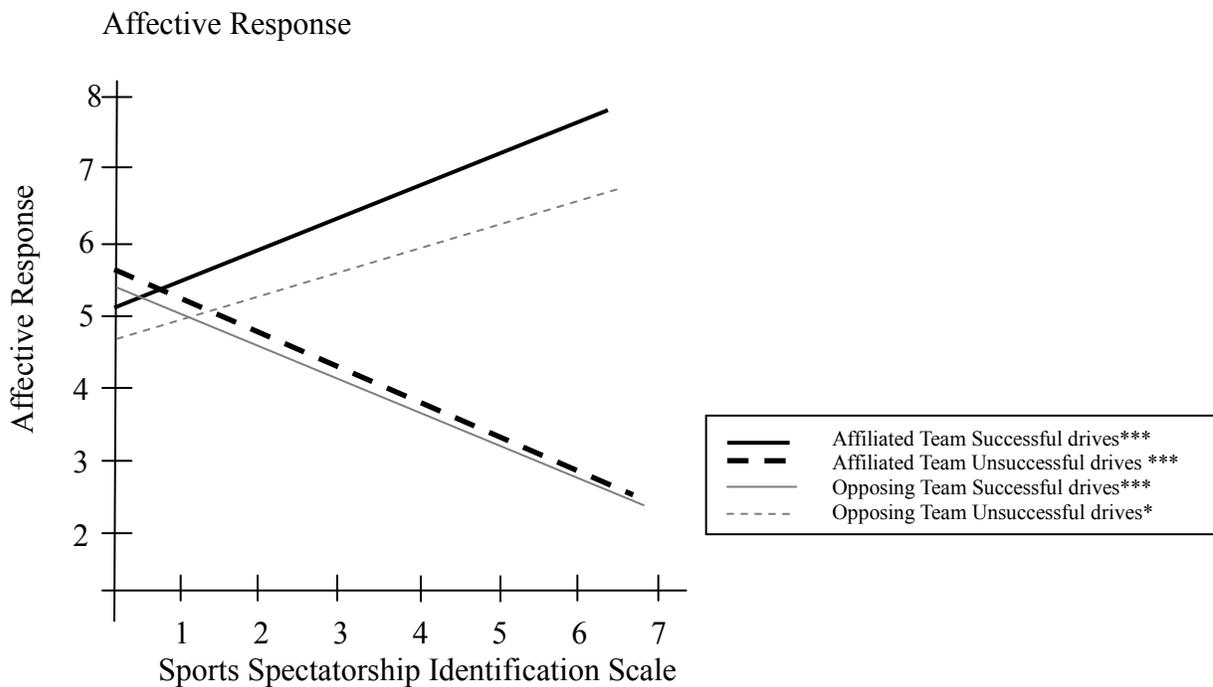
²¹ $AR_{\text{OPPOSING Success}} = 5.311 - 0.398 \times \text{SSIS}$

²² $AR_{\text{OPPOSING Unsuccess}} = 4.749 + 0.210 \times \text{SSIS}$

²³ $AR_{\text{Affiliated}} = 0.860 + 2.758 \times \text{Successfulness}$

unsuccessful drives, with $F(1) = 116.485, p < 0.001$. The prediction line (b) for the opposing teams' offense²⁴ indicated that level of AR was significantly decreased from when people observed unsuccessful drives to when people witnessed successful drives, with $F(1) = 269.879, p < 0.001$. Prediction lines (c) and (d) for results of affiliated team²⁵ and results of opposing teams²⁶ mirror each other and were statistically significant, with $F(1) = 199.241, p < 0.001$.

Figure 12. Relationship between Sports Spectatorship Identification Scale and the level of



* $p < .05$. *** $p < .001$.

Before the Game

Participants were asked about their pre-game mood. Figure 14 showed that the mean AR score of the optimistic group ($M = 7.2407, SD = 1.2876$) was higher than the mean AR score of the neutral group ($M = 5.7258, SD = 1.6711$) and the pessimistic group ($M = 4.3818, SD =$

²⁴ $AR_{Opposing} = 8.595 - 2.601 \times \text{Successfulness}$

²⁵ $AR_{Affiliated} = -5.098 + 6.785 \times \text{Result}$

²⁶ $AR_{Opponent} = 15.256 - 6.785 \times \text{Result}$

1.7585). A one-way ANOVA test also revealed that these differences among groups were statistically significant, with $F(2) = 44.039, p < 0.001$.

During the game

A detailed comparison of level of AR among the three expectation groups during the game was undertaken. Table 12 indicated the results of a one-way ANOVA test. This analysis revealed that the levels of AR scores for the affiliated team's successful drives of people in the neutral group ($M = 7.32, SD = 1.766$) and the optimistic group ($M = 7.19, SD = 2.409$) were higher than the level of AR for the pessimistic group ($M = 4.75, SD = 1.997$), with $F(2) = 51.203, p < 0.001$. For the affiliated team's unsuccessful drives, people in the optimistic group reported the lowest AR ($M = 2.84, SD = 1.525$) followed by participants in the neutral group ($M = 3.65, SD = 1.764$). People in the pessimistic group reported the highest AR ($M = 4.38, SD = 2.457$). This difference was also statistically significant, with $F(2) = 17.923, p < 0.001$. The opposing team's successful drives made participants in the optimistic group the most distressed ($M = 2.49, SD = 1.430$) and participants in the pessimistic group ($M = 3.65, SD = 2.531$). People in neutral group reported the level of AR ($M = 3.52, SD = 2.210$) as high as did people in the pessimistic group. This difference was also statistically significant with $F(2) = 11.147, p < 0.001$. Lastly, the opposing team's unsuccessful drives brought about the highest level of pleasure for people in the optimistic group ($M = 6.41, SD = 1.757$), while people in the pessimistic group ($M = 5.73, SD = 2.019$) and in the neutral group ($M = 5.78, SD = 1.626$) reported statistically significant lower AR, $F(2) = 4.876, p < 0.01$.

Figure 13. Affective Response by Successfulness of drives and Results of Game

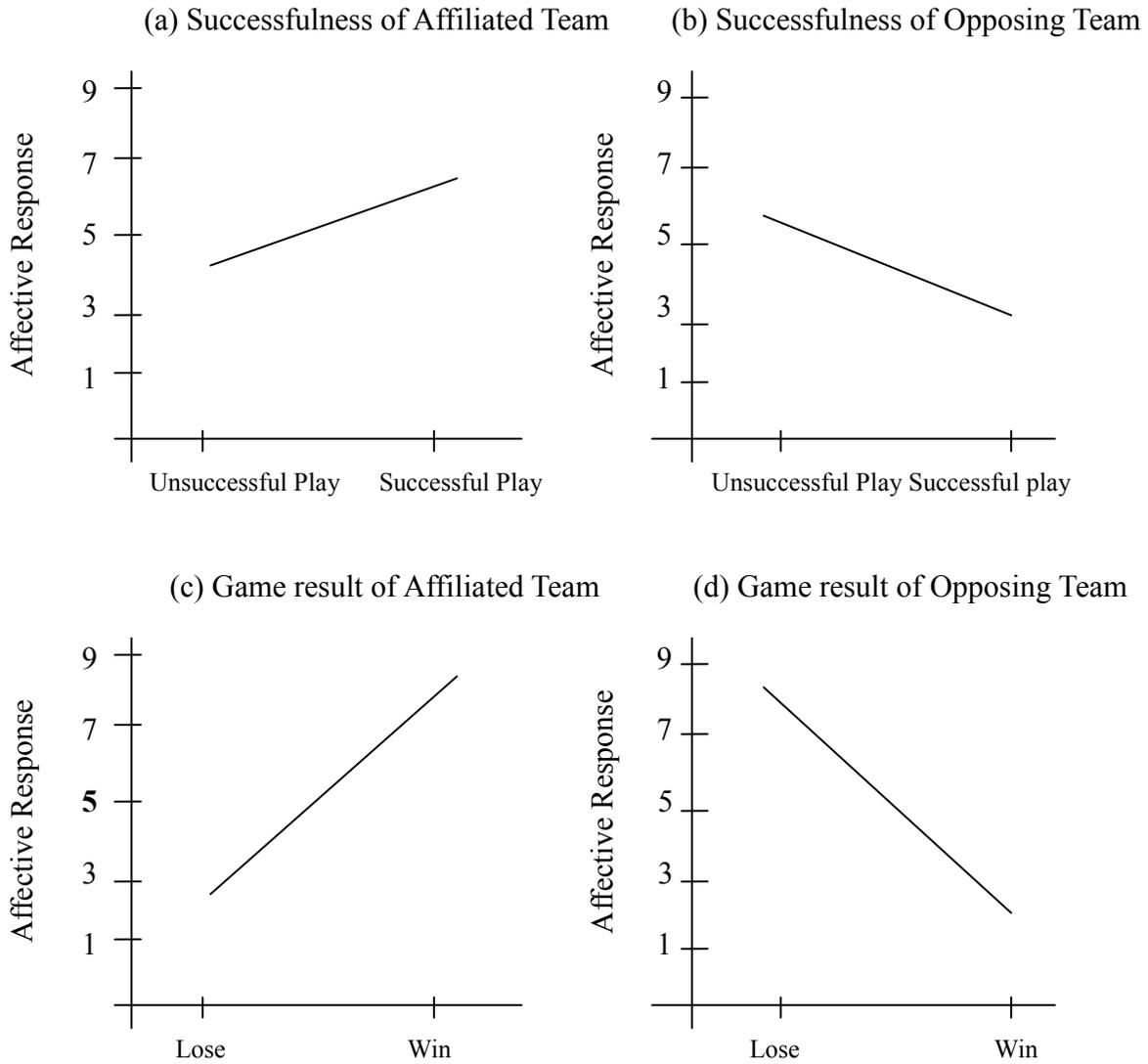


Figure 14. Mean level of Affective Response of Pre-game by Expectation Groups

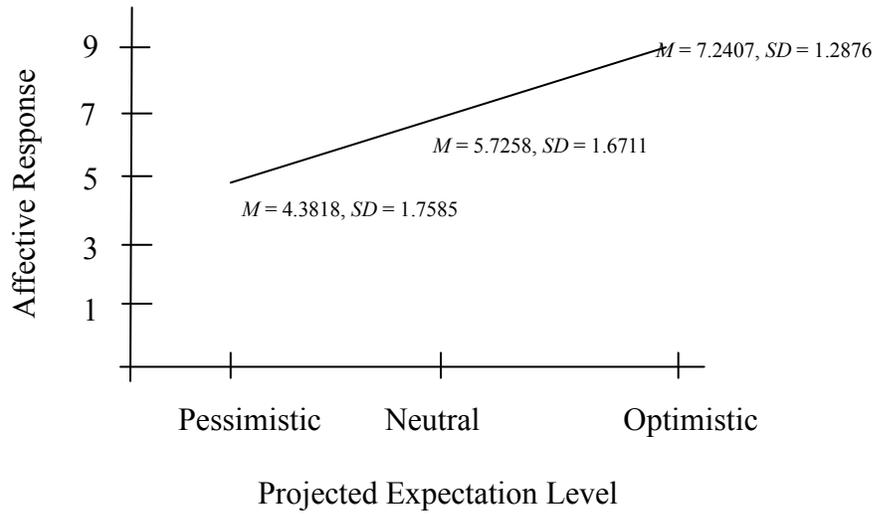


Table 12.

Mean Affective Response for each Expectation Group by Successfulness of plays

Successfulness		Low		Medium		High		Total		
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	
Affiliated	Successful									
	Team	Drives***	4.75	1.997	7.32	1.766	7.19	2.409	6.38	2.406
Opposing	Unsuccessful									
	Teams	Drives***	4.38	2.457	3.65	1.764	2.84	1.525	3.62	2.013
Total	Successful									
	Teams	Drives***	3.65	2.531	3.52	2.120	2.49	1.430	3.39	2.214
Total	Unsuccessful									
	Teams	Drives**	5.73	2.019	5.78	1.626	6.41	1.757	5.99	1.802
Total			4.56	2.381	4.83	2.359	4.87	2.771	4.76	2.505

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

Figure 15 showed the level of AR of each expectation group having controlled for the score gap. All four graphs feature positive slopes, which means that a higher score gap generates a higher level of AR. Considering the way of measuring score gap in this study, the negative value of score gap meant the affiliated team's losing situation, whereas the positive value of score gap meant the affiliated team's winning situation. That participants generally reported pleasurable feelings, as score gap was positive and increased, means the affiliated team's win with a bigger score gap created higher level of pleasure. For the affiliated team's (Alabama's) successful drives, as demonstrated in Graph (a), an optimistic expectation predicted a higher level of AR²⁷ than a pessimistic expectation.²⁸ In addition, though table 13 demonstrated people in neutral group reported a higher level of AR ($M = 7.32, SD = 1.766$), controlling for the score gap, the prediction line for the neutral group²⁹ fell in the middle of other groups, with $F(2) = 43.458, p < 0.001$. This relationship explained 29.3% of the variances. The level of AR for the affiliated team's unsuccessful drives, illustrated in Graph (b), also revealed statistically significant differences among groups, with $F(2) = 30.318, p < 0.001$. Graph (b) illustrated that the pessimistic group's prediction line³⁰ showed the highest level of AR, followed by the neutral group³¹ and the optimistic group.³² This relationship explained 41.7% of the variances. When the opposing team played well, as showed in Graph (c), the pessimistic group's prediction line³³ also showed the highest level of AR. The neutral group's prediction line³⁴ fell in the middle and

²⁷ $AR_{AfSuccessful \& Optimistic} = 6.934 + 0.06 \times \text{Score Gap}$

²⁸ $AR_{AfSuccessful \& Pessimistic} = 4.534 + 0.06 \times \text{Score Gap}$

²⁹ $AR_{AfSuccessful \& Neutral} = 6.568 + 0.06 \times \text{Score Gap}$

³⁰ $AR_{AfUnsuccessful \& Pessimistic} = 4.788 + 0.132 \times \text{Score Gap}$

³¹ $AR_{AfUnsuccessful \& Neutral} = 4.01 + 0.132 \times \text{Score Gap}$

³² $AR_{AfUnsuccessful \& Optimistic} = 3.19 + 0.132 \times \text{Score Gap}$

³³ $AR_{OpSuccessful \& Pessimistic} = 4.22 + 0.103 \times \text{Score Gap}$

³⁴ $AR_{OpSuccessful \& Neutral} = 3.645 + 0.103 \times \text{Score Gap}$

the optimistic group's prediction line³⁵ was on the bottom, with $F(2) = 10.316$, $p < 0.001$. This relationship explained 37% of the variances. Finally, when the opposing team played badly, represented in Graph (d), people in the optimistic group reported the highest level of AR.³⁶ For the opposing team's unsuccessful drives, the neutral group's prediction line³⁷ was at the bottom and the pessimistic group's prediction line³⁸ was in the middle, with $F(2) = 4.985$, $p < 0.01$. This explained 14.7% of the variances.

After the Game

Lastly, post-game feelings were reported by participants. Table 13 showed that participants' level of AR in the optimistic group was the highest ($M = 8.61$, $SD = 0.994$) when the affiliated team won. When the affiliated team lost, the level of AR in the pessimistic group was the highest ($M = 1.92$, $SD = 1.412$). People in the optimistic group had the lowest level of AR when the affiliated team lost ($M = 1.44$, $SD = 0.712$); however, participants reported fairly high levels of AR when the affiliated team won ($M = 8.55$, $SD = 1.021$). People in the neutral group reported the lowest level of AR ($M = 8.27$, $SD = 1.112$) when the affiliated team won. The level of AR when the affiliated team lost ($M = 1.69$, $SD = 1.176$), however, fell in between the other groups' levels of AR. Nonetheless—these differences were not statistically significant.

³⁵ $AR_{OpSuccessful \& Optimistic} = 3.143 + 0.103 \times \text{Score Gap}$

³⁶ $AR_{OpUnsuccessful \& Optimistic} = 6.340 + 0.073 \times \text{Score Gap}$

³⁷ $AR_{OpUnsuccessful \& Neutral} = 5.661 + 0.073 \times \text{Score Gap}$

³⁸ $AR_{OpUnsuccessful \& Pessimistic} = 5.949 + 0.073 \times \text{Score Gap}$

Figure 15. ANCOVA graph of level of Expectation and Affective Response controlled for the Score Gap

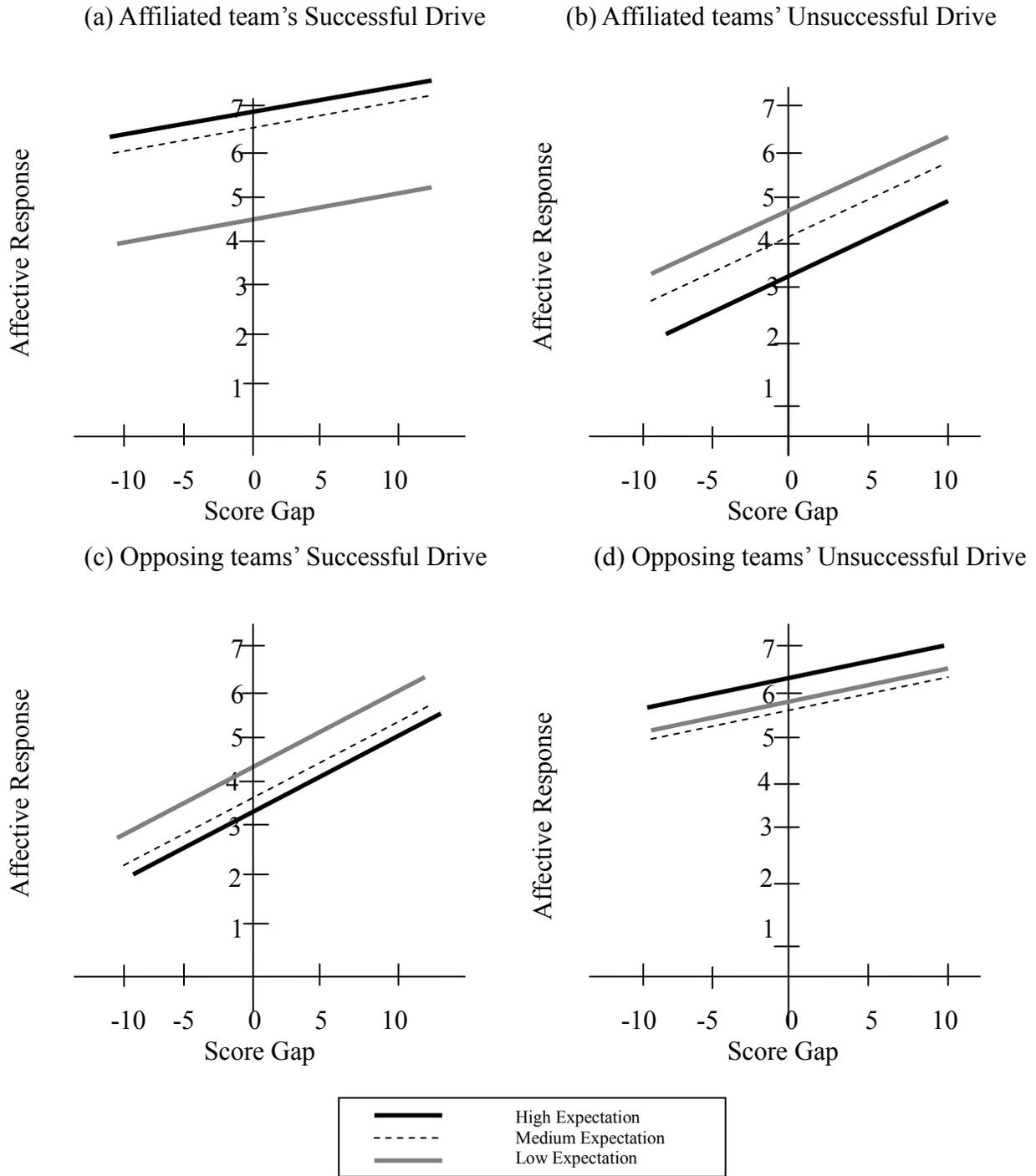


Table 13.

Mean Affective Response for each Expectation Group by Game Results

Result of Game		Pessimistic		Neutral		Optimistic		Total	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Affiliated	Win	8.61	0.994	8.27	1.112	8.55	1.021	8.47	1.044
Team	Lose	1.92	1.412	1.69	1.176	1.44	0.712	1.69	1.147
Total		5.39	3.579	4.87	3.504	5.26	3.687	5.16	3.572

Score gap and expectation groups. Because the main purpose of study was to look at the influence of expectation, the author opted to remove the suspense value from the analysis. Table 14, however, showed that the score gap of the games in this study significantly influenced participants' level of Affective Response at a statistically significant level. Hence, further investigation using the General Linear Model (GLM) was undertaken to figure out if there is any interaction between score gap and expectation groups. Figure 16 showed the results of further investigation on the relationship between score gap and expectations. The affiliated team's successful drives, as illustrated in Graph (a), showed significant interaction among three prediction lines, with $F(2) = 24.425, p < 0.001$. The black prediction line³⁹ had a steep slope, which meant that people were highly influenced by score gap. The gray prediction line⁴⁰ indicated that the level of AR of people in the low expectation group was not affected by score gap at all. Graph (a), especially, showed that when the score gap has a smaller negative value, there was an interaction between the level of AR of the pessimistic group and the level of AR the optimistic group. In other words, when the affiliated team was losing and the score gap was

³⁹ $AR_{AfSuccessful \& High} = 6.384 + 0.195 \times \text{Score Gap}$

⁴⁰ $AR_{AfSuccessful \& Low} = 4.744 + 0 \times \text{Score Gap}$

Table 14.

Relationship between Score Gap and Affective Response

Dependent Variables	Score Gap		R^2
	β	t	
AR _{PREFERRED} Success	0.324	6.059***	0.102
AR _{AFFILIATED} Unsuccess	0.514	13.525***	0.324
AR _{OPPOSING} Success	0.581	31.302***	0.336
AR _{OPPOSING} Unsuccess	0.358	6.860***	0.125

*** $p < .001$.

getting bigger, people in the optimistic group expressed a higher level of distress than people in the pessimistic group even though their affiliated team made successful drives. This interaction explained 38.5% of the variances.

The affiliated team's unsuccessful drives, represented in Graph (b), did not show an interaction between the level of AR among the three expectation groups, with $F(2) = 1.509$, $p > 0.10$. This relationship explained 41.7% of the variances. Positive and bigger score gap, which indicated an affiliated team's winning situation, generally created a higher level of AR. The black prediction line⁴¹ represented people's generally lower level of AR in the optimistic group than the gray prediction line,⁴² which represented the level of AR of people in the pessimistic group.

When opposing teams make successful drives, as showed in Graph (c), people in the pessimistic group (gray line) also reported a higher level of AR⁴³ than those in the optimistic

⁴¹ $AR_{AfUnsuccessful \& High} = 3.340 + 0.188 \times \text{Score Gap}$

⁴² $AR_{AfUnsuccessful \& Low} = 4.808 + 0.137 \times \text{Score Gap}$

⁴³ $AR_{OpSuccessful \& Low} = 4.208 + 0.1 \times \text{Score Gap}$

group.⁴⁴ No interaction observed between expectation and score gap in this relationship, which explained 36.7% of the variances.

Interaction between score gap and expectation was observed when the opposing teams made unsuccessful drives, demonstrated in Graph (d), with $F(2) = 14.170, p < 0.001$, which explained 21.2% of the variances. The black prediction line⁴⁵ indicated the level of AR in the optimistic group. The level of reported AR was relatively low when the opposing team made unsuccessful drives when the score gap was negative and smaller (Alabama was losing with a big score gap). However, the level of AR increased rapidly when the affiliated team was winning with a bigger score gap. In Graph (d), the gray prediction line⁴⁶ illustrated the level of AR in the pessimistic group. This prediction line showed a moderate slope by score gap. Even when the affiliated team was losing with a big score gap, participants in the pessimistic group expressed much higher level of AR than did people in the optimistic group. As the score gap got bigger and more positive, the level of AR of the pessimistic group became lower than that of the optimistic group, when the opposing team made unsuccessful drives.

The level of AR of the neutral group followed the pattern of expectation score for affiliated team's unsuccessful drives and opposing team's successful drives, as Graph (b) and (c) in figure 16 shows. That is, when the affiliated team made successful drives, the dashed prediction line⁴⁷ shows a moderately high level of AR. In other words, people in the neutral group expressed a higher level of AR, regardless of the affiliated team's winning situation or losing situation. For the affiliated team's unsuccessful drives⁴⁸ and the opposing team's

⁴⁴ $AR_{OpSuccessful \& High} = 3.027 + 0.085 \times \text{Score Gap}$

⁴⁵ $AR_{OpUnsuccessful \& High} = 6.160 + 0.262 \times \text{Score Gap}$

⁴⁶ $AR_{OpUnsuccessful \& Low} = 5.869 + 0.046 \times \text{Score Gap}$

⁴⁷ $AR_{AfSuccessful \& Medium} = 6.76 + 0.044 \times \text{Score Gap}$

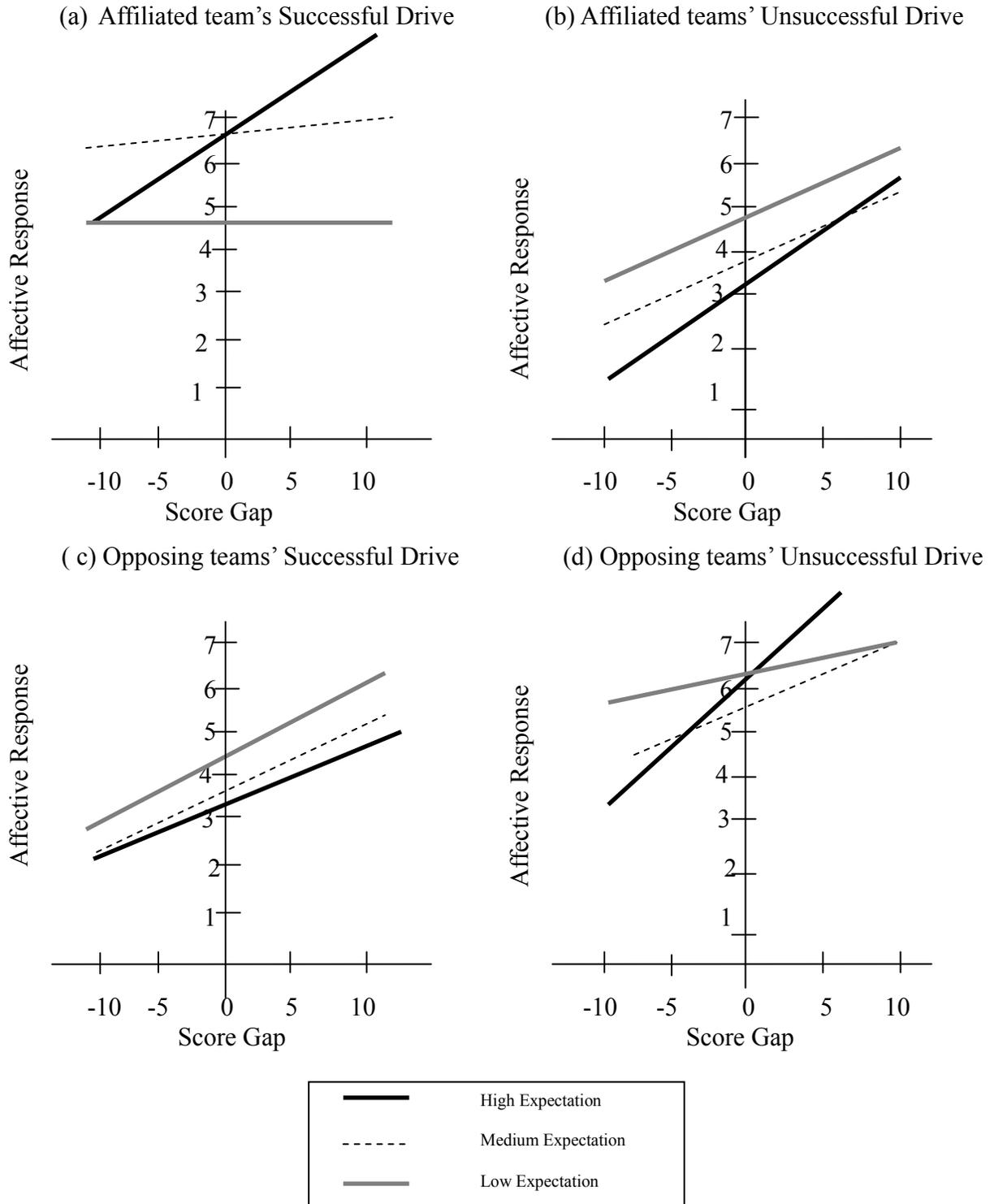
⁴⁸ $AR_{AfUnsuccessful \& Medium} = 3.961 + 0.113 \times \text{Score Gap}$

successful drives,⁴⁹ the prediction line of the neutral group fell in the middle of the other two groups' prediction lines. Lastly, the level of AR of the neutral group for the opposing team's unsuccessful drives⁵⁰ was higher than for the optimistic group when the affiliated team was losing and the score gap was getting smaller (Alabama was losing with a big score gap). At the same time, when the affiliated team was winning and the score gap was getting bigger, the level of AR of the neutral group was becoming higher than for the pessimistic group.

⁴⁹ $AR_{OpSuccessful \& \text{Medium}} = 3.653 + 0.11 \times \text{Score Gap}$

⁵⁰ $AR_{OpUnsuccessful \& \text{Medium}} = 5.629 + 0.091 \times \text{Score Gap}$

Figure 16. Interaction between Expectation and Score Gap by types of Drives



CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Various analyses and investigations were undertaken to answer two research questions and seek support for four hypotheses. The first and the second hypotheses, developed from a previous study by Zillmann et al. (1979), were confirmed in this study. The level of affective response of successful drives or win was statistically significantly higher than that of unsuccessful drives or loss. In this study, the level of affective response was measured during commercial breaks instead of after every play as Zillmann et al. had done. This is an easier way to measure participants' affective response during televised sports games, and the fact that the results were similar indicates that the easier way is just as effective.

The third and fourth hypotheses were analyzed to see if the level of expectation would moderate the level of affective response. Evidence to support expectation as a moderator has been found. First of all, that successful of plays generated higher level of affective response than did unsuccessful plays has been observed from previous study (e.g., Zillmann et al., 1979); in addition, the results of this study confirmed the effect. Secondly, interaction effect between the result of the game and the level of expectation was observed, with no statistically significant correlation effect between the two variables. In addition, successfulness of plays and Expectation Score also also showed an interaction effect with no statistically significant correlation effect between the two variables, which yielded the conclusion that expectation was playing a moderator role of game results and the successfulness of plays on the level of affective response.

The third hypothesis, that a higher level of expectation would negatively moderate the level of affective response was not fully supported. As observed in the results, people with a high expectation score reported a higher level of affective response when their affiliated team won. This was not supportive of H3a, which indicated that higher effective score would negatively moderate the level of affective response from observing affiliated team's win. For the successfulness of plays, people in the optimistic group reported statistically significant higher levels of pleasure when the affiliated team made successful drives and the opposing team made unsuccessful drives. In addition, higher expectation scores created higher a level of pleasure for the affiliated team's successful drives and the opposing team's unsuccessful drives. Look at in detail, the higher should expectation score and higher will expectation score both generally led to a higher level of pleasure. When looking at the interaction between expectation score and score gap, the level of affective response for the optimistic group was the highest among three groups, which confirms that the results showed exactly the opposite direction predicted by H3a. However, H3b was supported, because people with a high expectation score reported lower levels of pleasure when they watched affiliated team's losing. Comparison among three groups also disclosed that people in the optimistic group (high score on expectation score) generally liked their affiliated team's win and their distress level was observed to be elevated when the opposing team was losing. For the successfulness of plays, the relationship between the level of affective response and the unsuccessful drives of the affiliated team, successful drives of the opposing team, and the results of the game support the hypothesis. Specifically, when the expectation score was increased, the level of affective response was decreased; in other words, people reported feelings more distressed. Furthermore, with controlling for the score gap, people in the optimistic group reported feelings more distressed than did people in pessimistic group when the

affiliated team made unsuccessful drives and the opposing team made successful drives. Therefore, H3b was supported; and, overall, the third hypothesis was partially supported.

The fourth hypothesis, that lower level of expectation would increase the level of affective response when the affiliated team loses or performed badly, was not fully supported. In this analysis, the affiliated team's winning situation and successful plays again conflicted with a hypothesis. Specifically, H4a predicted that people with lower expectation scores would report feelings more pleasure when the affiliated team won or made successful plays. The results, however, showed an effect in the opposite direction. In particular, people with lower expectation scores (more pessimistic people) reported significantly lower level of affective response than did people with higher expectation scores (more optimistic people). Comparisons among groups also showed that people in the pessimistic group expressed a little bit higher level of pleasure for the affiliated team's win, even though it was not statistically significant. For the successfulness of plays, higher expectation score brought about a higher level of pleasure when the affiliated team made successful drives and the opposing team made unsuccessful drives. After controlling for the score gap, people in pessimistic group still reported lower levels of pleasure than did other expectation groups, which confirmed that H4a was not supported. On the other hand, H4b was partially supported. It was observed that the level of pleasure was increased as expectation score was decreased when the affiliated team lost. Comparison among groups also illustrated that the people in the optimistic group reported higher level of distress for the affiliated team's loss than did people in the pessimistic groups, however, it was not statistically significant. For the successfulness of plays, the expectation score influenced the level of affective response at the level of a statistical significance. Higher expectation scores (more optimistic) predicted a lower level of affective response (higher level of distress), when the affiliated team made unsuccessful

drives and the opposing team made successful drives. Further investigation with an interaction effect clearly demonstrated that people in the optimistic group reported much higher level of distress than did people in pessimistic group. Because H4b was partially supported, the fourth hypothesis was also partially supported.

The neutral group was also examined in this study. People in the neutral group generally reported moderated level of affective response compared with people in optimistic and pessimistic groups. One exception was observed when the opposing team made unsuccessful drives. In this situation, people in the neutral group reported feelings the highest distress. This exception was a glimpse of the unique characteristics of neutral group by which people were not able to predict the outcome of the game. The interaction effect between expectation and score gap also revealed that when the affiliated team made successful drives, regardless of the affiliated team's winning or losing situation, people in the neutral group expressed the highest level of pleasure, compared with people in other expectation groups. Especially when the affiliated team was losing with a big score gap, people in the neutral group were not as distressed as people in the optimistic group for the opposing team's unsuccessful drives. In addition, when the affiliated team was winning with a big score gap, people in the neutral group expressed a higher level of pleasure than people in the pessimistic group. However, other indications for the neutral group, for example, the situation of the affiliated team's unsuccessful drives and the opposing team's successful drives, and the general relationship between expectation score and the level of affective response, did not show any particular characteristic of the neutral group. Therefore, it is still hard to say whether the games for neutral group specifically predicted a higher or lower level of affective response than they did other expectation groups.

The first research question asked if sports identity as measured by sports spectatorship identification scale scores (the level of spectatorship) increased or decreased the level of affective response. A positive correlation between the level of spectatorship and the level of affective response for the affiliated team's successful drives and the opposing team's unsuccessful drives was observed. In other words, people with higher spectatorship identity reported feelings more pleasure when the affiliated team was playing successfully and the opposing team was playing unsuccessfully. On the other hand, when the affiliated team made unsuccessful drives or the opposing team made successful drives, higher level of spectatorship identity created higher level of distress when their affiliated team was not playing successfully and the opposing team was playing successfully.

In answer to the second research question, the influence of the level of spectatorship was also related to expectation score. A positive correlation between the level of spectatorship and should expectation scores as well as expectation scores overall was observed. Therefore, it is safe to say that people with stronger loyalty to a specific sports team expected more emotional, cognitive, and social outcomes from watching a televised sports game. Furthermore, should expectation scores were also significantly and positively related with the level of affective response. In particular, emotional should expectation scores were observed as a significant predictor for level of affective response. Considering that the level of spectatorship influenced the level of affective response, in answer to the first research question, the role of should expectation score on the level of affective response could be explained by a positive correlation between the level of spectatorship and expectation score overall. Therefore, it is safe to say that the level of spectatorship identity affected expectation scores, which ultimately moderated the level of affective response.

To sum up, except for the first and second hypotheses, the hypotheses were not fully supported because of the positive situations for sports spectators, for example, affiliated team's winning, affiliated team's successful drives, and opposing team's unsuccessful drives and their losing. H3a stated that high level of expectation (in other words, people's expectation of enjoying the game, winning, and better performance of affiliated team) would generally draw a lower level of affective response, in this case, pleasure. Furthermore, H4a predicted that people's expectation that they might have to suffer from the game because of a high chance of the affiliated team's losing would draw a higher level of pleasure from a win or successful performance of affiliated team. These hypotheses were not supported. Furthermore, the opposite findings from hypotheses were found, meaning that people reported a high level of pleasure for the affiliated team's better performance when they originally had a high level of expectation. On the other hand, H3b states that when the affiliated team did not perform well or lost, people in the optimistic group would report lower levels of affective response, in this case, stronger distress. H4b stated that people in the pessimistic group would not be as disappointed as people in the optimistic group when the affiliated team was losing or out-performed by the opposing team. These hypotheses were supported, which means that people in the optimistic group suffered more from the affiliated team's losing situation because they did not originally expect it. In addition, people in the pessimistic group were not very disappointed as much as people in optimistic group by watching opposing teams' better performance when affiliated team was losing, because they expected their affiliated team to have a hard time during the game or to lose. Investigation on the interaction effect between expectation and score gap disclosed that the affiliated team's successful drives drew a higher level of affective response from people in the optimistic group when the affiliated team was winning with a big score gap than from people in

the pessimistic group. This finding still needs further investigation because it might imply that people expected more intense competition and suspense from the game against a strong opposing team (pessimistic expectation), whereas people expected a dominating performance of the affiliated team from a game against a weak opposing team (optimistic expectation).

Table 15.

Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	Statement	Results
H1	Witnessing a win and successful performance of an affiliated team will create a higher level of AR than witnessing a win and successful performance of an opposing team.	Supported
H2	Witnessing a loss and unsuccessful performance of an opposing team will create a higher level of AR than witnessing a loss and unsuccessful performance of an affiliated team.	Supported
H3	After controlling for the suspense value, higher Expectation Score (<i>should expectation + will expectation</i>) will negatively moderate the level of AR.	Partially Supported
H3a	Higher Expectation Scores will negatively moderate the level of Affective Response from observing an affiliated team's win or successful plays and an opposing team's loss or unsuccessful plays.	Not Supported Opposite direction

H3b	Higher Expectation Scores will negatively moderate the level of Affective Response from observing an affiliated team's loss or unsuccessful plays and an opposing team's win or successful plays.	Supported
H4	After controlling for the suspense value, lower Expectation Score (<i>should expectation + will expectation</i>) will positively moderate the level of AR.	Partially Supported
H4a	Lower Expectation Score will positively moderate the level of Affective Response from observing an affiliated team's win or successful plays and an opposing team's loss or unsuccessful plays.	Not Supported Opposite direction
H4b	Lower Expectation Score will positively moderate the level of Affective Response from observing an affiliated team's loss or unsuccessful plays and an opposing team's win or successful plays.	Supported

CHAPTER 6

IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study have theoretical and methodological, as well as practical, implications.

Theoretically, a new predictor, expectation, was introduced in this study. Two kinds of expectations, should expectation (passive expectation) and will expectation (active and rational expectation), were thoroughly analyzed. Even though the hypotheses were only partially supported, the moderator effect of expectation was evident.

Methodologically, methods of previous studies were adopted, but with modifications. To simplify the measuring process, participants measured their affective response during commercial breaks instead of during every play. The results were not significantly different from those of Zillmann et al. (1979). In addition, considering the argument of Knobloch-Weterwick et al. (2008) that participants reported feelings more suspense if their affiliated team was losing, score gap was measured by subtracting opposing's score from affiliated team's score, which introduced negative score gap, indicating affiliated team's losing situation.

There were also practical implications of this study. The Sports Spectatorship Identification Scale (Wann & Brascombe, 1993) has been used to predict relationships between sports spectatorship and marketing indicators, such as purchase intention, intention to attend the sports game, purchase sponsor's product, and so on (Wann, 2006). Scholars in sports marketing considered creating and elevating spectatorship as a very big issue for marketers. In this vein, experimental sports communication studies always embraced the psychology of mediated sports

spectators. In particular, a relationship between the level of spectatorship and the level of affective response was suggested in this study. In addition, it was found that the level of spectatorship, especially, influenced the emotional should expectation score, which was positively correlated with level of affective response. Gender differences were also found in the analyses of the should expectation scores. Knowing which predictors created a high level of positive enjoyment should imply various tactics to marketers including where to advertise and how to promote the game. Wann (2006) suggested that dispositional aspect was a good indicator of sports spectatorship; therefore, the literature on sports communication has been always very valuable for practitioners and the findings of study were not an exception. In this study, old football video clips were used, which suggested that there would be psychological factors of sports spectators who are watching rebroadcasts or highlights of classic games.

Lastly, considering that the whole process of sports enjoyment started with *selective exposure theory*, implications could be broadened into sociological aspects. Putnam (1993) suggested that communal rewards in the environment encourage individuals in the sports environment to interact in intentional ways, either as participants, spectators, or volunteers. Interactions led to subsequent collaboration among group members, which stimulated stronger trust, and so sport might be a catalyst for social capital. In particular, sports could play a role in bonding a community (Putnam, 2000). Woo and Lowrey (2009) found that community journalists promoted sports as social capital by pursuing ideal community journalism and playing a role as community agent. When the community needs to fix social fragmentation, such as when small college sports are struggling with low attendance rate or non-dominant sports are not getting enough attention, manipulating expectations may help those sports organizations to promote them. Specifically, newspaper articles were used to manipulate participants' expectation

level in this study, and manipulated expectation played a moderating role to generate the level of enjoyment. Following the premises of selective exposure theory, people would be willing to participate or watch small college sports or non-popular sports more if it creates higher level of pleasure.

This study contained theoretical and methodological implications to expand the entertainment theory in sports, especially, *disposition theory*, and to suggest methods for measuring psychological factors of mediated sports spectators. In addition, various aspects of sports spectators, including the influence of expectations along with sports team identification and gender, were investigated in this study. These aspects are crucial for people or organizations which hope to influence sports spectators economically as well as sociologically.

CHAPTER 7

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE INVESTIGATION

The biggest limitation of this study was a failure to completely control for the suspense value. The original intention was to remove the suspense factor and focus solely on expectation in this study; however, because of the unpredictable nature of sports games, suspense value remained a crucial part of this study. There was evidence that the level of affective response in the optimistic group to the affiliated team's successful drives and the opposing team's unsuccessful drives was indeed lower than in other groups when the affiliated team was losing and the score gap was getting bigger. In other words, people in the optimistic group did not get excited with affiliated team's successful drives if their affiliated team was losing with a big score gap. Furthermore, people in the optimistic group retained their level of affective response for the affiliated team's successful drives and the opposing team's unsuccessful drives even when their affiliated team was losing by a large margin. This study included the results controlling for the score gap (i.e., suspense value), but it was still possible that suspense value affected the results.

In addition, generalizability is limited because the participants were mostly college students and there were twice as many female participants as male participants. Lastly, the nature of the laboratory environment might influence the result of this study; for example, it might weaken the level of pleasure or the level of distress.

Future researchers should embrace suspense value and combine it with expectation as antecedents of the mediated sports spectator's enjoyment. In addition, studies on live sports broadcasts would bring different results for level of expectation even though it is impossible to

control for suspense value in live sports broadcasts. Knobloch-Westerwick et al. (2008) asked for continuous predictions about the game while their participants were watching a live sports game. Future researchers also need to implement the change of expectation level during the game. The results of such studies would be more precise and meaningful.

In addition, future investigations should include a wider demographic variety of participants as well as a more balanced gender ratio. Making use of various experimental settings, such as tailgate parties, sports bars, and in-home parties would strengthen the generalizability of this study. Studies on other sports (e.g., basketball, baseball, figure skating, etc.) would also provide more insight into the role of expectation in sports entertainment.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

Expectations are embedded in discussions of entertainment theories. Selective exposure theory explains why people have an expectation of enjoyment when they select any media program from the overwhelming amount of media available. Disposition theory explains that expectations for protagonists' positive outcome entail enjoyment. The uncertainty of suspense also produces enjoyment; in the case of sports games, people really do not know what to expect. Combining these explanations with research on expectations and satisfaction in marketing studies, an expanded disposition theory and model of sports spectatorship has been suggested in this study. As a result, even though a moderator effect of expectation was found, the hypotheses of this study were not fully supported. Specifically, findings directly opposite to the hypotheses are clearly due to limitations of this study. Nonetheless, this study shall make a significant addition to the field of study of disposition theory and entertainment theory, because the level of expectation was empirically tested and embedded in its theoretical development.

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Appendix A

Newspaper Articles

High Expectation/Optimistic Group

Tuscaloosa News

Preview: No. 3 Alabama (9-0, 6-0) vs. Southern Mississippi (3-7, 3-4)

Tuscaloosa – Undefeated No. 3 Alabama will face Southern Mississippi this Saturday. The Crimson Tide is currently ranked 2nd in total defense and 3rd in rushing yards. The Golden Eagles have been struggling for the entire season and are ranked 113th in total offense and 115th in total defense. *Tuscaloosa News* sports analyst Rodney Upshaw said, “Alabama is too strong for Southern Miss, who allowed nearly 45 points per game in this season. The Golden Eagles have already turned their thoughts to next season, and it will be hard to find a way to win against Alabama, who are undefeated and have already slaughtered their SEC West opposings. Alabama will dominate this game.” Alabama leads the all-time series against Southern Miss with a 28-5-2 record.

Neutral Expectation/Neutral Group

Tuscaloosa News

Preview: No. 6 Alabama (8-1, 6-0) vs. No. 5 Penn State (8-1, 7-0)

Tuscaloosa – No. 6 Alabama will face No. 5 Penn State this Saturday. The Crimson Tide is currently ranked 2nd in total defense and 3rd in rushing yards. The Nittany Lions are ranked similarly to the Tide. *Tuscaloosa News* sports analyst Rodney Upshaw said, “This is the game of the week. It is very hard to predict this game. Both teams have similar offensive and defensive strategies. Both teams are very strong up front. Whoever has the better game will win this game.” Alabama leads the series against Penn State with a 6-5 record.

Low Expectation/Pessimistic Group

Tuscaloosa News

Preview: Alabama (4-4, 2-2) vs. No. 3 Notre Dame (8-0)

Tuscaloosa – Alabama will face No. 3 ranked Notre Dame this Saturday. The Crimson Tide has been struggling for the whole season and is currently unranked. Notre Dame is still undefeated and ranked 3rd in total defense and 5th in total offense in the nation. *Tuscaloosa News* sports analyst Rodney Upshaw said, “Notre Dame is too strong for Alabama. The Crimson Tide has not won a single game against a ranked opposing. I hope the Tide pulls a major upset this weekend, but I cannot see how this would happen. Notre Dame is particularly good this season, with an explosive offense and solid defense. It’s bad luck to have to play the Fighting Irish this season. Very bad.” The Crimson Tide has not won a game against the Irish in five matches.

Appendix B

Expectancy-Value for Mediated Sports Spectators

Based on your prior experience watching televised sports games, please indicate how strongly you agree with each statement below by filling in the blank of each question.

When I watch a televised sport game, I expect to:

	Not at all	Somewhat	Moderately	Strongly	Very strongly
watch my team win.	1	2	3	4	5
watch my team dominate the opposing team.	1	2	3	4	5
watch a great competition.	1	2	3	4	5
watch my hated team lose.	1	2	3	4	5
be excited by witnessing my team's win.	1	2	3	4	5
be excited by the toughness of the player or the game.	1	2	3	4	5
be nervous during the game.	1	2	3	4	5
feel emotional bonding with my team.	1	2	3	4	5
feel self-esteem.	1	2	3	4	5
feel superiority over the fans of the opposing team.	1	2	3	4	5
relieve stress from daily life.	1	2	3	4	5
learn about players and teams.	1	2	3	4	5
learn the rules of the game.	1	2	3	4	5
find a topic to discuss with my friends.	1	2	3	4	5
observe some beautiful scenes, such as the stadium, crowd, and places nearby.	1	2	3	4	5

observe some aesthetic movements by players in the game.	1	2	3	4	5
see athletic bodies.	1	2	3	4	5
see pretty or handsome faces of players.	1	2	3	4	5
relieve boredom.	1	2	3	4	5
reduce anger from daily life.	1	2	3	4	5
enjoy a moment of relief after the competition.	1	2	3	4	5
interact with other fans.	1	2	3	4	5
have a great time with friends.	1	2	3	4	5
have a great time with family.	1	2	3	4	5
win some money after the game.	1	2	3	4	5

Please specify other aspects of the experience you expect when you watch televised sports games

Appendix C

Sports Spectatorship Identification Scale

1. How important is it to you that the Alabama football team wins?
- Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 A great deal
2. How strongly do you see yourself as a fan of the Alabama football team?
- Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 A great deal
3. How strongly do your friends see you as a fan of the Alabama football team?
- Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 A great deal
4. During the season, how closely do you follow the Alabama football team via any of the following: in person or on television, on the radio, televised news or newspaper?
- Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 A great deal
5. How important is being a fan of the Alabama football team to you?
- Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 A great deal
6. Which team do you think is the greatest rival of the Alabama football team?
- (1) Auburn University Football team
- (2) University of Tennessee Football team
- (3) Louisiana State University Football team
- (4) Other (Please specify: _____)
7. How much do you dislike the greatest rivals of the Alabama football team you listed?
- Not at all** 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 **A great deal**
8. How often do you display the name or insignia of the Alabama football team you listed at your place of work, where you live, or on your clothing?
- Not at all** 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 **A great deal**

Appendix D

Will Expectations Scale

Based on the article you have just read, please indicate how strongly you agree with the each statement.

1. I predict Alabama will win this game.

	Strongly disagree				Moderate				Strongly agree			
Alabama will win this game	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	
Opposing team will lose this game	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	
Alabama will play well in this game	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	
Opposing team will play badly in this game	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	

Appendix E

Self-Assessment Manikin (SAM)

Appendix F

Play Sequences of Edited Football Game

Game	86 Notre Dame (Win)	87 Notre Dame (Lose)	81 Penn State (Win)	86 Penn State (Lose)	88 Ole Miss (Win)	94 Ole Miss (Lose)	
Score Gap	18	-31	15	-20	11	-11	
Version 1							
1	Category	BU1	BS1	BU1	BU1	OU1	OU1
	Contents	3 & Out	Field Goal	Fumble Lost	Fumble Lost	Fail to convert 3 rd Down	3 & Out
	Score Gap	0	3	0	0	0	0
2	Category	OU1	OS1	OU1	OU1	BU1	BU1
	Contents	3 & Out	Field Goal	3 & Out	3 & Out	Fumble Lost	Intercepted
	Score Gap	0	3	0	0	0	0
3	Category	BU2	BU1	BS1	BS1	OS1	OU2
	Contents	3 & Out	3 & Out	1 st TD	Field Goal	1 st TD	3 & Out
	Score Gap	0	0	7	3	-7	0
4	Category	OU2	OS2	OU2	OS1	BU2	BS1
	Contents	3 & Out	1 st Touch Down	3 & Out	1 st TD	3 & Out	Punt Return TD
	Score Gap	0	-7	7	-4	-7	7
5	Category	BS1	BS2	BS2	BU2	OU2	BS2
	Contents	Punt Return TD	Field Goal	3 rd TD	3 & Out	3 & Out	Field Goal
	Score Gap	7	-14	21	-4	-10	12
6	Category	BS1	OU1	OS1	OU2	BS1	OS1
	Contents	1 st TD	Fumble Lost	1 st TD	3 & Out	1 st TD	1 st TD
	Score Gap	7	-24	14	-14	-3	5

7	Category	OS1	BU2	BU2	BU3	OU3	BU2
	Contents	Field Goal	Failed 4 th Down Conversion	3 & Out	Fumble Lost	3 & Out	Fumble Lost
	Score Gap	11	-24	14	-17	4	-4
8	Category	BS2	OS3	OS2	OS2	BS2	OS2
	Contents	4 th TD	3 rd TD	2 nd TD	Field Goal	3 rd TD	3 rd TD
	Score Gap	18	-31	15	-20	11	-11

Version 2

1	Category	BU1	BS1	BU1	BU1	OU1	OU1
	Contents	3 & Out	Field Goal	Fumble Lost	Fumble Lost	Fail to convert 3 rd Down	3 & Out
	Score Gap	0	3	0	0	0	0
2	Category	OU1	OS1	OU1	OU1	BU1	BU1
	Contents	3 & Out	Field Goal	3 & Out	3 & Out	Fumble Lost	Intercepted
	Score Gap	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	Category	BS1	BU1	BU2	BS1	OS1	OU2
	Contents	Punt Return TD	3 & Out	Fail to convert 3 rd Down	Field Goal	1 st TD	Fail to convert 3 rd Down
	Score Gap	7	0	0	3	-7	0
4	Category	OU2	OS2	OS1	OU2	BU2	BS1
	Contents	Failed FG	2 nd TD	Field Goal	Fail to convert 3 rd Down	3 & Out	Punt Return TD
	Score Gap	14	-14	4	3	-7	7
5	Category	BU2	BS2	OU2	BU2	OS2	BS2
	Contents	Fumble Lost	Field Goal	Fumble Lost	Intercepted by defender	Field Goal	Field Goal
	Score Gap	14	-14	14	-4	-10	12
6	Category	OS1	OU1	BS1	OS1	BS1	OS1
	Contents	1 st TD	3 & Out	3 rd TD	2 nd TD	2 nd TD	2 nd TD
	Score Gap	7	-14	21	-11	-3	-4

7	Category	OS2	BU2	OS2	BU3	OU2	BU2
	Contents	Field Goal	Failed 4 th Down Conversion	1 st TD	Fumble Lost	3 & Out	Fumble Lost
	Score Gap	11	-24	14	-14	4	-4
8	Category	BS2	OS3	BS2	OS2	BS2	OS2
	Contents	4 th TD	Punt Return TD	4 th TD	Field Goal	3 rd TD	3 rd TD
	Score Gap	18	-31	15	-17	11	-11

Version 3

1	Category	BU1	BS1	BU1	BU1	OU1	OU1
	Contents	3 & Out	Field Goal	Fumble Lost	Fumble Lost	Fail to convert 3 rd Down	3 & Out
	Score Gap	0	3	0	0	0	0
2	Category	OU1	OS1	OU1	OU1	BU1	BU1
	Contents	3 & Out	Field Goal	3 & Out	3 & Out	Fumble Lost	Intercepted by defender
	Score Gap	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	Category	BS1	BU1	BS1	BS1	OS1	BU2
	Contents	2 nd TD	3 & Out	1 st TD	Field Goal	3 & Out	3 & Out
	Score Gap	14	0	7	3	-7	0
4	Category	OU2	OS2	OS1	OS1	BU2	BS1
	Contents	Fumble Lost	1 st TD	Field Goal	1 st TD	Fumble Lost	Punt Return TD
	Score Gap	14	-7	4	-4	-7	7
5	Category	BU2	BS2	OU2	BU2	OS2	OU2
	Contents	Fumble Lost	Field Goal	Intercepted by defender	Intercepted by defender	Field Goal	Safety
	Score Gap	14	-14	14	-4	-10	9

6	Category	OS1	OS3	BS2	OS2	BS1	OS1
	Contents	1 st TD	3 rd TD	3 rd TD	2 nd TD	1 st TD	2 nd TD
	Score Gap	7	-24	21	-11	-3	-4
7	Category	OS2	BU2	OS2	OU2	OU2	BU3
	Contents	Field Goal	Intercepted by defender	1 st TD	3 & Out	Fumble Lost	Fumble Lost
	Score Gap	11	-24	14	-14	4	-4
8	Category	BS2	OU1	BU2	BU3	BS2	OS2
	Contents	4 th TD	Fumble Lost	3 & Out	Fumble Lost	3 rd TD	3 rd TD
	Score Gap	18	-31	14	-17	11	-11

Note. 1. BS – Alabama’s Successful Drive, BU – Alabama’s Unsuccessful Drive, OS – Opposing Team’s Successful Drive, OU – Opposing Team’s Unsuccessful Drive, TD – Touch Down, FG – Field Goal. Negative score gap means Alabama’s losing situation, for example, Alabama is losing a game with 10:30 score, score gap is -20.