

IDENTIFYING THE CRITICAL FACTORS IN SPORT CONSUMPTION DECISION
MAKING PROCESS FOR THE MILLENNIAL SPORT FANS:
AN APPLICATION OF MODEL OF GOAL-DIRECTED BEHAVIOR

by

HYONG IL YIM

(Under the Direction of Kevin K. Byon)

ABSTRACT

The Millennial generation, also referred to as Generation Y, is receiving more attention from marketers due to their population size, consumption power, and their ability to influence the decision making of other consumers (Fromm & Garton, 2013). Although the demand for sport practitioners and the organizations to get to know the Millennials is high (Rovell, 2014), this generational cohort has not received much focus from the sport marketing academic field. Understanding the needs and desires of Millennials is critical for the future success of sport organizations. In addition there is no widely agreed generational categorization standard that sport marketing researchers can commonly use. Due to the lack of sport marketing research investigating Millennials and their sport consumption behavior, this important sport consumer remains unknown. To fill the gaps, the current problem, the need for the study, and the significance of the study was discussed in Chapter 1. Next, a literature review about the Millennials was conducted in Chapter 2. Finally, three studies (one study for each chapter) were conducted to explore Millennial sport fans in this dissertation. The purposes of Chapter 3 were: 1) to find the proper categorization standard to define sport generations and 2) to identify Millennial

sport fans' unique consumption traits that may influence their consumption behaviors. To accomplish the purposes, the triangulation mixed method of focus group interviews ($N = 18$) and survey study ($N = 300$) were used. As such, a total of five unique traits of Millennial consumption (i.e., community-driven, emotional, peer pressure-influenced, fan engagement, and technology-driven) were identified. The purpose of Chapter 4 was to test the Millennials' unique traits in a sport marketing context. Data were collected via Amazon Mechanical Turk ($N = 603$; ($n = 222$ for Millennials, $n = 139$ for Baby Boomers, and $n = 242$ for Generation X). Using a modified Model of Goal-directed Behavior (MGB; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001), Millennials' four sport consumption behaviors (i.e., game attendance, TV watching, online, and social media consumption) were examined and compared to those of Baby Boomers and Generation X fans' behaviors using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). Results supported the modified MGB's usefulness when predicting Millennial sport fan behaviors except for social media consumption. Generational differences were found, and this result may indicate unique sport consumption behaviors indeed exist for Millennials compared to those of the other generations. MGB is an extended model of the theory of reasoned action (TRA; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the theory of planned behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1991), but it has never been tested in the sport context. In addition, a modified MGB that was proposed in this dissertation is a more complex model than the original MGB, TRA, and TPB. Therefore, in Chapter 5, its efficiency was tested by examining model comparisons (vs. TRA, PTB, and MGB) using AIC and R-squared values examination.

INDEX WORDS: Millennial, Sport Marketing, Sport Consumer, Model of Goal Directed Behavior (MGB), Sport Fan, Generation

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HYONG IL YIM

B.A., Korea National Sport University, South Korea, 2004

M.A., Korea National Sport University, South Korea, 2007

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2015

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by

HYONG IL YIM

Major Professor:
Committee:

Kevin K. Byon
Thomas A. Baker, III
James J. Zhang

Electronic Version Approved:

Suzanne Barbour
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
Aug 2015

DEDICATION

To my loving wife, Halim, for her unconditional love, sacrifice, support, and endurance throughout this process and throughout our life together. I am truly thankful for having you in my life. I also dedicate this work to my son, Ethan, who has been such a joy in my life and has made me a better person every day since he was born – may you also be motivated and encouraged to reach your dream. This work is also dedicated to my parents and parents-in-law, who gave me their full material, emotional, and spiritual support, allowing me to be where I am today.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would never have been able to finish my dissertation without the guidance of my committee members, help from colleagues, and support from my family.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my advisor, Dr. Kevin K. Byon, for guiding me when I was lost in academia. His inspiration, excellent guidance, training, caring, patience, support, and encouragement helped me to achieve my best. This was far beyond the support that any student could ever expect from his/her mentor. I would like to thank Dr. Thomas A. Baker, III, who always treated me as one of his major advisees, for giving me the courage and guidance to become a better scholar through this process. I would also like to thank Dr. James J. Zhang, my academic grandfather, for guiding my research, helping me to develop my background and to see the big picture in the sport management field.

I also thank my academic brothers, who were always willing to help and give their best suggestions.

I thank my in-laws who offered me more support than I could have imagined. I thank my mother, father, and sister for their love and unending support throughout my life and all the years of school.

Finally, I would like to thank my loving wife and son, who were always there cheering me on and standing by me through the good times and the bad.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

“Basement grads” have recently found themselves in the political spotlight, just as “soccer moms” and “NASCAR dads” have in the past. The candidates of “Election 2014” tried hard to capture the votes of “basement grads,” so called because they live in the basements of their parents’ homes due to student debt and economic recession. This cohort, consisting primarily of Millennials (a.k.a., Generation Y), has received particular attention from both academics and managers (Fromm & Garton, 2013). Although there is no widespread agreement on the start and end points of the Millennial generation, based on the birth-year span 1977-1995 (e.g., Fromm & Garton, 2013), there are more than 80 million Millennials, representing more than 25% of the U.S. population. This generation has eclipsed the Baby Boomers (born between 1946 and 1964) in size and is three times larger than Generation X (born between 1965 and 1976). Therefore, they have not only received political attention but also become the largest consumer group in history (Fromm & Garton, 2013). Their collective buying power should not be ignored; their direct spending is recently an estimated \$200 billion annually, their indirect spending was reported an estimated \$500 billion annually (Fromm & Garton, 2013). Based only on the population size of this segment, businesses and marketing researchers cannot afford to ignore Millennials.

However, in addition to its size, this consumer cohort influences other consumers due to their generational characteristics: technology-driven, connected, interactive, having viral impact, authentic, transparent, adamant about sharing opinions, invested in “cause marketing,” highly

networked, collaborative, focused on community, and insistent on active participation in the creation and development of products. Due to these characteristics, Millennials have a strong influence over their parents' and friends' decisions, and the extent of this influence has attracted tremendous attention from marketers.

Sport marketers must also be prepared to meet the needs and desires of the largest and most influential generation of consumers yet. Furthermore, sport marketing scholars should turn their focus to Millennials for several reasons. First, although they are already the most influential consumer generation due to their size and market impact, they have not yet reached their peak earning and spending years. Within five to ten years, their spending power will increase significantly. Second, technology has become an indispensable marketing tool for sport marketers, considering its effectiveness and efficiency. Millennials have been raised using technologies (Kumar & Lim, 2008), so their willingness to use them is no longer in question. This consumer segment will consume through technology more frequently than any other segment in the future. Third, unlike previous generations, Millennials influence other consumer segments. Millennials tend to share information with their peers as well as with other generation groups, impacting a range of purchase decisions (Renn & Arnold, 2003). Their influence comes also from their tendency to spread the word, making them good agents for viral marketing. Fourth, they actively seek to give feedback to organizations. They like to share their opinions with companies and act as co-creators of brands and products. By listening to consumer voices, sport organizations can adapt their marketing strategies (and sometimes even product development) to meet the needs and desires of those consumers. Lastly, the study of Millennials can help resolve one of the biggest concerns of sport organizations: "the decrease of the attendance of the next generation." Rovell (2014) insisted that college students are not attending

football games as often as previous generations did. But this problem extends beyond college football programs. Because the sport business market is getting saturated with competitors, all sport organizations have a reason to be concerned. The study of Millennial sport consumers may help explain why sport event attendance rates are decreasing.

Problem Statement

To date, there are significant gaps in Millennial sport consumer studies. First of all, Millennial sport consumers have not received much attention from sport marketing researchers. Sport marketing practitioners emphasize the importance of Millennial consumers and insist that sport organizations prepare themselves to meet the needs and desires of Millennial sport consumers in order to survive (e.g., Rovell, 2014). The topic of the 2014 CSE Sports Marketing Symposium Conference in New York was ‘Millennial sport consumer behavior’, indicating the importance of better understanding this generation. However, researchers have not yet actively responded to the various questions raised. Second, the few studies that have examined the Millennial (i.e., Generation Y) sport consumer group inconsistently define and categorize the cohort (e.g., Bennett, Sagas, & Dees, 2006; Braunstein & Zhang, 2006; Cianfrone & Zhang, 2006), limiting generalizability. Third, previous research has been limited to action sport participation behavior (e.g., Bennett, Sagas, & Dees, 2006), focusing on various consumption behaviors related to X-Sports (i.e., extreme sports such as BMX biking) in older and younger generations. Although the results may help explain Millennial sport consumption in other contexts, more studies in mainstream spectator sports are needed.

Lastly, although previous sport studies concerning Millennial sport consumers have been conducted to explain Millennial sport consumption behavior (e.g., Braunstein & Zhang, 2005; Bush, Martin, & Bush, 2004; Cianfrone & Zhang, 2006), they have not accounted for the unique

generational traits of Millennials such as (a) community-driven (e.g., Barker, 2012; Bolton et al., 2013; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014; Williams & Turlow, 2005); (b) emotional (e.g., Getz & Carlsen, 2008; Kumar & Lim, 2008; O’Cass & Frost, 2002); (c) peer pressure-influenced (e.g., Fromm & Garton, 2013; Kim & Jang, 2014); (d) making their voices heard (e.g., Bolton et al., 2013; Bucic, Harris, & Arli, 2012; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014); and (e) technology-driven (e.g., Herbison & Boseman, 2009; Kavounis, 2008; Norum, 2003; Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009; Tsao & Steffes-Hansen, 2008). These unique traits should be considered when examining Millennial sport fan behavior.

Significance of the Study

Millennials have become one of the most important and influential consumer groups (Fromm & Garton, 2013). Sport marketers should not overlook the importance of the Millennial generation and should prepare to target this cohort group. The main constructs and theoretical frameworks used in the current study are generational cohorts (i.e., Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Millennials), community, emotions, peer pressure, and model of goal-directed behavior (MGB; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

First of all, using the generational cohort approach in sport marketing research can enhance sport marketing strategies. The generational approach is relatively new to the field of sport marketing. Of the generation studies conducted in sport marketing (e.g., Bennett, Sagas, & Dees, 2006; Braunstein & Zhang, 2005; Cianfrone & Zhang, 2006), most were not comparison studies but focused on the traits and characteristics of a certain generation (usually Generation Y). Also, their generational definitions were simply based on generation categories (i.e., distinguishing generations by the birth year). However, as the generational cohort approach claims generations are categorized not only based on the 20-25 year span but also based on the

experiences shared by a cohort group (e.g., the 9-11 for the Millennials; Parment, 2013). By applying the generational cohort approach (Markert, 2004) to sport marketing, market segmentation can be clearly defined, and sport marketers are able to deploy more effective marketing strategies to meet the diverse needs and wants of each generational cohort group. Sport organizations can also develop a sport product by targeting a certain generational cohort group. For example, according to cohort categorization, a cohort shares significant emotional events during their “formative years” (Strauss & Howe, 1991). In other words, significant events differ from one cohort to the next. Sport fans are no different; each generational cohort perceives different sporting events as significant. For example, many Generation X basketball fans may remember Michael Jordan’s games in 1990s as significant moments while Millennial basketball fans might consider LeBron’s games as the most significant player. In golf, many Baby Boomers may remember the rivalry between Arnold Palmer and Jack Nicklaus whereas Generation X might consider Tiger Woods the greatest golfer ever. Accordingly, sport marketers can use sport events, players, and moments in their messages (e.g., nostalgic emotion marketing; Chen, 2014) to meet the needs and wants of a target cohort.

Another extension of the generational cohort approach in sport is that multi-cultural generation studies can be conducted. When generations are distinguished using the 20-25 year span then generations are treated the same across cultures. However, as Schewe et al. (2013) suggested, generational definitions might differ across cultures because significant events are likely to differ. By adopting the generational cohort approach in sport and applying it to multi-cultural environments, researchers can identify multi-cultural generation segments that sport marketers can use in their messages.

Among the three generations (i.e., Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials), the Millennial generation has not received as much attention from sport scholars as they have from marketing and sociology scholars. Researching Millennials can provide insight into the decrease of the attendance of the next generation. Rovell (2014) noted that college students are not attending football games as often as previous generations. And the problem extends beyond college football. Because the sport business market is saturated and there is so much competition, all sport organizations have a reason to be concerned. Although researchers have begun to focus on constraints research to address this problem (e.g., Hur, Ko, & Valacich, 2007; Kim & Trail, 2010; Witkemper, Lim, & Waldburger, 2012), mere conclusion that the younger generation has lost interest in sport and that we must focus on constraints research might be a bit hasty. There is likely no difference between Millennials' team identification and loyalty levels and those of Boomers. Rather, Millennials might only engage in a different type and style of consumption; indeed, studies have shown that Millennials do have different characteristics from earlier generations. Identifying the sport consumption behaviors of Millennials is important because they will become the dominant consumption group when they enter their peak consumption ages. Sport consumption behaviors of Millennial are derived from their unique traits, specifically that they are more (a) community-driven, (b) emotional, (c) peer pressure-influenced, (d) adamant that their voices to be heard, and (e) technology-driven.

Purposes

In this dissertation a total of three studies were conducted to fill the gaps in the literature. The first study (Chapter 3) defined the age span for Millennials in the sport marketing context and revealed whether Millennial sport fans show any consumption behaviors that are missing from other generations. So far, sport scholars have not reached agreement in how to distinguish

Millennials from other generations. For example, Bennett et al. (2006) categorized Generation Y as people born later than 1982 while Cianfrone and Zhang (2006) defined the same group as people born between 1975 and 1992. This inconsistency leads to lack of generalizability of the findings. In order to shed this doubt and increase the credibility of our collective knowledge, Chapter 3 clearly defined generational cohorts and suggested how to categorize sport fan generations through an extensive review of previous generational cohort categorization studies. Another purpose of Chapter 3 was to explore Millennial sport fan consumption behaviors and compare them with other generations to see whether Millennials are unique in any way. After discovering unique behavioral traits, the following questions were further explored: “What are unique sport consumption behaviors of the Millennial generation?”, “What are the important factors that influence Millennial sport fan behavior?”, and “Are there differences in sport consumption behaviors among Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials?” In Chapter 4, in order to understand the decision making of Millennial sport fans in contexts other than action sports, the consumption behaviors of Baby Boomer fans, Generation X fans, and Millennial fans in diverse professional sports and college sports were examined by adapting the Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (MGB; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Millennials possess unique generational traits, including technology-driven, community-driven, emotional, peer pressure-influenced, and inclined to share opinions. Accordingly, Millennial sport fans might show different behavioral trends from other generations. For example, due to their technological and social preferences, Millennials might rather watch a HD or 3D broadcast at home with their friends than attend a live game. Or they may want to stay home and chat online with their fan community while watching the game. In these cases, the choice not to attend a game would not suggest a constraint but a different consumption preference among Millennial sport fans. A modified MGB

(hereinafter ‘Sport Fan MGB’) was used to examine the traditional sport consumption behaviors such as the game attendance behavior and TV watching behavior, as well as the relative newer form of sport consumption behaviors that included sport team related online and social media activities participatory behaviors among the three generations. The purposes of Chapter 4 were (a) to compare Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Millennial sport fan consumption decisions using Sport Fan MGB and (b) to compare behaviors of Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Millennial sport fans within the Sport Fan MGB framework.

Finally, the original MGB is an extension of such behavioral theories as theory of reasoned action (TRA; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and theory of planned behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1991). TRA and TPB have been used in sport marketing research, but MGB is still unfamiliar in the field. Also, MGB consists of unique constructs that include positive/negative anticipated emotions and desire. Furthermore, the Sport Fan MGB proposed for investigating Millennial sport fan behaviors by adding relevant constructs such as past satisfaction, team identification, fan community identification, and fan engagement. These complexities may allow enhancing the explicability of Millennial sport fan behaviors. In Chapter 5, the Sport Fan MGB was statistically compared with the original MGB, TPB, and TRA to validate its effectiveness.

Delimitations

The study was completed within the following delimitations:

- Research participants involved men and women over the age of 18.
- Research participants for the focus group interview involved Millennial generation. Millennial generation was defined as who were born between 1986 and 2005 (Markert, 2004) but due to the age restriction for study participation in the current study, Millennials who were born between 1986 and 1997 male and

female undergraduate and graduate students at a large public institution in Southeastern part of the United States who self-identified as a sport fan participated in the focus group interviews.

- Research participants for the survey studies were Baby Boomers (who were born between 1946-1965), Generation X (who were born between 1966 and 1985), and Millennial generation (who were born between 1986 and 1997) those who had attended a game in the past for one of the professional or college sport teams in the United States.
- The survey study was conducted via online questionnaire (Qualtrics).
- Research participation in the study was voluntary.
- Survey research participants were recruited from general population via a crowd-sourcing web service (Amazon Mechanical Turk).
- Data were collected in the spring of 2015.

Limitations

The following limitations were identified by the researcher which may have impacted the internal and external validity of the study:

- Millennials who were born between 1986 and 1997 (Early Millennials) participated in the current study.
- Focus group interview results might be limited to the professional and college teams in the southeastern region of United States.
- The generalizability of the study findings might be limited to only professional and college teams in the United States.
- It was a cross-sectional study.

- Due to the limit of a crowd-sourcing web service data, this study was limited to those participants who have Internet access.
- Collecting data through a crowd-sourcing web service was convenience sampling in nature, not a random sampling, which may cause lack of generalizability of the findings.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Millennials have received much attention from the fields of marketing and politics (Fromm & Garton, 2013) but not so much from sport marketers. Considering that their consumption power will grow even bigger when they reach their peak consumption age in the near future, sport marketing scholars have begun to encourage sport organizations to meet the needs and desires of Millennial sport fans. The key topic at the 2014 CSE Sports Marketing Symposium Conference in New York was Millennial sport consumption behaviors, and the featured panel at the 2015 IMG World Congress of Sports in Los Angeles was “Embracing the New Consumer: Cracking the Code on Generation Y.” To date, there is little research on Millennial sport fans, so we have only a small amount of data about this sport consumer group. Even among the few studies about Millennial sport consumers (e.g., Bennett, Sagas, & Dees, 2006; Braunstein & Zhang, 2006; Cianfrone & Zhang, 2006), there is little agreement on how to define and categorize this cohort. Exploring Millennial sport consumer behaviors requires a clear way to define consumer cohorts.

Generational Cohort Approach

For marketers (including sport marketers), finding and identifying groups or segments of consumers who share homogenous characteristics (e.g., value, culture, bonds, etc.) can help identify services and products that are likely to appeal to particular groups in a homogenous way (Parment, 2013). Age has been identified as an important grouping variable (Parment, 2013). However, segmentation based only on biological age has limitations because it does not account

for the motivation behind the consumption (i.e., why they consume) (Parment, 2013). A deeper understanding of an age group can be achieved through the generational cohort segmentation approach (Meredith, Schewe, & Karlovich, 2002; Parment, 2013; Schewe & Noble, 2000).

There has been no widespread agreement on the start and end points of the Millennial generation. Some analysts assert that Millennials were born between 1980 and 2000 (e.g., Miller & Washington, 2012); others claim the birth-year span is 1977-1995 (e.g., Fromm & Garton, 2013). Table 2.1 summarizes the generational distinctions suggested by previous studies.

The measurement intervals within and between generations vary from one study to the next. Also in the field of sport marketing, there has been little agreement on how to define Millennials in sport, leading to inconsistent generation categorization. For example, Bennett, Sagas, and Dees (2006) categorized Generation Y as people born later than 1982 while Cianfrone and Zhang (2006) defined that group as people born between 1975 and 1992. This inconsistency raises questions about whether we can trust the results and their generalizability. Why do these different age spans for Millennials (as well as other generations) exist? The answer lies in the different types of segmentation. There are generally two ways to classify age segments: (a) generation and (b) cohort. Although these two terms are often used interchangeably, they differ significantly from each other (Markert, 2004). They measure completely different time periods. Schewe et al. (2013) suggested that generations are determined by year of birth, usually a 20-30 year span. On the other hand, a cohort is defined not by birth year but by experiences (e.g., emotional or impactful) during the transition to adulthood (ages 17-23; often referred to as “coming-of-age”; Meredith & Schewe, 1994; Obal & Kunz, 2013; Schewe et al., 2013). The combined concept is a generational cohort, which is determined by the unique coherence of a demographic group based on their birth years (Obal & Kunz, 2013). Those unique experiences

will influence a generational cohort's values, preferences, attitudes, and buying behaviors over an entire lifetime (Meredith & Schewe, 1994; Ryder, 1965). The generation cohort theory (GCT) was first conceptualized by Ryder in 1965 and coined by Inglehart in 1977 (Brosdahl & Carpenter, 2011). Later, the generational cohort was defined as "a group of people born during the same time period and living through similar life experiences and significant emotional events during their formative years" (Strauss & Howe, 1991). Naturally, there are disparities in defining generational cohorts because some scholars might think a particular event is more important and influential than another. Also, different nations and cultures may have different ranges of generational cohorts because their significant events are likely to differ.

Accordingly, the ways in which researchers define "generation" differ from each other. When the intervals between generational cohorts differ among researchers, problems can arise. First of all, there are size differences between the generations (Markert, 2004). The size of a certain generation is one of the most critical factors to marketers. The key idea of market segmenting is to increase efficiency by dividing target customers into groups that share similar characteristics and interests. Large segment groups gain more attention due to their enormous buying power. Even product development takes target segments into account. One of the reasons that Millennials have received increasing attention is their size. Totalling more than 80 million, representing more than 25% of the U.S. population, this generation has eclipsed Baby Boomers (born between 1946 and 1964) in size and is three times larger than Generation X (born between 1965 and 1976). Therefore, they have not only received political attention but also become the largest consumer group in history (Fromm & Garton, 2013). Their collective buying power should not be ignored; their direct spending was recently an estimated \$200 billion annually, their indirect spending an estimated \$500 billion annually (Fromm & Garton, 2013). Based only

on their population size, businesses and marketing researchers cannot afford to ignore Millennials; rather, they must pay close attention to this consumer segment. This estimation of generation size is based on the generational cohort parameter for Millennials born between 1977 and 1995 (Fromm & Garton, 2013). However, if we apply Pew Research Center's (2007) definition of Millennials (i.e., born between 1981 and 1992), their size shrinks, and marketers are more likely to focus on Generation X or Baby Boomers. Second, when the size of the generations and the parameters are different, group comparison becomes problematic. Generation studies are important and interesting because we can compare generational cohorts and find differences. But comparing two generations that have different measurement scales would be like comparing apples and oranges (Markert, 2004). Third, disparities among generation range definitions and inconsistent age ranges can make generalization more difficult. For example, although a researcher finds a significant result in a generation comparison study, it might have low generalizability when (a) the researcher's definition of the generations is different from others and (b) the ranges for each generation used in the study are different from others. The findings are not likely to line up with the findings of other studies.

Especially in generation studies, researchers need to agree on common generational definitions and generational intervals. If researchers study the same population of interest over and over, the results can reinforce each other, creating a much clearer picture. Without a common generational definition scale, the work of various researchers will not cohere. Due to the inherent differences between the concepts "generation" and "cohort" and the use of the two concepts interchangeably, a standard to determine the range of dates for generations (Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y) had not been developed until Markert (2004) suggested one.

Markert (2004) developed a standard of generational cohort parameters for Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y. While determining the measurement intervals for the three generations, Markert considered three criteria when developing the standard: the size of each generational cohort, consistency with previous generation ranges, and inclusion of the cohort component. To meet all the criteria, he suggested 20-year increments between each generational cohort (see Figure 2.1).

With this 20-year age span for each generational cohort, he accounted for the generational categorization standard of the 20-25 year span, and the size of each generation became comparable. As a result, generalizability has become less of a concern. Lastly, Markert (2004) included the cohort approach in this recommendation. Researchers who used the cohort approach frequently used a ten-year interval (e.g., Muller, 1997; Ryder, 1985); others even used a five-year interval (e.g., Edmunds & Turner, 2002). The cohort approach can distinguish intragenerational subgroup differences in lifestyle (Markert, 2004). Generally, a generation is approximately a twenty-year span, so although the people within a generation share similar historical references and generation-specific experiences, there are also differences because the twenty-year time frame is quite large (Markert, 2004). Therefore, some researchers have divided generations into subgroups (e.g., Early-Boomers and Late-Boomers) using ten-year spans (e.g., Muller, 1997; Sweeney, 2002). Each subgroup (or division) is called a cohort, and in the case above, two ten-year cohorts comprise a generation (Markert, 2004). Five-year time frames have also been used for cohorts (Markert, 2004), creating four in a generation. The advantage of this fine-tuned distinction is that it better distinguishes the attributes within a larger group, a practice that is crucial to target marketing (Weinstein, 1994). Markert (2004) proposed the distinctions between generations and cohorts within generations (see Figure 2.2). Furthermore, with this

categorization standard, researchers can examine how people who are born almost at the end of a generational distinction year (e.g., a Baby Boomer born in 1964), are similar to (or different from) the people who are born at the beginning of the next generation start year (e.g., a Generation X born in 1966).

One concern with Markert's (2004) distinction is that because technology and lifestyles are changing more rapidly now than before, the five-year frame now might be completely different from the five-year frame in the early 1950s. It may be needed to alter the measurement scale by considering the era in which the advancement of technology, information, and lifestyle cycles is more accelerated. However, for now, the most theoretically appropriate generational cohort distinction standard comes from Markert (2004).

One challenge of any generation study is that some people question whether the phenomenon is due to age (e.g., younger people vs. older people); however, generation research has a long history, stemming from the generational cohort theory proposed by Mannheim in 1928 (Smelser, 2001). Studies have found that as a generation matures, it continues to differentiate its generation-specific characteristics from previous generations (Bolton et al., 2013). Even as Millennials grow older, their unique characteristics as a cohort will remain distinguishable from other generations.

Millennial Sport Fans

Millennials have not received as much attention from sport scholars as they have from marketing and sociology scholars. However, researching Millennials can provide insight into one of the biggest concerns for sport organizations: decreasing attendance in the next generation. Rovell (2014) wrote that college students are not attending football games as often as previous generations, even at SEC schools. And the problem extends beyond college football. Because the

sport business market is saturated and there is so much competition, all sport organizations have a reason to be concerned. Scholars have begun to focus on constraints research to address this problem (e.g., Hur, Ko, & Claussen, 2012; Kim & Trail, 2010; Witkemper, Lim, & Waldburger, 2012). However, concluding that the younger generation has lost interest in sport and that constraints research is the best approach might be a bit hasty. There is likely no difference in team identification and loyalty levels between Millennials and Boomers. Rather, Millennials might prefer to engage in different types and styles of consumption; indeed, studies have shown that Millennials do have different characteristics from earlier generations. Identifying the sport consumption behaviors of Millennials is important because they will be the dominant consumption group when they enter their peak consumption ages and then their consumption behaviors will become the norm. Literature review indicates Millennials' consumption behaviors are derived from their unique traits: (a) community-driven, (b) peer pressure-influenced, (c) emotional, (d) adamant that their voices be heard, and (e) technology-driven.

Community-Driven. One of the distinguishing group characteristics of Millennials is that they are more community-oriented than previous generations (e.g., Barker, 2012; Bolton et al., 2013; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014; Vance et al., 2009; Williams & Turlow, 2005). Many researchers agree that social media usage (i.e., Social Networking Services) increases community behaviors (Barker, 2012, Vance et al., 2009). Bolton et al. (2013) suggest that social media usage among Millennials influences consumption behaviors such as brand and user community building. In addition, it has been found that the younger generation's social media behavior influences the dissemination of healthcare information to communities (Vance et al., 2009). According to Paulin et al. (2014) the Millennial generation demonstrates community-driven behaviors by supporting social causes through social media. This generation has even

been considered as the “We” generation rather than the “Me” generation (Paulin et al., 2014; White & Pelozo, 2009).

In sport, Baby Boomers and Generation X fans came to the stadium because attending the game in person was the only way to experience the game vividly. For them, the primary sport fan experience was watching their favorite team’s game in a good seat with family members. However, for Millennials, staying connected, socializing, and being part of their community is an important factor in their lives (e.g., Sago, 2010) and in their consumption experiences (Fromm & Garton, 2013). The same idea applies to sport consumption. They might like going to stadium, but even in the stadium, they want to enjoy some kind of community feeling. Sport marketers have already noticed the need for social components in Millennial sport consumption behaviors and are trying to meet their needs, wants, and desires. For example, the NFL is trying to facilitate the upgrade of WiFi connections in the stadium of every NFL franchise, and many sport stadiums have reduced seating capacity to increase the social areas where fans can interact with each other while watching the game. Another change in sport consumption behavior for Millennials is that they tend to watch at home because television broadcasting is sometimes as vivid as a live game, staying at home is more comfortable, and they can watch the game with their peers while interacting with them. Also, the social aspect of consumption might be so important that they prefer to watch the game with their fan community group in a tailgating area or at home, where they can socialize and watch the game at the same time. Each of these behaviors indicates that the types and forms of Millennial consumption include community components.

Peer Pressure Influenced (Fear of Missing Out). Peer pressure is another important characteristic that can explain Millennial consumption behavior (Fromm & Garton, 2013; Kim &

Jang, 2014). This cohort does not make decisions without considering the opinions of their peers. Because one of their strongest motivations when making consumption decisions is “to look good to their peers” (e.g., Barker, 2012; Smith, 2012), they will make decisions that their peers think are “cool.” Kim and Jang (2014), in their status consumption context, identified Millennials as being very sensitive to peer reference groups. In addition, they may have a strong desire to convey certain impressions or social norms and are more likely to engage in conspicuous consumption behaviors. This peer group influenced construct has been studied using TRA, TPB, and MGB, where researchers (e.g., Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001) defined it as a “subjective norm” and “group norm.” This study will adopt these definitions to capture the group norm of their peer groups. For Millennial sport consumers, when their peer group thinks it is “cool” to go to the stadium, they will be more likely to attend the game. If their peer group is just tailgating in the parking lot, they are more likely to tailgate with their peers because they care about the opinion of those peers.

The Millennial generation’s peer pressure influenced behaviors can be also explained by the relative new phenomenon termed *Fear of Missing Out* (FoMO). It has been defined as a “pervasive apprehension that others might be having rewarding experiences from which one is absent” (Przybylski, Murayama, DeHaan, & Gladwell, 2013, p. 1841). This phenomenon is prevalent among Millennials because they exchange far more social information through social media utilities than the previous generation (Przybylski et al., 2013). Since Millennials are more likely to be influenced by their peers and possess a greater desire to stay continually connected with what others are doing, the FoMO phenomenon is more likely to be observed among the Millennials. In fact, Dossey (2014) characterized FoMO as a driving force behind social media usage and found that younger people showed higher levels of FoMO. Millennial sport fans’

behaviors such as attending games or following games online or through social media utilities may stem from the FoMO that they don't want to miss the chance to enjoy the game or to be isolated from the information other friends know about. Therefore, as a type of peer pressure influenced phenomenon, FoMO, should be characterized as a unique trait of Millennial sport consumption.

Emotional consumption. Another important trait of Millennials is that they are more emotional than Non-Millennials (e.g., Getz & Carlsen, 2008; Kumar & Lim, 2008; O'Cass & Frost, 2002). Research (e.g., Martin & Turley, 2004) has shown that Millennials are good at making rational (i.e., most economic) decisions by comparing prices and reviews using their information technology skills when purchasing products (Smith, 2011). However, during hedonic product consumption, they tend to engage in more emotional decision-making behavior (Getz & Carlsen, 2008; O'Cass & Frost, 2002). Getz and Carlsen (2008), in their wine consumption study context which is hedonic, found that pleasure was the dominant domain for Millennial wine consumption.

Therefore, emotion would seem to play an important role for Millennials when making decisions about sport consumption. Another important role of emotion in sport consumption by Millennials is that they tend to spread emotional content (e.g., Botha & Reyneke, 2013). Botha and Reyneke (2013), in the context of viral marketing, found that Millennials convey emotional content to their network; suggesting they tend to respond more to emotional stimuli.

Making their voices heard (Fan engagement). Millennials tend to be engaged in organizational management, marketing, and decision-making processes by making their voices known to organizations (e.g., Bolton et al., 2013; Bucic, Harris, & Arli, 2012; Calder et al., 2009; Paulin et al., 2014). They communicate openly with organizations they like and even with

organizations they don't like (Fromm & Garton, 2013). This consumer group does not just listen to organizations—they want organizations to listen to them. These consumers want to hear back from organizations when they provide feedback, as they are more engaged than Non-Millennials (Obal & Kunz, 2013). The Millennial generation's high level of social media usage is related to their engagement to the service organization (Calder et al., 2009). Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) noted that the exchange of user-generated content supported by social media helps Millennials build relationships, collaborate, establish trust, and help others more effectively and efficiently than in the past. Because of this trait, service organizations frequently provide optimal service to this group (Barker, 2012; Kueh & Voon, 2007; Lim & Loh, 2014).

Engagement is not hard to find among sport fans. Highly engaged sport fans show extrarole behaviors such as spreading positive WOM, displaying supportive behavior for their team (e.g., Swanson, Gwinner, Larson, & Janda, 2003), recruiting new customers, providing comments to help improve products, participating in new product development, and collaborating with other fans (Ahearne, Bhattacharya, & Gruen, 2005; Bettencourt, 1997; Füller, Matzler, & Hoppe, 2008). This engagement trait may also be observed among Millennials sport fans. As the literature suggests, social media has made fan engagement much easier than before and Millennials show high social media usage behavior (Calder et al., 2009; Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010).

Technology Driven. Researchers (e.g., Herbison & Boseman, 2009; Kavounis, 2008; Norum, 2003; Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009; Tsao & Steffes-Hansen, 2008) agree that Millennials are the first generation born into technology (i.e., high-tech, information technology, and digital technology), so any discussion about Millennial consumption behaviors must account for it. Using computers and smartphones, they compare prices online and read product or service

reviews before making purchase decisions (Moore, 2012). In sport, there are many types of sport consumer behaviors for which technology is used, such as fantasy sport participation, purchasing tickets online, fan community activities, leaving comments on sport organizations' websites (engagement behaviors), e-word of mouth (E-WOM), team SNS activities, and online helping behaviors (providing helpful comments to peer fans, a behavior that benefits sport organizations because it's directly related to increases in service quality). As Millennials exhibit technology-driven consumption behaviors, it will be more likely that Millennials fans show more of the above behaviors than other generations. In fact, the previously mentioned traits (i.e., community-driven, emotional, peer pressure-influenced, and wanting their voices heard), in many instances, emerge through the technology. For example, when Millennial sport fans participate in fantasy sport games, they participate because their friends are playing (peer pressure) and because the games are fun (emotion). Inherently, they connect with other fans (fantasy sport fan community), and by playing more, they become familiar with most of the players and teams in the league to the point where they provide suggestions for improving team performance on online message boards (engagement behavior). All of these behaviors take place online, and many other Millennial fan behaviors can be explained by looking at how their unique group characteristics reinforce each other.

Summary

The Millennial generation has received particular attention from both academics and managers (Fromm & Garton, 2013). Even though they have not reached their peak consumption age, their collective buying power should not be ignored; their direct spending was recently estimated at \$200 billion annually and their indirect spending was an estimated \$500 billion annually (Fromm & Garton, 2013). Because of their population size alone, marketers and sport

marketers must not ignore this generation of consumers. Accordingly, sport marketers from the field pay a great deal of attention to this consumer group and have tried their best to meet the needs and desires of Millennials (e. g., Rovell, 2014).

However, the Millennial generation has not received much attention from sport marketing researchers as of yet. Therefore, only a limited amount of research has been conducted on Millennial sport consumers (e.g., Bennett, Sagas, & Dees, 2006; Braunstein & Zhang, 2006; Cianfrone & Zhang, 2006). The few studies conducted have not taken a generational cohort approach, but have treated Millennials (or Generation Y) simply as a “younger” sport fans. Moreover, the context in these previous studies focused mostly on the various consumption behaviors related to X-Sports (i.e., extreme sports such as BMX biking). Instead of focusing on the chronical age, generation-specific unique characteristics should be examined in order to understand the Millennials as a consumer generation. Lastly, the most significant problem from these studies is that there has been no agreement on the definition of the Millennial generation. Without a common definition of the generation span, findings from Millennial sport consumer studies will lack external validity.

Therefore, a literature review was conducted to find the appropriate generation categorization approach for the sport consumer generation study and to reveal the Millennial generation's unique traits that influence their sport consumption behavior. Through the extensive literature review, Markert's (2004) generational cohort approach was found to be the most appropriate categorization for Millennial sport fan studies. Previous studies on Millennials conducted in other disciplines have also identified several unique traits of Millennial consumers: (a) community-driven (e.g., Barker, 2012; Bolton et al., 2013; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014; Williams & Turlow, 2005); (b) peer pressure-influenced (e.g., Fromm & Garton, 2013;

Kim & Jang, 2014); (c) emotional (e.g., Getz & Carlsen, 2008; Kumar & Lim, 2008; O'Cass & Frost, 2002); (d) making their voices heard (e.g., Bolton et al., 2013; Bucic, Harris, & Arli, 2012; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014); and (e) technology-driven (e.g., Herbison & Boseman, 2009; Kavounis, 2008; Norum, 2003; Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009; Tsao & Steffes-Hansen, 2008). These unique traits seem to be important variables that should be included in Millennial sport fan behavior studies. In summary, this generational cohort approach (Markert, 2004) and the Millennial sport fans' unique characteristics provide a richer understanding of sport consumer behavior to marketing researchers and practitioners.

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Table 2.1

Previous Millennial (Y) Generation Research and their Categorization of the Generation

Author(s)	Start and end points of the Millennial generation	Research Context	Generational difference (Y/N)
Kumar & Lim (2008)	Gen Y: 1980-1994 Baby boomers: 1946-1964	Mobile service quality perception differences between generations	Y
Barker (2012)	Millennials: 18-29 years (1981- 1992) (Pew Research Center, 2010a) Baby boomers: 46-64 years (1946-1964) (Pew Research Center, 2007)	Social networking site usage differences between generations	Y
Bennett, Sagas, & Dees (2006)	Gen X: 21-41 years (1961-1981 in 2002) Gen Y: below 21 (born later than 1982)	Generational difference in media preferences and consumption behaviors for action sport event	Y
Bolton et al., (2013).	Gen Y: 1981-1999 Gen X: 1961-1981 Baby boomers: 1946-1960 (Brosdahl & Carpenter, 2011)	Provides conceptual framework for social media use of Gen Y	NA
Brosdahl &	Gen Y: 1981-1999	Used Generational Cohort	Y

Carpenter (2011)	Gen X: 1961-1981 Baby boomers: 1946-1960	Theory (GCT) as framework to examine shopping orientation differences between generations (male) in retail setting	
Botha & Reyneke (2013).	Gen Y: 1978-1994 (Sheahan, 2005)	Explored relationship between viral marketing and emotion of Gen Y via interviews	NA
Braunstein & Zhang (2005)	Gen Y: 1976-1990 (Bolton, 2000)	Relationship between sport star power and Gen Y's sport consumption	NA
Bucic, Harris, & Arli (2012)	Millennials: 1985-1999 (Pendergast, 2007)	Millennial consumers' engagement in ethical consumerism in cross- cultural context	NA
Bush, Martin, & Bush (2004)	Gen Y: 1977-1994	Influence of athlete role model on purchase intention and behaviors among Gen Y	NA
Cianfrone & Zhang, 2006	Gen Y: 10-27 years old (i.e., 1975-1992; Bennett et al.,	Different levels of effectiveness of television	NA

	2002)	commercials, athlete endorsements, venue signage, and combined promotions among Gen Y	
Debevec et al., (2013)	Younger Millennials: 17-23 years in 2010 (i.e., 1987-1993) Older Millennials: 27-31 years in 2010 (1979-1983)	Compared younger and older cohort groups in terms of values	Y
Eastman & Liu (2012)	Millennials: 1986-2005 Gen X: 1966-1985 Baby boomers: 1946-1965 (Markert, 2004)	Compared level of status consumption between generational cohorts	Y
Eastman, Iyer, & Thomas (2013)	Millennials: 1977-1987 Gen X: 1965-1976 Baby Boomer: 1946-1964 (Norum, 2003)	Examined relationship between status consumption and Consumer Style Inventory (CSI) among Millennials	NA
Gardiner, King & Grace (2013)	Gen Y: 1977-1994 Gen X: 1965-1876 Baby Boomers: 1946-1964	Examined how memories of formative years influence present-day travel decision making between generations	NA
Gur��u (2012)	Gen Y: 1980-2000	Compared different	Y

	Gen X: 1961-1980	generational patterns of brand loyalty of services and products (France and Romania)	
Loroz & Helgeson (2013)	Gen Y: 1977-1994 Baby Boomers: 1946-1964 (Ferguson & Brohaugh, 2010)	Consumer values, personality traits, and responses to various advertising appeals between Baby Boomers and Gen Y	Y
Markert (2004)	Gen Y: 1986-2005 Gen X: 1966-1985 Baby Boomers: 1946-1965	Recommended that generational cohorts have equal intervals (20-year increments)	NA
Obal & Kunz (2013)	Millennials: 1979-1994 Baby Boomers: 1946-1964	How different cohorts build trust in e-service	Y
Parment (2013)	Gen Y: 1977-1990 Baby Boomers: 1946-1955	Compared Baby Boomers and Generation Y's shopping behavior in retail setting	Y
Reisenwitz & Iyer (2009)	Gen Y: 1977-1988 Gen X: 1965-1976	Explored differences between Gen X and Gen Y to provide useful	Y

		information for management and marketers	
Schewe et al. (2013)		Compared Millennials in the United States, Sweden, and New Zealand	Partially Y
Wuest et al. (2008)	Gen Y: 1977-1994 (Paul, 2001) Gen X: 1965-1976 Baby Boomers: 1946-1964 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2006)	Retail shopping preferences of three generations (perceptions of various features and services)	Y

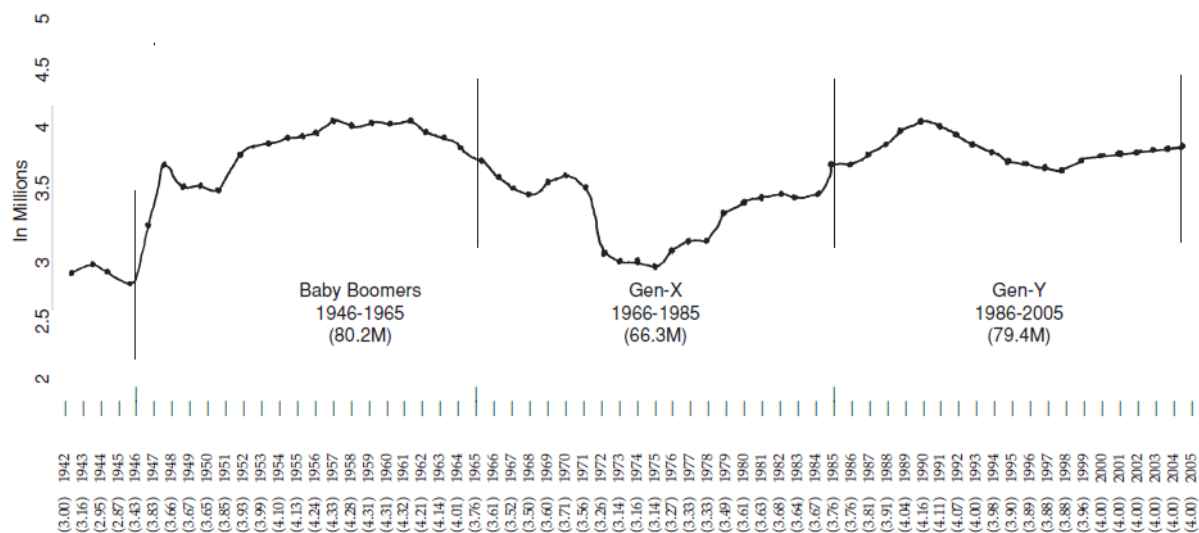
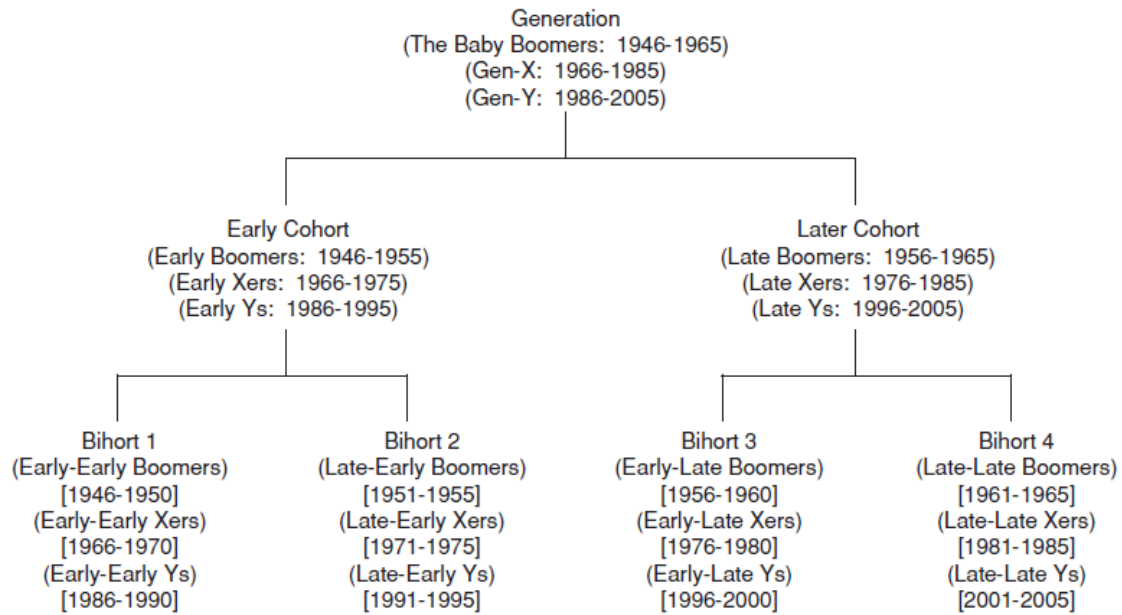


Figure 2.1. Population Estimates with 20-Year Increments between Generational Cohorts.
 Adopted from “Demographics of Age: Generational and Cohort Confusion” by J. Markert, 2004,
Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising, 26, p. 18. Copyright 2004 by the CTC
 Press.



*Figure 2.2. Birth Groups and Timelines. Adopted from “Demographics of Age: Generational and Cohort Confusion” by J. Markert, 2004, *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, 26, p. 21. Copyright 2004 by the CTC Press.*

CHAPTER 3

IDENTIFYING THE CRITICAL FACTORS IN SPORT CONSUMPTION DECISION
MAKING PROCESS FOR THE MILLENNIAL SPORT FANS:
TRIANGULATION USING LITERATURE REVIEW, FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS, AND
SURVEY METHOD¹

¹ Yim, B. H., Byon, K. K., Baker, T. A., & Zhang, J. J. To be submitted to *Journal of Sport Management*.

Abstract

The Millennial generation, also referred to as Generation Y, has recently received much attention from marketers due to their population size, consumption power, and influence on other consumers' decision making (Fromm & Garton, 2013). However, this generational cohort has not received much attention from the sport marketing academic field. Sport practitioners and organizations are highly motivated to know and understand Millennial sport fans (Rovell, 2014). Furthermore, Millennial sport fans' buying power and their influence on other sport fan generations is high that knowing their needs and desires is critical for the future success of sport organizations. In addition, there has not been wide agreement about how to categorize the Millennial generation, an important consideration in generational study. Hence the purposes of the study were (a) to identify a proper categorization standard to define sport generations and (b) to identify unique consumption traits that may influence Millennial sport fan behavior. These objectives were accomplished through the triangulation method (i.e., review of literature, focus group, and survey). Through a literature review, Markert's (2004) standard (Baby Boomers: 1946-1965; Generation X: 1966-1985; Millennials: 1986-2005) emerged as the most appropriate for sport fan generation study. Extensive literature review also revealed five unique traits of Millennial consumption: (a) community-driven, (b) emotional, (c) peer pressure-influenced, (d) adamant that their voices be heard, and (e) technology-driven. A total of eighteen participants were recruited for the focus group study, and three survey sessions were conducted (i.e., 100 data for each generation). The unique characteristics also emerged from a mixed method of focus group interviews and survey study.

Keywords: Millennial, sport marketing, sport consumer behavior, generation, Baby Boomers, Generation X, social, technology, community, emotion, peer pressure

Introduction

The Millennial generation, also referred to as Generation Y, has received much attention from marketers due to their population size, consumption power, and influence on other consumers' decision making. Based on the categorization of Fromm and Garton (2013), there are more than 80 million Millennials, representing more than 25% of the U.S. population. This population size exceeds the Baby Boomers and is three times larger than Generation X. They have become the largest consumer cohort in history. But their population size and buying power are not the only features that make marketers pay particular attention to them. The Millennial consumer cohort influences other consumers due to their generational characteristics: technology-driven, connected, interactive, having viral impact, authentic, transparent, adamant about sharing opinions, invested in "cause marketing," highly networked, collaborative, focused on community, and insistent on active participation in the creation and development of products. Because of these characteristics, Millennials have a strong influence over their parents' and friends' decisions, and the extent of this influence has attracted tremendous attention from marketers.

Considering the growing interest in Millennials from every discipline in our society, the sport marketing field should be prepared to investigate this powerful sport consumer group. Without meeting Millennial needs and desires, sport organizations cannot guarantee their future success, for Millennials will soon reach their peak consumption age. In fact, practitioners have said that attendance at college football games among younger sport fans has decreased (Rovell, 2014). And this problem affects not only college football; all sport organizations have a reason to be concerned. As a result, sport marketing practitioners have begun to emphasize the importance of Millennial consumers and to insist that sport organizations prepare themselves to meet the

needs and desires of Millennial sport consumers in order to survive (e.g., Rovell, 2014). The keynote topic at the 2014 CSE Sports Marketing Symposium Conference in New York was 'Millennial sport consumption behaviors', and the featured panel at the 2015 IMG World Congress of Sports in Los Angeles was 'Embracing the New Consumer: Cracking the Code on Generation Y.' However, academicians in sport management have not yet responded to the various questions raised there. Little research has been conducted on Millennial sport fans, so we have only a small number of data about this sport consumer group. Even among the few studies about Millennial sport consumers (e.g., Bennett, Sagas, & Dees, 2006; Braunstein & Zhang, 2006; Cianfrone & Zhang, 2006) the Millennial generation has been treated as the "younger" sport participants group, the study context are only limited to action sports and extreme sports. However, Millennials are not just "younger" people; they are a cohort with generation-specific characteristics that distinguish it from previous generations even as they mature (Bolton et al., 2013). Their unique consumption behavior is not due to age (Smelser, 2001), and their unique characteristics as a cohort are not likely to fade with time.

There are various research gaps existing in the current Millennial sport fan literature. First, there has been no agreement as to how to define Millennials in sport, leading to inconsistent generation categorization. For example, Bennett et al. (2006) categorized Generation Y as people born later than 1982 while Cianfrone and Zhang (2006) defined that group as people born between 1975 and 1992. This inconsistency raises questions about whether we can generalize the results. Another gap is uncertainty about the unique Millennial traits that may influence their consumption behavior. Hence, the purposes of the current study were to define the sport generational cohorts and more clearly identify unique Millennial consumption variables by examining differences in sport consumption behavior among distinct generations. The results

of this study provide the initial foundation for both sport researchers and practitioners who are interested in Millennial sport fans.

Literature Review

Defining Millennial Sport Fans

Age has been identified as an important grouping variable that marketers can use to provide services and products that are likely to appeal to particular groups in a homogenous way (Parment, 2013). However, a shortcoming of this biological age segmentation is that it does not account for the motivation behind consumption such as ‘why they consume’ (Parment, 2013). The generational cohort segmentation approach (e.g., Meredith, Schewe, & Karlovich, 2002; Parment, 2013; Schewe & Noble, 2000) can provide sport marketers a deeper understanding because it can capture specific traits exerting consumption behavior.

Millennials have received much attention from marketers, including sport marketers, due to their rising consumption power. Yet there has been no wide agreement as to how to define and categorize this consumer cohort group. Exploring Millennial sport consumer behaviors requires a clear definition of the cohorts. Some researchers assert that Millennials were born between 1980 and 2000 (e.g., Miller & Washington, 2012); others have defined their birth-year span as 1977-1995 (e.g., Fromm & Garton, 2013). The disagreement in defining the Millennial generation can be found also in the sport marketing literature. For example, Bennett et al. (2006) defined Generation Y as people born later than 1982 while Cianfrone and Zhang (2006) defined them as born between 1975 and 1992. The reason for the different age spans for Millennials (as well as other generations) is that researchers use different types of segmentation. The two most common ways to classify age segments are (a) generation and (b) cohort. These two terms are often used interchangeably, but they differ significantly because they measure completely different time

periods (Markert, 2004). With the generation approach, generations are defined by year of birth, usually a 20-30 year span (Schewe et al., 2013). However, a cohort is determined by shared experiences during the transition to adulthood (ages 17-23, often referred to as the “coming-of-age” years; Meredith & Schewe, 1994; Obal & Kunz, 2013; Schewe et al., 2013). The combined concept is a generational cohort, which is determined by the unique coherence of a demographic group based on their birth years (Obal & Kunz, 2013). Those unique experiences will influence a generational cohort’s values, preferences, attitudes, and buying behaviors over an entire lifetime (Meredith & Schewe, 1994; Ryder, 1965). The generational cohort has been defined as a group born during the same time period experiences similar significant emotional events during their formative years (Strauss & Howe, 1991). Accordingly, disparities in defining generational cohorts will emerge because researchers will disagree about which particular events are more important and influential than others. Therefore, the ways in which researchers define “generation” differ from each other. However, agreeing on common generational definitions and generational intervals is particularly important in generation studies. If researchers study the same population of interest over time, the results can reinforce each other, creating a much clearer picture of a particular generation. But when there is no common definition, the work of many researchers will not cohere. A standard for determining the range of birth years for a generation (i.e., Baby Boomers, Generation X, or Millennials) had not been developed until Markert (2004) suggested his method of categorization.

Markert (2004) developed a standard of generational cohort parameters for Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials based on three criteria: (a) the size of each generational cohort, (b) consistency with previous generation ranges, and (c) inclusion of the cohort component. He suggested a 20-year age span between each generational cohort in order to meet

all three criteria (see Figure 3.1). With these 20-year increments between each generational cohort, he accounted for the generational categorization standard that has been used in many previous studies (i.e., of the 20-25 year span), and the size of each generation became comparable, making generalizability more feasible. When developing the standard of generational cohort parameters, Markert (2004) included the cohort approach. Researchers who have used the cohort approach commonly apply a five-year interval (e.g., Edmunds & Turner, 2002) or a ten-year interval (e.g., Muller, 1997; Ryder, 1985). The cohort approach can distinguish intragenerational subgroup differences in consumption behavior (Markert, 2004). The 20-year time frame is quite large, so the people within a generation who share similar historical references and generation-specific experiences might also exhibit subgroup differences (Markert, 2004). Therefore, Markert (2004) divided generations into subgroups (e.g., Early-Boomers and Late-Boomers) using ten-year spans (e.g., Muller, 1997; Sweeney, 2002). He then divided the subgroup (or division) one more time into sub-subgroups, creating four cohorts per generation (see Figure 3.2). This fine-tuned distinction better distinguishes the attributes within a larger generation group, a practice that is crucial to target marketing in sport (Weinstein, 1994). The current study used Markert's (2004) generational cohort distinction standard because it is theoretically and practically most appropriate for sport marketers.

Millennial Sport Fans' Unique Consumption Traits

Sport marketing practitioners are concerned about decreasing fan attendance in future generations and among Millennials. Rovell (2014) argued that college students are not attending college football games as often as previous generations. Lower attendance is a threat not only to college football programs but also to the entire sport industry. Researchers have begun to focus on constraints research to solve this problem (e.g., Hur, Ko, & Claussen, 2012; Kim & Trail,

2010; Witkemper, Lim, & Waldburger, 2012). However, constraints might not be the reason. Millennials might simply prefer to engage in different types and styles of consumption. Millennials will reach their peak consumption age in the near future and they will become the dominant consumer group so knowing this consumer group will be critical for the success of sport organizations. However, due to the lack of Millennial studies in sport marketing, the unique traits that influence their behavior and their decision making process were examined through studies in other academic disciplines. In fact, previous studies in marketing, consumer behavior, psychology, and sociology have shown that Millennials do have unique characteristics: (a) community-driven, (b) emotional, (c) peer pressure-influenced, (d) adamant that their voices be heard, and (e) technology-driven. Although these unique traits were identified in contexts other than sport consumption, they are likely applicable to Millennial sport consumption because they are relevant to Millennial consumption behavior more generally.

Community-driven. Many researchers have found that Millennials are more community-oriented than previous generations (e.g., Barker, 2012; Bolton et al., 2013; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014; Williams & Turlow, 2005). For Millennials, staying connected, socializing, and being part of their community is an important value in their lives (e.g., Sago, 2010) and in their consumption experiences (Fromm & Garton, 2013). Therefore, when they make consumption decisions, they tend to consider social connections. When applying this unique trait to sport consumption, Millennial sport fans will show different behaviors because they are more community-oriented. For example, Baby Boomers and Generation X fans visited their favorite team's stadium because attending the game in person was the only way to experience the game vividly. Naturally, what Baby Boomers and Generation X may consider an important factor in deciding to go to the stadium is comfortable seating (Wakefield, Boldgett, & Sloan, 1996).

However, when Millennials make decisions, community feeling may be taken into consideration. Sport organizations have already noticed this trend and have tried to implement community features into the stadium experience when they provide services (Moura, 2014). Many sport organizations have reconstructed their stadiums, downsizing seating capacity but expanding areas where fans can interact with each other. Efforts have been made not only offline but also online. The National Football League (NFL) facilitated the upgrade of WiFi connections in every franchise's stadium so that the younger sport fans could interact in online fan communities (Hammond, 2014). This community experience not only influences fan attendance but TV watching behavior, online activity participation, and social networking service (SNS) activity behavior. For example, one reason Millennial sport fans prefer watching the game at home is that television broadcasting is as vivid as a live game these days, staying at home is more comfortable, and watching the game with their fan community members allows them to socialize in various ways. This social dimension explains why so many Millennials interact with others in their fan communities online (e.g., SNS) while watching the game. For this generation, community and socializing is one of the key factors in their consumption decision making.

Emotional. In addition to being community-driven, Millennials tend to be emotional in their consumption behavior (e.g., Getz & Carlsen, 2008; Kumar & Lim, 2008; O'Cass & Frost, 2002). Previous findings have shown that Millennial consumers are good at making rational (i.e., most economic) decisions by comparing prices and reviews using their information technology skills when purchasing products (Smith, 2011), but when engaged in hedonic product consumption, they tend to show more positive emotions and higher levels of confidence in their decision making (Getz & Carlsen, 2008; O'Cass & Frost, 2002). Sport product consumption involves lots of emotional expenditure, so when Millennial sport fans make decisions to consume

sport, they will consider potential emotional consequences. Furthermore, Millennial consumers tend to spread emotional content through online forums and SNS (e.g., Botha & Reyneke, 2013). Botha and Reyneke (2013) discovered that Millennials distribute emotional content through SNS, indicating that they tend to respond more to emotional stimuli. This trend is important to viral marketing. Considering the intensity of emotional experiences associated with sport consumption, Millennial sport fans' emotional responses could play an even more important role in helping sport content go viral, a clear advantage to sport organizations.

Peer pressure-influenced. Many researchers have found that peer pressure is an important trait in Millennial consumption behavior (Fromm & Garton, 2013; Kim & Jang, 2014). When Millennials make decisions, they care about their peers' opinions because one of their strongest motivations is "to look good to their peers" (e.g., Barker, 2012; Smith, 2012). So for Millennial sport consumers, when their peers believe that going to the stadium is "cool," they are more likely to go to the game. This pattern can be applied to other sport consumption behaviors, such as TV watching, online activity participation, and SNS activity participation. This peer pressure-influenced behavior is closely related to the relatively new phenomenon known as "Fear of Missing Out" (FoMO), "a pervasive apprehension that others might be having rewarding experiences from which one is absent" (Przybylski, Murayama, DeHaan, & Gladwell, 2013, p. 1841). Millennials have access to much more information through social media than the previous generation, and considering their susceptibility to peer pressure, they are likely to fear missing out on something that their peers know and share (Przybylski et al., 2013). Dossey (2014) characterized FoMO as one of the strongest motivations to engage in social media and demonstrated that younger people showed higher levels of FoMO. Millennial sport fans' tendency to follow their teams using social media can be explained by FoMO.

Adamant that their voices be heard. Millennials show high levels of engagement with the organizations they like. They tend to respond to organizational management, marketing, and decisions by making their voices heard (e.g., Bolton et al., 2013; Bucic, Harris, & Arli, 2012; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014). They communicate actively with the organizations they care about and even with organizations they don't like (Fromm & Garton, 2013). Traditionally, communication between organizations and consumers has flowed in one direction, from the former to the latter. But Millennials do not merely listen to organizations; they want the organizations to listen and respond to them (Obal & Kunz, 2013). Because of this unique characteristic, service organizations must provide optimal service to this generation by responding to their comments (Barker, 2012; Kueh & Voon, 2007; Lim & Loh, 2014). Sport organizations also must encourage Millennial sport fans to engage and respond to their comments in order to meet their needs and desires.

Technology-driven. Millennials are the first generation born into technology (i.e., high-tech, information technology, and digital technology), so their consumption behaviors are closely related to the gadgets they use to access online content (Herbison & Boseman, 2009; Kavounis, 2008; Norum, 2003; Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009; Tsao & Steffes-Hansen, 2008). The previously mentioned traits (i.e., community-driven, emotional, peer pressure-influenced, and adamant that their voices be heard) are all related to their interest in technology because it serves as a medium between them and their behavior. For example, one reason Millennials show higher confidence after making a purchase decision is that they have used computers and smartphones to compare prices online and read product or service reviews beforehand (Moore, 2012). This trait is involved in many sport consumption behaviors, such as fantasy sport participation, online ticket purchasing, watching sport games broadcasted in High Definition (HD), fan community

activities, leaving comments on sport organizations' websites, e-word of mouth (E-WOM), team SNS activities, and online helping. Millennial fans are even more likely to use technology when they consume sport because sport-related experiences complement their other generational traits.

Methodology

Previous studies in other consumption behavior areas have shown that Millennial behavior differs because of unique generational characteristics. Therefore, it is expected that Millennial sport consumption is likely to differ as well. However, without an empirical testing, concluding that Millennial sport fans will exhibit the same unique traits when consuming sport would be speculative. In the current study, these Millennial traits were explored using a triangulation method via mixed methods of focus group interviews and survey questions (Greene, 2007). Focus group interviews are commonly used by researchers to explore unknown consumer behavior (Reis & Judd, 2000). One shortcoming of this method is lack of generalizability due to the small sample size. To address this potential problem, following the focus group interview, a survey study was conducted to collect data from three sport consumer generations (i.e., Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) to triangulate the literature review and focus group findings. Following Greene's (2007) mixed method, triangulation was conducted to achieve convergence, corroboration, and/or correspondence of the results from multiple methods.

Focus Group Study

The focus group is a qualitative method in which a small group of six to ten people are led through a discussion about selected topics by a moderator for approximately one to two hours (Tynan & Drayton, 1988). There are no widely agreed-upon guidelines for conducting focus groups (Market Research Society Research and Development Sub-committee on Qualitative Research, 1979), but the procedure from Tynan and Drayton (1988) is considered one of the

most appropriate ones for exploring unique Millennial sport consumption patterns and was used in the current study.

The purpose of this focus group was to identify important factors that may influence Millennial sport fan behavior. A review of the literature emerged five unique consumption behavioral traits of Millennials: (a) community-driven, (b) emotional, (c) peer pressure-influenced, (d) adamant that their voices be heard, and (e) technology-driven. However considering the uniqueness of sport products, these traits could not be applied to sport consumption without rigorous empirical validation procedures. The aim of the focus group was to examine whether the unique traits of Millennial consumers would be present in Millennial sport fans.

Research questions. The first step in conducting a focus group is to identify the research questions that will direct the qualitative investigation. A series of focus groups was conducted to address the following questions: (a) “What kinds of sport consumption behavior do Millennials exhibit?” (b) “What factors influence Millennial sport fan behavior?” and (c) “Are there differences in sport consumption behavior among Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials?” A moderator was recruited and a discussion guide outlining the key questions was prepared. Three types of focus group questions were prepared: (a) engagement questions; (b) exploration questions, and (c) exit questions. The engagement questions were introduced and made the participants comfortable with the general topic of discussion (e.g., “what is your favorite team?”). The exploration questions raised the core topics of discussion (e.g., how being community-driven, emotional, peer pressure-influenced, adamant that their voices be heard, and technology-driven influenced sport consumption). The exit questions were asked to check

whether any ideas were missed in the discussion (e.g., “Do you have anything else to share?”). A total of ten questions were prepared, following the guidelines of Elliot et al. (2005).

Participants and measurement. When recruiting focus group participants, researchers must consider the number of participants in each session, group composition, and the number of sessions. First, too small a number of participants in each focus group session can result in the loss of useful data, but too high a number can make discussion management difficult (Fern, 1982). In terms of composition, the group should be homogenous. Participants in a homogeneous group tend to have more free-flowing conversations. Given the purpose of this study, only Millennial participants were recruited for the focus group. Concerning the number of focus group sessions, conducting at least three is preferable, and the sessions should continue until no more new ideas or information emerges from the discussion (Tynan & Drayton, 1988).

In the current study, three focus group interview sessions were conducted with a total of 18 participants. Following Morgan (1992), six participants were recruited for each session to obtain information. The participants, recruited from a large public university in the southeastern part of the United States, represented the Millennial generation of sport fans (see Table 3.1).

For easy and convenient access, focus group interviews took place during the Spring 2015 semester in a conference room at the same institution where the focus group participants were recruited. In the conference room there was a round table where the moderator, researcher, and the focus group participants were able to sit in a circle and freely discuss the topics. The moderator managed the focus group discussions, and the researcher observed. To guide the discussion, the moderator used prepared questions (see Appendix A). All of the discussions were recorded using a digital audio recorder, and the researcher obtained consent from the participants

before any discussion began. The researcher operated the recording equipment and took notes throughout the discussions.

Data analysis and emergent themes. Krueger's (1998) systematic process for analyzing focus group interviews was used to analyze the data (see Figure 3.3). Through the thematic analysis, five themes for Millennial sport fan consumption emerged: (a) technology usage, (b) peer pressure and FoMO, (c) social interaction, (d) emotional consumption, and (e) wise consumption (rational choice + desire to be comfortable).

Theme 1: Technology usage. As previous studies have shown, technology is an important factor in Millennial sport consumption. For Millennials, using technology in consuming sport tends to be natural. Most of the unique traits found in the literature emerged through the use of technology. The focus group participants used technology when attending games by purchasing tickets online or engaging in social commerce. Also, they used the e-tickets they downloaded on their mobile phone when entering the stadiums for the sake of convenience. Furthermore, they used recent technology such as mobile apps to follow their favorite teams and interact with other fans.

"Personally, I use the app to follow Alabama sports because around here you don't have a radio station that broadcast which is fun to listen from the childhood, but here you don't have that, but the app is providing that, and it is a great source for entertainment. If it is not on TV, just use the app."

"I only bring my phone to the game now, and I can do pretty much everything that needs to be done. And I don't have to worry about anything else than that. I mean it works every time, and I've never had an issue."

“I watch from the mobile devices while I am not home, but if I am at home, I can kick it from my mobile devices to my television through apple TV, so I just mirror the screen and watch on my 60-inch television that I bought for that reason. But when I am on the road sitting in an airport or something, I use my mobile device to watch ESPN or something. It is a good advantage to have. For example, Georgia baseball is on the PlusOne network, so if I want to watch Georgia baseball, it’s not the same (as TV).”

One unique sport consumption trait that the Millennial focus group participants showed is that they used social media to meet their desire to consume diverse sport products that are not available through traditional media outlets. For example, some of the participants followed their favorite home team’s game on social media when they were not broadcasted on TV in their area. Others used social media because the sport they were interested in was not a traditionally popular spectator sport in the United States, such as Women’s NCAA swimming or European sport. This finding implies that Millennials enjoyed various spectator sports that had not been popular in the United States among other generations.

“I think one of the unique ways that I keep up with North Carolina baseball team especially is through their twitter that they keep up with every game. Unlike college basketball, college baseball games are not covered many times, so the games are not able to watch, so (through twitter) the game is covered inning by inning or when there is a big play like hitting a home run. Then they post something. Or usually they do half inning by half inning recaps, so it’s a good way to follow the game.”

“You know, I am trying to catch up with all the Michigan athletics games on TV, but they are not always available. I mean sometimes they are on Big Ten Network, sometime they are not. When they are not, I try to find online streams.”

“I think for non-revenue sports, the online streams make a huge difference. I know that the swimming team streamed their SEC conference and the NCAA championship streaming on online, and I watched that. And I think from the technology standpoint, for the non-revenue sports, it’s amazing how fast the results are updated, so previously it took time to update the results, but now it’s become much faster, so the non-revenue sports are benefiting from the technology.”

“There was this British basketball team, and it was the only way to watch this team, and it was twitter. They did not have any kind of video. Maybe they had one skype televised one game a season, but other than that, it was twitter. That was it. So it was pretty neat to keep with it, but it makes you watch it (twitter) even more because you can’t see it.”

Theme 2: Peer pressure and FoMO. Peer pressure-influenced behaviors were also found through the focus group interviews. What was most noticeable is that the Millennial sport fans (specifically the younger Millennials) exhibited FoMO behavior. The reason they attended, watched, or followed their favorite team’s games was to avoid missing anything about their team so that they would not look bad to their friends or family. Considering that “live event consumption” is the key component that makes sport so interesting and exciting, missing the newest information might be critical when interacting and communicating with their friends and family.

“Being in Florida, there are a lot of Florida fans. My entire families are Florida fans so I stayed connected to know what they are doing so that I know what’s happening so that I can speak intelligibly with them and then they kind of feel a little bit... make them feel kind of worse when I throw back in their face. It is almost for me. So I have

updates for their games and I know what's happening in their situations because I try to communicate with my friends, I guess trash talk a little bit... that way."

"I know all my college friends are big fans of NBA, so when it comes to peer pressure, I absolutely think it exists. I mean I am not a fan of NBA. I mean I more like follow the NBA teams but not the individual players. However, I definitely feel pressure when they are watching it, then I just sit and soak it up, I just--that way I have news and some intelligence to know what others are talking about and what's going on when someone had a big game or something like that."

"For my team's peer pressure, I have to know all about my team. I mean once the game was played until midnight and I was in bed, but because of my peers, I felt it was almost like an obligation that I have to know the game results and what's going on."

"Sometimes on weekends when I am with a group of friends, I think we should have the Georgia game on, but I didn't grow up from a big sport fan family, but when I moved to Georgia, I feel like I have to keep watching them."

"I feel like I feel the peer pressure to watch SEC football to know what is going on because I think you got to be intelligent."

"I think social media could be an influence and it goes back to peer pressure because we want to have conversations and don't want to miss any jokes that we can understand only when we watched the game or the commercials."

"I think the biggest pressure I feel to consume sport is from my friends. When I came home, my friends and roommates, they have the sport channels on and that's why I am watching and will watch the next couple of hours."

“When it is game day, I have to wake up and participate in tailgating at the house. Peer pressure has some kind of negative connotation, but it is peer pressure. Your friends are doing something, so you want to do something, attending some event and having fun. And so I definitely go to the game because of peer pressure.”

“Sometimes when a majority of my friends go home, then I also don’t go and donate my ticket. If they are not here, why would I stay and go to the game. I think peer pressure influences a lot on my sport consumption.”

“Like the seniors always plan a tailgate, and you go to the tailgate, and you go to the game altogether, and it’s definitely a group mentality, and it’s not a bad thing because you want to be there. It’s not like “oh I have go to the game.” You are happy, and you want to go. It’s like the FOMO kind of idea. Why would I not go to the game when everyone else will be at the game. I think it is a good peer pressure.”

“I think our generation use smart phones a lot to search information. I feel like it has affected our lives a lot more than the previous generation.”

“Maybe overwhelmed. I can’t miss anything. I didn’t check twitter, so I may have missed something, so I have to check twitter. I have to go through every single one.”

Theme 3: Social interaction. As the literature review suggested it might, social interaction emerged as an important theme of Millennial sport consumption. Interacting with other fans or the fans of the opposing team and connecting with other fans via SNS was important for many participants. Some showed a high level of fan community identification and that they considered community an important aspect of personal identification. For many focus group participants, consuming sport with other members of their fan community was very important. For example, sitting together in a stadium was an important factor that influenced

game attendance. Also, tailgating with friends before the games was important. Social media was used to socialize with their fan community while watching the game at the stadium or at home. For Millennial sport fans, social interaction seems to be an important factor when consuming sport.

“I want to be considered to be loyal by my fan community.”

“Community represents you.”

“I use social media to interact with others while watching the game. Sometimes you agree with them. Sometimes you argue with them so that sometimes it’s like you are not watching even the same game, but it is interesting for me to see how everyone else is consuming and seeing the game, how they think about it. It is not like being influenced by the opinions, but it’s being with your friends having the same kinds of dialogue if you were around them.”

“I think, yes. I forgot about this aspect. That being discussing about what’s happening as a group, where you can communicate with your friends all across the country through the one tide you still have to your team. We can get all the message streaming during the game. It’s like being back in college.”

“UGA football you can sit together in the student section, but it’s going to be hard for the season tickets for everybody sitting together.”

“People tailgate together outside and not going to the game, they stay in a group. That’s trending more toward TV. The capacity of seats is going down. They are battling with technology because technology is so good.”

“Watching together is important especially when it is a big game.”

“I think twitter is my biggest outlet for interacting online.”

“So it’s not just the football game, being at the tailgating, but it’s socializing and getting together.”

“I think I love going to the game, but also part of the reason why I love going to the game is the socializing part of it.”

“I think definitely there is such a huge social atmosphere at the game. It’s not consuming yourself but consuming with other people and seeing through social media or in person. It does not matter. But my friends helped me with a lot of games so.”

“My emotion does affect my attendance. For me if it is a really devastating loss in a playoff or so, then I will not watch the game next year. I can’t go through this again.”

“I think a lot of our unique consumption has to do with social media. Athletes are like celebrities now, so the fans get influenced by them to a certain direction when we consume sport.”

Theme 4: Emotional consumption. The Millennial sport fans exhibited emotional responses, such as confidence in their behavioral choices. They also recalled strong emotional experiences while consuming sport. One interesting finding from the focus group interviews was that the Millennial sport fans expected a high level of entertainment when consuming sport. For example, in the stadium, not only did game quality influence their entertainment perception, but they also wanted to be more entertained through onsite events or through the newest popular music (not country music).

“Very confident purchasing tickets online.”

“When we are losing, people say let’s watch other games, but ‘No,’ we will come back. It’s very emotional. I have this confidence they will come back.”

“I am a very passionate fan, and I am very emotional. I leave everything on, and I never turn off until the last pitch or throw. I don’t leave until I hear the last whistle. As far as my fandom to do stuff, that has been the way.”

“There are always situations that you will hurt emotionally, but still these emotions make me support my team because we don’t know what will happen in the game.”

“I think it definitely is kind of cooperating the entertainment of you being at the sport event and human interaction.”

“So you are enjoying the game, but you are also enjoying everything that comes along with it.”

“For me, when watching sport games many times, there is this positive stress (eustress) like I hate close games, but then I love them at the same time. I rather be freaking out the whole time and worried than like playing Charleston Southern. I know we will blow them out, and it will be enjoyable but the positive stress would be probably the one reason why I watch sport.”

“But when the survey was done, what she said is that most of us want better sound at the game to entertain.”

“I think twitter makes the games more entertaining.”

“And I think the entertainment aspect is important to me. Music is important to me. Not only the game, but creating the atmosphere that everyone can enjoy or dance. Then I would feel that was a fun game.”

Theme 5: Wise consumption (rational choice + desire to be comfortable). This theme is unique in that the factor has not been identified in previous studies. Millennial sport fans

consumed sport products wisely. Under this theme there were two sub-themes: (a) making rationale choices and (b) getting everything easily and comfortably. Because this generation has access to much more information than previous generations, they use the information to compare and purchase sport products. They believe they can make the most rational choices (i.e., the most economic decisions). Therefore, some of the focus group participants mentioned beer prices in the stadium and the cost of driving to and parking near the stadium compared to watching at home. For previous generations, higher beer prices at the stadium might have been taken for granted and not been a factor in the decision to attend the game. Along with rationale choice, this generation pursues ease and comfort when consuming sport. The focus group participants mentioned that they like watching the game but don't want to drive far or have to wait long before the game. This desire for ease extends to connecting on social media, where they gain quick access to information they want to know through their network of friends.

“I feel like the older fans are like, ‘I want to be at the event and I want to feel the event.’ Our generation definitely tune in, too. We have the TV. Why don’t we watch with the TV? We can save money and watch it in a big group.”

“The reason I don’t go to the game is because I hate waiting in traffic. It takes me 1 hour going to game and 2 hours leaving the game when I can watch it at home, and then I don’t have to worry about the driving. I mean the food is cheaper and the beer is cheaper, more friends. Because of all the traffic, I was almost in all UGA home games, but I stayed until the end of the game only for 2 times. It’s not easy to get access and get out.”

“I think the price point is also a problem. It’s too expensive these days. It’s not the same as in the past. When my kids grow older, I don’t think I will go with

them to the game as we used to. I think due to the increase of ticket prices, it's getting harder to go to the game, and it will be the same in the future."

"So, in our generation, we care what we can get out of most what we paid for. If you can go to 6 away games that are so-so games, we rather want to go to a one best game, such as a Notre Dame game, for example. And the rest of the games we will probably watch at home comfortably and without worrying about the ticket price."

"So people in our generation will stay home more on a comfortable sofa with a cool air conditioner and have all the information and stats through social media right there at home."

"Convenience would be a big thing for Millennial consumption. We want everything to be easy."

"I think it is more like a passive consumption? A lot more of the information comes to us. If I am on twitter, regardless, I don't seek for the score information or so, but someone will tweet, so the score information will come to me. And I think it is Millennials' unique consumption."

"I think this is not necessarily me, but I think that our generation wants to be comfortable and wants to get the information as quickly as possible."

Among these five themes, four have shown high validity compared to those of previous findings; wise consumption is the unique dimension. One trait found in previous studies but did not emerge through the focus group was "adamant that their voices be heard" (i.e. engagement behavior). However, although the focus group participants did not directly engage with sport organizations by providing comments or suggestions, they showed some level of engagement

behavior through social media to support their team. Therefore, this trait was used in the ensuing survey research. The survey study examined the unique sport consumption patterns of Millennials and compared them to Baby Boomers and Generation X.

Survey Study

Participants. Survey data were collected from the general consumer population via a crowd-sourcing web service (Amazon Mechanical Turk). The quality and representativeness of Mechanical Turk sample is more representative of the U.S. population than undergraduate samples in terms of gender, age, race, and education (Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010). Three samples were taken from three sport consumer generational cohorts: Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials. Following Markert's (2004) generational cohort categorization standard, Baby Boomers were defined as being born between 1946 and 1965, Generation X were defined as being born between 1966 and 1985, and Millennials were defined as being born between 1986 and 2005. One hundred respondents were collected from each generation group, totaling 300 sample size. Descriptive demographic statistics revealed that the three samples were similar except for average age: Baby Boomers (59.5 years), Generation X (40 years), and Millennials (26.8 years). Noteworthy is that the average age of the Baby Boomers and Generation X was almost the mean of the population age, yielding a 20-year increment. However, the average age of the Millennials was representative of the Early-Early Millennials (i.e., those born between 1986 and 1990; see Figure 3.2). The reason the sample age distribution for the Millennials was skewed is that the minimum age to participate in the current study was set for 18 years old, excluding almost half of the Millennials (i.e., those born after 1997). The gender and ethnicity of the three generation samples were proportionate. Detailed descriptive statistics are provided in Table 3.2.

Data collection. After receiving approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB), the data were collected using online self-administered questionnaire created with Qualtrics. The online survey participants (i.e., sport fans from three generational cohorts: Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) were recruited via Amazon Mechanical Turk. Before they completed the survey, a cover letter indicating the purpose of the study was informed to the participants. By clicking on the link to enter the online questionnaire, they agreed to participate in the online survey. As indicated in the cover letter for the study, participation was voluntary and was compensated by a payment of \$2.00 upon completion.

The online survey included a screening question, “Who is your favorite team?” Those who were not fans of any sport team were excluded from the study. Participants were asked to respond to all of the survey questions related to their sport consumption behaviors as a sport fan. This survey method allowed for an empirical verification of convergent validity and generalizability for the dimensions derived from the literature review and focus group interviews.

Instruments.

Demographics. Demographic questions were included in the questionnaire, including year of birth, gender, and ethnicity, to categorize the generational cohorts and to examine each generation’s demographic group characteristics. Year of birth was measured using a short-answer question to which participants responded by typing in the year they were born. Gender was measured using two nominal variables: male and female. Ethnicity was measured using seven nominal race/ethnicity variables.

General sport fan behaviors. General sport fan questions were asked to discover the fan characteristics of each generation. The questions included (a) “How many teams do you think you are a fan of?” (b) “How many teams do you follow and check regularly?” (c) “Please

indicate the number of all the fantasy sports you regularly play,” (d) “How many teams/players do you follow on Twitter?” and (e) “How many teams/players have you ‘liked’ on Facebook?”

The participants typed actual numbers into short-answer response boxes. In order to compare Millennial sport consumer behavior with the other two generations, each sport fan generation’s past sport consumption behavior was also measured as well as traditional sport consumption behavior, such as attendance and TV viewing behavior. The questions included (a) “How often did you attend your favorite team’s games this season (or last season if the season is over for your team)?” (b) “How much money did you spend to attend your favorite team’s games last season (i.e., per year)?” and (c) “How often did you watch your favorite team’s games this season (or last season if the season is over for your team) on TV?” Some of the responses were collected by short answer, and the others were collected using a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by “Never = 1” and “Very Often = 7.”

Technology-driven. In order to compare the focus group findings for Millennial sport consumer behavior to the behavior of other generations, each sport fan generation’s consumption patterns were measured according to the most prevalent themes found in the literature review and focus group interviews. In order to measure technology-driven sport fan consumption, engagement in online activities (i.e., information search, online community activities, fantasy sport participation, etc.) and social media/social networking activities (i.e., checking scores via SNS such as Twitter, chatting about your sport team/player with your significant others via SNS, etc.) were measured using the following questions: (a) “How much time do you spend following (i.e., information search, online community activities, fantasy sport participation, etc.) your favorite team online (excluding mobile usage) daily?” (b) “What are your primary (if any) social networking services you use to follow your team (or chat with significant others)?” and (c) “How

much time do you spend following (i.e., checking scores via SNS, tweeting, chatting about your sport team/player with your significant others via SNS, etc.) your favorite team on social networking services via mobile devices daily?” Data were collected through short-answer questions to which participants responded with actual numbers.

Community-driven. Community-driven sport consumer behavior was measured using a modified item from Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) and an item from Bagozzi, Dholakia, and Mookerjee (2006). The item from Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) was an 8-point visual and verbal representation of an individual’s perceived overlap between self-identity and group identity (see Figure 3.4). The item from Bagozzi et al. (2006) was modified in this study by stating, “indicate the degree to which your self-image overlaps the identity of your fan community as you perceive it,” following by a 7-point scale anchored by “not at all” and “very much.” Questions such as “How important is the social aspect when you attend your favorite team’s game?” measured consumption behaviors such as attendance, TV viewing, online activities, and social media/social networking activities to examine the importance of social reasoning in their fan behavior. A 7-point scale anchored by “not at all” and “very much” was used.

Peer pressure /FoMO. In order to measure peer influence on sport fan consumption behavior, Przybylski et al.’s (2013) FoMO scale was adapted to the current study. It included eight items measured by a 5-point Likert-type scale (“Not at all true of me” = 1; “Slightly true of me” = 2; “Moderately true of me” = 3; “Very true of me” = 4; “Extremely true of me” = 5). Items included “I fear others have more rewarding fan experiences than I,” “I fear my friends have more rewarding fan experiences than I,” “I get worried when I find out my friends are having game-related fun without me,” “I get anxious when I don’t know what my team is up to,” “It is important that I understand my friends’ ‘in jokes’ related to sport,” “Sometimes, I wonder

if I spend too much time keeping up with what is going on,” “When I have a good time (with my team’s game), it is important for me to share the details online (e.g., update my status),” and “When I go on vacation/break, I keep tabs on what my friends are doing related to the sport team.”

Emotional consumption. To measure emotional concerns during sport fan decision making, Bagozzi, Baumgartner, and Pieter’s (1998) goal-directed emotions were used in the current study. This scale is commonly used when measuring goal-directed emotions and is considered an appropriate scale for measuring fan consumption intention because sport fans have to make purchase or participation decisions without knowing the quality of the sport product (e.g., fans cannot know the results of the game until the end of the game). The original scale consists of seventeen items, but for the current study, three items were adopted to measure positive anticipated emotions (i.e., satisfied, happy, and proud) and four items to measure negative anticipated emotions (i.e., disappointed, annoyed, regretful, and angry). A 7-point scale anchored by “not at all” and “very much” was used. Participants were asked to answer to the following statements “If I [behavior], I will feel [emotion]” and “If I don’t [behavior], I will feel [emotion].”

Engagement behavior. Engagement behavior was measured using a modified scale from Yoshida, Gordon, Makoto, and Biscaia (2014). A 9-item, 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), was be used. Items included “I try to work cooperatively with my team,” “I do things to make my team management easier,” “The employees of my team get my full cooperation,” “I often interact with other fans to talk about issues related to my team,” “I spend time on social media (e.g., Facebook, Twitter) sharing information with other fans of my team,” “I wear apparel that represents the fans of my team

even if my favorite team has an unsuccessful season,” “I display the logo of my favorite team on my clothing even if the team does not perform well,” and “I wear clothing that displays the name of my favorite team even if the team has an unsuccessful season.” For a complete list of the questions, see Appendix B.

Data analysis. Descriptive statistics, including mean and standard deviation, were calculated, and ANOVA tests were conducted to analyze the survey data using procedures available in SPSS 20.0.

The socio-demographic variables and the general sport fan behaviors were examined using the descriptive statistics for each sport fan generation (i.e., Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Millennials). The past sport consumption behavior of the three generational cohorts was also examined and compared among the groups.

The unique Millennial sport fan consumption traits (i.e., technology-driven, community-driven, peer pressure-influenced, emotional, and adamant that their voices be heard) emerged from the focus group interviews were analyzed through descriptive statistics and then compared Baby Boomer and Generation X responses using ANOVA. Once significant differences between the groups were found via *t*-statistics, Bonferroni post hoc test was conducted to examine each between-group comparison further.

Results

General Sport Fan Behavior

Descriptive statistics and ANOVA were used to explore the number of sport teams that Millennial sport fans follow, and the numbers were compared to the data for Baby Boomer and Generation X sport fans. The average number of which the participants were fan was 3.23 for Baby Boomers, 4.09 for Generation X, and 3.81 for Millennial sport fans. The average number

of teams the participants regularly checked was 3.18 for Baby Boomers, 3.64 for Generation X, and 3.37 for Millennials. These results indicate that on average, the Generation X fans favored more sport teams than Millennials or Baby Boomers. ANOVA results showed no significant statistical group mean difference for *the number of teams followed and checked regularly* but yielded statistical significant result for the number of teams of which the participants were fans: Generation X fans like more teams ($M = 4.09$) than the Baby Boomers ($M = 3.23$) $F(2, 297) = 4.185$ $p < .05$ (see Table 3.3).

The participants' past sport consumption behavior was further examined. The average number of games attended the previous season was 2.83 for Baby Boomers, 2.00 for Generation X, and 2.66 for Millennials. The money spent to attend games the previous season was \$276.40 for Baby Boomers, \$297.60 for Generation X, and \$197.6 for Millennials. These data indicate that although Generation X fans attended fewer games, they spent more at the venue, likely because they were, on average, at their peak consumption age. The number of hours the three generations watched their favorite teams on TV the previous season was 83.82 hours for Baby Boomers, 88.00 hours for Generation X, and 79.26 hours for Millennials. ANOVA results showed no statistical difference among the groups for these traditional sport consumption behaviors.

Next, the frequency with which the three generations consumed sport through different sources was examined. The primary sources that Baby Boomers used to purchase game tickets were official online sites (47%), ticket booths (25%), and secondary ticket markets online (14%). Generation X fans used official online sites (46%), ticket booths (29%), and secondary ticket markets online (29%). Millennials used official online sites (54%), secondary ticket markets online (29%), and ticket booths (24%). Millennials used official online sites more often than the

other generations, and Millennials and Generation X used secondary online ticket markets more than Baby Boomers. The TV broadcasting contractors that Baby Boomers used was cable TV (60%), while the Millennials (71%) and Generation X (67%) used Netflix. The primary media used to follow sport teams was TV for all three generations (90% for Baby Boomers, 86% for Generation X, and 80% for Millennials), but Millennials (50%) also used online streaming much more than Baby Boomers (23%) and Generation X (34%). Millennials (10%) and Generation X (7%) responses were higher in following the sport team via Twitter than Baby Boomers (1%). Although there was not much difference in Facebook usage among the three generations (65% for Baby Boomers, 66% for Generation X, and 68% for Millennials), Millennials (49%) and Generation X (49%) used Twitter more than Baby Boomers (35%). Millennials (21%) used Instagram much more than Baby Boomers (7%) and Generation X (11%). For more detailed results, see Table 3.5.

Technology-Driven Behavior

Millennial sport fans' technology-driven behavior was analyzed using descriptive statistics and was compared to other generations using ANOVA. The average number of fantasy sport that participants played was 0.69 for Baby Boomers, 1.14 for Generation X, and 1.20 for Millennials. ANOVA results showed that Millennials and Generation X fans played more fantasy sports than Baby Boomers ($F(2, 297) = 6.350, p < .01$). There was not much difference between the generations in terms of number of online fan communities they joined (0.67 for Baby Boomers, 0.81 for Generation X, and 0.82 for Millennials). Millennials used communication technology to connect to more teams/players on Twitter ($M = 6.29, SD = 11.07$) and on Facebook ($M = 3.20, SD = 5.44$) than Baby Boomers (Twitter, $M = 1.98, SD = 5.84$; Facebook, $M = 1.55, SD = 3.23$) and Generation X (Twitter, $M = 4.08, SD = 7.11$; Facebook, $M =$

2.54, $SD=4.57$). ANOVA results indicated significant differences between Millennials and Baby Boomers for Twitter ($F(2, 297) = 6.720, p < .001$) and Facebook ($F(2, 297) = 3.395, p < .05$). On average, Millennials spent more time daily using communication technology to participate in online and social media activities (45.32 minutes on online activities; 26.16 minutes on social media activities). Baby Boomers spent 26.75 minutes on online activities and 12.41 on social media activities, and Generation X spent 46.82 minutes on online activities and 23.27 on social media. ANOVA revealed that Millennials and Generation X spent significantly more time on online activities than Baby Boomers ($F(2, 297) = 10.670, p < .001$). Millennials and Generation X also spent more time on social media activities participation than Baby Boomers ($F(2, 297) = 8.034, p < .001$) (see Table 3.6 for complete results).

Community-Driven Behavior

Descriptive statistics indicated that community identification among Millennials was 4.98 (on a 7-point Likert scale) while Baby Boomers and Generation X scored 4.31 and 4.83, respectively. The importance of social interaction when (a) attending a game, (b) watching TV, (c) participating in online activities, and (d) participating in social media activities was measured among each generational cohort. Millennial ratings were 4.49 for attending a game, 3.82 for watching TV, 4.04 for online activities, and 3.75 for social media activities. Baby Boomers ratings were 4.20 for attending a game, 3.72 for watching TV, 2.93 for online activities, and 2.81 for social media activities. Generation X ratings were 4.71 for attending a game, 3.60 for watching TV, 3.63 for online activities, and 3.54 for social media activities. ANOVA results show that Millennials and Generation X had significantly stronger community identification than Baby Boomers ($F(2, 297) = 6.550, p < .01$) and favored social interaction significantly more for

online activities ($F(2, 297) = 9.360, p < .001$) and social media activities ($F(2, 297) = 6.701, p < .001$) (see Table 3.7).

Peer Pressure-Influenced / FoMO Behavior

The descriptive statistics indicate that Millennials generally showed higher scores for FoMO items. Among the nine items, only two yielded statistically significant ANOVA results: “I get worried when I find out my friends are having game-related fun without me” and “When I have a good time (with my team’s game), it is important for me to share the details online (e.g., update my status.” For the first item, Millennials ($M = 1.96, SD=1.11$) showed higher FoMO than Baby Boomers ($M = 1.47, SD=0.90; F(2, 297) = 5.514, p < .01$). For the second FoMO item, Millennials ($M = 2.68, SD=1.25$) and Generation X ($M = 2.66, SD=1.33$) were higher than Baby Boomers ($M = 2.18, SD=1.29; F(2, 297) = 4.789, p < .01$). For detailed results, see Table 3.8.

Emotional Consumption Behavior

The three generations’ anticipated positive and negative emotions were analyzed to examine their emotional investment when consuming sport. Their future-oriented positive emotions and negative emotions toward game attendance, watching the game on TV, online activities related to game participation, and social media activities related to game participation were analyzed. As can be seen in Table 3.9, Millennials showed the highest positive emotions and the lowest negative emotions toward almost every sport consumption behavior among the three groups. ANOVA results indicate that Millennials ($M = 5.89, SD=0.93$) and Generation X ($M = 5.86, SD=0.92$) showed higher positive emotion toward attendance than Baby Boomers ($M = 5.41, SD=1.08; F(2, 297) = 7.389, p < .001$). Furthermore, Millennials ($M = 4.68, SD=1.32$)

and Generation X ($M = 4.60$, $SD=1.36$) showed higher positive emotion toward online activities than Baby Boomers ($M = 4.07$, $SD=1.47$; $F(2, 297) = 5.624$, $p < .01$).

Engagement Behavior

For almost every item of the fan engagement scale, Millennials showed higher engagement level than the other generations. ANOVA results revealed that Millennials ($M = 4.53$, $SD=1.56$) worked more cooperatively with their team than Baby Boomers ($M = 3.82$, $SD=1.59$; $F(2, 297) = 4.984$, $p < .01$). Millennials ($M = 4.19$, $SD=1.70$) more likely to make their team management easier than Baby Boomers ($M = 3.47$, $SD=1.66$; $F(2, 297) = 4.461$, $p < .05$). Also, Millennials ($M = 4.50$, $SD=1.65$) were more engaged with their team for full cooperation than Baby Boomers ($M = 3.91$, $SD=1.80$; $F(2, 297) = 2.837$, $p < .05$). Millennials ($M = 3.94$, $SD=1.73$) and Generation X ($M = 3.81$, $SD=1.94$) spent more time on social media sharing information with other fans than Baby Boomers ($M = 2.98$, $SD=1.70$; $F(2, 297) = 8.365$, $p < .001$). Millennials ($M = 5.59$, $SD=1.40$) and Generation X ($M = 5.59$, $SD=1.64$) were more likely to wear team apparel even if their team had an unsuccessful season than Baby Boomers ($M = 4.84$, $SD=1.90$; $F(2, 297) = 6.776$, $p < .001$). Millennials ($M = 5.65$, $SD=1.34$) and Generation X ($M = 5.67$, $SD=1.55$) were more likely to wear their team logo even if the team had underperformed than Baby Boomers ($M = 5.07$, $SD=1.88$; $F(2, 297) = 4.483$, $p < .05$). Lastly, Millennials ($M = 5.75$, $SD=1.35$) and Generation X ($M = 5.72$, $SD=1.52$) were more likely to wear clothing that displayed the name of their favorite team even if the team had an unsuccessful season than Baby Boomers ($M = 5.05$, $SD=1.89$; $F(2, 297) = 6.044$, $p < .01$). See Table 3.10 for more information.

Discussion

Although Millennials have received much attention from the fields of consumer behavior and marketing, this generational cohort has not received much attention from sport marketing scholars. The small number of studies (e.g., Bennett et al., 2006; Braunstein & Zhang, 2006; Cianfrone & Zhang, 2006) were limited to only action sports and treated Millennials (i.e., Generation Y) simply as “younger” sport consumers. However, sport practitioners and organizations have a strong need to learn about and understand Millennial sport fans (Rovell, 2014). Furthermore, the buying power and influence of Millennial sport fans on other sport fan generations is so high that knowing their needs and desires is critical to the future success of sport organizations.

The current study was designed to fill the current gap in knowledge about Millennial sport fans by exploring the unique traits that may influence their decision making related to sport consumption. This study, being one of the earliest to investigate Millennial sport fans, first set out to define the current sport fan generations (i.e., Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials). Next, the unique traits that may influence Millennial consumption decisions were identified through a triangulation method (i.e., extensive literature review, focus group interviews, and survey method). Following Markert's (2004) generational cohort categorization standard, the Millennial sport fan generation was defined along with the other generations. An extensive literature review on generation categories revealed that Markert's (2004) standard best enables sport marketers to conduct market segmentation studies because it makes the population size of each generation nearly equal and divides the age span equally (i.e., 20-year increments), making the generations comparable. Furthermore, by including the cohort component into the

categorization standard, generation segmentation can be even more closely examined using subgroups based on 10 and 5-year spans.

Millennial sport consumption studies are scarce, so the literature review on unique traits that influence on Millennial consumption behaviors revolved around other product consumption contexts. The unique traits were (a) community-driven, (b) emotional, (c) peer pressure-influenced, (d) adamant that their voices be heard, and (e) technology-driven. Staying connected, socializing, and being part of their community were important factors in Millennials' consumption experiences (Fromm & Garton, 2013; Sago, 2010). When consuming hedonic products, Millennials tend to show more emotional consumption behavior, such as more positive emotions and higher levels of confidence in their choices (e.g., Getz & Carlsen, 2008; O'Cass & Frost, 2002). These traits are likely to apply to sport product consumption because spectator sport is also a hedonic product. Peer pressure-influenced is another important trait that can explain Millennial consumption behavior (Fromm & Garton, 2013; Kim & Jang, 2014), particularly the relatively new phenomenon known as FoMO. Also, many researchers have identified that Millennials engaged with the organizations they liked (and even with the organizations they did not like) (Bolton et al., 2013; Bucic, Harris, & Arli, 2012; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014). Lastly, technology-driven consumption behavior has been identified as a salient feature of Millennials (Herbison & Boseman, 2009; Kavounis, 2008; Norum, 2003; Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009; Tsao & Steffes-Hansen, 2008). This interest in technology is closely associated with their other unique traits, for technology serves as a medium through which the other traits are expressed (e.g., Millennials use social media technology to interact with their peers).

Millennial sport fan behavior was further examined through mixed method triangulation (Greene, 2007). The purpose of triangulation was to establish convergence validity and reliability of the research findings by investigating the same phenomenon via various research methods (Greene, 2007). Focus group interviews and surveys were conducted. Three research questions directed the focus group interviews: (a) “What kinds of sport consumption behavior do Millennials exhibit?” (b) “What factors influence Millennial sport fan behavior?” and (c) “Are there differences in sport consumption behavior between Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials?” Krueger’s (1998) focus group interview analysis procedure was used in the current study, and five themes of Millennial sport fan consumption emerged: (a) technology usage, (b) peer pressure and FoMO, (c) social interaction, (d) emotional consumption, and (e) wise consumption (rational choice + desire to be comfortable). Most of the Millennial sport fan traits were found to be important variables in the focus group interviews; engagement behavior was the only exception. One possible reason for this exception that emerged during the focus group interview is that the sport culture makes Millennial sport fans might trust how the sport organizations manage their teams. One participant suggested that believing in one’s team and refraining from criticism is sometimes better:

“I guess if I have a problem, I would definitely try to reach them and make sure that my voice is heard, but if it just concerns the “losing season,” I am not going to reach the Athletics department and complain about it. I am not saying I’ve never said a negative thing on Twitter, but yes, I don’t like bashing the players or the team.”

A new finding from the focus group interviews was Theme 5: Wise Consumption (Rational Choice + Desire to Be Comfortable). Millennial sport fans may want to spend their money wisely because they have access to much more information than previous generations,

they can easily compare the prices of the products they are considering for purchase. Also, they have not reached their peak consumption age yet, so they want to maximize their pleasure with the money they can pay. A sub-theme of wise consumption is that they want everything to be easy. They do not attend a game when access to the stadium is difficult, when the drive to the game is too long, or when parking spots are limited. Millennial fans want the game-day experience to be comfortable. If going to the game is inconvenient for them, they would rather stay home and watch the contest in HD with their friends and stay connected with other fan community members on social media. This finding implies that sport organizations might have to adapt their services to meet the needs and desires of Millennial sport fans.

“Our generation, we care what we can get out of most what we paid for. If you can go to 6 away games that are so-so games, we rather want to go to a one best game, such as a Notre Dame game, for example. And the rest of the games we will probably watch at home comfortably and without worrying about the ticket price. Everything else is on online.”

The five unique Millennial consumption traits found through the literature review and focus group interviews were subsequently examined using surveys. Descriptive statistics revealed that Millennials showed consistently higher scores for the five unique consumption traits than the other generation. The Millennials showed strong technology-driven behavior. They played more fantasy sports than Baby Boomers and participated in online activities and social media activities more frequently. The number of teams they followed using social media was significant higher than the other generations. Although the technology-driven trait phenomenon was observed, it was typically used as a medium for consuming sport. In other words, unless the product itself was technology-oriented, the technology was used as a tool to

consume the product in a way that complemented the other significant traits. For example, Millennial sport fans used social media to follow their favorite teams not because they were attracted to the technology but because the technology allowed them to interact with peers and gain easy access to information. In other words, technology served as a medium that enabled Millennials to consume sport product in ways that suit the other traits that influence their behavior. The next important unique consumption trait of Millennials examined in the current study was social interaction. Consistent with the literature review and the focus group interviews, social interaction was found to be influence Millennial sport consumption. Peer pressure and FoMO was partially confirmed. Interestingly, FoMO was significant when Millennials missed the opportunity to have fun with their peers, a concern closely related to emotional investment. Overall, Millennials showed higher levels of positive emotion and lower levels of negative emotion, confirming findings from the literature review and focus group interviews. ANOVA results yielded statistically significant differences only for positive emotions related to game attendance and online activity participation. These results indicated that the younger generations showed more positive future emotions when they think about attending game and participating in online activities. Lastly, although engagement has not been found to be a significant unique consumption trait of Millennial sport fans in the focus group interviews, survey results revealed convergent findings with the literature review. Millennial sport fan engagement was higher than the other generations, and ANOVA revealed statistically significant differences for seven out of nine items.

However, the consumption patterns between Millennials and Generation X were very similar. Furthermore, ANOVA results revealed that there were significant differences between Millennials and Baby Boomers, though no difference was found in comparison to Generation X.

One plausible explanation can be found in the sample characteristics of Millennials and Generation X. In the current study, Millennials were defined as people born between 1986 and 2005, and Generation X were defined as people born between 1966 and 1985 (Markert, 2004). Due to the age restriction to identify sample respondents for the survey, survey participants had to be over the age of 18, meaning that half the population of Millennials (those born between 1997 and 2005) were excluded from the data. Consequently, the mean age of the Millennial sample was 26.8 (i.e., birth year 1988). According to Markert's (2004) generational cohort categorization, the Millennial sample for the current study was limited to Early-Early Millennials (those born between 1986 and 1990), who are considered to share lots of traits with Late-Late Generation X (those born between 1981 and 1985). The five unique traits that influence Millennial sport consumption were examined and confirmed using three different research methods: extensive literature review, focus group interviews, and surveys. Through triangulation, convergence validity and reliability were established. The results should help sport researchers better understand Millennial sport consumers and give sport practitioners the knowledge they need to create more strategic marketing plans for their organizations.

Marketing Implications

The current study has several theoretical and practical implications for sport marketers. First, with regard to theoretical importance, this study, to the best of my knowledge, is the first of its kind to establish a categorization standard for sport fan generations. After an extensive literature review on generation studies, Markert's (2004) approach was chosen to define Millennial, Baby Boomer, and Generation X sport fans. Without a common definition, the findings of generation studies cannot cohere because different scales and time spans will limit generalizability. Now, sport marketing researchers can use the suggested generational cohort

categorization standard to explore Millennial consumption behaviors. Another theoretical implication of the current study is that it empirically explored Millennial sport fan behavior outside the action sport context. Previous studies (e.g., Bennett et al. 2006; Braunstein & Zhang, 2006; Cianfrone & Zhang, 2006) investigated the behavior of Generation Y sport fans (using the term “younger” sport fans) but only in relation to action sports, limiting the generalizability of their findings. Third, the current study identified unique traits that influence Millennial consumption behaviors. The empirical findings point to unique antecedents (i.e., motivations) in Millennial decision making. The sport marketing researchers can use the five unique Millennial traits to either extending the constructs or exploring each trait to deeper level to better understand Millennial sport fan behaviors. Fourth, the current study not only examined unique consumption traits of Millennials but also compared them to other sport consumer generations, Baby Boomers and Generation X. By conducting generation group comparison tests, differences among the generations were identified and the unique Millennial consumption traits were empirically verified. Lastly, the current study used a triangulation mixed method (Greene, 2007) to examine the phenomenon using different research tools. The use of this rigorous methodological approach not only increased the convergent validity and reliability of the study findings but also demonstrated a useful method for future sport consumption studies.

For sport marketing practitioners, the current study provides several practical implications. First, segmentation research is an effective and efficient way to reach a target consumer group, an approach that can benefit sport organizations. Before this study, there was no wide agreement on how to distinguish generations. Sport marketing practitioners could use the generational cohort approach when conducting generation segmentation study. Second, this study revealed some basic generation characteristics that could be very useful to sport marketers.

For example, although the number of sport teams that sport fans identified as their favorites was not much different between the three generations, there were significant differences in social media usage. A relatively recent type of communication technology, social media changed the number of sport teams and players that Millennials followed. Another example would be the types of social media the three generations typically used. Facebook was popular among all three generations, but Millennials and Generation X used Twitter more frequently than Baby Boomers. Instagram was only popular among Millennials. Sport marketers might use these findings when selecting social media to reach their target market when activating marketing plans (e.g., promotion, advertising, campaign launches, etc.). Finally, the five Millennial consumption traits could be applied when deploying marketing strategies. These traits are basically the motivations behind Millennial decision making. Identifying motivational factors is important because by triggering or framing those motivations, marketers can increase preferable behavior and enhance fan experiences in ways that promote the success of the organization.

Limitations and Future Studies

This study has several limitations. First, the age restriction that limited participation to individuals at least 18 years old excluded half of the Millennial population from the sample. This exclusion is likely to limit the generalizability of the findings to the entire Millennials. Future studies should include not only Early-Early Millennials but also Early-Late and Late-Early Millennials following Marker's (2004) categorization.

Second, the survey data were collected via a crowd-sourcing web service, which is essentially a convenience sampling. This online survey method only limited participants who had internet access. Thus, interpretation of the results should be cautious as the findings may not be

generalizable. Future studies should collect data not only from online respondents but also from offline respondents in order to reduce this threat to external validity.

Lastly, although this study was exploratory and its purpose was only to identify traits that may influence Millennial sport fan consumption. The results from this study are not causal in nature, but a preliminary data that could be served as a foundation for a causal research to better understand Millennial sport fan behaviors.

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Table 3.1

Summary of Focus Group Participants (N = 18)

Characteristics	Categories	Focus group session			Total
		Session 1	Session 2	Session 3	
Gender	Male	5	3	5	13
	Female	1	3	1	5
	Total	6	6	6	18
Age category	1986-1990	3	0	0	3
	1991-1995	3	5	5	13
	1996-2000	0	1	1	2
	Total	6	6	6	18

Table 3.2

Demographic Information for the Three Generation Data Set (n=100 for Baby Boomers, n=100 for Generation X, and n=100 for Millennial Generation)

Variable	Category	Baby Boomers (1946-1965)		Gen X (1966-1985)		Millennials (1986-2005)	
		Freq.	% Valid	Freq.	% Valid	Freq.	% Valid
Age	Average	59.5		40		26.8	
Gender	Male	59	59	65	65	62	62
	Female	41	41	35	35	38	38
	Gender Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Ethnicity	White/ Caucasian	88	88	84	84	79	79
	Hispanic/Latino	2	2	5	5	4	4
	African- American	3	93	6	6	9	9
	Asian/Pacific Islander	4	4	3	3	8	8
	Other	1	1	2	2	-	-
	Ethnicity Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table 3.3

Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA Results for the Number of Teams the Three Generation Follow (n=100 for Baby Boomers, n=100 for Generation X, and n=100 for Millennial Generation)

Variable	Baby Boomers (1946-1965) <i>M (SD)</i>	Gen X (1966-1985) <i>M (SD)</i>	Millennials (1986-2005) <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>F</i> -Statistic	post hoc
Number of team they are fan of	3.23 (1.63)	4.09 (2.49)	3.81 (2.22)	4.185*	BB < GenX
Teams they follow and check regularly	3.18 (2.00)	3.64 (2.92)	3.37 (2.25)	.910	ns

Note. BB = Baby Boomers, GenX = Generation X, Mill = Millennial Generation.

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

Table 3.4

Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA Results for the Three Generations' Past Sport Consumption (n=100 for Baby Boomers, n=100 for Generation X, and n=100 for Millennial Generation)

Variable	Baby Boomers (1946-1965) <i>M (SD)</i>	Gen X (1966-1985) <i>M (SD)</i>	Millennials (1986-2005) <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>F</i> -Statistic	post hoc
Number of games attended	2.83 (8.28)	2.00 (2.43)	2.66 (4.94)	.583	ns
Money spent to attend games (\$)	276.4 (666.7)	297.6 (476.5)	192.6 (313.1)	1.202	ns
Hours watched the games on TV season (hour)	83.82 (145.47)	88.00 (125.81)	79.26 (112.03)	.116	ns

Note. BB = Baby Boomers, GenX = Generation X, Mill = Millennial Generation.

Table 3.5

Frequency of the Three Generation's Sport Consumption Source (n=100 for Baby Boomers, n=100 for Generation X, and n=100 for Millennial Generation)

Variable	Category	Baby Boomers (1946-1965)		Gen X (1966-1985)		Millennials (1986-2005)	
		Freq.	% Valid	Freq.	% Valid	Freq.	% Valid
Ticket purchase source	Ticket booth	25	25	29	29	24	24
	Phone call	7	7	3	3	1	1
	Will call	3	3	5	5	9	9
	Official online	47	47	46	46	54	54
	Secondary online	14	14	29	29	29	29
	Craigslist	8	8	7	7	8	8
	Fan community	4	4	2	2	5	5
	Social commerce	2	2	1	1	2	2
	Other	27	27	22	22	18	18
TV	Cable	60	60	63	63	59	59
	Satellite	17	17	11	11	8	8
	Uverse	6	6	10	10	0	0
	Internet TV	20	20	21	21	24	24
	Netflix	42	42	67	67	71	71
	DirecTV	8	8	13	13	14	14
	Other	7	7	9	9	10	10
Media follow team	TV	90	90	86	86	80	80
	Online stream	23	23	34	34	50	50
	Webpage (gametrack)	11	11	14	14	8	8
	Live on Mobile	4	4	3	3	4	4
	Twitter updates	1	1	7	7	10	10
	Other	0	0	2	2	2	2
Social media	Twitter	35	35	49	49	49	49
	Facebook	65	65	66	66	68	68
	Instagram	7	7	11	11	21	21
	WhatsApp	1	1	2	2	1	1
	Reddit	2	2	4	4	4	4
	Other	29	29	16	16	15	15

Table 3.6

Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA Results of Technology-driven Aspect among the Three Generations (n=100 for Baby Boomers, n=100 for Generation X, and n=100 for Millennial Generation)

Variable	Baby Boomers (1946-1965) <i>M (SD)</i>	Gen X (1966-1985) <i>M (SD)</i>	Millennials (1986-2005) <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>F</i> -Statistic	post hoc
Number of fantasy sport they play	0.69 (1.03)	1.14 (1.25)	1.20 (1.02)	6.350**	BB < GenX, Mill
Number of online fan community	0.67 (1.02)	0.81 (0.95)	0.82 (0.89)	.773	ns
Number of team/player they follow on Twitter	1.98 (5.84)	4.08 (7.11)	6.29 (11.07)	6.720***	BB < Mill
Number of teams they are friends of on Facebook	1.55 (3.23)	2.54 (4.56)	3.20 (5.44)	3.395*	BB < Mill
Minutes spending on online activities daily (minute)	26.75 (27.25)	46.82 (39.25)	45.32 (35.07)	10.670***	BB < GenX, Mill
Minutes spending on social media daily (minute)	12.41 (22.70)	23.27 (25.10)	26.16 (28.57)	8.034***	BB < GenX, Mill

Note. BB = Baby Boomers, GenX = Generation X, Mill = Millennial Generation.

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

Table 3.7

Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA Results of Social Aspect among the Three Generations (n=100 for Baby Boomers, n=100 for Generation X, and n=100 for Millennial Generation)

Item	Baby Boomers (1946-1965) <i>M (SD)</i>	Gen X (1966-1985) <i>M (SD)</i>	Millennials (1986-2005) <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>F</i> -Statistic	post hoc
Community Identification	4.31 (1.52)	4.83 (1.34)	4.98 (1.27)	6.550*	BB < GenX, Mill
How important is the social aspect when attending games	4.20 (2.07)	4.71 (1.80)	4.49 (1.57)	1.952	Ns
How important is the social aspect when watching TV	3.72 (2.00)	3.60 (1.80)	3.82 (1.77)	.349	Ns
How important is the social aspect when participating online activities	2.93 (1.90)	3.63 (1.80)	4.04 (1.79)	9.360**	BB < GenX, Mill
How important is the social aspect when participating social media activities	2.81 (1.86)	3.54 (1.92)	3.75 (1.92)	6.701**	BB < GenX, Mill

Note. BB = Baby Boomers, GenX = Generation X, Mill = Millennial Generation.

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

Table 3.8

Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA Results of FoMO (Peer Pressure) among the Three Generations (n=100 for Baby Boomers, n=100 for Generation X, and n=100 for Millennial Generation)

Item	Baby Boomers (1946-1965)	Gen X (1966-1985)	Millennials (1986-2005)	F-Statistic	post hoc
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>Me(SD)</i>		
Fear others have more rewarding fan experiences than me	1.71 (1.08)	1.67 (1.01)	1.79 (1.08)	.331	ns
Fear my friends have more rewarding fan experiences than me	1.60 (1.00)	1.60 (0.98)	1.75 (1.02)	.708	ns
Get worried when I find out my friends are having game related fun	1.47 (0.90)	1.75 (1.11)	1.96 (1.11)	5.514*	BB < Mill
Get anxious when I don't know what my team is up to	1.92 (1.16)	2.20 (1.10)	2.11 (1.17)	1.552	ns
It is important that I understand my friends "in jokes" related to sport	2.55 (1.35)	2.58 (1.21)	2.73 (1.20)	.584	ns
I wonder if I spend too much time keeping up with what is going on	1.83 (1.10)	1.87 (1.09)	1.93 (1.15)	.202	ns
It is important for me to share the details online (e.g. updating status)	2.18 (1.29)	2.66 (1.33)	2.68 (1.25)	4.789*	BB < GenX, Mill
On vacation/break, I continue to keep tabs on what my friends are doing related to the sport team	2.44 (1.38)	2.68 (1.30)	2.85 (1.28)	2.409	ns

* $p < .01$, BB = Baby Boomers, GenX = Generation X, Mill = Millennial Generation

Table 3.9

Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA Results of Emotions (anticipated emotion for the future sport consumption behaviors) among the Three Generations (n=100 for Baby Boomers, n=100 for Generation X, and n=100 for Millennial Generation)

Category	Variable	Baby Boomers (1946-1965)	Gen X (1966-1985)	Millennials (1986-2005)	F-Statistic	post hoc
		<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>		
Attendance	Positive emotion	5.41 (1.08)	5.86 (0.92)	5.89 (0.93)	7.389**	BB < GenX, Mill
	Negative emotion	1.95 (1.08)	1.86 (1.14)	1.74 (0.90)	1.125	ns
TV watching	Positive emotion	5.28 (1.13)	5.41 (1.04)	5.56 (0.98)	1.799	ns
	Negative emotion	1.78 (1.04)	1.78 (1.03)	1.76 (0.89)	.011	ns
Online activities	Positive emotion	4.07 (1.47)	4.60 (1.36)	4.68 (1.32)	5.624*	BB < GenX, Mill
	Negative emotion	1.87 (1.11)	1.79 (0.99)	2.09 (1.19)	2.015	ns
Social media activities	Positive emotion	4.01 (1.55)	4.31 (1.45)	4.40 (1.46)	1.845	ns
	Negative emotion	1.94 (1.26)	1.88 (1.15)	1.97 (1.23)	.118	ns

Note. BB = Baby Boomers, GenX = Generation X, Mill = Millennial Generation.

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

Table 3.10

Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA Results of Fan Engagement among the Three Generations (n=100 for Baby Boomers, n=100 for Generation X, and n=100 for Millennial Generation)

Item	Baby Boomers (1946-1965)	Gen X (1966-1985)	Millennials (1986-2005)	F-Statistic	post hoc
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>		
Work cooperatively with my team	3.82 (1.59)	4.13 (1.62)	4.53 (1.56)	4.984**	BB < Mill
Do things to make my team easier	3.47 (1.66)	3.82 (1.74)	4.19 (1.70)	4.461*	BB < Mill
My team get my full cooperation	3.91 (1.80)	4.24 (1.80)	4.50 (1.65)	2.837*	BB < Mill
Interact with other fans to talk about issues related to my team	4.28 (1.84)	4.55 (1.76)	4.64 (1.56)	1.177	ns
Advise other fans to get better understanding of my team	3.42 (1.77)	3.79 (1.73)	3.96 (1.71)	2.513	ns
Spend time on social media sharing information with other fans	2.98 (1.70)	3.81 (1.94)	3.94 (1.73)	8.365***	BB < GenX, Mill
Wear apparel of my team even if it has an unsuccessful season	4.84 (1.90)	5.59 (1.64)	5.59 (1.40)	6.776***	BB < GenX, Mill
Display my team logo on my clothing even if the team does not perform well	5.07 (1.88)	5.67 (1.55)	5.65 (1.34)	4.483*	BB < GenX, Mill
Wear clothing that displays the name of my favorite team even if the team has an unsuccessful season	5.05 (1.89)	5.72 (1.52)	5.75 (1.35)	6.044**	BB < GenX, Mill

Note. BB = Baby Boomers, GenX = Generation X, Mill = Millennial Generation.

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

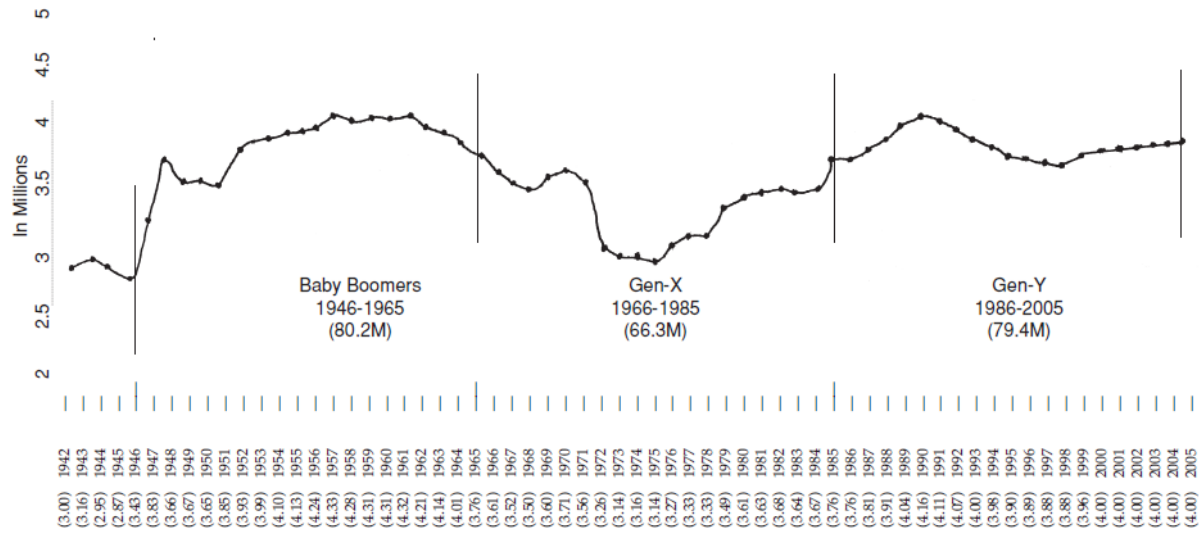
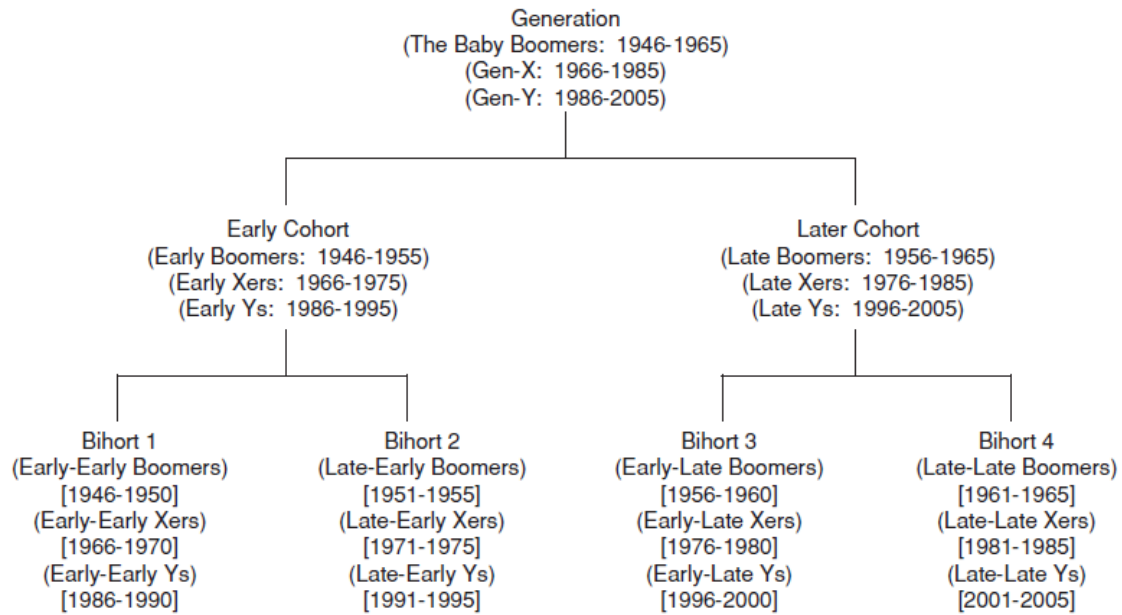


Figure 3.1. Population Estimates with 20-Year Increments between Generational Cohorts.
 Adopted from “Demographics of Age: Generational and Cohort Confusion” by J. Markert, 2004,
Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising, 26, p. 18. Copyright 2004 by the CTC
 Press.



*Figure 3.2. Birth Groups and Timelines. Adopted from “Demographics of Age: Generational and Cohort Confusion” by J. Markert, 2004, *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, 26, p. 21. Copyright 2004 by the CTC Press.*

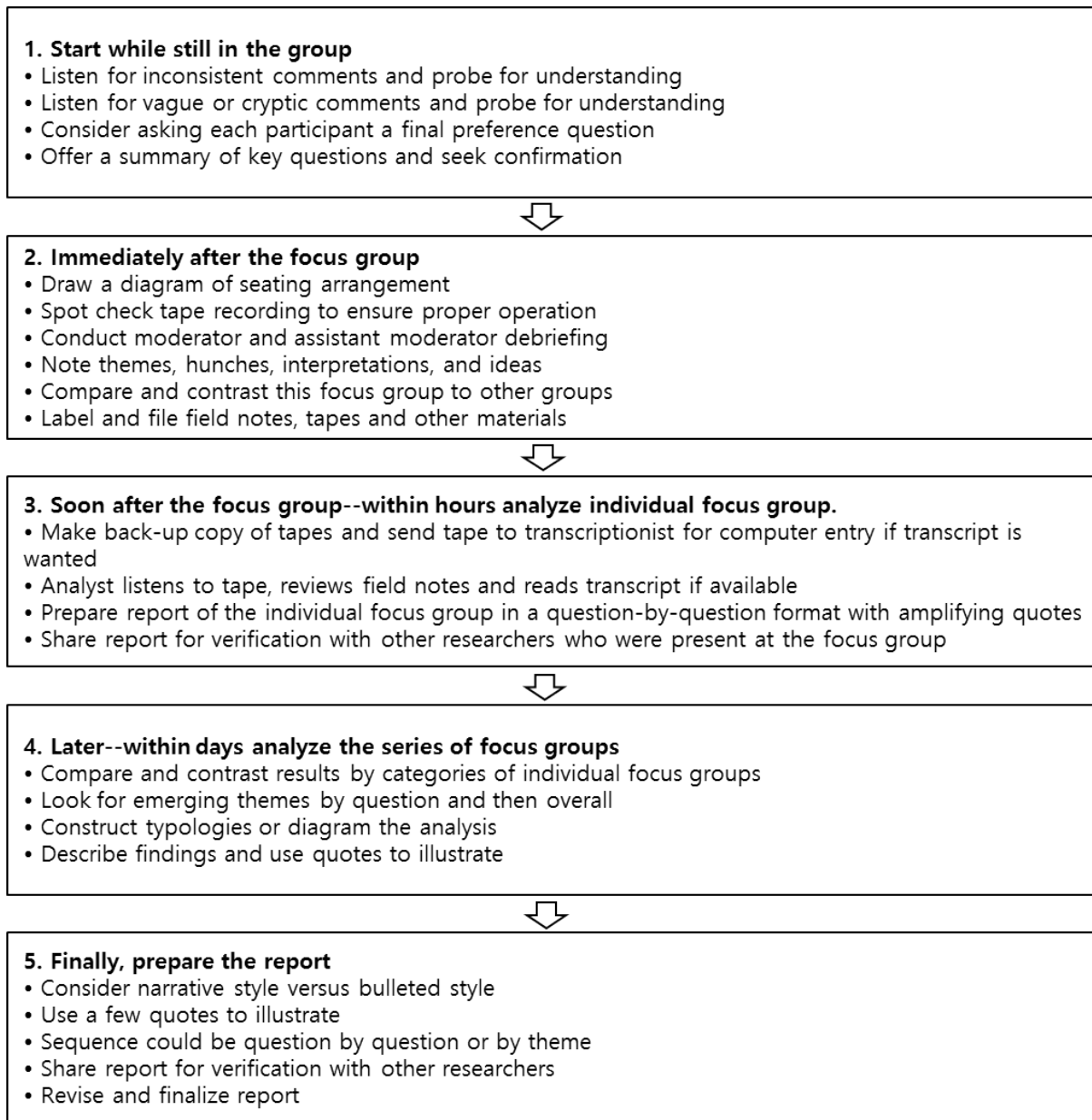


Figure 3.3. Systematic Analysis of Focus Group Interviews (Krueger, 1998).

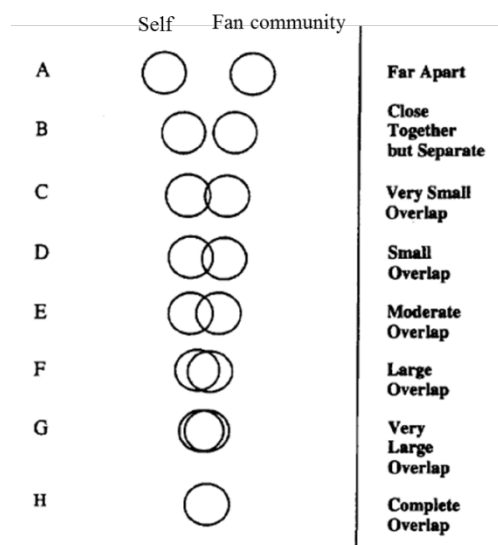


Figure 3.4. Direct measure of sport fan community identification based on the aided visual diagram of degree overlap between self-definition and fan community identity. Adopted from “Self-categorization, affective commitment and group self-esteem as distinct aspects of social identity in the organization” by M. Bergami & R. P. Bagozzi, 2000, *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 39, p. 566. Copyright 2000 by The British Psychological Society.

CHAPTER 4

EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION OF THE CRITICAL FACTORS IN THE SPORT CONSUMPTION DECISION MAKING PROCESS OF MILLENNIAL SPORT FANS USING THE MODEL OF GOAL-DIRECTED BEHAVIOR²

² Yim, B. H., Byon, K. K., Baker, T. A., & Zhang, J. J. To be submitted to *Sport Management Review*.

Abstract

Market segmentation has always been useful to marketers because it increases the effectiveness and efficiency of an organization's marketing activities (Parment, 2013). Segmentation based on generation has advantages. A generation's unique consumption traits tend to remain for a lifetime, so marketers can rely on them in their marketing promotions. Recently, the Millennial generation, also known as Generation Y, has received much attention from marketers due not only to their growing consumption power but also their attractive and unique consumption traits (Fromm & Garton, 2013). Chapter 3 identified their five unique consumption traits: (a) community-driven, (b) emotional, (c) peer pressure-influenced, (d) engagement-oriented, and (e) technology-driven. None of these traits have been empirically tested in sport marketing studies until Chapter 3 examined them. However, an inferential study was needed to increase the validity of the findings in Chapter 3. To address this issue, the current study collected data via Amazon Mechanical Turk ($N=603$; 222 Millennials, 139 Baby Boomers, and 242 Generation X). Various Millennial sport consumption behaviors (i.e., game attendance, TV viewing, online participation, social media participation) were examined by adapting MGB (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001) to the sport context and compared to the behavior of Baby Boomers and Generation X sport fans. CFA was conducted to examine the psychometric properties of the measures, and rigorous invariance tests were conducted at both the CFA and SEM level before examining MGB using SEM. Path coefficient-level t-tests were conducted using Chin's (2004) equations and procedure. Results supported MGB's usefulness when predicting Millennial sport fan behavior. Generational differences were also found to have a moderating effect.

Keywords: Millennial, model of goal-directed behavior (MGB), sport marketing, sport consumption behavior, generation effect, Baby Boomers, Generation X,

Introduction

Market segmentation has been always useful for marketers because it increases the effectiveness and efficiency of an organization's marketing activities (Parment, 2013). Age has been identified as one of the most popular market segmentation criteria because members of a certain age group possess common characteristics that influence their interests and consumption decision making (Parment, 2013). One shortcoming of the age segmentation is that it does not account for underlying motivations or group-specific consumption traits that influence behavior. Accordingly, generation segmentation has received much attention because a generation tends to maintain its generation-specific characteristics despite aging. For example, Baby Boomers tend to be achievement-oriented (Mitchell, 1995), a trait that makes sense considering they were born during wartime and grew up in a rapidly growing economy and a competitive job market. However, times have changed and they have reached retirement age. Typically, older people are relaxed and calm, but Baby Boomers, even though many of them are retired, still want to achieve goals (Mitchell, 1995). A generation's unique traits tend to remain for a lifetime, marketers can rely on them in their marketing promotions. One of the primary reasons that Baby Boomers have received so much attention from marketers is that they possess the most dominant consuming power. For the same reason, recently, the Millennial generation, also known as Generation Y, has emerged as an important consumer generation (Fromm & Garton, 2013). According to Fromm and Garton (2013), Millennials number more than 80 million (representing more than 25% of the U.S. population). This number exceeds Baby Boomers and is three times larger than Generation X, making them the largest consumer cohort in history. However, population size and increasing consumption power are not the only characteristics that make this consumer cohort special. Millennials influence other consumers' decision making due to their generational

characteristics: technology-driven, connected, interactive, having viral impact, authentic, transparent, adamant about sharing opinions, invested in “cause marketing,” highly networked, collaborative, focused on community, and insistent on active participation in the creation and development of products (Fromm & Garton, 2013). Marketers can use their characteristics in their marketing activities, such as viral and relationship marketing, which has proven to be an efficient marketing method that guarantees the long-term success of organizations. Therefore, many marketing and consumer behavior researchers in various fields have paid attention to Millennials and identified several unique traits of Millennial consumers: (a) community-driven (e.g., Barker, 2012; Bolton, Parasuraman, Hoefnagels, Migchels, Kabadayi, Gruber, & Solnet, 2013; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014; Williams & Turlow, 2005); (b) emotional (e.g., Getz & Carlsen, 2008; Kumar & Lim, 2008; O’Cass & Frost, 2002); (c) peer pressure-influenced (e.g., Fromm & Garton, 2013; Kim & Jang, 2014); (d) adamant that their voices be heard (e.g., Bolton et al., 2013; Bucic, Harris, & Arli, 2012; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014); and (e) technology-driven (e.g., Herbison & Boseman, 2009; Kavounis, 2008; Norum, 2003; Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009; Tsao & Steffes-Hansen, 2008).

Despite the importance of Millennial consumers, no sport marketing studies have empirically tested how the unique consumption traits of Millennial sport fans influence their consumption behavior. In Chapter 3 of the current study, five Millennial sport fan traits were examined and compared among Millennials, Baby Boomers, and Generation X: community-driven, emotional consumption, peer pressure-influenced (i.e., fear of missing out; FoMO), engagement behavior, and technology-driven. These unique consumption traits were confirmed through a triangulation method (i.e., literature review, focus group interviews, and surveys), yielded convergence validity and reliability of the findings. To examine how much these

variables influence sport consumption decision making, a further empirical model testing is required. There are several well-known consumer decision making models that explain consumers' decision making: Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1991), and Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (MGB; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Among them, MGB contains variables that are similar to the unique traits of Millennial sport fans. For example, MGB includes future-oriented emotion, which is relevant to the emotional consumption so common among Millennials. MGB has a subjective norm variable that is similar to the Millennial tendency to be peer pressure-influenced. Furthermore, MGB's perceived control variable shares lines up with the engagement behavior of Millennials. For the current study, the original MGB was modified, which includes four additional variables that have been identified as predictors of sport fan consumption behavior: (a) team identification, (b) community identification, (c) past satisfaction, and (d) fan engagement. Lastly, several studies have identified the generational difference in consumption behavior domains such as fashion (Pentecost & Andrews, 2010), tourism (Beldona, 2005), wine consumption (Fountain & Lamb, 2011; Getz & Carlsen, 2008), and in general retail setting (Parment, 2013). This generational difference in consumption behavior indicates the moderation effect of generation so the moderating effect of generation was needed to be investigated.

The purposes of this study were (a) to examine the Millennial sport fan decision-making process in connection with various sport consumption behaviors (i.e., game attendance, TV viewing, participation in online activities, and participation in social media activities) using a modified MGB (i.e., Sport Fan MGB) and (b) to compare Millennial decision making with the other generations (i.e., Generation X and Baby Boomers) to determine whether the Sport Fan MGB can better explain Millennial fan behavior than the fan behavior of the other generations.

The results of this study provide information about the Millennial sport fan decision-making process that might be useful to sport researchers and practitioners interested in Millennial sport fan behavior.

Literature Review

Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (MGB)

MGB extended TRA (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and TPB (Ajzen, 1991) by adding positive and negative anticipated emotions, desires, and past behaviors to the previous models that included attitude, subjective norm, and perceived control (see Figure 4.1). According to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), attitude is the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of a behavior, and subjective norms comprise the belief that most people will approve or disapprove of said behavior. Intention is defined as the motivational factor that directly influences behavior. Perceived control is a person's perception of the ease or difficulty of engaging in a particular behavior. It predicts behavior both directly and indirectly through intention (Ajzen & Madden, 1986). MGB contains variables that are similar to the unique traits of Millennial sport fans. For example, this model includes future-oriented emotion, which corresponds to the emotional nature of their consumption decisions. MGB has subjective norm variable that is similar to the peer pressure-influence that Millennials experience. Furthermore, MGB's perceived control variable lines up with their desire to make their voices heard (engagement behavior). MGB was proposed to deal with the criticisms that the previous models had received. The biggest concerns were that they did not include important behavioral predictors such as emotional, social, and cultural processes (Xie, Bagozzi, & Ostli, 2013) and their lack of explanatory power (40% of the variance in intention and 29% of the variance in behavior; Armitage & Conner, 2001). Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) improved TPB by

incorporating positive and negative anticipated emotions, desires, and past behaviors into MGB. First, anticipated emotions were added to improve predictability (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Furthermore, they were identified as important predictors in the decision-making process (e.g., Parker, Manstead, & Stradling, 1995; Richard, van der Pligt, & Vries, 1995). To address the criticism of incorporation of a motivational variable to energize the predictors and generate behavioral intention, a new construct “desire” was added to the MGB (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Lastly, past behaviors were included to predict desire, intention, and behavior. Through meta-analysis (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001), the frequency of past behavior was found to predict both intention and future behavior.

Among these added variables, particularly important to Millennial sport consumption is future-oriented emotion. Considering their potential ability to predict sport consumption behavior, future-oriented emotions have received surprisingly low attention from sport marketing researchers. Bagozzi, Baumgartner, and Pieters (1998) introduced goal-directed emotions (17 items of emotional adjectives) to measure future-oriented emotions, which were further categorized into two types: (a) anticipatory emotion, which one feels now by imagining the future event and (b) anticipated emotion, which a person imagines he/she might feel when the event has just happened.

Future-oriented emotion is an important predictor of future sport consumption. Spectator sport is a hedonic product that a consumer uses to experience psychological well-being. However, unlike other products (or services), spectator sport cannot provide the same quality of core product consistently due to an uncertainty of the game outcome. When the same level of service or core product is delivered to consumers every time, consumer satisfaction is the most influential predictor. And if the same level of quality is provided over a long period of time and a

certain level of customer identity with an organization has developed, then identification becomes a more important predictor (e.g., Haumann, Quaiser, Wieseke, & Rese, 2014). However, in spectator sport, tonight's game may not likely to be the same as last night's game. In fact, if the games were all the same, there would be no reason to attend or view. There are many factors that contribute to the differences: home team quality, opponent quality, game schedule, etc. So, when sport fans make decision to attend or watch tonight's or tomorrow's game, they would evaluate their anticipated emotional experiences they would feel after the game. In this way, future-oriented emotions are an important way to predict revisit intention (i.e., future attendance).

MGB has been proven to have good psychometric properties and explanatory power in explicating human behavior, and it seems like an appropriate model for examining Millennial behavior because its variables match well with Millennial traits. However, it needs to be extended to explain Millennial sport fan behavior by considering unique traits such as team identification and fan satisfaction. Therefore, this study proposed the Sport Fan Model of Goal-Directed Behavior (Sport Fan MGB).

Millennial Sport Fan Consumption Behavior

There are many types of sport consumer behavior for which technology is used: fantasy sport participation, purchasing tickets online, fan community activities, leaving comments on sport organizations' websites (engagement behavior), E-WOM, team SNS activities, and online helping (i.e., providing helpful comments to peers, a behavior that benefits sport organizations because it increases service quality). All of these online sport consumption behaviors are (and will continue to be) important considerations for sport marketers. For example, in online fan communities, sport fans feel a strong sense of belonging, help each other, share information, and share experiences that can be used in viral marketing. There are many definitions, but according

to Golan and Zaidner (2008), viral marketing is the communication and distribution of digital products by customers via electronic technology to other potential customers in their social sphere. Viral marketing has several advantages. First, because the content is delivered by consumers (and sometimes even created by them), viral marketing reduces advertising costs. Second, viral marketing can directly deliver content to the target population because consumers can share content with friends who have similar interests or tastes (Larson, 2009). Third, viral marketing helps maintain effective integrated marketing and communication (IMC) strategies on social networks (Larson, 2009). The question, then, is “how can marketers help content go viral?” Phelps, Lewis, Mobilio, Perry, and Raman (2004) noted that emotions play an important role in viral marketing. Furthermore, Botha and Reyneke (2013) explored the relationship between viral marketing and emotion among Millennials through interviews and found that emotional content tends to spread more on social networks. Another important point is that content is shared online through communication technologies with which Millennials are familiar, implying that Millennials are the consumers who can make content go viral.

These Millennial characteristics stress the importance of studying Millennial consumption behavior. The unique generational characteristics of Millennials that influence their behavioral decision making have been identified in previous studies: (a) community-driven (e.g., Barker, 2012; Bolton et al., 2013; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014; Williams & Turlow, 2005); (b) emotional (e.g., Getz & Carlsen, 2008; Kumar & Lim, 2008; O’Cass & Frost, 2002); (c) peer pressure-influenced (e.g., Fromm & Garton, 2013; Kim & Jang, 2014); (d) adamant that their voices be heard (e.g., Bolton et al., 2013; Bucic, Harris, & Arli, 2012; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014); and (e) technology-driven (e.g., Herbison & Boseman, 2009; Kavounis, 2008; Norum, 2003; Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009; Tsao & Steffes-Hansen, 2008). In Chapter 3,

focus group interviews and surveys were conducted; Millennials demonstrated these five consumption traits in connection with sport products. The Millennials engaged in more technology-driven behavior. They played more fantasy sports than Baby Boomers, and their participation in online activities and social media activities was also higher. The number of teams they followed using social media was significantly higher than the other generations, indicating that they are connected to more people. But the technology was found to be a medium that enabled Millennials to consume sport products in ways befitting the other unique traits that influence their behavior. Next, the desire for social interaction was found to influence their sport consumption decisions to attend an event, viewing it on TV, participate in online activities, and participate in social media activities. In particular, when compared with other generations, Millennials were much more likely to participate in online activities and social media activities. Peer pressure-influence also influence Millennial sport consumption decisions. In terms of emotion, Millennials showed an overall higher level of positive emotions and lower level of negative emotions when consuming sport. Their positive emotions for event attendance behavior and online activity participation were significantly different from the other generations. Lastly, Millennial sport fans showed a higher interest in engagement than the other generations, indicating that they were more likely to voice their opinions and concerns to sport organizations.

Sport Fan Model of Goal-Directed Behavior

In the current study, MGB was modified to fit the sport marketing context using a few more variables that help explain sport consumption. The Sport Fan MGB includes the following sport fan-specific variables: past satisfaction, fan engagement, team identification, and community identity (i.e., fan community identity) (see Figure 4.2).

Past satisfaction. Customer satisfaction refers to a pleasurable fulfillment response toward a good, service, benefit, or reward (Oliver, 1997). Satisfying customers is important for service organizations because satisfaction can be used as an evaluative criterion (Yoshida & James, 2010) and it is a significant predictor of future behavioral intention (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Kwon, Trail, & Anderson, 2005; Wakefield & Blodgett, 1996; Yoshida & James, 2010). Spectator sport can be categorized as entertainment; accordingly, customer satisfaction is directly related to the success of the organization. Furthermore, although the number of games played varies between sports, sport organizations must maintain or increase satisfaction so that spectators are more likely to return to the venue (e.g., Wakefield & Blodgett, 1996; Yoshida & James, 2010).

Fan engagement. Fan engagement was an important variable to include in the Sport Fan MGB. Yoshida et al. (2014) defined fan engagement as “a sport consumer’s extrarole behaviors in nontransactional exchanges to benefit his or her favorite sport team, the team’s management, and other fans” (p. 403). Sport fan engagement includes attending an event, viewing the event on television, purchasing team products, following their team on printed media, and talking with others about their team (Yoshida et al., 2014). Highly engaged sport fans show extrarole behaviors, such as spreading positive WOM, displaying supportive behavior for their team (e.g., Swanson, Gwinner, Larson, & Janda, 2003), recruiting new customers, providing comments to help improve products, participating in new product development, and collaborating with other fans (Ahearne, Bhattacharya, & Gruen, 2005; Bettencourt, 1997; Füller, Matzler, & Hoppe, 2008). Fan engagement has been theorized as being observable at the allegiance stage, when individuals commit to a sport team (Funk & James, 2001). Previous studies have focused more on attitudinal predictors, such as team identification (e.g., Wann & Branscombe, 1990), team

group identity (e.g., Heere, Walker, Yoshida, Ko, Jordan, & James, 2011), fan loyalty (e.g., Funk & James, 2001), and team attachment (Mahony, Nakazawa, Funk, James, & Gladden, 2002).

Therefore, including fan engagement in the Sport Fan MGB improves the model's predictability by allowing it to measure a more diverse collection of sport consumer traits. In addition, Millennials show high levels of engagement behavior with organizations in which they are interested (e.g., Bolton et al., 2013; Bucic et al., 2012; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014), making fan engagement an important element to be include in the Sport Fan MGB.

Team identification. Team identification has received much attention from sport marketing researchers due to its ability to predict sport consumption and behavioral intention (e.g., Fink, Parker, Brett, & Higgins, 2009; Laverie & Arnett, 2000). Branscombe and Wann (1992) defined identification as the level of psychological attachment a sport fan feels towards one's favorite team. It derives from social identity theory, which defines social identity as "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his or her knowledge of their membership in a social group or groups together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (Tajfel, 1981, p. 255). As a sport fan becomes more affiliated with their team, their identification with the team is likely to increase (Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Many studies have found that sport consumers identify with sport teams (e.g., Cialdini et al., 1976; Fisher & Wakefield, 1998). In this study Ashforth and Mael's (1989) and Fisher and Wakefield's (1998) definitions of team identification will be used to distinguish it from fan community identity: one's psychological attachment to a team to the degree that a sport fan tends to treat that team's successes and failures as his or her own.

Fan community identity. Although team identity and fan community identity both derive from social identity theory, team identification is more individualistic in nature whereas

fan community identity is collectivistic (Schau, Muniz, & Arnould, 2009). Individuals have a desire to belong to a particular community and behave according to that community's norms and values (Heere et al., 2011). To fulfill this desire, individuals seek out communities, suggesting that the social identity of individuals is formed by their perception of belonging to a community (Ashmore, Deaux, & McLaughlin-Volpe, 2004). Among the communities, there are also companies and brands with which individuals affiliate themselves (McAlexander, Schouten, & Koenig, 2002; Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001; Muniz & Schau, 2005), forming brand community identity. One example is the distinctive, homogeneous, and long-lasting subculture formed by Harley-Davidson (Schouten & McAlexander, 1995). This collectivistic identity (e.g., fan community identity) has an advantage over individualistic identity (e.g., team identity) in the context of sport consumption. While the motivation behind team identification has been found to be self-esteem (e.g., Cialdini et al., 1976), fans identify themselves largely through the communities of which they are part. For example, when a fan identifies with a team for self-esteem reasons, the fan is likely to leave that team when they perform badly. However, if fans identify with other fans (i.e., fan community identity), they will support a team regardless of team performance because their sense of belongingness may energize them (e.g., Kindred, 2005) which can be also inferred from brand community study (e.g., Muniz & Schau, 2005).

Furthermore, due to the development of social networking services through which brand community members can meet and share opinions, community members participate in collective consumption behaviors that enhance their community identity. These brand communities show similar loyal behavior, helping organizations communicate better and foster substantial organization-consumer relationships (Heere et al., 2011). Most importantly, these relationships have shown a positive influence on consumption behavior (e.g., Homburg, Wieske, & Hoyer,

2009). Therefore, increasing community identity is critical to the success of sport organizations. Researchers have noted that Millennials are more community-oriented than previous generations (e.g., Barker, 2012; Bolton et al., 2013; Paulin et al., 2014; Williams & Thurlow, 2005). In addition, Millennials use communication technology such as SNS to stay connected with others (e.g., Barker, 2012) who might increase community identity. Therefore, community identity has been added to MGB to predict the behavioral intention of Millennial sport consumers more effectively.

Moderating Effect of Generation

Generational differences in consumption behavior has been found in fashion industry (Pentecost & Andrews, 2010), travel and tourism area (Beldona, 2005), wine industry (Fountain & Lamb, 2011; Getz & Carlsen, 2008), and in general retail setting including food, clothing, and automobiles (Parment, 2013), indicating the moderating effect of generation. Generational differences are observed also in sport consumption (Hammond, 2014). Unlike the older fans, for the younger sport fans, having internet connection in the stadium during the game is an important factor of sport consumption. For example, if they cannot use the social media during the live event they leave the stadium and show low revisit intention (Hammond, 2014). In addition, the results of Chapter 3 indicated the difference between generations. Millennials showed higher technology-driven and engagement behaviors. They displayed more positive anticipated emotions to predict their game attendance and online consumption behaviors. These generational differences suggested the moderating effect of generation in sport consumption behavior.

Using the Sport Fan MGB, four goal-directed sport consumption behaviors of Millennials were examined: (a) revisit intention, (b) TV viewing intention (c) online behavioral intention (i.e., participating in fan community activities online), and (d) social media behaviors (i.e., online

comments and retweeting). Moreover, the moderating effect of generation was examined for the four consumption behaviors.

Hypothesized Relationships

Impact of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control on desire. According to attitude theory, an individual's attitude influences his/her behavior (Dijst, Farag, & Schwanen, 2008). The norm-activation theory suggests that subjective norms are formed through experienced feelings of personal obligation to behave in a certain way based on one's internalized values (Lockhorst & Staats, 2006). Subjective norms could represent the peer pressure variable that influences Millennial decision making (e.g., Fromm & Garton, 2013; Kim & Jang, 2014). Because peer pressure is the motivation to "look good to their peers" (e.g., Barker, 2012; Smith, 2012), it is directly related to the desires that mediate motivation and intention (e.g., Bagozzi, 1992).

Empirical studies have been conducted to establish the relationship that attitude, subjective norms, perceived control have on desire in various contexts. For instance, Carrus, Passafaro, and Bonnes (2008) identified that attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control induced desire in their study about ecological behaviors. In the context of festival visitor decision making, Song, Lee, Kang, and Boo (2012) demonstrated that attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control influenced desire. In the full-service restaurant setting, Han and Ryu (2012) found that attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control predicted desire. Kim, Lee, Lee, and Song (2012) examined tourists' overseas travel behavior using MGB and found that attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control significantly impacted desire. In the sport tourism context, Han and Hwang (2014) confirmed using MGB that attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control significantly influenced intention to play golf among golfers. Thus, the current

study posited that attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control would be positively and significantly related to desire in the context of spectator sport.

- H1a. Attitude would have a positive influence on behavioral desire to revisit a sport event.
- H1b. Attitude would have a positive influence on behavioral desire to view a sport event on TV.
- H1c. Attitude would have a positive influence on behavioral desire to engage in online activities related to team participation.
- H1d. Attitude would have a positive influence on behavioral desire to engage in social media activities related to team participation.
- H2a. Subjective norms would have a positive influence on behavioral desire to revisit a sport event.
- H2b. Subjective norms would have a positive influence on behavioral desire to view a sport event on TV.
- H2c. Subjective norms would have a positive influence on behavioral desire to engage in online activities related to team participation.
- H2d. Subjective norms would have a positive influence on behavioral desire to engage in social media activities related to team participation.
- H3a. Perceived behavioral control would have a positive influence on behavioral desire to revisit a sport event.
- H3b. Perceived behavioral control would have a positive influence on behavioral desire to view a sport event on TV.

H3c. Perceived behavioral control would have a positive influence on behavioral desire to engage in online activities related to team participation.

H3d. Perceived behavioral control would have a positive influence on behavioral desire to engage in social media activities related to team participation.

In addition, perceived control has been found to have a positive influence on behavioral intention in previous MGB studies (e.g., Kim et al., 2012; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

H4a. Perceived behavioral control would have a positive influence on behavioral intention to revisit a sport event.

H4b. Perceived behavioral control would have a positive influence on behavioral intention to view a sport event on TV.

H4c. Perceived behavioral control would have a positive influence on behavioral intention to engage in online activities related to team participation.

H4d. Perceived behavioral control would have a positive influence on behavioral intention to engage in social media activities related to team participation.

Impact of anticipated emotions on desire. Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) proposed that positive anticipated emotion (related to goal accomplishment) and negative anticipated emotion (related to goal failure) are important variables that predict behavioral desire. Many empirical findings (e.g., Carrus et al., 2008; Han & Ryu, 2012; Han & Hwang, 2014; Song et al., 2012) have confirmed that positive anticipated emotions positively predict desire whereas negative anticipated emotions negatively influence desire. Chapter 3 in this dissertation indicated that Millennial sport fans displayed more positive anticipated emotions and less negative anticipated emotions than the other generations. Therefore, it was hypothesized that positive and negative anticipated emotions would have a significant influence on desire.

- H5a. Positive anticipated emotions would positively affect behavioral desire to revisit a sport event.
- H5b. Positive anticipated emotions would positively affect behavioral desire to view a sport event on TV.
- H5c. Positive anticipated emotions would positively affect behavioral desire to engage in online activities related to team participation.
- H5d. Positive anticipated emotions would positively affect behavioral desire to engage in social media activities related to team participation.
- H6a. Negative anticipated emotions would negatively affect behavioral desire to revisit a sport event.
- H6b. Negative anticipated emotions would negatively affect behavioral desire to view a sport event on TV.
- H6c. Negative anticipated emotions would negatively affect behavioral desire to engage in online activities related to team participation.
- H6d. Negative e anticipated emotions would negatively affect behavioral desire to engage in social media activities related to team participation.

Impact of satisfaction on desire and intention. In the service industry, customer satisfaction has been repeatedly identified as one of the most important predictors of behavioral intention and future behavior. Satisfaction has been defined as a pleasurable fulfillment response toward a good, service, benefit, or reward (Oliver, 1997). Specifically for sport organizations, satisfying sport fans is critical because satisfaction has been found to be a significant predictor of behavioral intention (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Kwon, Trail, & Anderson; 2005; Wakefield & Blodgett, 1996; Yoshida & James, 2010). Han and Ryu (2012), in their study of full-service

restaurants, included satisfaction as a predictor in MGB and found that it had a positive and significant relationship with desire. Thus, the current study posited the following hypotheses:

- H7a. Past satisfaction would positively affect behavioral desire to revisit a sport event.
- H7b. Past satisfaction would positively affect behavioral desire to view a sport event on TV.
- H7c. Past satisfaction would positively affect behavioral desire to engage in online activities related to team participation.
- H7d. Past satisfaction would positively affect behavioral desire to engage in social media activities related to team participation.
- H8a. Past satisfaction would positively affect behavioral intention to revisit a sport event.
- H8b. Past satisfaction would positively affect behavioral intention to view a sport event on TV.
- H8c. Past satisfaction would positively affect behavioral intention to engage in online activities related to team participation.
- H8d. Past satisfaction would positively affect behavioral intention to engage in social media activities related to team participation.

Impact of fan engagement, team identity, and community identity on desire and intention. Fan engagement, team identity, and fan community identity are sport fan behavioral predictor variables that were included in the Sport Fan MGB to examine Millennial sport fan behaviors. Yoshida et al. (2014) suggested that fan engagement is multi-dimensional, and in the current study, management cooperation and prosocial behavior were used to examine the relationship between fan engagement and behavioral intention. Management cooperation

measures fan actions that help team management, and prosocial behavior includes actions that help other fans. Previous studies have revealed that Millennials showed a tendency to be highly engaged with organizations they like (e.g., Bolton et al., 2013; Bucic et al., 2012; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014). One sport marketing study revealed that management cooperation predicted purchase intention and that prosocial behavior showed a significant positive relationship with referral intention (Yoshida et al., 2014).

- H9a. Fan engagement would positively affect behavioral intention to revisit a sport event.
- H9b. Fan engagement would positively affect behavioral intention to view a sport event on TV.
- H9c. Fan engagement would positively affect behavioral intention to engage in online activities related to team participation.
- H9d. Fan engagement would positively affect behavioral intention to engage in social media activities related to team participation.

Next, team identity has often been found to be significantly related to various types of consumer behavior, such as media consumption, merchandise sales, and attendance (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; Madrigal, 2000; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Although it was not included in the original MGB, when predicting sport fan behavior, it might be an important variable. In terms of its role in the Sport Fan MGB, it is expected to predict both intention and desire. Previous researchers have shown that team identification predicts sport behavioral intention (e.g., Fink et al., 2009; Laverie & Arnett, 2000). In Chapter 3, through the focus group interviews, team identification was found to be an important antecedent of sport fan desires of attending an event. Many of the participants who identified themselves as highly

identified fans mentioned that they wanted to go to the game, but their desires sometimes did not move to the intention level due to travel inconvenience, lack of time, and lack of money. Hence, the current study proposed that that team identity would predict both desire and intention.

H10a. Team identity would positively affect behavioral desire to revisit a sport event.

H10b. Team identity would positively affect behavioral desire to view a sport event on TV.

H10c. Team identity would positively affect behavioral desire to engage in online activities related to team participation.

H10d. Team identity would positively affect behavioral desire to engage in social media activities related to team participation.

H11a. Team identity would positively affect behavioral intention to revisit a sport event.

H11b. Team identity would positively affect behavioral intention to view a sport event on TV.

H11c. Team identity would positively affect behavioral intention to engage in online activities related to team participation.

H11d. Team identity would positively affect behavioral intention to engage in social media activities related to team participation.

Millennials are known to be more community-oriented than Baby Boomers and Generation X (e.g., Barker, 2012; Bolton et al., 2013; Paulin et al., 2014; Williams & Thurlow, 2005). When an individual is highly identified with a brand community, he/she is likely to value the norm and values of the community members and will try to behave like the in-group members. Sport consumers who have high community identity will show higher levels of behavioral intention to meet the expectations of community members in order to maintain their

sense of belonging. Therefore, community identification should play an important role in predicting Millennial sport consumer behavior (e.g., Bagozzi, Dholakia, & Mookerjee, 2006). In the current study, like team identity, community identity was hypothesized to predict desire and intention for sport fan behaviors.

H12a. Fan community identity would positively affect behavioral desire to revisit a sport event.

H12b. Fan community identity would positively affect behavioral desire to view a sport event on TV.

H12c. Fan community identity would positively affect behavioral desire to engage in online activities related to team participation.

H12d. Fan community identity would positively affect behavioral desire to engage in social media activities related to team participation.

H13a. Fan community identity would positively affect behavioral intention to revisit a sport event.

H13b. Fan community identity would positively affect behavioral intention to view a sport event on TV.

H13c. Fan community identity would positively affect behavioral intention to engage in online activities related to team participation.

H13d. Fan community identity would positively affect behavioral intention to engage in social media activities related to team participation.

Previous MGB studies (e.g., Kim et al., 2012; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001) have continually confirmed that desire significantly predicts intention. Hence, the following hypotheses were proposed:

- H14a. Behavioral desire to revisit a sport event would positively affect behavioral intention to revisit a sport event.
- H14b. Behavioral desire to view a sport event on TV would positively affect behavioral intention to view a sport event on TV.
- H14c. Behavioral desire to engage in online activities related to team participation would positively affect behavioral intention to engage in online activities related to team participation.
- H14d. Behavioral desire to engage in social media activities related to team participation would positively affect behavioral intention to engage in social media activities related to team participation.

In addition to the hypotheses related to the structural relationships within MGB, the current study hypothesized the moderating role of generation on sport fan behaviors (i.e., revisit intention, online behavior, and SNS behavior). The literature review revealed that Millennials have unique consumption traits that influence their consumption behavior. In Chapter 3, the focus group interview and survey results confirmed that the unique generational traits of Millennial sport fans (e.g., peer pressure-influenced, community-driven, emotional, engagement-oriented, and technology-driven) are different from those of Baby Boomers and Generation X. Hence, it was proposed that when those traits were included and examined in the Sport Fan MGB, generational differences would emerge.

- H15a. Sport Fan MGB would show generational differences when predicting behavioral intention to revisit a sport event.
- H15b. Sport Fan MGB would show generational differences when predicting behavioral intention to view a sport event on TV.

H15c. Sport Fan MGB would show generational differences when predicting behavioral intention to engage in online activities related to team participation.

H15d. Sport Fan MGB would show generational differences when predicting behavioral intention to engage in social media activities related to team participation.

Methodology

Participants and Data Collection Procedures

After receiving approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB), the data were collected using online self-administered surveys on Qualtrics. Data were collected from three generations (i.e., Millennials, Baby Boomers, and Generation X) of the general consumer population via a crowd-sourcing web service (Amazon Mechanical Turk). The Mechanical Turk data sample has been well documented to be more representative of the U.S. population than the undergraduate sample in terms of gender, age, race, and education (Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010). Three sets of samples were collected from Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials. Markert's (2004) generational cohort categorization standard was applied to define the generations: Baby Boomers (born between 1946 and 1965), Generation X (born between 1966 and 1985), and Millennials (born between 1986 and 2005) (see Figure 4.3). A total of 614 data were collected, but after eliminating 11 data that did not meet the filtering criteria, 603 were retained. Out of the 603, 139 were Baby Boomers, 242 were Generation X, and 222 were Millennials. The average age was 58.2 for Baby Boomers, 35.6 for Generation X, and 25.3 for Millennials. The average year increment between Baby Boomers and Generation X was 22.6 but only 10.3 between Generation X and Millennials. Hence, the Millennial sample in this study represents not the entire Millennial population but the Early-Early Millennials (born between 1986 and 1990; see Figure 4.4). The gender and ethnicity of the three generation samples were

proportionate. The average income of the Baby Boomers was the highest, followed by Generation X. Participation in the study was voluntary and was compensated \$2.00. The online survey included a screening question, “Who is your favorite team?” and those respondents who were not a fan of any sport team were excluded from the study. The participants recruited were asked to respond to all of the survey questions related to their sport consumption behavior as a sport fan. Detailed descriptive statistics about demographic information are provided in Table 4.1.

Instruments

Attitude. Attitude was measured using the 7-point semantic differential scale originally developed by Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (1957). It has been used in many studies and proven to have sound validity and reliability (e.g., Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2002). There are two types of attitude, cognitive and affective, but Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) introduced it as an instrumental and experiential factor. Considering the fact that sport consumption is a hedonic in nature, the current study used two items to measure each factor. The participants were asked to respond to the following: “On the following scales, please express your attitude toward [behavior].” Three items were presented, anchored by “bad-good,” “harmful-beneficial,” and “unpleasant-pleasant.”

Anticipated emotion. Bagozzi et al.’s (1998) goal-directed emotions were used to measure sport fan anticipated emotion. This scale is commonly used when measuring goal-directed emotions and is therefore considered an appropriate scale to measure fan consumption intention. Seven items of emotional adjectives were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by “not at all” and “very much.” Three positive anticipated emotion items were measured based on the statement “If I [behavior], I will feel [emotion].” Four negative

anticipated emotion items were measured based on the statement “If I don’t [behavior], I will feel [emotion].”

Subjective norms. Following previous research (e.g., Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Bagozzi, Dholakia, & Mookerjee, 2006; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001), the statement “please express how strongly most people who are important to you feel you should or should not [behavior]” was provided. To measure subjective norms, participants were asked to rate the following items on a 7-point scale: (a) “Most people who are important in my life think I (circle appropriate number): should 1: 2: 3: 4: 5: 6: 7: should not [behavior]”; (b) “Most people who are important to me would (circle appropriate number): approve of 1: 2: 3: 4: 5: 6: 7: disapprove of [behavior].”

Perceived behavioral control. Perceived behavioral control was measured using the tools from Bagozzi et al. (2006). Two items were measured on a 7-point scale. The first question was “How much control do you have over [behavior],” anchored by “no control” and “total control.” The second question was “For me [behavior] is,” anchored by “difficult” and “easy.”

Desire. Desire was measured using the scale from Perugini and Bagozzi (2001). Three items were used to measure participants’ desire to engage the four behaviors: “I desire to [behavior]” and “I want to [behavior]” (followed by an 11-point scale anchored by “false” and “true”) and “My desire for [behavior]” (followed by choices of (a) “no desire,” (b) “very weak desire,” (c) “weak desire,” (d) “moderate desire,” (e) “strong desire,” and (f) “very strong desire”).

Fan engagement. Fan engagement was measured using a reduced version of the scale from Yoshida et al. (2014). Six items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Fan community identity. Fan community identity was measured via two items: (a) one item from Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) and (b) one item from Bagozzi et al. (2006). The item from Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) is an 8-point visual and verbal representation of an individual's perceived overlap between self-identity and group identity (see Figure 4.5). The current study adopted and modified the item from Bagozzi et al. (2006) by stating, "indicate the degree to which your self-image overlaps the identity of your fan community as you perceive it," following by a 7-point scale anchored by "not at all" and "very much."

Past satisfaction. Past satisfaction toward each behavior (i.e., game attendance, TV watching, online consumption, and social media consumption) was measured using a modified version of the scale from Yoshida and James (2010). The respondents were asked to recall the most recent sport consumption behavior in which they engaged in following their favorite sport team. The two items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree).

Team identity. The team identification scale from Trail and James (2001) was used to measure team identification. Three items on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) were rated.

Behavioral intention. Behavioral intention was measured for event revisit, TV viewing, online activity participation, and social media activity participation. Revisit intention and media consumption intention were measured using the consumption behavioral intention measures from Kim, Trail, and Ko (2011). A 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) was used. Online and SNS behaviors were measured using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) (see Appendix C for complete instruments).

Data Analysis

IBM SPSS Statistics 20.0 and Mplus 6 were used to analyze the data. First, demographic information was examined using descriptive statistics. Next, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), multi-group invariance test, SEM, and multi-group SEM were conducted. Because CFA and SEM estimate the results based on multivariate normal distribution, the researcher checked normality, linearity, and outliers before examining the measurement model. Q-Q plots were used to examine the normal distribution, and the skewness and kurtosis of the items were examined using skewness and kurtosis threshold values. Scatter plots were examined to detect outliers and linearity (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009).

The estimator used for the current study was ML. For CFA, assessing model fit is important. When model fit is not satisfactory, the measurement model does not represent the collected data well, so modification is necessary until model fit improves. If it does not improve, another set of data should be collected. Model fit indices are controversial for a number of reasons. First, only the chi-square test is a true statistical test of model fit; however, as sample size increases above 200 (Hu & Bentler, 1999), the likelihood of type II error (false rejection) increases. Given that SEM is an asymptotic (large sample) technique, this limitation is problematic. Therefore, other model fit indices have been designed, focusing on different dimensions of model fit. Tanaka (1993) identified six dimensions of model fit: (a) Absolute vs. Relative (incremental), (b) Simple vs. Complex, (c) Normed vs. Non-normed, (d) Population vs. Sample, (e) Estimation Method Independent vs. Estimation Method Dependent, and (f) Sample-size Dependent vs. Sample-size Independent. Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested four dimensions of model fit, and Kline (2010) suggested three (i.e., absolute, relative, and predictive). In the current study, six fit indices were used: chi-square, normed chi-square, the Tucker-Lewis Index

(TLI) (cut-off value of .90), Bentler's (1990) comparative fit index (CFI) (cut-off value of .90), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) (cut-off value of .08), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) (cut-off value of .06).

Next, the construct validity of the scale was examined. Construct validity is examined through both convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity was established by examining average variance extracted (AVE) values ($> .5$; Hair et al., 2009). Discriminant validity was examined by (a) evaluating inter-factor correlation ($< .85$; Kline, 2011) and (b) comparing squared correlation to the AVE values of the respective sport fan emotion factor (Fornell & Larker, 1981). Furthermore, the reliability of the factors and the observed variables was examined by Cronbach's alpha ($> .7$; Nunnally, 1978), but greater than .6 was considered an acceptable level, as recommended by Hair et al. (2009) and composite reliability (CR) was calculated to assess construct-level reliability.

The proposed model was compared to the competing model (see Figure 4.6) to find a best plausible model. Because the competing model was nested, the chi-square difference test was conducted to determine the best model (i.e., the one that fit the data better). After the proposed model was determined to be the better model, SEMs were conducted to test the Sport Fan MGB for four sport behaviors (i.e., event attendance, TV viewing, online activity participation, and social media activity participation).

The second purpose of this study was to examine generational differences for the four sport fan behaviors between Millennials, Baby Boomers, and Generation X using the Sport Fan MGB. Four multi-group SEMs were conducted to detect the moderating effect of generation. Testing multi-group invariance was critical for this study because it examined different sport fan behaviors between generations. In order to conduct group comparisons, a series of rigorous

multi-group invariance tests were conducted at the CFA, SEM, and t-tests level. The CFA-level invariance test was conducted following the procedure from Vandenberg and Lance (2000) and Ployhart and Oswald (2004). The SEM-level invariance test was conducted using Byrne's (2012) method. Multi-group analyses t-tests were conducted following Chin's (2004) procedure.

Vandenberg and Lance (2000) developed a straightforward 8-step procedure for examining invariance in every aspect of the measure. The first test of the 8-step procedure is the omnibus test. However, according to Vandenberg (personal communication, 2013), the omnibus test is no longer necessary or sufficient for establishing invariance. So the remaining seven invariance tests were conducted.

Configural invariance. Configural invariance is a test of the same fixed and free factor across groups. This type of invariance is arguably the most important because it establishes that the measure functioned the same way psychologically in the different groups. If comparisons are made when there is a lack of configural invariance, a researcher is truly comparing apples and oranges. If there is a lack of configural invariance, the researcher should inspect the CFAs and/or EFAs to see whether there is a problematic item that might be removed without severely altering the measure.

Metric invariance. This test examines whether the values in the Λ_X matrix, the factor loadings, are equal across groups. Invariance in this respect indicates that respondents from different groups interpreted items in the measure on the same scale so that their responses might be comparable. Vandenberg and Lance (2000) suggested that if the goal is to run a path model, establishing configural and metric invariance might be sufficient.

Scalar invariance. Scalar invariance is a test of the item intercepts across groups.

Invariance of item uniqueness. Vandenberg and Lance (2000) suggested this test of the equivalence of the uniquenesses ($\Theta\delta$ and/or $\Theta\epsilon$) to indicate the reliability of an item.

Equivalence of factor variances. Vandenberg and Lance (2000) suggested this comparison of the factor variances in the diagonal of the psi matrix as a necessary condition for interpreting item uniquenesses as reliabilities and as a secondary test of metric invariance.

Equivalence of factor covariances. This test is conducted to establish equivalent covariances between the latent factors across groups.

Latent factor means. This test examines the differences in latent factor means by forcing equivalence in the kappa matrix.

Theoretical advances have shown that all 8 steps might not be necessary. Ployhart and Oswald (2004) built on Vandenberg and Lance's (2000) framework to ask research questions using mean and covariance structure (MACS) analysis. They addressed three questions: (a) Is the measure functioning in the same way across groups? (b) Is there homogeneity of variance?, and (c) Are there differences in the latent means? Ployhart and Oswald (2004) suggested conducting invariance tests between configural and metric invariance levels and then fixing the mean of one of the groups equal to zero and testing the factor mean difference. The mean differences can then be directly tested such that a significant mean would indicate a difference between that group and the referent group. The current study followed Ployhart and Oswald's (2004) approach, but because their recommendation built on Vandenberg and Lance's (2000) procedure, 7-step invariance tests were conducted at CFA level, a more conservative approach.

Finally, to compare the proposed model across generations, multi-group t-tests were conducted. The coefficient differences of the corresponding structural paths for the three structural models were tested using the Equation 1 suggested by Chin (2004).

Results

Measurement Model

Before conducting a CFA, the researcher checked normality, linearity of the data, and outliers. Q-Q plots were examined, and the linearity assumption was met. Skewness and kurtosis threshold values were found to be within conservative skewness (± 2) and kurtosis (± 5) ranges, indicating normality of the data. Scatter plots were examined, and no significant outliers were found. Then, model fit was examined with four CFAs (i.e., for each sport fan behavior), yielding evidence of factor loadings and fit indices that indicated good model fit based on the complexity of the model. One of the anticipated positive emotion items (i.e., relieved) was deleted due to its low factor loading ($< .05$). Measurement model fit was assessed using the maximum likelihood estimation (ML). Pooled data ($N = 603$) were used for the four CFAs.

CFA for event attendance. First, the measurement model for event attendance was examined. Goodness of fit indices showed that the measurement model for event attendance had excellent model fit. The chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2 = 14154.221$, $df = 440$, $p < .001$), indicating that the hypothesized model and the observed model were significantly different. However, chi-square values are known to be sensitive to sample size, so other goodness of fit indices, such as normed fit, RMSEA, SRMR, TLI, and CFI, were further examined (Kline, 2011). The normed chi-square value (χ^2/df ratio) was 3.29, which was deemed acceptable based on Kline's (2011) recommendation that the value should be ≤ 5 . RMSEA (.061) and SRMR (.049) were below the cut-off ($\leq .08$; Kline, 2011). The TLI value of .929 and CFI value of .941 were above the cut-off value ($> .90$; Kline, 2011).

The factor loadings ranged from .76 (harmful-beneficial) to .94 (unpleasant-pleasant) for attitude; .70 (proud) to .92 (happy) for positive emotion; and .75 (disappointed) to .90 (angry) for

negative emotion. The factor loadings for subjective norm (range = .86 to .90), perceived control (range = .50 to .84), desire (range = .86 to .95), team identity (range = .76 to .90), community identity (range = .84 to .87), past satisfaction (range = .96 to .96), fan engagement (range = .62 to .89), and attendance intention (range = .92 to .94) were also adequate ($\geq .50$) according to Hair et al. (2009). Cronbach's alpha, CR, and AVE were used to examine the reliability of the factors and their respective items. Cronbach's alpha values ranged from .59 (perceived control) to .96 (past satisfaction), and the CR values ranged from .63 (perceived control) to .96 (past satisfaction). In addition, all AVE values were above the suggested standard and exceeded the minimum value of 0.50 (Hair et al., 2009), ranging from .63 (fan engagement) to .87 (attendance intention), except perceived control (.48), which was close to .50, indicating that the model was reliable. The inter-factor correlations ranged from -.55 (between attitude and negative emotion) to .67 (between event attendance desire and event attendance intention) and the inter-factor correlations implied distinct latent factors. All of the inter-factor correlations between the factors were below Kline's (2011) cut-off criterion ($< .85$), indicating discriminant validity. Also, the squared correlations between the latent factors were less than the respective construct AVE value, showing acceptable discriminant validity (Fornell & Larker, 1981). See Table 4.2 and 4.3 for more detailed results.

CFA for TV viewing. The measurement model for TV viewing was examined. The chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2 = 1316.611$, $df = 440$, $p < .001$), but the χ^2/df ratio was 2.99, indicating acceptable fit (< 5.0 , Kline, 2011). RMSEA was .057 and SRMR was .045, showing acceptable fit ($\leq .08$; Kline, 2011). TLI (.934) and CFI (.945) were above the recommended cut-off value ($> .90$; Kline, 2011). The factor loadings ranged from .73 (harmful-beneficial) to .94 (unpleasant-pleasant) for attitude, .65 (proud) to .94 (happy) for positive emotion, and .75

(disappointed) to .90 (angry) for negative emotion. The factor loadings for subjective norm (range = .88 to .90), perceived control (range = .63 to .84), desire (range = .80 to .93), team identity (range = .75 to .91), community identity (range = .85 to .87), past satisfaction (range = .91 to .97), fan engagement (range = .62 to .89), and attendance intention (range = .88 to .93) were also adequate ($\geq .50$) according to Hair et al. (2009). Cronbach's alpha values ranged from .69 (perceived control) to .96 (past satisfaction), and the CR values ranged from .63 (perceived control) to .96 (past satisfaction). AVE values were above the suggested standard and exceeded the minimum value of 0.50 (Hair et al., 2009), ranging from .55 (perceived control) to .88 (past satisfaction), indicating that the model was reliable.

The inter-factor correlations ranged from -.35 (between attitude and negative emotion) to .80 (between event attendance desire and event attendance intention), and the inter-factor correlations implied distinct latent factors. All of the inter-factor correlations between the factors were below Kline's (2010) cut-off criterion ($< .85$), indicating discriminant validity. The squared correlations between the latent factors were less than the AVE value for each respective construct, indicating that discriminant validity was established (Fornell & Larker, 1981). See Table 4.4 and 4.5 for more detailed results.

CFA for online activity participation. The chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2 = 1386.609$, $df = 440$, $p < .001$), but the χ^2/df ratio was 3.15, showing adequate fit (< 5.0 , Kline, 2011). RMSEA was .060 and SRMR was .057, indicating good fit ($\leq .08$; Kline, 2011). TLI (.941) and CFI (.951) were above the cut-off value ($> .90$; Kline, 2011). The factor loadings for the online activity CFA model ranged from .84 (harmful-beneficial) to .96 (unpleasant-pleasant) for attitude, .79 (proud) to .97 (happy) for positive emotion, and .79 (disappointed) to .90 (angry) for negative emotion. The factor loadings for subjective norm (range = .86 to .92), perceived

control (range = .55 to .75), desire (range = .88 to .96), team identity (range = .75 to .91), community identity (range = .85 to .87), past satisfaction (range = .96 to .97), fan engagement (range = .62 to .89), and attendance intention (range = .96 to .98) were also acceptable ($\geq .50$, Hair et al., 2009). Cronbach's alpha values ranged from .58 (perceived control) to .98 (online activity participation intention), and the CR values ranged from .60 (perceived control) to .98 (online activity participation intention). Lastly, most of the AVE values were above the suggested standard and exceeded the minimum value of 0.50 (Hair et al., 2009), ranging from .63 (fan engagement) to .94 (online activity participation intention), except perceived control (.43). Its squared correlation with all other latent constructs was less than .43, indicating that the model was reliable.

The inter-factor correlations ranged from -.29 (between past satisfaction and negative emotion) to .89 (between event attendance desire and event attendance intention), and the inter-factor correlations implied distinct latent factors. All of the inter-factor correlations between the factors were below Kline's (2010) cut-off criterion ($< .85$) except the factor correlation between desire and intention, but this result was expected because desire is the strongest antecedent for intention (e.g., Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Overall, the other correlations indicated discriminant validity. Another way to examine discriminant validity was using Fornell and Larker's (1981) method; the squared correlations between the latent factors were less than the AVE value for each respective construct, so discriminant validity was established. See Table 4.6 and 4.7 for more detailed results.

CFA for social media activity participation. CFA was conducted to examine model fit for the social media activity participation measures. The chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2 = 1595.926$, $df = 440$, $p < .001$), and the χ^2/df ratio was 3.62, showing acceptable fit (< 5.0 , Kline,

2011). RMSEA was .066 and SRMR was .068, indicating adequate fit ($\leq .08$; Kline, 2011). TLI (.937) and CFI (.948) were above the recommended cut-off value ($> .90$; Kline, 2011). The factor loadings ranged from .86 (harmful-beneficial) to .967 (bad-good) for attitude, .86 (proud) to .95 (happy) for positive emotion, and .88 (disappointed) to .96 (regretful) for negative emotion. The factor loadings for subjective norm (range = .83 to .95), perceived control (range = .56 to .89), desire (range = .91 to .98), team identity (range = .75 to .91), community identity (range = .85 to .87), past satisfaction (range = .98 to .98), fan engagement (range = .62 to .89), and attendance intention (range = .98 to .99) were also acceptable ($\geq .50$; Hair et al., 2009). Cronbach's alpha values ranged from .65 (perceived control) to .99 (social media activity participation intention), and the CR values ranged from .70 (perceived control) to .99 (social media activity participation intention). In addition, all AVE values were above the suggested standard and exceeded the minimum value of 0.50 (Hair et al., 2009), ranging from .55 (perceived control) to .97 (social media activity participation intention), indicating that the model was reliable.

The inter-factor correlations ranged from -.30 (between attitude and negative emotion) to .90 (between event attendance desire and event attendance intention), and the inter-factor correlations implied distinct latent factors. All of the inter-factor correlations between the factors were below Kline's (2010) cut-off criterion ($< .85$), indicating discriminant validity, except the factor correlation between desire and intention. The high correlation between desire and intention was postulated because desire has been identified as the strongest predictor of intention in MGB (e.g., Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Overall, the other correlations indicated discriminant validity. The squared correlations between the latent factors were less than the AVE value for

each respective construct, indicating adequate discriminant validity (Fornell & Larker, 1981).

See Table 4.8 and 4.9 for more detailed results.

Model Comparison

Following Kline's (2010) suggestion, the proposed model was compared with an alternative model. The current study hypothesized that attitude, positive anticipated emotions, negative anticipated emotions, and subjective norm would only influence desire. Perceived control, past satisfaction, fan community identity, and team identification were hypothesized to influence both desire and behavioral intention. Fan engagement was hypothesized to influence only behavioral intention directly. In previous studies, desire had not been included in the model; hence, past satisfaction, fan community identity, and team identification were only shown to be directly related to behavioral intention (e.g., Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Maroco, & Ross, 2012; Kuenzel & Yassim, 2007; Kwon et al., 2005; Trail, Anderson, & Fink, 2005; Wakefield & Blodgett, 1996; Yoshida & James, 2010). Therefore, we compared our hypothesized model to a competing model (see Figure 4.6) using a chi-square difference test (Hair et al., 2009). Because the current study examined four different goal-directed sport consumption behavioral intentions (i.e., event attendance, TV viewing, online activity participation, and social media activity participation), the model comparison was conducted four times, once for each. First, model comparison was conducted for event attendance. The results show that the chi-square value for the hypothesized model was 1433.405 ($df = 445$). The competing model's chi-square value was 1510.176 ($df = 448$). The chi-square difference was statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2_{(3)} = 76.77, p < .001$), indicating that the proposed model was significantly better. Next, the TV viewing behavior models were compared. The proposed model's chi-square value was 1335.111 ($df = 445$) while the alternative model's chi-square value was 1392.689 ($df = 448$). The chi-square

difference test result was $\Delta\chi^2_{(3)} = 57.578, p < .001$, yielding significantly better results for the proposed model. For online behaviors, the chi-square value for the hypothesized model was 1405.988 ($df = 445$), and the competing model's chi-square value was 1501.190 ($df = 448$). The chi-square difference test result was significant ($\Delta\chi^2_{(3)} = 95.202, p < .001$). Lastly, the social media behavior models were compared. The chi-square value for proposed model was 1636.076 ($df = 445$), while the competing model's chi-square value was 1855.667 ($df = 448$). The chi-square difference test result was $\Delta\chi^2_{(3)} = 219.591, p < .001$, indicating significant difference between the two models. Therefore, the hypothesized model was chosen and was used for subsequent data analyses.

Structural Model Tests

Before testing the hypotheses with the Millennial generation data set ($n = 222$), the four sport consumption behavior MGBs were analyzed through SEM using the pooled data ($N = 603$). The ability of MGB to predict sport fan behaviors and which antecedents were significant on desire and intention were examined to establish an overall understanding of the Sport Fan MGB.

The model fit indices for the event attendance behavior model showed acceptable model fit ($\chi^2 = 1433.41, p < .001; df = 445; CFI = .920; TLI = .929; RMSEA = .061; SRMR = .050$). The chi-square value was significant, meaning that the hypothesized model and the observed model were statistically significantly different. But chi-square values are known to be sensitive to sample size, so the normed chi-square value was computed (Kline, 2011). The normed chi-square ($\chi^2/df = 3.22$) was below the suggested cut-off value (i.e., < 5.0 ; Kline, 2011), showing good fit. The model fit indices for TV viewing behavior were also all satisfactory ($\chi^2 = 1335.11.28; df = 445; \chi^2/df = 3.00; CFI = .944; TLI = .934; RMSEA = .058; SRMR = .046$). The online activity participation behavior SEM model fit indices showed excellent fit ($\chi^2 = 1405.99;$

$df = 445$; $\chi^2/df = 3.16$; CFI = .950; TLI = .941; RMSEA = .060; SRMR = .060). Lastly, the model fit indices for social media behaviors were examined and showed acceptable model fit ($\chi^2 = 1636.08$; $df = 445$; $\chi^2/df = 3.68$; CFI = .933; TLI = .921; RMSEA = .067; SRMR = .080). The SEM model fit indices of all behaviors indicated acceptable levels, so the path coefficient estimates were further examined to test the hypotheses. The SEMs results with the pooled data indicated that the MGB predicted sport fan behavior fairly well. Specifically, the MGB antecedents showed more significant relationships toward traditional sport fan behaviors such as attending the event and viewing it on TV than the relatively new sport fan consumption behaviors such as online and social media activity participation (see Table 4.10). The explained variances (R-square) were .62 for attendance desire and .70 for attendance intention. The R-square value was .70 for TV viewing desire and .71 for TV viewing intention. The variance explained was 68% for online activity participation desire (80% for intention) and 68% for social media activity participation desire (25% for intention). The explained variances showed good numbers for all desires and intentions except the social media intention.

SEMs were estimated to test the hypotheses (H1-H14). More specifically, the relationship between event attendance attitude and event attendance desire was significant ($\beta = .32$, $p < .001$), supporting hypothesis 1a. TV viewing attitude showed a significant relationship to TV viewing desire ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$), confirming hypothesis 1b. Hypothesis 1c was considered as supported because the relationship between online activity participation attitude and desire was $\beta = .15$, $p = .053$. For hypothesis 2, social media activity participation attitude indicated a significant relationship with social media activity participation desire ($\beta = .10$, $p < .05$), confirming hypothesis 2d. As expected, event attendance perceived control was positively related to event attendance intention ($\beta = .28$, $p < .001$), and TV viewing perceived control was

positively related to TV viewing intention ($\beta = .22, p < .001$), supporting hypotheses 4a and 4b. The relationship between positive anticipated event attendance emotion and event attendance desire was significant ($\beta = .17, p < .05$), supporting hypothesis 5a. Past satisfaction with event attendance ($\beta = .15, p < .05$), TV viewing ($\beta = .36, p < .001$), online activity participation ($\beta = .60, p < .001$), and social media activity participation ($\beta = .68, p < .001$) showed significant relationships to their respective desires, confirming hypothesis 7a, 7b, 7c, and 7d. Hypothesis 8a was considered supported because the relationship between online activity participation attitude and desire was marginally significant ($\beta = .13, p = .053$). Past online activity participation satisfaction showed a significant relationship to online activity participation behavioral intention ($\beta = .16, p < .05$), confirming hypothesis 8c. For hypothesis 9, fan engagement indicated a significant relationship with online media activity participation intention ($\beta = .14, p < .01$), confirming hypothesis 9c. The relationship between team identity and event attendance desire was significant ($\beta = .37, p < .001$), supporting hypothesis 10a. Team identification showed a significant relationship to event attendance intention ($\beta = .16, p < .05$), TV viewing intention ($\beta = .24, p < .01$), and social media activity participation intention ($\beta = .61, p < .001$), confirming hypotheses 11a, 11b, and 11d. As postulated, event attendance desire showed a significant relationship to event attendance intention ($\beta = .45, p < .001$), supporting hypothesis 14a. The desire for TV viewing was significant on TV viewing intention ($\beta = .46, p < .001$), and the desire for online activity participation was significant on its intention ($\beta = .67, p < .001$), confirming hypotheses 14b and 14c. Hypotheses 3, 6, 12 and 13 were not supported (see Table 4.11 and Figures 4.7 - 4.10).

The indirect effects of desires have been examined for all four behaviors using bootstrapping method. In the current model, attitude, positive anticipated emotion, negative

anticipated emotion, and subjective norm indirectly predicted intention through desires and perceived norm, community identity, team identity, and past satisfaction predicted both desires and intention. For the game attendance behavior, the indirect effects of desires were statistically significant ($p < .05$) for most of the pairings, except the indirect effect of “negative anticipated emotion – desires – game attendance intention”, “perceived control for game attendance – desires – intention”, and “community identity – desires – intention.” Furthermore, the mediation was statistically tested and there was evidence that mediation of desires was statistically significant because zero did not fall inside the 95% confidence interval for all pairings except “negative anticipated emotion – desires – game attendance intention”, “perceived control for game attendance – desires – intention”, and “community identity – desires – intention.” For the TV watching behavior, the indirect effects of desires were statistically significant ($p < .05$) for most of the pairings, except the indirect effect of “subjective norm – desires - intention”, “perceived control– desires – intention”, and “community identity – desires – intention.” Furthermore, the mediation was statistically tested and there was evidence that mediation of desires was statistically significant because zero did not fall inside the 95% confidence interval for all pairings except “subjective norm – desires - intention”, “perceived control– desires – intention”, and “community identity – desires – intention.” For the online activities participating behavior, the indirect effects of desires were statistically significant ($p < .05$) only for pairings of “attitude – desires - intention”, “satisfaction– desires – intention”, and “community identity – desires – intention.” Furthermore, the mediation was statistically tested and there was lack of evidence that mediation of desires was statistically significant because zero did fall inside the 95% confidence interval for all pairings for online consumption behavior. For the social media consumption behavior, the indirect effects of desires were statistically significant ($p < .05$) for

none of the pairings indicating no indirect effects of desires. The variance explained by predicting event attendance latent constructs was 66% for desire and 64% for intention. The variance explained by predicting TV viewing latent constructs was 64% for desire and 70% for intention. The explained variances for online activity participation were 66% for desire and 75% for intention. Lastly, the explained variances by predicting social activity participation were 71% for desire and 41% for intention.

Moderating Effects of Generation (Invariance Tests)

To examine the moderating effect of generation, multi-group invariance tests were conducted following Vandenberg and Lance's (2000) procedure for each behavioral model. For the SEM multi-group invariance tests, Byrne's (2012) method was used. Because there were three generations and four behavioral MGBs in the current study, a total of twelve invariance tests were conducted (i.e., Millennials vs. Baby Boomers for event attending behavior; Millennials vs. Generation X for event attending behavior; Baby Boomers vs. Generation X for event attending behavior; Millennials vs. Baby Boomers for TV viewing behavior; Millennials vs. Generation X for TV viewing behavior; Baby Boomers vs. Generation X for TV viewing behavior; Millennials vs. Baby Boomers for online activity participation behavior; Millennials vs. Generation X for online activity participation behavior; Baby Boomers vs. Generation X for online activity participation behavior; Millennials vs. Baby Boomers for social media activity participation behavior; Millennials vs. Generation X for social media activity participation behavior; Baby Boomers vs. Generation X for social media activity participation behavior). CFA-level invariance tests were conducted from the configural model to the invariant factor mean model. The results indicated that each group's latent construct measurements were invariant and that the invariant factor means were significantly different. As Ployhart and

Oswald (2004) indicated, the invariance tests between the configural and metric invariance levels should yield non-significant results. Furthermore, the results of the factor mean invariance test (fixing the mean of one of the groups equal to zero and testing the factor mean difference) should indicate significant results. At least one of the conditions was met for most of the group invariance tests; only the multi-group CFA invariance tests between Baby Boomers and Generation X for online and social media participation behavior failed to meet one of the conditions. For the CFA invariance test between Millennials and Baby Boomer game attending behavior, the factor variance and covariance model ($\chi^2 = 1840.45$; $df = 968$; CFI = .92; TLI = .91; RMSEA = .071; SRMR = .114) and invariant factor means model ($\chi^2 = 1883.35$; $df = 979$; CFI = .91; TLI = .91; RMSEA = .072; SRMR = .128) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(11) = 42.9$; $p < .001$). The results showed that the two groups' measurement model was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.12).

For the CFA invariance test between Millennials and Generation X game attending behavior, the factor variance and covariance model ($\chi^2 = 2172.59$; $df = 968$; CFI = .90; TLI = .89; RMSEA = .073; SRMR = .077) and invariant factor means model ($\chi^2 = 2191.56$; $df = 979$; CFI = .90; TLI = .89; RMSEA = .073; SRMR = .081) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(11) = 18.97$; $p < .05$). The results showed that the two groups' measurement model was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.13).

For the CFA invariance test between Baby Boomer and Generation X game attending behavior, the factor variance and covariance model ($\chi^2 = 1923.29$; $df = 968$; CFI = .92; TLI = .91; RMSEA = .072; SRMR = .108) and invariant factor means model ($\chi^2 = 1947.14$; $df = 979$; CFI

= .91; TLI = .91; RMSEA = .072; SRMR = .119) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(11) = 23.85; p < .05$). The results showed that the two groups' measurement model was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.14).

For the CFA invariance test between Millennials and Baby Boomer TV viewing behavior, the factor variance and covariance model ($\chi^2 = 2109.52; df = 968; CFI = .89; TLI = .88; RMSEA = .081; SRMR = .132$) and invariant factor means model ($\chi^2 = 2140.28; df = 979; CFI = .89; TLI = .88; RMSEA = .081; SRMR = .159$) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(11) = 30.76; p < .001$). The results showed that the two groups' measurement model was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.15).

For the CFA invariance test between Millennials and Generation X TV viewing behavior, the factor variance and covariance model ($\chi^2 = 2061.92; df = 968; CFI = .91; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .070; SRMR = .079$) and invariant factor means model ($\chi^2 = 2081.24; df = 979; CFI = .91; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .070; SRMR = .088$) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(11) = 19.32; p < .05$). The results showed that the two groups' measurement model was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.16).

For the CFA invariance test between Baby Boomer and Generation X TV viewing behavior, the factor variance and covariance model ($\chi^2 = 2162.14; df = 968; CFI = .89; TLI = .88; RMSEA = .080; SRMR = .097$) and invariant factor means model ($\chi^2 = 2181.27; df = 979; CFI = .89; TLI = .88; RMSEA = .080; SRMR = .107$) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(11) = 19.13; p < .05$). The results showed that the

two groups' measurement model was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.17).

For the CFA invariance test between Millennials and Baby Boomer online activity participation behavior, the factor variance and covariance model ($\chi^2 = 1817.77$; $df = 968$; CFI = .93; TLI = .92; RMSEA = .070; SRMR = .084) and invariant factor means model ($\chi^2 = 1844.96$; $df = 979$; CFI = .93; TLI = .92; RMSEA = .070; SRMR = .093) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(11) = 27.19$; $p < .01$). The results showed that the two groups' measurement model was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.18).

For the CFA invariance test between Millennials and Generation X online activity participation behavior, the factor variance and covariance model ($\chi^2 = 1975.97$; $df = 968$; CFI = .93; TLI = .93; RMSEA = .067; SRMR = .073) and invariant factor means model ($\chi^2 = 1996.59$; $df = 979$; CFI = .93; TLI = .93; RMSEA = .067; SRMR = .076) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(11) = 20.62$; $p < .05$). The results showed that the two groups' measurement model was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.19).

For the CFA invariance test between Baby Boomer and Generation X online activity participation behavior, the factor variance and covariance model ($\chi^2 = 1958.07$; $df = 968$; CFI = .92; TLI = .92; RMSEA = .073; SRMR = .073) and invariant factor means model ($\chi^2 = 1969.49$; $df = 979$; CFI = .92; TLI = .92; RMSEA = .073; SRMR = .077) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically non-significant ($\Delta\chi^2(11) = 11.42$; non-significant). The results showed that the two groups' measurement model was not significantly different (see Table 4.20).

For the CFA invariance test between Millennials and Baby Boomer social media activity participation behavior, the factor variance and covariance model ($\chi^2 = 1985.89$; $df = 968$; CFI = .93; TLI = .92; RMSEA = .076; SRMR = .088) and invariant factor means model ($\chi^2 = 2023.46$; $df = 979$; CFI = .93; TLI = .92; RMSEA = .077; SRMR = .100) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(11) = 37.57$; $p < .001$). The results showed that the two groups' measurement model was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.21).

For the CFA invariance test between Millennials and Generation X social media activity participation behavior, the factor variance and covariance model ($\chi^2 = 2261.86$; $df = 968$; CFI = .92; TLI = .92; RMSEA = .076; SRMR = .081) and invariant factor means model ($\chi^2 = 2285.27$; $df = 979$; CFI = .92; TLI = .92; RMSEA = .076; SRMR = .084) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(11) = 23.41$; $p < .05$). The results showed that the two groups' measurement model was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.22).

For the CFA invariance test between Baby Boomer and Generation X social media activity participation behavior, the factor variance and covariance model ($\chi^2 = 2324.24$; $df = 968$; CFI = .91; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .086; SRMR = .085) and invariant factor means model ($\chi^2 = 2340.46$; $df = 979$; CFI = .91; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .085; SRMR = .089) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically non-significant ($\Delta\chi^2(11) = 16.22$; non-significant). The results showed that the two groups' measurement model was not significantly different (see Table 4.23).

For the SEM invariance tests, following Byrne's (2012) procedure, the configural SEM model was compared to the constrained SEM model. Again, like the CFA invariance tests, a total

of twelve SEM invariance tests were conducted for the three groups and four MGB models. For the SEM invariance test between Millennial and Baby Boomer event attending behavior, the configural model ($\chi^2 = 1606.35$; $df = 890$; CFI = .93; TLI = .92; RMSEA = .067; SRMR = .061) and constrained equal model (invariant factor loading, intercept, and structural regression paths) ($\chi^2 = 1947.56$; $df = 973$; CFI = .91; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .074; SRMR = .118) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(83) = 341.21$; $p < .001$). The results showed that the two groups' structural relationship was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.24).

For the SEM invariance test between Millennial and Generation X event attending behavior, the configural model ($\chi^2 = 1948.28$; $df = 890$; CFI = .92; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .072; SRMR = .062) and constrained equal model (invariant factor loading, intercept, and structural regression paths) ($\chi^2 = 2249.32$; $df = 973$; CFI = .90; TLI = .89; RMSEA = .075; SRMR = .108) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(83) = 301.04$; $p < .001$). The results showed that the two groups' structural relationship was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.25).

For the SEM invariance test between Baby Boomer and Generation X event attending behavior, the configural model ($\chi^2 = 1787.80$; $df = 890$; CFI = .92; TLI = .91; RMSEA = .073; SRMR = .055) and constrained equal model (invariant factor loading, intercept, and structural regression paths) ($\chi^2 = 2036.82$; $df = 973$; CFI = .91; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .076; SRMR = .099) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(83) = 249.02$; $p < .001$). The results showed that the two groups' structural relationship was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.26).

For the SEM invariance test between Millennial and Baby Boomer TV viewing behavior, the configural model ($\chi^2 = 1621.49$; $df = 890$; CFI = .91; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .073; SRMR = .057) and constrained equal model (invariant factor loading, intercept, and structural regression paths) ($\chi^2 = 1904.78$; $df = 890$; CFI = .91; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .073; SRMR = .124) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(83) = 283.29$; $p < .001$). The results showed that the two groups' structural relationship was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.27).

For the SEM invariance test between Millennial and Generation X TV viewing behavior, the configural model ($\chi^2 = 1870.66$; $df = 890$; CFI = .92; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .069; SRMR = .056) and constrained equal model (invariant factor loading, intercept, and structural regression paths) ($\chi^2 = 2150.27$; $df = 973$; CFI = .90; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .072; SRMR = .107) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(83) = 279.61$; $p < .001$). The results showed that the two groups' structural relationship was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.28).

For the SEM invariance test between Baby Boomer and Generation X TV viewing behavior, the configural model ($\chi^2 = 1849.58$; $df = 890$; CFI = .91; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .075; SRMR = .055) and constrained equal model (invariant factor loading, intercept, and structural regression paths) ($\chi^2 = 2129.97$; $df = 973$; CFI = .90; TLI = .89; RMSEA = .079; SRMR = .107) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(83) = 280.39$; $p < .001$). The results showed that the two groups' structural relationship was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.29).

For the SEM invariance test between Millennial and Baby Boomer online activity participation behavior, the configural model ($\chi^2 = 1593.68$; $df = 890$; CFI = .94; TLI = .93;

RMSEA = .066; SRMR = .067) and constrained equal model (invariant factor loading, intercept, and structural regression paths) ($\chi^2 = 1935.99$; $df = 973$; CFI = .92; TLI = .91; RMSEA = .074; SRMR = .150) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(83) = 342.31$; $p < .001$). The results showed that the two groups' structural relationship was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.30).

For the SEM invariance test between Millennial and Generation X online activity participation behavior, the configural model ($\chi^2 = 1803.91$; $df = 890$; CFI = .94; TLI = .93; RMSEA = .067; SRMR = .066) and constrained equal model (invariant factor loading, intercept, and structural regression paths) ($\chi^2 = 2146.96$; $df = 973$; CFI = .92; TLI = .91; RMSEA = .072; SRMR = .143) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(83) = 343.05$; $p < .001$). The results showed that the two groups' structural relationship was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.31).

For the SEM invariance test between Baby Boomer and Generation X online activity participation behavior, the configural model ($\chi^2 = 1809.95$; $df = 890$; CFI = .93; TLI = .92; RMSEA = .074; SRMR = .061) and constrained equal model (invariant factor loading, intercept, and structural regression paths) ($\chi^2 = 2099.41$; $df = 973$; CFI = .91; TLI = .91; RMSEA = .078; SRMR = .132) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(83) = 289.46$; $p < .001$). The results showed that the two groups' structural relationship was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.32).

For the SEM invariance test between Millennial and Baby Boomer social media activity participation behavior, the configural model ($\chi^2 = 1643.67$; $df = 890$; CFI = .95; TLI = .94; RMSEA = .068; SRMR = .075) and constrained equal model (invariant factor loading, intercept, and structural regression paths) ($\chi^2 = 2011.63$; $df = 973$; CFI = .93; TLI = .92; RMSEA = .077; SRMR = .160) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(83) = 367.96$; $p < .001$). The results showed that the two groups' structural relationship was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.33).

For the SEM invariance test between Millennial and Generation X social media activity participation behavior, the configural model ($\chi^2 = 2097.03$; $df = 890$; CFI = .93; TLI = .92; RMSEA = .076; SRMR = .076) and constrained equal model (invariant factor loading, intercept, and structural regression paths) ($\chi^2 = 2521.91$; $df = 973$; CFI = .91; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .083; SRMR = .158) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(83) = 424.88$; $p < .001$). The results showed that the two groups' structural relationship was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.34).

For the SEM invariance test between Baby Boomer and Generation X social media activity participation behavior, the configural model ($\chi^2 = 1981.47$; $df = 890$; CFI = .93; TLI = .91; RMSEA = .080; SRMR = .076) and constrained equal model (invariant factor loading, intercept, and structural regression paths) ($\chi^2 = 2315.24$; $df = 973$; CFI = .91; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .085; SRMR = .152) were compared. The chi-square difference test was found to be statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2(83) = 333.77$; $p < .001$). The results showed that the two groups'

structural relationship was significantly different, implying that there was a moderation effect (see Table 4.35).

After revealing the moderation effect of generation, four multi-group SEMs were conducted to test Hypothesis 15. To compare the differences between the generations, the coefficients of the corresponding paths in the structural models were compared using Chin's (2004) equations and procedures (see Equation 4.1). Before examining the path coefficient differences between the generations, the goodness of fit indices of the structural model were examined for all four sport fan behaviors. The event attendance behavioral model was found to fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 2780.24$; $df = 1423$; CFI = .92; TLI = .91; RMSEA = .069; SRMR = .063). The results of the multi-group SEM for event attendance behavior indicated that at least one generation showed significant path coefficients for most of the paths in the Sport Fan MGB (see Table 4.36 and Figure 4.11). The path from perceived control to attendance desire, between past attendance satisfaction and desire, and between community identity and event attendance intention showed no significant results for any of the three generations.

The event attendance behavior MGB's path coefficient differences for each paired group (i.e., Millennials and Baby Boomers; Millennials and Generation X; and Baby Boomers and Generation X) were compared using $t_{spooled}$ (Chin, 2004; Kim et al., 2012). The results of multi-group analysis indicated that there was a moderating effect of generation on some relationships. The t values should be significant for the t -test of each paired group, and at least one of the generations in the paired group should yield a significant result in order to support the moderating effect of generation. Overall, the results showed moderation effects in many corresponding paths for each paired group comparison, but the main focus of the current study was Millennials. A moderating effect was found on the path between attitude and desire

(Millennials vs. Baby Boomers: t -value = 22.782, $p < .001$). Between Millennials and Generation X, the path between past attendance satisfaction and desire (t -value = 2.367, $p < .01$) showed a significant difference. Millennials also showed significantly higher path coefficients between team identity and desire than those of Baby Boomers (t -value = 15.256, $p < .001$) and Generation X (t -value = 28.537, $p < .001$). The path between team identity and intention was also significant when compared to Generation X (t -value = 6.986, $p < .001$). Millennial event attendance desire showed significantly greater t -values than the other generations (vs. Baby Boomers: t -value = 25.069, $p < .001$; vs. Generation X: t -value = 14.329, $p < .001$) (see Table 4.36).

The model fit indices for TV viewing behavior were also all satisfactory ($\chi^2 = 2809.25$; $df = 1423$; CFI = .92; TLI = .91; RMSEA = .070; SRMR = .066). The results of multi-group analysis on TV viewing behavior indicated that there was a moderating effect of generation on some relationships (see Figure 4.12). A moderating effect was found on the path between subjective norm and TV viewing behavior and desire (Millennials vs. Baby Boomers: t -value = 3.892, $p < .001$; vs. Generation X: t -value = 16.413, $p < .001$). Millennials showed higher perceived control of TV viewing behavior on desire (vs. Baby Boomers: t -value = 7.515, $p < .001$; vs. Generation X: t -value = 16.650, $p < .001$) and on intention (vs. Generation X: t -value = 14.778, $p < .001$). Between Millennials and Generation X, the paths between team identity and TV viewing intention (t -value = 16.725, $p < .001$) were significantly different. And Millennial TV viewing desire on intention was significantly greater than the Baby Boomers (t -value = 9.526, $p < .001$), indicating the moderating effect of generation (see Table 4.37).

The online activity participation behavior SEM model fit indices showed excellent fit ($\chi^2 = 2733.40$; $df = 1423$; CFI = .93; TLI = .93; RMSEA = .068; SRMR = .070). The results of the multi-group SEM for online activity participation behavior indicated that the Baby Boomer

generation's latent variable covariance matrix was not positive definite, so the Millennial and Generation group comparison was conducted for online activity participation behavior (see Figure 4.13). A moderating effect was found on the path between past satisfaction and desire (t -value = 4.398, $p < .001$) and between fan engagement and intention (t -value = 32.230, $p < .001$). For more detailed information, please see Table 4.38.

Lastly, the model fit indices for social media behaviors showed acceptable model fit ($\chi^2 = 2983.05$; $df = 1423$; CFI = .92; TLI = .91; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .09). The results of the multi-group SEM for social media behavior indicated path coefficient differences between the groups, indicating the moderation effect of generation (see Figure 4.14). Social media activity participation behavior multi-group analysis results also showed significant differences. Path coefficient differences were found on the path between subjective norm and desire (vs. Baby Boomers: t -value = 3.124, $p < .001$; vs. Generation X: t -value = 10.985, $p < .001$). Millennial past satisfaction showed a greater relationship to social media participation desire than the other generations (vs. Baby Boomers: t -value = 22.565, $p < .001$; vs. Generation X: t -value = 18.699, $p < .001$). Millennials showed significantly greater results in the path coefficients between team identity and intention than Baby boomers (t -value = 49.203, $p < .001$) and Generation X (t -value = 1427.373, $p < .001$), indicating the moderating effect of generation (see Table 4.39 for more information).

Discussion

Within the past decade, marketing researchers have recognized the importance of understanding Millennials and have begun to focus on the “largest consumer group in the history” (Fromm & Garton, 2013). Recently, sport marketing practitioners have recognized the importance of Millennial sport consumers and that if sport organizations fail to meet their needs

and desires, their future is unpromising, for a decrease in event attendance among younger fans has already been observed (e.g., Rovell, 2014). However, few studies have investigated Millennial sport fans, and until the current study, their unique consumption traits had been not empirically examined. In Chapter 3, some of their unique consumption features (community-driven, emotional, peer pressure-influenced, engagement-oriented, and technology-driven) were identified through the triangulation of a literature review, focus group interviews, and surveys. Those unique traits had yet to be tested as antecedents in a model to reveal more about the decision making process of Millennial sport fans. To fill the void, the current study adopted MGB, expanded it to the Sport Fan MGB by adding sport fan-specific antecedents such as team identity, fan community identity, fan engagement, and past satisfaction, and examined four goal-directed sport consumption behaviors: (a) event revisit intention, (b) TV viewing intention (c) online behavioral intention (i.e., participating in fan community activities online), and (d) social media behavioral intention (i.e., online comments and retweeting). Furthermore, the four Sport Fan MGBs were compared by generation in order to discover any generational differences in decision making.

To ensure the psychometric properties of the measurement instruments used in the current study, CFA was conducted for all four Sport Fan MGBs to examine their psychometrical properties. The results provided evidence that most of the antecedent and consequence items successfully represented the respective constructs and yielded excellent model fit for all models. Also, the inter-factor correlations showed adequate results, indicating convergent discriminant validity (e.g., Fornell & Larker, 1981; Kline, 2011). The correlations between desire and intention were consistently high among all behavioral models, but this result was anticipated in using MGB because Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) first added this construct into the Theory of

Planned Behavior (TPB) to increase the predictive and explanatory power of the consumption behavior model.

Before examining the path relationships of the Millennial Sport Fan MGB with the Millennial sample ($n = 222$), the general sport fan population ($N = 603$; includes Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) Sport Fan MGB was analyzed. The model fit indices were excellent for all behaviors. A significant amount of variance in each sport fan behavior was explained by the construct, indicating that the Sport Fan MGB did a good job explaining and predicting general sport fan behaviors. However, the variance explained for social media participation intention was only 25%, a relatively small value among the other intentions (event attendance intention was 70%, TV viewing intention was 71%, and online activity participation intention was 80%). The path coefficients from desire to intention were closely examined and all desire-intention relationships except social media participation were significant, meaning that desire did not predict intention for social media. This finding is interesting because one advantage that MGB has over the other consumption behavior models, such as TPB and TRA, is the inclusion of desire and an increase in explanatory power as a result (e.g., Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). One possible explanation for social media behavior's low R-square value could be the unique consumption environments of social media. Unlike other sport fan behaviors, participating in social media such as following a team or connecting with other fans through Twitter or Facebook is much easier due to personal mobile communication devices (e.g., smartphones and tablets). The main function of desire in MGB is to activate the path from an antecedent (e.g., attitude, anticipated emotions, subjective norm, and perceived control) to an intention (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). For sport fan event attendance behavior, the antecedents are realized through desire, but the desire does not directly motivate the behavior; some steps

between them may have existed. For example, even though a fan wants to attend an event, several factors will be considered before making a final decision, including money, time, travel, other commitments, etc. These factors will form behavioral intention, which is a more concrete form of desire and is necessary for sport fan behaviors such as event attendance, TV viewing, and online consumption. On the other hand, social media participation does not require any complex steps, nor are there any immediate costs of engagement. If one desires to participate in social media activities, one can immediately decide to do so without indirect steps through intention. In addition, social media usage might not be perceived as goal-directed behavior but as habitual behavior. Wang, Lee, and Hua (2015) noted that the expansion of social media technology and applications can lead users to excessive usage that approaches addictive levels. For habitual behaviors, MGB was not found to be working as well as volitional behavior, as Wright (2006) indicated, dependence behaviors refer to behaviors conducted to satisfy surface-level desires, ignoring deeper motivations. This phenomenon appears to explain the findings for social media behavior in the current study. The main factor that influenced social media activity participation desire was satisfaction. This idea might account for the low variance explained for social media intention and the non-significant relationship between desire and intention. This relationship could be examined in the future research by categorizing the social media behavior into two types, habitual and goal-directed behavior.

Another interesting result from the pooled data SEM analyses is that the Sport Fan MGB explained traditional sport fan behaviors such as event attendance and TV viewing better than the relatively newer sport fan behaviors such as online activity participation and social media activity participation. Out of the 14 paths in the model, 10 were significant for event attendance and 12 were significant for TV viewing. On the other hand, only 7 paths were significant for

online activity participation and only 6 paths were significant for social media activity participation. The reason might be that event attendance and TV viewing involve goal-directed behavior (e.g., Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and that online and (especially) social media activity participation tends to be perceived as less goal-directed behavior. When a sport fans want to attend an event, they need to plan ahead, but in order to participate in online or social media activities, they do not need to do anything more than swipe a screen. So online behaviors, particularly social media participation, might be considered habitual behavior more than goal-directed behavior. Because of its ease of use and readiness, sport fans might habitually participate in online and social media behaviors. It could be argued that TV viewing is habitual behavior as well, but considering that sport events are typically consumed live, the fans who want to view the event have to plan ahead (either to tune in at the scheduled time or to capture the broadcast on a DVR). Also, some of the biggest sport events (such as the boxing match between Mayweather and Pacquiao in 2015) are delivered only through Pay-Per-View, so TV viewing could well be considered goal-directed behavior.

Next, the path relationships of the Millennial ($n = 222$) Sport Fan MGBs were analyzed by testing multiple hypotheses through SEM analyses. Ten of the fourteen hypotheses were supported; hypotheses 3, 6, 12, and 13 were not supported. Overall, similar to the results with the pooled data, the Millennial Sport Fan MGB better predicted attendance and TV viewing than online and social media activity participation. For all behaviors, attitude and past satisfaction were found to be significant predictors of desire. Perceived control, past satisfaction, team identity, and desire were significant antecedents of behavioral intention. Attitude was significant for all behaviors except for social media consumption, indicating that Millennial sport fan attitude toward social media did not influence their sport consumption desire or intention.

Subjective norm was found to be significant only for social media consumption. Subjective norm (i.e., peer pressure) has been found to explain Millennial consumer behavior in the other consumption context such as automobile purchasing (Fromm & Garton, 2013) and tourism (Kim & Jang, 2014), and the motivation to look good to peers is one of the strongest factors in Millennial consumption (e.g., Barker, 2012; Smith, 2012). This finding may imply that Millennial sport fans perceived social networking participation as an acceptable behavior to peers and one they felt obligated to do. Surprisingly, subjective norm did not predict other Millennial sport fan behaviors, for the literature review repeatedly showed peer pressure to be one of the strongest influences on Millennial behavior (e.g., Barker, 2012; Fromm & Garton, 2013; Kim & Jang, 2014; Smith, 2012). Furthermore, the focus group interview results from Chapter 3 indicate that Millennial sport fans are significantly influenced by their peer group when making sport consumption decisions. One possible explanation that the peer pressure did not predict Millennial fan behaviors well is that the subjective norm factor does not actually represent peer pressure as expected. The item stated, “most people who are important to me,” but it should perhaps have included more direct terms such as “your peers” or “your peer group.” This item could be modified and used when investigating the relationship between Millennials’ peer pressure-influenced trait and sport consumption decision making.

Next, perceived control showed a significant relationship with intention, not desire, for event attendance and TV viewing. Apparently, for Millennials, perceived control does not predict intention indirectly through desire. Perceived control significantly predicted behavioral intention. One possible explanation is that at the desire stage, fans do not consider perceived control (e.g., Kim et al., 2012). However, when forming a more concrete plan (e.g., having intention to attend an event), fans might see whether they have control over their decision. Kim

et al. (2012) study examined the tourist overseas travel behavior with MGB and found that the perceived control directly predicts the intention, supporting this argument. In order to have an intention to attend an event or view it on TV, sport fans must consider many factors that are related to perceived control. Before engaging in these behaviors, they have to evaluate how much control they have over their behavior. If they have no control, then they will not go to the intention stage. Previous studies (e.g., Getz & Carlsen, 2008; Kumar & Lim, 2008; O'Cass & Frost, 2002) have indicated that Millennials showed emotional behaviors, but their anticipated emotions were significant only for event attendance emotions. These emotions were all measured toward respective behaviors, but anticipated emotions did not predict any other sport fan behaviors. These findings indicate that the emotional experience of a live sporting event is more intense even for future-oriented emotions for Millennial sport fans. As previous MGB studies have suggested, desire is a significant predictor of Millennial sport fan behavior. The only behavior that did not show significant results was social media activity participation, similar to the result for the pooled data, and possibly for the same reason.

Among the sport fan-specific variables that were added to the original MGB, past behavioral satisfaction was found to be the most significant predictor of desire and intention for all behaviors. Engagement behavior has been identified as one of the unique traits of Millennials (e.g., Bolton et al., 2013; Bucic, Harris, & Arli, 2012; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014). Fan engagement significantly predicted online consumption intention, meaning that Millennials engaged with their team online. Team identification was also found to be a significant predictor of desire and intention. On the other hand, community identity showed a non-significant relationship with all of the behaviors. This finding was not expected because the literature had provided evidence that community involvement influenced Millennial behavior (e.g., Barker,

2012; Bolton et al., 2013; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014; Vance et al., 2009; Williams & Turlow, 2005) and the focus group findings indicated that social interaction significantly affected their fan behavior. Maybe the term used to measure the community aspect triggered some confusion. The term “fan community” was used in the current study, but a term like “social fan group” or “peer community fans” might have better captured the community values of Millennials.

In sum, the Sport Fan MGB was found to better explain traditional fan behaviors such as attending events and viewing events on TV than the fan behaviors such as online and social media consumption behaviors. Yet online consumption behavior was fairly well predicted through the Sport Fan MGB. Studies have shown that social media consumption is easily related to dependence behavior and to behavior that satisfies surface desire but ignores deeper needs (Wright, 2006). Millennials’ attitude toward event, perceived control, positive anticipated emotions toward the event, past event satisfaction, and team identification, directly and indirectly via desire, predicted event attendance behavior. For TV viewing behavior, their attitude toward viewing events on TV, perceived control, past satisfaction of TV viewing, and team identity, directly and indirectly via desire, predicted TV viewing behavior.

Through the invariance tests at the CFA, SEM, and the corresponding path coefficient t-test levels, the moderating effect of generation was found. Specifically, the strength of path coefficients indicated that there were no growth patterns of a certain variable’s effect based on the generational order, implying that the moderation effect was found not because of the age factor but because there were three distinct consumer segments divided by generation.

Marketing Implications

This study has several theoretical and practical implications for sport marketers. A number of theoretical implications are suggested. First, this study is the first to explore Millennial sport fan behaviors in an attempt to identify critical factors that influence their decision making. MGB was adopted and four of the sport fan behaviors were examined. This study took an initial step in the investigation of Millennial sport fans, its findings should be useful to sport marketing researchers who are interested in Millennial sport fan behavior.

Second, this study extended MGB by incorporating sport fan-specific variables that are unique to spectator sport consumption, such as team identity, fan community identity, past satisfaction, and fan engagement. The Millennial Sport Fan MGB measurement models (i.e., event attendance, TV viewing, online activity participation, and social media activity participation) were established; and all proved to have good psychometric properties. Based on the findings, this Sport Fan MGB could be used by sport marketing researchers when investigating Millennial sport fan behaviors.

Third, this study identified the boundaries within which MGB could be used in sport consumption. Traditional sport consumption behaviors such as attending an event and viewing an event on TV were well explained. On the contrary, the social media consumption behavior was less explained through MGB. Considering the importance of social media in explaining Millennials' consumption behavior (e.g., Bolton et al., 2013) this result could be problematic. One plausible reason could be found from the different types of social media consumption behavior. Social media consumption could be categorized into two types: 1) habitual behavior, and 2) goal-directed behavior. Wang et al. (2015) suggested younger people's social media consumption could be considered as a habitual and dependence behavior. Wright (2006) argued,

dependence behavior stem from surface level of satisfaction that has no deeper level of motivation behind the behavior. Following players or teams on Twitter habitually could be a good example for this type of social media consumption. The other type of social media consumption, the goal-directed, has a strong motivation behind the behavior that may have a particular goal to achieve. For example, supporting favorite team or players on social networking services when they are in trouble or purchasing group discounted tickets on social media could be considered as a goal-directed social media consumption behavior. MGB well explains the volitional and goal-directed behaviors so the goal-directed social media consumption will be well predicted using MGB. Therefore future studies that want to investigate Millennials social media consumption via MGB, the two types of social media behaviors (i.e., the boundary condition of social media behavior) should be considered.

Several marketing implications are suggested for the sport marketing practitioners. First, the consumption differences identified in this study were not due to age but generational difference. The moderation effect of generation was confirmed, so instead of age segmentation, generational segmentation is suggested.

Second, as the findings indicate, social media consumption is habitual behavior, not goal-directed behavior. Accordingly, the frequency of social media consumption is likely greater than other goal-directed behaviors, making the already appealing mobile advertising market even more attractive. When a sport organization wants to reach Millennial sport fans and wants to increase their brand or team awareness, SNSs are likely be a good place to launch new campaigns. For example, in 2014 one of the most successful social media campaigns was the “Ice Bucket Challenge” (Braiker, 2014). It was a campaign that was started to raise awareness for amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS, also known as Lou Gehrig’s disease) but it didn’t get

much attention until a young man (Pete Frates) posted it on the social media. Beyond the explosive awareness, millions of dollars have been raised from more than 100,000 new donors (Braiker, 2014). This example shows how useful the social media is when increasing the awareness of a brand or campaign that sport marketers could use when targeting Millennial fans.

Third, subjective norm was found to be a significant antecedent of social media consumption. Subjective norm has been identified as a strong predictor that influences Millennials (Fromm & Garton, 2013; Kim & Jang, 2014), who are motivated to look good to peers (e.g., Barker, 2012; Smith, 2012). Millennials use social media where their peers interact with each other and influence each other's behaviors. Sport marketers could use this information in their marketing strategies. For example, if sport marketers want to increase their Millennial fan event attendance, they should frame advertising to show that attending the event will be "cool" among Millennial sport consumers. Among many companies, Coca-Cola does an excellent job using Millennials' unique peer-influenced trait to promote its featured brand, Coke Zero. Coke Zero understand the importance of establishing a digital platform where customers can interact each other and get influenced by other younger Coke Zero customers which lead to their consumption behavior. Sport marketers could adopt Coca-Cola's marketing strategy when implementing marketing plans towards Millennial sport fans.

Past satisfaction was found to be an important predictor for all behavior. Therefore, sport organizations should provide high-quality services to increase the satisfaction level of Millennial sport fans. Furthermore, Millennials influence others (i.e., peers and other generations; Fromm & Garton, 2013) and possess the ability to make ideas go viral. In the same way, negative online comments from a dissatisfied Millennial customer could threaten the success of an organization.

Lastly, Millennial sport fan team identity predicted future behavior well. For game attendance behavior, team identity predicted both desires and intention, indicating for this type of fan behavior, having desires is a necessary process. However, team identity did not need to go through desire to predict other behavioral intentions including TV watching behavior, online consumption and social media participation behavior. This finding implies that highly identified Millennials are already motivated to consume sport through TV, online, and social media, meaning that the likelihood of conducting behavior is higher when there are not many constraints on the choice to consume. If a sport organization has many Millennial sport fans who are highly identified, their long-term success is virtually guaranteed. Building team identification might take a long time and substantial effort, sport organizations should invest their resources to increase team identity.

Limitations and Future Studies

This study has several limitations. First in this study, actual sport fan consumption was not measured in its MGBs. Although Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) identified the strong relationship between intention and actual behavior, indicating that measuring intention might be enough when predicting consumer behavior, one of the findings of this study was a non-significant relationship between social media consumption desire and intention. One plausible explanation would be that the easiness and readiness of mobile communication technology these days might have enabled sport fans to go directly to actual behavior without any preparation stage (i.e., establishing intention). However, in order to theorize this discussion, it must be tested empirically so it remains as the limitation of this study and it is proposed that the future researchers empirically examine the relationship between desires, intention, and actual behavior

for social media consumption within MGB through a longitudinal research design using panel data (e.g., Qualtrics panel).

Second, although the literature review and the focus group interview results from Chapter 3 indicated that Millennials decision making is influenced by their peer group, peer-influenced consumption trait (i.e., subjective norm in MGB) has been found to be a significant predictor only for social media participation behavior. The reason why the peer pressure did not predict other behaviors (i.e., game attendance, TV watching, and online consumption) well could be that the subjective norm factor in MGB does not actually measure the peer pressure-influenced trait as postulated. The items measured the respondents' subjective norm that how the most people who are important to them may approve or disapprove participating in a certain behavior. More direct terms such as "your peers" or "your peer group" could be used to measure the pressure-influenced trait of Millennials. More psychometrically sound scales could be developed and investigate the peer pressure consumption aspect in sport fan consumption behaviors in the future research.

Lastly, in the current study, MGB was adapted because it already contained some of the important consumption features of Millennials. Although the MGB strongly predicted event attendance and TV viewing, it did not predict social media behaviors very well. However, social media consumption is considered as a unique behavior of Millennials that makes this generation as a special consumer cohort (e.g., Bolton et al., 2013). One possible explanation why the Millennials' social media consumption behavior was less explained through MGB is because the social media consumption could be considered as a habitual behavior (Wang et al., 2015). MGB has proven its usefulness and validity when predicting the goal-directed behavior. However, if the social media consumption is a habitual behavior, which is a type of dependence behavior, it

is conducted to satisfy surface-level desires, ignoring deeper motivations (Wright, 2006). The Millennials' social media consumption could be both habitual and goal-directed. As Wang et al. (2015) found, many Millennials habitually visit the social networking services without any goal. On the contrary, supporting one's team (or players) on social media, criticizing the other team (or players) on social media, and participating in social commerce behavior could be the examples of goal-directed social media behaviors. There may be two types of social media consumption behavior but the specific boundary condition of social media behavior was not considered in the current study but measured the overall social media consumption. It is suggested that the future investigation should include the boundary condition of social media behavior in the MGB to examine Millennial fans' social media consumption behavior.

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Table 4.1

Demographic Information for the Three Generation Data Set (N=603; n=139 for Baby Boomers, n=242 for Generation X, and n=222 for Millennial Generation)

Variable	Category	Baby Boomers (1946-1965)		Gen X (1966-1985)		Millennials (1986-2005)	
		Freq.	% Valid	Freq.	% Valid	Freq.	% Valid
Age	Average	58.2		35.6		25.3	
Gender	Male	84	60.4	156	64.5	149	67.1
	Female	55	39.6	86	35.5	73	32.9
	Gender Total	139	100	242	100	222	100
Ethnicity	White/ Caucasian	120	86.3	188	77.7	166	74.8
	Hispanic/Latino	8	5.8	16	6.6	11	5.0
	African- American	5	3.6	19	7.9	20	9.0
	Asian/Pacific Islander	5	3.6	16	6.6	21	9.5
	Other	1	.7	3	1.2	4	1.8
	Ethnicity Total	139	100	242	100	222	100
Income	~\$20,000	26	18.7	36	14.9	59	26.6
	\$20,001- \$40,000	40	28.8	64	26.4	73	32.9
	\$40,001- \$60,000	37	26.6	72	29.8	50	22.5
	\$60,001- \$80,000	16	11.5	29	12.0	24	10.8
	\$80,001- \$100,000	8	5.8	23	9.5	9	4.1
	\$100,001~	12	8.6	18	7.4	7	3.2
	Income Total	139	100	242	100	222	100

1 Table 4.2

2 *Correlations among the Latent Variables for Game Attendance (N=603)*

Variable Name	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.Attitude	1										
2.Positive Emotion	.62	1									
3.Negative Emotion	-.35	-.55	1								
4.Subjective Norm	.55	.51	-.31	1							
5.Perceived Control	.25	.13	-.01	.23	1						
6. Desire	.67	.59	-.29	.57	.29	1					
7. Team Identification	.48	.50	-.29	.53	.15	.57	1				
8. Community ID	.35	.38	-.17	.38	.29	.37	.53	1			
9. Past Satisfaction	.57	.47	-.28	.44	.35	.64	.43	.34	1		
10. Fan Engagement	.22	.23	-.02	.24	.31	.29	.33	.59	.31	1	
11. Behavior Intention	.54	.36	-.14	.49	.62	.67	.42	.40	.61	.40	1

3

4

Table 4.3

Indicator Loadings, Cronbach's alpha, Construct Reliability and Average Variance Extracted of Game Attendance Variables Using the Pool Data CFA (N=603)

Variables	Factor loadings	Cronbach's alpha	CR	AVE
Attitude		.91	.91	.78
Harmful-beneficial	.76			
Unpleasant-pleasant	.94			
Bad-good	.94			
Positive Emotion		.85	.87	.70
Satisfied	.87			
Happy	.92			
Proud	.70			
Negative Emotion		.90	.91	.73
Disappointed	.75			
Annoyed	.88			
Regretful	.87			
Angry	.90			
Subjective Norm		.87	.87	.77
My people think I should not-should	.86			
My people would disapprove-approve	.90			
Perceived Control		.59	.63	.48
The degree one has control of	.50			
(Behavior) is difficult-easy	.84			
Desires		.90	.94	.84
I desire to (behavior)	.95			
I want to (behavior)	.94			
My desire for (behavior) is strong	.86			
Team Identification		.86	.88	.71
I am a loyal fan	.90			
I like to let people know that I am a fan	.76			
Win, or lose, I will always be a fan	.86			
Community Identification		.84	.84	.73
degree of self-image overlaps community 1	.87			
degree of self-image overlaps community 2	.84			
Past Satisfaction		.96	.96	.92
Satisfied with the (behavior)	.96			
Happy with the (behavior)	.96			
Fan Engagement		.91	.91	.63
Work cooperatively with my team	.88			
Do things to make team easier	.89			
The team employees get my support	.86			
Interact with other fans of team	.71			
Advise other fans for the team	.75			
Spend time to share information of team	.62			
Attendance Intention		.95	.95	.87
Intent to (behavior)	.93			
Likelihood of (behavior) is high	.94			
Will (behavior) in the future	.92			

Table 4.4

Correlations among the Latent Variables for TV Watching (N=603)

Variable Name	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.Attitude	1										
2.Positive Emotion	.57	1									
3.Negative Emotion	-.35	-.33	1								
4.Subjective Norm	.45	.36	-.25	1							
5.Perceived Control	.47	.37	-.30	.41	1						
6. Desire	.59	.52	-.23	.51	.63	1					
7. Team Identification	.49	.44	-.25	.56	.54	.64	1				
8. Community ID	.28	.37	-.11	.31	.21	.29	.53	1			
9. Past Satisfaction	.58	.53	-.34	.46	.65	.78	.62	.29	1		
10. Fan Engagement	.14	.27	-.01	.14	.18	.18	.32	.59	.17	1	
11. Behavior Intention	.48	.36	-.27	.49	.65	.80	.65	.23	.73	.16	1

Table 4.5
Indicator Loadings, Cronbach's alpha, Construct Reliability and Average Variance Extracted of TV Watching Variables Using the Pool Data CFA (N=603)

Variables	Factor loadings	Cronbach's alpha	CR	AVE
Attitude		.89	.91	.77
Harmful-beneficial	.73			
Unpleasant-pleasant	.94			
Bad-good	.94			
Positive Emotion		.83	.86	.68
Satisfied	.86			
Happy	.94			
Proud	.65			
Negative Emotion		.91	.92	.74
Disappointed	.75			
Annoyed	.89			
Regretful	.89			
Angry	.90			
Subjective Norm		.88	.88	.79
My people think I should not-should	.88			
My people would disapprove-approve	.90			
Perceived Control		.69	.71	.55
The degree one has control of	.63			
(Behavior) is difficult-easy	.84			
Desires		.88	.91	.78
I desire to (behavior)	.93			
I want to (behavior)	.91			
My desire for (behavior) is strong	.80			
Team Identification		.86	.88	.71
I am a loyal fan	.91			
I like to let people know that I am a fan	.75			
Win, or lose, I will always be a fan	.85			
Community Identification		.84	.84	.73
degree of self-image overlaps community 1	.86			
degree of self-image overlaps community 2	.85			
Past Satisfaction		.94	.94	.88
Satisfied with the (behavior)	.97			
Happy with the (behavior)	.91			
Fan Engagement		.91	.91	.63
Work cooperatively with my team	.89			
Do things to make team easier	.89			
The team employees get my support	.86			
Interact with other fans of team	.71			
Advise other fans for the team	.75			
Spend time to share information of team	.62			
Attendance Intention		.94	.94	.83
Intent to (behavior)	.93			
Likelihood of (behavior) is high	.93			
Will (behavior) in the future	.88			

1 Table 4.6

2 *Correlations among the Latent Variables for Online Activities Participation (N=603)*

Variable Name	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.Attitude	1										
2.Positive Emotion	.56	1									
3.Negative Emotion	-.27	-.20	1								
4.Subjective Norm	.51	.46	-.29	1							
5.Perceived Control	.42	.38	-.34	.49	1						
6. Desire	.58	.55	-.22	.50	.49	1					
7. Team Identification	.33	.29	-.21	.38	.46	.32	1				
8. Community ID	.37	.45	-.12	.38	.17	.44	.53	1			
9. Past Satisfaction	.57	.59	-.29	.54	.50	.77	.33	.39	1		
10. Fan Engagement	.33	.39	-.01	.31	.15	.47	.33	.59	.39	1	
11. Behavior Intention	.55	.52	-.20	.49	.48	.89	.34	.41	.76	.45	1

3

4

1 Table 4.7
 2 *Indicator Loadings, Cronbach's alpha, Construct Reliability and Average Variance Extracted of*
 3 *Online Activities Participation Variables Using the Pool Data CFA (N=603)*

Variables	Factor loadings	Cronbach's alpha	CR	AVE
<i>Attitude</i>		.93	.94	.83
Harmful-beneficial	.84			
Unpleasant-pleasant	.93			
Bad-good	.96			
<i>Positive Emotion</i>		.92	.93	.81
Satisfied	.93			
Happy	.97			
Proud	.79			
<i>Negative Emotion</i>		.92	.92	.75
Disappointed	.79			
Annoyed	.88			
Regretful	.90			
Angry	.90			
<i>Subjective Norm</i>		.88	.88	.79
My people think I should not-should	.92			
My people would disapprove-approve	.86			
<i>Perceived Control</i>		.58	.60	.43
The degree one has control of	.55			
(Behavior) is difficult-easy	.75			
<i>Desires</i>		.91	.95	.87
I desire to (behavior)	.96			
I want to (behavior)	.95			
My desire for (behavior) is strong	.88			
<i>Team Identification</i>		.86	.88	.71
I am a loyal fan	.90			
I like to let people know that I am a fan	.76			
Win, or lose, I will always be a fan	.86			
<i>Community Identification</i>		.84	.84	.73
degree of self-image overlaps community 1	.85			
degree of self-image overlaps community 2	.85			
<i>Past Satisfaction</i>		.96	.96	.93
Satisfied with the (behavior)	.96			
Happy with the (behavior)	.97			
<i>Fan Engagement</i>		.91	.91	.63
Work cooperatively with my team	.88			
Do things to make team easier	.88			
The team employees get my support	.86			
Interact with other fans of team	.71			
Advise other fans for the team	.76			
Spend time to share information of team	.63			
<i>Attendance Intention</i>		.98	.98	.94
Intent to (behavior)	.96			
Likelihood of (behavior) is high	.98			
Will (behavior) in the future	.97			

Table 4.8

Correlations among the Latent Variables for Social Media Activities Participation (N=603)

Variable Name	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.Attitude	1										
2.Positive Emotion	.60	1									
3.Negative Emotion	-.30	-.21	1								
4.Subjective Norm	.52	.44	-.25	1							
5.Perceived Control	.50	.40	-.24	.43	1						
6. Desire	.61	.58	-.21	.55	.48	1					
7. Team Identification	.30	.25	-.21	.30	.34	.26	1				
8. Community ID	.38	.40	-.11	.37	.17	.46	.53	1			
9. Past Satisfaction	.61	.62	-.26	.58	.50	.79	.30	.39	1		
10. Fan Engagement	.32	.43	-.01	.34	.20	.52	.33	.60	.43	1	
11. Behavior Intention	.57	.53	-.19	.53	.48	.90	.28	.43	.79	.49	1

Table 4.9
Indicator Loadings, Cronbach's alpha, Construct Reliability and Average Variance Extracted of Social Media Activities Participation Variables Using the Pool Data CFA (N=603)

Variables	Factor loadings	Cronbach's alpha	CR	AVE
Attitude		.94	.94	.85
Harmful-beneficial	.86			
Unpleasant-pleasant	.93			
Bad-good	.97			
Positive Emotion		.94	.94	.84
Satisfied	.93			
Happy	.95			
Proud	.86			
Negative Emotion		.95	.95	.83
Disappointed	.88			
Annoyed	.90			
Regretful	.96			
Angry	.91			
Subjective Norm		.88	.89	.80
My people think I should not-should	.95			
My people would disapprove-approve	.83			
Perceived Control		.65	.70	.55
The degree one has control of	.56			
(Behavior) is difficult-easy	.89			
Desires		.92	.97	.90
I desire to (behavior)	.96			
I want to (behavior)	.98			
My desire for (behavior) is strong	.91			
Team Identification		.86	.88	.71
I am a loyal fan	.90			
I like to let people know that I am a fan	.76			
Win, or lose, I will always be a fan	.86			
Community Identification		.84	.84	.73
degree of self-image overlaps community 1	.85			
degree of self-image overlaps community 2	.85			
Past Satisfaction		.98	.98	.96
Satisfied with the (behavior)	.98			
Happy with the (behavior)	.98			
Fan Engagement		.91	.91	.63
Work cooperatively with my team	.88			
Do things to make team easier	.88			
The team employees get my support	.85			
Interact with other fans of team	.72			
Advise other fans for the team	.76			
Spend time to share information of team	.64			
Attendance Intention		.99	.99	.97
Intent to (behavior)	.98			
Likelihood of (behavior) is high	.99			
Will (behavior) in the future	.98			

Table 4.10

Path Coefficient Estimates of MGB for Fans Behaviors (N=603)

Hypotheses (Path)	a) Attendance		b) TV		c) Online		d) Social Media	
	β	<i>t</i> -value	β	<i>t</i> -value	β	<i>t</i> -value	β	<i>t</i> -value
Attitude→(+) Desires	.256	5.860***	.121	3.122**	.150	4.022***	.144	3.663***
Subjective norm→(+) Desires	.138	3.296***	.088	2.411*	.014	ns	.067	1.886(<i>p</i> =.059)
Perceived control→(+) Desires	.043	ns	.154	3.308***	.159	2.830**	.055	ns
Perceived control →(+) Intentions	.455	9.735***	.161	3.397***	.011	ns	-.093	ns
Pos. Emotion→(+) Desires	.183	3.805***	.100	2.644**	.036	ns	.046	ns
Neg. Emotion→(-) Desires	.074	2.070*	.111	3.651***	.054	ns	.024	ns
Past Sat.→(+) Desires	.281	7.345***	.452	9.921***	.548	13.906***	.569	15.180***
Past Sat. →(+) Intentions	.142	3.283***	.158	3.136**	.173	4.888***	.054	ns
Fan engagement→(+) Intentions	.081	2.066*	.007	ns	.055	1.926(<i>p</i> =.054)	-.132	-3.200**
Team ID→(+) Desires	.176	4.140***	.194	4.071***	-.086	-2.004*	-.104	-2.735**
Team ID→(+) Intentions	.041	ns	.229	5.006***	.049	ns	.332	6.031***
Community ID→(+) Desires	-.027	ns	-.068	ns	.183	4.169***	.187	4.611***
Community ID→(+) Intentions	.001	ns	-.106	-2.456*	-.041	ns	.155	2.585**
Desires→(+) Intentions	.400	9.510***	.452	9.122***	.728	21.119***	.085	ns

Note. ns=non-significant.****p*<.001. ***p*<.01. **p*<.05.

Table 4.11

Hypothesized Path Coefficient Estimates of Millennial Sport Fans Behaviors (n=222)

Hypotheses (Path)	a) Attendance		b) TV		c) Online		d) Social Media	
	β	<i>t</i> -value	β	<i>t</i> -value	β	<i>t</i> -value	β	<i>t</i> -value
H1: Attitude→(+) Desires	.32	4.17***	.14	2.15*	.15	1.93(<i>p</i> =.053)	.08	ns
H2: Subjective norm→(+) Desires	-.05	ns	.12	ns	.05	ns	.10	1.99*
H3: Perceived control→(+) Desires	.07	ns	.18	ns	-.01	ns	-.13	ns
H4: Perceived control →(+) Intentions	.28	3.44***	.22	2.36*	.02	ns	.02	ns
H5: Pos. Emotion→(+) Desires	.17	1.99*	.11	ns	.07	ns	.10	ns
H6: Neg. Emotion→(-) Desires	-.08	ns	.06	ns	.01	ns	.03	ns
H7: Past Sat.→(+) Desires	.15	2.22*	.36	4.07***	.60	10.52***	.68	12.58***
H8: Past Sat. →(+) Intentions	.13	1.94(<i>p</i> =.053)	.09	ns	.16	2.42*	-.09	ns
H9: Fan engagement→(+) Intentions	.04	ns	.08	ns	.14	2.75**	-.03	ns
H10: Team ID→(+) Desires	.37	4.74***	.13	ns	.01	ns	.03	ns
H11: Team ID→(+) Intentions	.16	2.01*	.24	2.86**	.01	ns	.61	5.80***
H12: Community ID→(+) Desires	-.08	ns	-.01	ns	.01	ns	.06	ns
H13: Community ID→(+) Intentions	.01	ns	-.19	-2.49**	-.01	ns	.08	ns
H14: Desires→(+) Intentions	.45	6.03***	.46	5.72***	.67	10.39***	-.01	ns

Note. ns=non-significant.****p*<.001. ***p*<.01. **p*<.05.

Table 4.12

Test for CFA Invariance of Millennials and Baby Boomers for Game Attending Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1596.85	880	0.061	0.067	0.92	0.93	-	-	-	-
Metric invariance	1622.46	902	0.062	0.067	0.92	0.93	vs. Configural	25.61	22	ns
Uniqueness invariance	1751.05**	935	0.063	0.070	0.91	0.92	vs. Metric	128.59	33	<.001
Scalar test	1832.72	968	0.068	0.070	0.91	0.92	NA			
Means different	1790.65*	957	0.063	0.069	0.91	0.92	vs. Uniqueness	39.6	22	<.05
Factor variance and covariance	1840.45**	968	0.114	0.071	0.91	0.92	vs. Mean different	49.8	11	<.001
Invariant factor means	1883.35**	979	0.128	0.072	0.91	0.91	vs. Factor var.	42.9	11	<.001

Note. ns=non-significant.

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

Table 4.13

Test for CFA Invariance of Millennials and Generation X for Game Attending Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1936.03	880	0.062	0.072	0.90	0.92	-	-	-	-
Metric invariance	1965.37	902	0.064	0.071	0.90	0.91	vs. Configural	29.34	22	ns
Uniqueness invariance	2130.55**	935	0.067	0.074	0.89	0.90	vs. Metric	165.18	33	<.001
Scalar test	2170.96	968	0.069	0.073	0.89	0.90	NA			
Means different	2152.19	957	0.067	0.073	0.89	0.90	vs. Uniqueness	21.64	22	ns
Factor variance and covariance	2172.59*	968	0.077	0.073	0.89	0.90	vs. Mean different	20.4	11	<.05
Invariant factor means	2191.56*	979	0.081	0.073	0.89	0.90	vs. Factor var.	18.97	11	<.05

Note. ns=non-significant.

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

Table 4.14

Test for CFA Invariance of Baby Boomers and Generation X for Game Attending Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1775.77	880	0.055	0.073	0.91	0.92	-	-	-	-
Metric invariance	1797.68	902	0.057	0.072	0.91	0.92	vs. Configural	21.19	22	ns
Uniqueness invariance	1860.11**	935	0.058	0.072	0.91	0.92	vs. Metric	62.43	33	<.001
Scalar test	1908.75	968	0.061	0.071	0.91	0.92	NA			
Means different	1885.79	957	0.059	0.071	0.91	0.92	vs. Uniqueness	25.68	22	ns
Factor variance and covariance	1923.29**	968	0.108	0.072	0.91	0.92	vs. Mean different	37.5	11	<.001
Invariant factor means	1947.14*	979	0.119	0.072	0.91	0.91	vs. Factor var.	23.85	11	<.05

Note. ns=non-significant.

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

Table 4.15

Test for CFA Invariance of Millennials and Baby Boomers for TV Watching Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1589.14	880	0.056	0.067	0.92	0.93	-	-	-	-
Metric invariance	1626.19*	902	0.062	0.067	0.92	0.93	vs. Configural	37.05	22	<.05
Uniqueness invariance	2053.76**	935	0.071	0.081	0.88	0.89	vs. Metric	427.57	33	<.001
Scalar test	2119.95	968	0.094	0.081	0.88	0.89	NA			
Means different	2096.54*	957	0.072	0.081	0.88	0.89	vs. Uniqueness	42.78	22	<.05
Factor variance and covariance	2109.52	968	0.132	0.081	0.88	0.89	vs. Mean different	12.98	11	ns
Invariant factor means	2140.28**	979	0.159	0.081	0.88	0.89	vs. Factor var.	30.76	11	<.001

Note. ns=non-significant.

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

Table 4.16

Test for CFA Invariance of Millennials and Generation X for TV Watching Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1850.77	880	0.055	0.069	0.90	0.92	-	-	-	-
Metric invariance	1887.60*	902	0.061	0.069	0.91	0.92	vs. Configural	36.83	22	<.05
Uniqueness invariance	2023.37**	935	0.062	0.071	0.90	0.91	vs. Metric	172.6	33	<.001
Scalar test	2065.57	968	0.067	0.070	0.90	0.91	NA			
Means different	2046.49	957	0.063	0.070	0.90	0.91	vs. Uniqueness	23.12	22	ns
Factor variance and covariance	2061.92	968	0.079	0.070	0.90	0.91	vs. Mean different	15.43	11	ns
Invariant factor means	2081.24*	979	0.088	0.070	0.90	0.91	vs. Factor var.	19.32	11	<.05

Note. ns=non-significant.

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

Table 4.17

Test for CFA Invariance of Baby Boomers and Generation X for TV Watching Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1808.21	880	0.054	0.074	0.90	0.92	-	-	-	-
Metric invariance	1856.42**	902	0.060	0.075	0.90	0.92	vs. Configural	48.21	22	<.01
Uniqueness invariance	2128.57***	935	0.066	0.082	0.88	0.89	vs. Metric	272.15	33	<.001
Scalar test	2168.35	968	0.073	0.081	0.88	0.89	NA			
Means different	2148.54	957	0.068	0.081	0.88	0.89	vs. Uniqueness	19.97	22	ns
Factor variance and covariance	2162.14	968	0.097	0.080	0.88	0.89	vs. Mean different	13.6	11	ns
Invariant factor means	2181.27*	979	0.107	0.080	0.88	0.89	vs. Factor var.	19.13	11	<.05

Note. ns=non-significant.

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

Table 4.18

Test for CFA Invariance of Millennials and Baby Boomers for Online Activities Participation Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1569.45	880	0.065	0.066	0.93	0.94	-	-	-	-
Metric invariance	1613.31*	902	0.068	0.066	0.93	0.94	vs. Configural	43.86	22	<.01
Uniqueness invariance	1759.79**	935	0.069	0.070	0.92	0.93	vs. Metric	190.34	33	<.001
Scalar test	1828.07	968	0.074	0.070	0.92	0.93	NA			
Means different	1799.96*	957	0.070	0.070	0.92	0.93	vs. Uniqueness	40.17	22	<.01
Factor variance and covariance	1817.77	968	0.084	0.070	0.92	0.93	vs. Mean different	17.81	11	ns
Invariant factor means	1844.96*	979	0.093	0.070	0.92	0.93	vs. Factor var.	27.19	11	<.01

Note. ns=non-significant.

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

Table 4.19

Test for CFA Invariance of Millennials and Generation X for Online Activities Participation Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1784.12	880	0.063	0.067	0.93	0.94	-	-	-	-
Metric invariance	1815.26	902	0.066	0.066	0.93	0.94	vs. Configural	31.14	22	ns
Uniqueness invariance	1936.45**	935	0.067	0.068	0.92	0.93	vs. Metric	121.19	33	<.001
Scalar test	1985.72	968	0.069	0.067	0.92	0.93	NA			
Means different	1965.96	957	0.068	0.067	0.92	0.93	vs. Uniqueness	29.51	22	ns
Factor variance and covariance	1975.97	968	0.073	0.067	0.93	0.93	vs. Mean different	10.01	11	ns
Invariant factor means	1996.59*	979	0.076	0.067	0.93	0.93	vs. Factor var.	20.62	11	<.05

Note. ns=non-significant.

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

Table 4.20

Test for CFA Invariance of Baby Boomers and Generation X for Online Activities Participation Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1788.99	880	0.059	0.074	0.92	0.93	-	-	-	-
Metric invariance	1814.38*	902	0.063	0.073	0.92	0.93	vs. Configural	25.39	22	ns
Uniqueness invariance	1915.68**	935	0.064	0.074	0.92	0.92	vs. Metric	101.3	33	<.001
Scalar test	1955.71	968	0.066	0.073	0.92	0.92	NA			
Means different	1944.24*	957	0.065	0.074	0.92	0.92	vs. Uniqueness	40.03	22	<.05
Factor variance and covariance	1958.07	968	0.073	0.073	0.92	0.92	vs. Mean different	13.83	11	ns
Invariant factor means	1969.49	979	0.077	0.073	0.92	0.92	vs. Factor var.	11.42	11	ns

Note. ns=non-significant.

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

Table 4.21

Test for CFA Invariance of Millennials and Baby Boomers for Social Media Activities Participation Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1621.09	880	0.070	0.068	0.94	0.95	-	-	-	-
Metric invariance	1673.05***	902	0.073	0.069	0.94	0.95	vs. Configural	51.96	22	<.001
Uniqueness invariance	1925.31***	935	0.073	0.077	0.92	0.93	vs. Metric	250.26	33	<.001
Scalar test	2001.41	968	0.078	0.077	0.92	0.93	NA			
Means different	1963.15*	957	0.074	0.076	0.92	0.93	vs. Uniqueness	37.84	22	<.05
Factor variance and covariance	1985.89**	968	0.088	0.076	0.92	0.93	vs. Mean different	22.74	11	<.01
Invariant factor means	2023.46***	979	0.100	0.077	0.92	0.93	vs. Factor var.	37.57	11	<.001

Note. ns=non-significant.

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

Table 4.22

Test for CFA Invariance of Millennials and Generation X for Social Media Activities Participation Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	2062.78	880	0.072	0.076	0.92	0.93	-	-	-	-
Metric invariance	2105.26**	902	0.077	0.076	0.92	0.93	vs. Configural	42.48	22	<.01
Uniqueness invariance	2227.67***	935	0.077	0.077	0.91	0.92	vs. Metric	122.41	33	<.001
Scalar test	2276.19	968	0.079	0.076	0.92	0.92	NA			
Means different	2252.74	957	0.078	0.076	0.92	0.92	vs. Uniqueness	24.52	22	ns
Factor variance and covariance	2261.86	968	0.081	0.076	0.92	0.92	vs. Mean different	9.12	11	ns
Invariant factor means	2285.27*	979	0.084	0.076	0.92	0.92	vs. Factor var.	23.41	11	<.05

Note. ns=non-significant.

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

Table 4.23

Test for CFA Invariance of Baby Boomers and Generation X for Social Media Activities Participation Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1944.75*	880	0.072	0.080	0.92	0.93	-	-	-	-
Metric invariance	1989.25*	902	0.075	0.080	0.92	0.93	vs. Configural	44.5	22	<.01
Uniqueness invariance	2277.49*	935	0.076	0.087	0.90	0.91	vs. Metric	288.24	33	<.001
Scalar test	2319.16*	968	0.077	0.086	0.90	0.91	NA			
Means different	2302.26*	957	0.076	0.086	0.90	0.91	vs. Uniqueness	24.77	22	ns
Factor variance and covariance	2324.24*	968	0.085	0.086	0.90	0.91	vs. Mean different	21.98	11	<.05
Invariant factor means	2340.46*	979	0.089	0.085	0.90	0.91	vs. Factor var.	16.22	11	ns

Note. ns=non-significant.

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

Table 4.24

Test for SEM Invariance of Millennials and Baby Boomers for Game Attending Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1606.35	890	0.061	0.067	0.92	0.93	-	-	-	-
Constrained equal	1947.56*	973	0.118	0.074	0.90	0.91	vs. Configural	341.21	83	<.001

* $p < .001$.

Table 4.25

Test for SEM Invariance of Millennials and Generation X for Game Attending Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1948.28*	890	0.062	0.072	0.90	0.92	-	-	-	-
Constrained equal	2249.32*	973	0.108	0.075	0.89	0.90	vs. Configural	301.04	83	<.001

* $p < .001$.

Table 4.26

Test for SEM Invariance of Baby Boomers and Generation X for Game Attending Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1787.80*	890	0.055	0.073	0.91	0.92	-	-	-	-
Constrained equal	2036.82*	973	0.099	0.076	0.90	0.91	vs. Configural	249.02	83	<.001

* $p < .001$.

Table 4.27

Test for SEM Invariance of Millennials and Baby Boomers for TV Watching Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1621.49*	890	0.057	0.067	0.92	0.93	-	-	-	-
Constrained equal	1904.78*	973	0.124	0.073	0.90	0.91	vs. Configural	283.29	83	<.001

* $p < .001$.

Table 4.28

Test for SEM Invariance of Millennials and Generation X for TV Watching Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1870.66*	890	0.056	0.069	0.90	0.92	-	-	-	-
Constrained equal	2150.27*	973	0.107	0.072	0.90	0.90	vs. Configural	279.61	83	<.001

* $p < .001$.

Table 4.29

Test for SEM Invariance of Baby Boomers and Generation X for TV Watching Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1849.58*	890	0.055	0.075	0.90	0.91	-	-	-	-
Constrained equal	2129.97*	973	0.107	0.079	0.89	0.90	vs. Configural	280.39	83	<.001

* $p < .001$.

Table 4.30

Test for SEM Invariance of Millennials and Baby Boomers for Online Activities Participation Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	$ML\chi^2$	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	$\Delta ML\chi^2$	Δdf	p
Configural Model	1593.68*	890	0.067	0.066	0.93	0.94	-	-	-	-
Constrained equal	1935.99*	973	0.150	0.074	0.91	0.92	vs. Configural	342.31	83	<.001

* $p < .001$.

Table 4.31

Test for SEM Invariance of Millennials and Generation X for Online Activities Participation Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1803.91*	890	0.066	0.067	0.93	0.94	-	-	-	-
Constrained equal	2146.96*	973	0.143	0.072	0.91	0.92	vs. Configural	343.05	83	<.001

* $p < .001$.

Table 4.32

Test for SEM Invariance of Baby Boomers and Generation X for Online Activities Participation Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1809.95*	890	0.061	0.074	0.92	0.93	-	-	-	-
Constrained equal	2099.41*	973	0.132	0.078	0.91	0.91	vs. Configural	289.46	83	<.001

* $p < .001$.

Table 4.33

Test for SEM Invariance of Millennials and Baby Boomers for Social Media Activities Participation Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1643.67*	890	0.075	0.068	0.94	0.95	-	-	-	-
Constrained equal	2011.63*	973	0.160	0.077	0.92	0.93	vs. Configural	367.96	83	<.001

* $p < .001$.

Table 4.34

Test for SEM Invariance of Millennials and Generation X for Social Media Activities Participation Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	2097.03*	890	0.076	0.076	0.92	0.93	-	-	-	-
Constrained equal	2521.91*	973	0.158	0.083	0.90	0.91	vs. Configural	424.88	83	<.001

* $p < .001$.

Table 4.35

Test for SEM Invariance of Baby Boomers and Generation X for Social Media Activities Participation Behavior: Summary of Model Fit and χ^2 -Difference-Test Statistics

Model	ML χ^2	df	SRMSR	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Model Comparison	Δ ML χ^2	Δ df	p
Configural Model	1981.47*	890	0.076	0.080	0.91	0.93	-	-	-	-
Constrained equal	2315.24*	973	0.152	0.085	0.90	0.91	vs. Configural	333.77	83	<.001

* $p < .001$.

Table 4.36

Path Statistics of the Comparison between the Generations for Game Attendance Behaviors (N=603, Millennials: n =222; Baby Boomers: n= 139; Generation X: n=242)

Path	PC _i (SE _i)			t _{spooled}		
	Mills	Boomers	GenX	Mills vs Boomers	Mills vs GenX	Boomers vs GenX
Attitude→(+) Desires	.307(.079)***	.091(.079)	.399(.073)***	22.782 S	-13.307 S	-44.588 S
Subjective norm→(+) Desires	-.042(.077)	.195(.078)*	.226(.067)***	-25.480 S	-40.850 S	-4.695 S
Perceived control→(+) Desires	.052(.065)	.133(.117)	-.026(.058)	-7.131 NS	13.930 NS	18.960 NS
Perceived control →(+) Intentions	.345(.069)***	.950(.275)***	.436(.068)***	-25.145 S	-14.614 S	28.254 S
Pos. Emotion→(+) Desires	.169(.089)*	.308(.083)***	.174(.083)*	-13.459 S	-0.639 NS	17.776 S
Neg. Emotion→(-) Desires	-.087(.055)	.222(.080)**	.114(.063)	-37.506 S	-37.392 NS	16.139 S
Past Sat. →(+) Desires	.156(.068)*	.344(.087)***	.142(.062)*	-20.062 S	2.367 S	30.186 S
Past Sat. →(+) Intentions	.113(.067)	.094(.192)	.096(.067)	1.101 NS	2.791 NS	-0.153 NS
Fan engagement→(+) Intentions	.027(.062)	-.067(.140)	.143(.065)*	7.234 NS	-20.091 S	-21.185 S
Team ID→(+) Desires	.366(.079)***	.209(.092)*	.176(.067)**	15.256 S	28.537 S	4.515 S
Team ID→(+) Intentions	.163(.082)*	.224(.176)	.114(.072)	-4.916 S	6.986 S	9.243 NS
Community ID→(+) Desires	-.061(.075)	-.013(.087)	-.114(.058)*	-4.924 NS	8.697 S	15.041 S
Community ID→(+) Intentions	-.005(.081)	-.113(.155)	.025(.075)	7.277 NS	-4.228 NS	-12.480 NS
Desires→(+) Intentions	.442(.075)***	.068(.159)	.350(.066)***	25.069 S	14.329 S	-26.066 S

Note. S= Supported, NS=Not Supported.

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

Table 4.37

Path Statistics of the Comparison between the Generations for TV Watching Behaviors (N=603, Millennials: n =222; Baby Boomers: n= 139; Generation X: n=242)

Path	PC _i (SE _i)			t _{spooled}		
	Mills	Boomers	GenX	Mills vs Boomers	Mills vs GenX	Boomers vs GenX
Attitude→(+) Desires	.125(.065)*	.041(.068)	.163(.073)*	10.522 S	-6.048 S	-19.042 S
Subjective norm→(+) Desires	.124(.066)*	.090(.079)	.032(.057)	3.892 S	16.413 S	9.271 NS
Perceived control→(+) Desires	.233(.102)*	.141(.102)	.100(.071)	7.515 S	16.650 S	5.137 NS
Perceived control →(+) Intentions	.201(.093)*	.279(.112)	.091(.069)	-6.314 S	14.778 S	22.254 NS
Pos. Emotion→(+) Desires	.112(.064)	.135(.078)	.085(.066)	-2.686 NS	4.569 NS	7.620 NS
Neg. Emotion→(-) Desires	.069(.056)	.081(.058)	.180(.049)***	-1.754 NS	-23.208 S	-20.303 S
Past Sat.→(+) Desires	.343(.084)***	.413(.123)***	.535(.067)***	-5.538 S	-27.801 S	-13.563 S
Past Sat. →(+) Intentions	.110(.084)	.062(.126)	.229(.078)**	3.735 NS	-16.151 S	-17.548 S
Fan engagement→(+) Intentions	.067(.059)	-.020(.072)	-.056(.055)	11.013 NS	23.725 NS	6.187 NS
Team ID→(+) Desires	.121(.093)	.375(.114)***	.220(.066)***	-20.344 S	-13.506 S	18.323 S
Team ID→(+) Intentions	.253(.083)**	.409(.106)***	.139(.066)*	-13.654 S	16.725 S	33.670 S
Community ID→(+) Desires	-.004(.071)	-.229(.079)**	-.075(.055)	24.962 S	12.299 NS	-24.912 S
Community ID→(+) Intentions	-.184(.075)*	-.187(.094)*	-.013(.067)	0.294 NS	-26.454 S	-23.472 S
Desires→(+) Intentions	.444(.083)***	.330(.114)**	.506(.077)***	9.526 S	-8.520 S	-19.922 S

Note. S= Supported, NS=Not Supported.

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

Table 4.38

Path Statistics of the Comparison between the Generations for Online Activities Participation Behavior (N=603, Millennials: n =222; Baby Boomers: n= 139; Generation X: n=242)

Path	PC _i (SE _i)			t _{spooled}		
	Mills	Boomers	GenX	Mills vs Boomers	Mills vs GenX	Boomers vs GenX
Attitude→(+) Desires	.109(.070)	-	.190(.064)**	-	-13.286 S	-
Subjective norm→(+) Desires	.034(.064)	-	-.058(.061)	-	16.189 NS	-
Perceived control→(+) Desires	.123(.133)	-	.129(.072)	-	-0.617 NS	-
Perceived control →(+) Intentions	-.004(.083)	-	.024(.045)	-	-4.614 NS	-
Pos. Emotion→(+) Desires	.068(.063)	-	.055(.061)	-	2.306 NS	-
Neg. Emotion→(-) Desires	.020(.052)	-	.113(.046)*	-	-20.841 S	-
Past Sat. →(+) Desires	.592(.058)***	-	.568(.062)***	-	4.398 S	-
Past Sat. →(+) Intentions	.166(.066)*	-	.177(.048)***	-	-2.097 S	-
Fan engagement→(+) Intentions	.138(.051)**	-	.005(.039)	-	32.230 S	-
Team ID→(+) Desires	-.086(.114)	-	-.022(.062)	-	-7.673 NS	-
Team ID→(+) Intentions	.086(.083)	-	.023(.039)	-	10.688 NS	-
Community ID→(+) Desires	.157(.098)	-	.170(.063)**	-	-1.720 NS	-
Community ID→(+) Intentions	-.076(.072)	-	.009(.046)	-	-15.478 NS	-
Desires→(+) Intentions	.667(.067)***	-	.761(.046)***	-	-17.995 S	-

Note. S= Supported, NS=Not Supported. The latent variable covariance matrix of Baby Boomers was not positive definite.

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

Table 4.39

Path Statistics of the Comparison between the Generations for Social Media Activities Participation Behavior (N=603, Millennials: n=222; Baby Boomers: n= 139; Generation X: n=242)

Path	PC _i (SE _i)			t _{spooled}		
	Mills	Boomers	GenX	Mills vs Boomers	Mills vs GenX	Boomers vs GenX
Attitude→(+) Desires	.037(.062)	.220(.080)**	.191(.068)**	-21.306 S	-26.036 S	4.301 S
Subjective norm→(+) Desires	.098(.053)*	.073(.078)	.042(.059)	3.124 S	10.985 S	4.936 NS
Perceived control→(+) Desires	.007(.091)	.097(.116)	.089(.065)	-7.193 NS	-10.926 NS	0.937 NS
Perceived control →(+) Intentions	-.008(.101)	-.462(.120)***	-.052(.094)	34.108 S	4.961 NS	-41.883 S
Pos. Emotion→(+) Desires	.097(.059)	-.026(.076)	.043(.064)	15.064 NS	9.652 NS	-10.814 NS
Neg. Emotion→(-) Desires	.019(.043)	-.035(.062)	.073(.044)	8.433 NS	-13.656 NS	-22.120 NS
Past Sat. →(+) Desires	.650(.059)***	.455(.083)***	.548(.061)***	22.565 S	18.699 S	-14.059 S
Past Sat. →(+) Intentions	-.095(.114)	.150(.119)	.123(.105)	-17.519 NS	-21.883 NS	2.649 NS
Fan engagement→(+) Intentions	-.033(.066)	-.465(.077)***	-.081(.070)	50.195 S	7.762 NS	-57.461 S
Team ID→(+) Desires	-.066(.078)	-.166(.084)*	-.084(.053)	10.280 S	2.970 NS	-12.856 S
Team ID→(+) Intentions	.609(.097)***	-.016(.114)	.390(.078)***	49.203 S	27.373 S	-45.769 S
Community ID→(+) Desires	.135(.078)	.261(.090)**	.191(.058)***	-12.467 S	-8.963 S	10.180 S
Community ID→(+) Intentions	.092(.101)	.324(.126)**	.121(.088)	-16.929 S	-3.368 NS	20.568 S
Desires→(+) Intentions	.012(.114)	.351(.120)**	-.016(.113)	-24.134 S	2.714 NS	34.671 S

Note. S= Supported, NS=Not Supported.

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

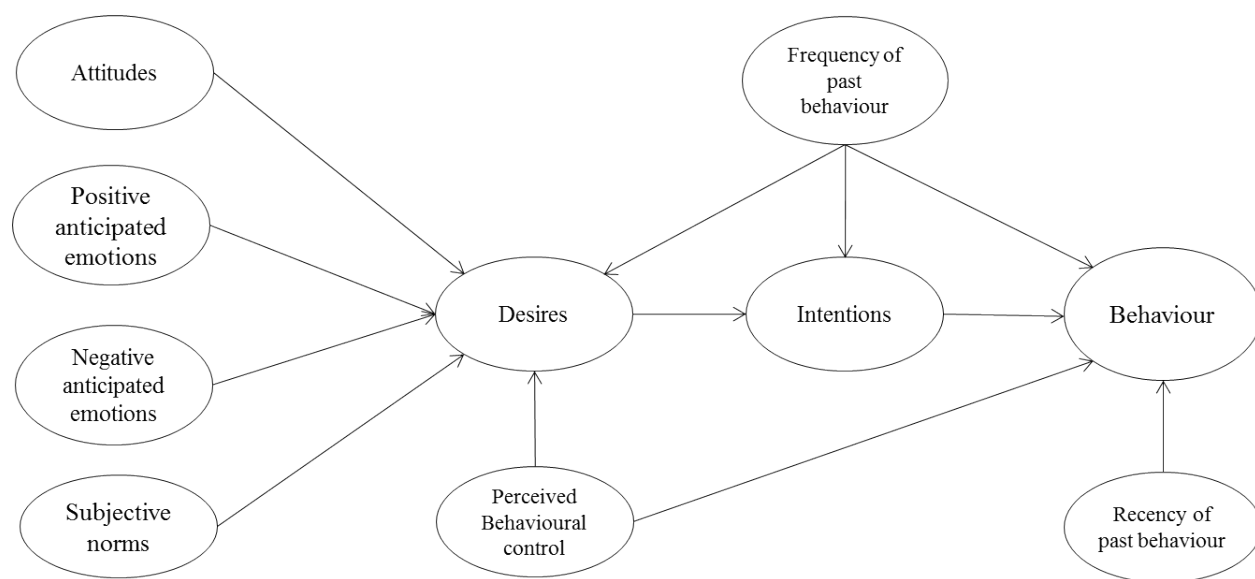


Figure 4.1. The model of goal-directed behavior (MGB; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

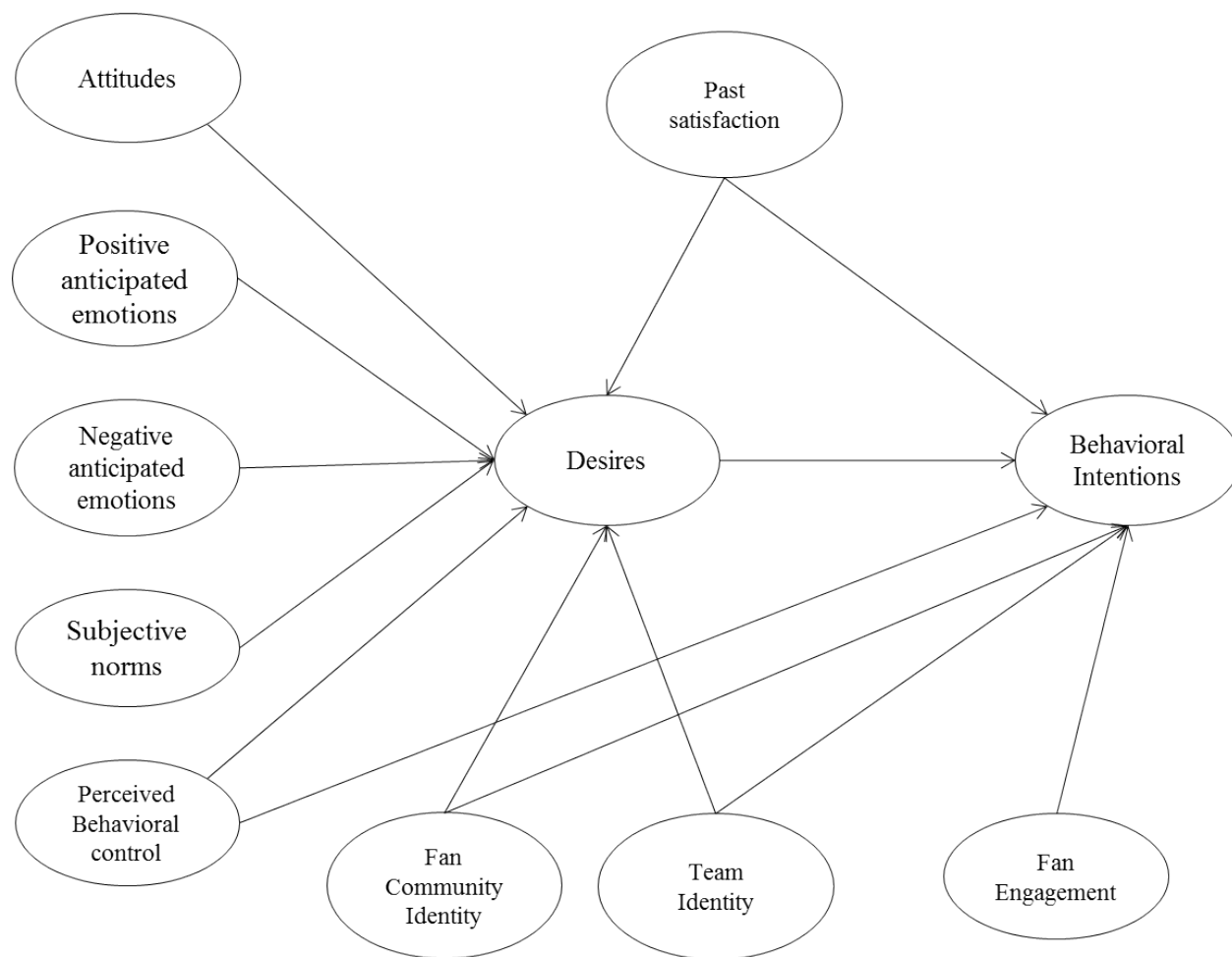


Figure 4.2. Proposed model for SEM (the Sport Fan MGB).

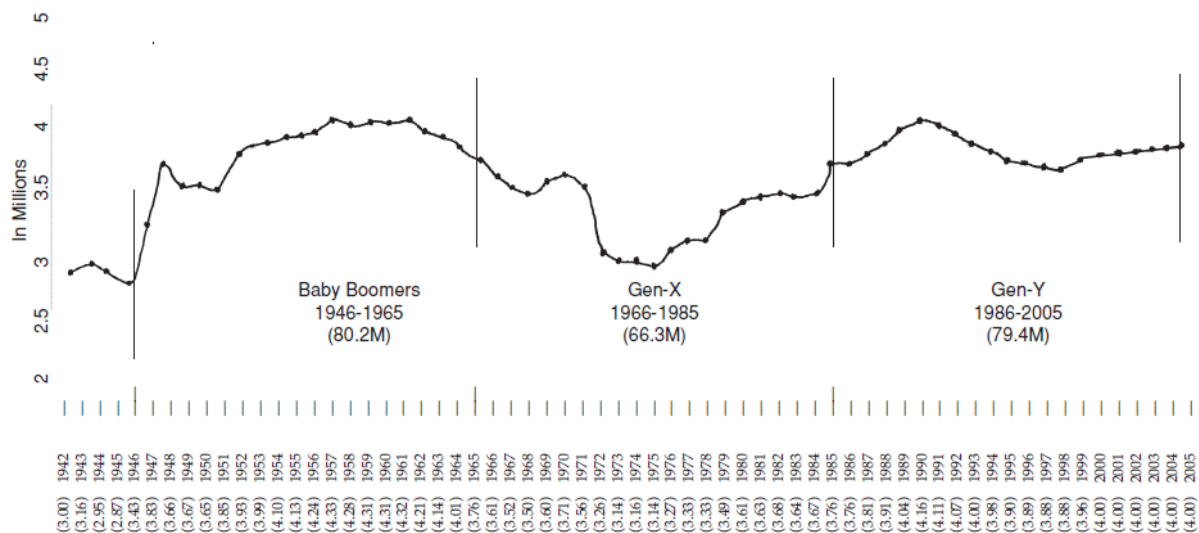


Figure 4.3. Population Estimates with 20-Year Increments between Generational Cohorts. Adopted from “Demographics of Age: Generational and Cohort Confusion” by J. Markert, 2004, Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising, 26, p. 18. Copyright 2004 by the CTC Press.

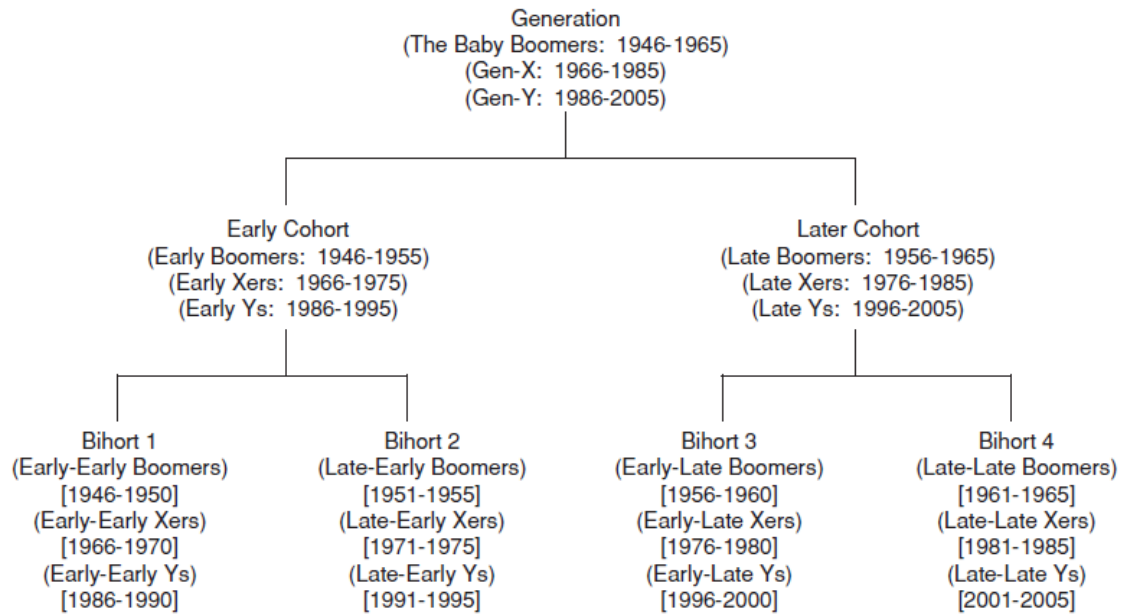


Figure 4.4. Birth Groups and Timelines. Adopted from “Demographics of Age: Generational and Cohort Confusion” by J. Markert, 2004, *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, 26, p. 21. Copyright 2004 by the CTC Press.

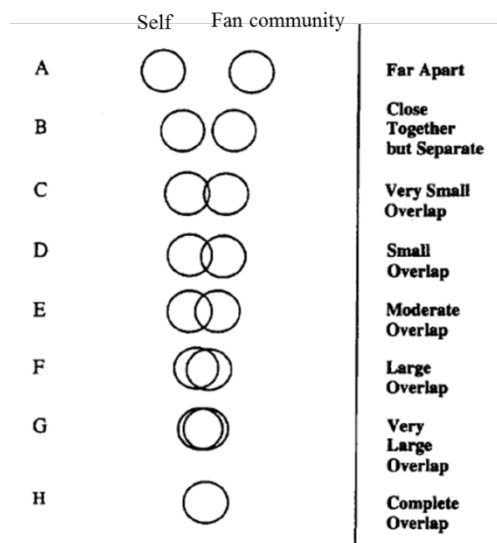


Figure 4.5. Direct measure of sport fan community identification based on the aided visual diagram of degree overlap between self-definition and fan community identity. Adopted from “Self-categorization, affective commitment and group self-esteem as distinct aspects of social identity in the organization” by M. Bergami & R. P. Bagozzi, 2000, *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 39, p. 566. Copyright 2000 by The British Psychological Society.

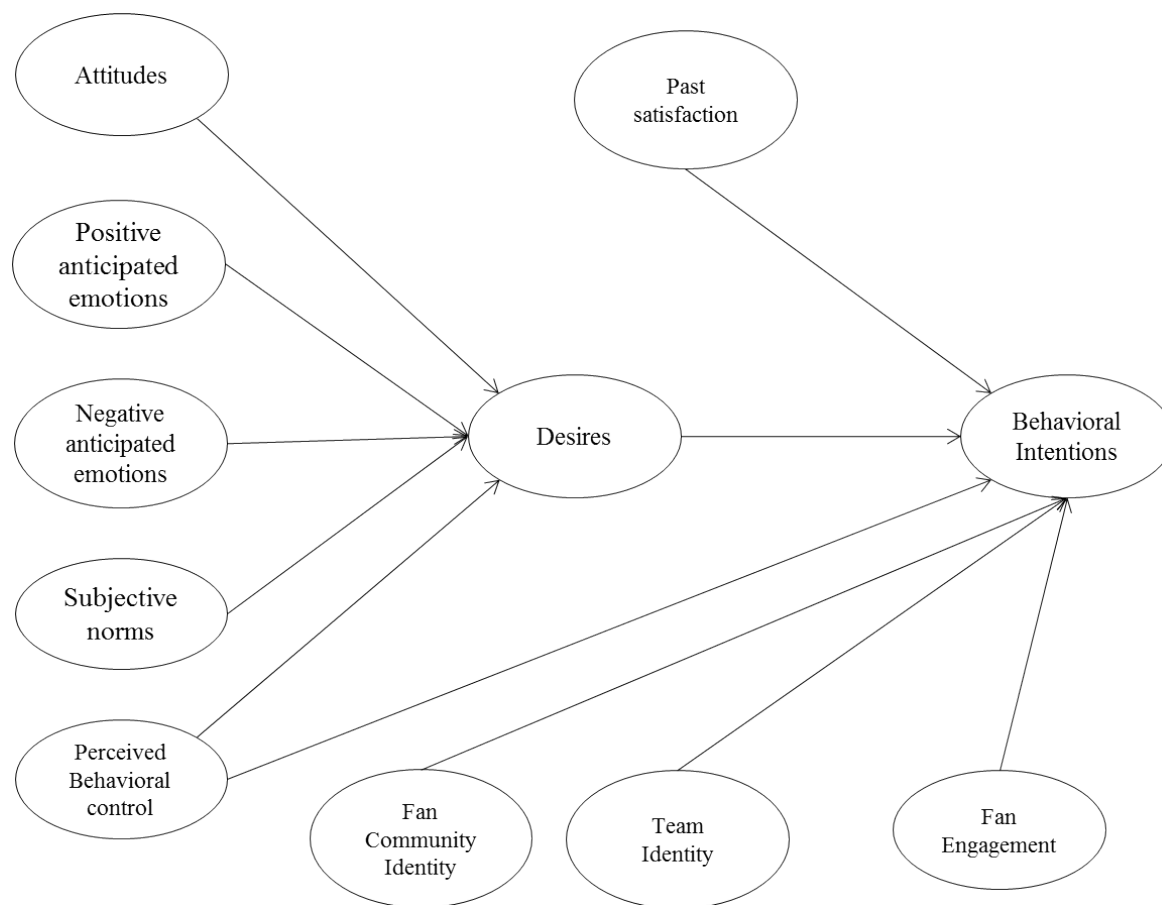


Figure 4.6. Alternative model for model testing.

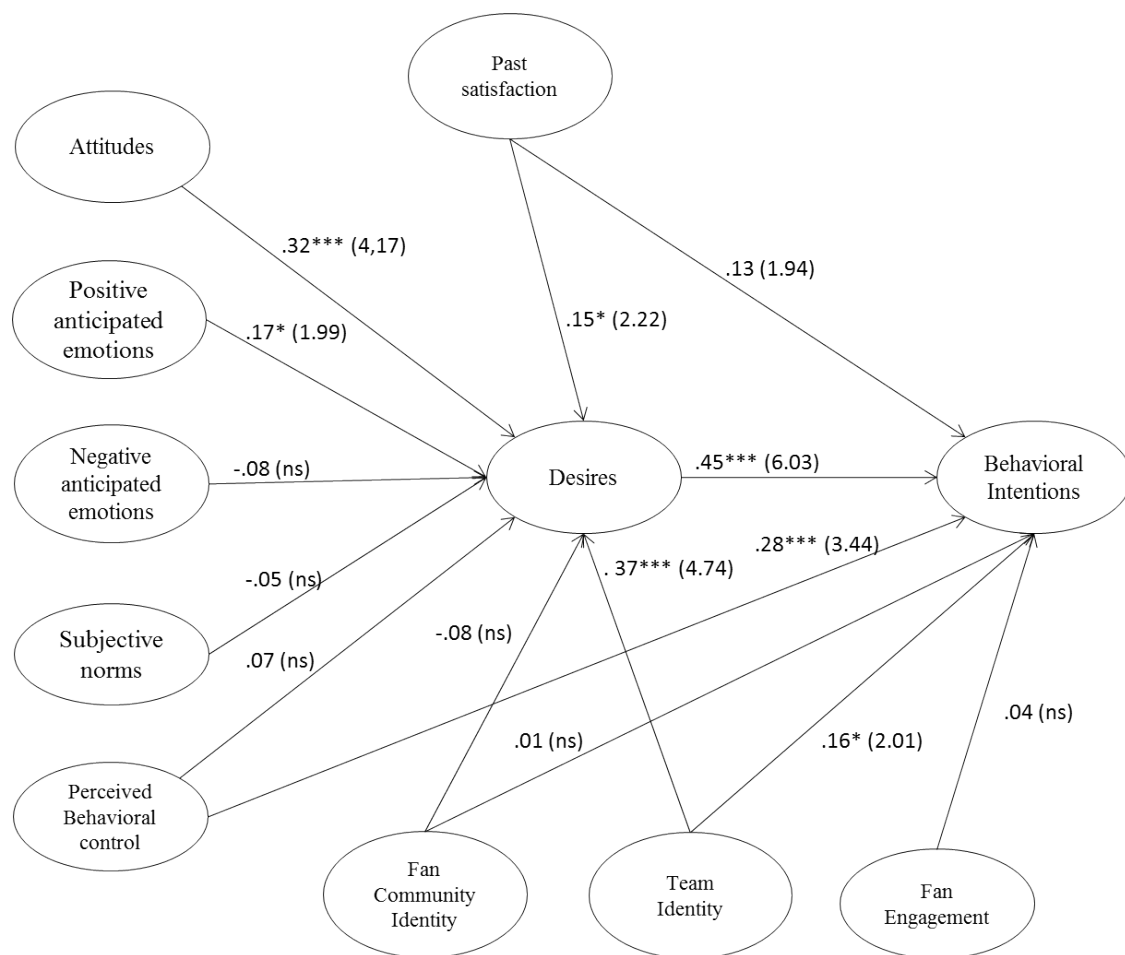


Figure 4.7. Results of the Model of Goal-directed Behavior for Millennial Generation's Game Attendance Behavior.

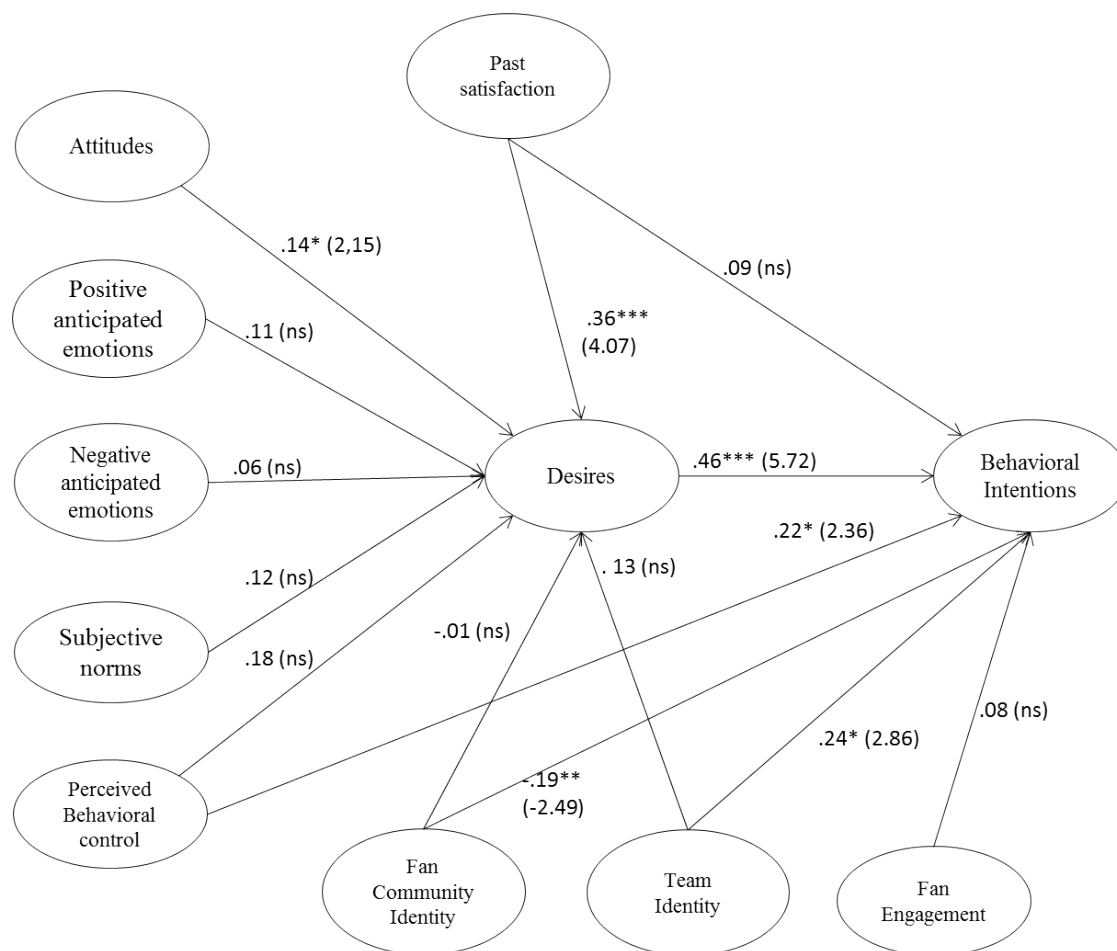


Figure 4.8. Results of the Model of Goal-directed Behavior for Millennial Generation's TV Watching Behavior.

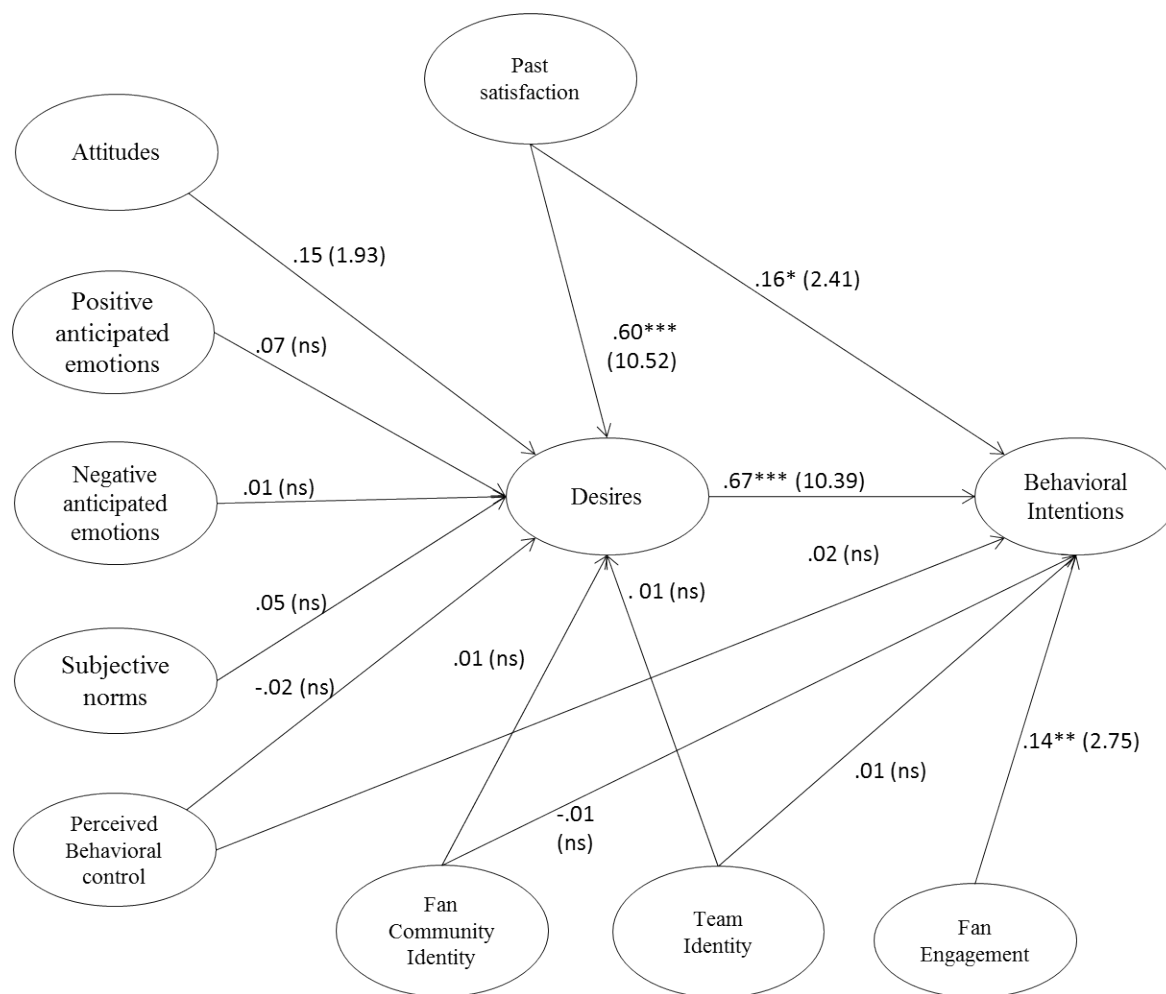


Figure 4.9. Results of the Model of Goal-directed Behavior for Millennial Generation's Online Activities Participation Behavior.

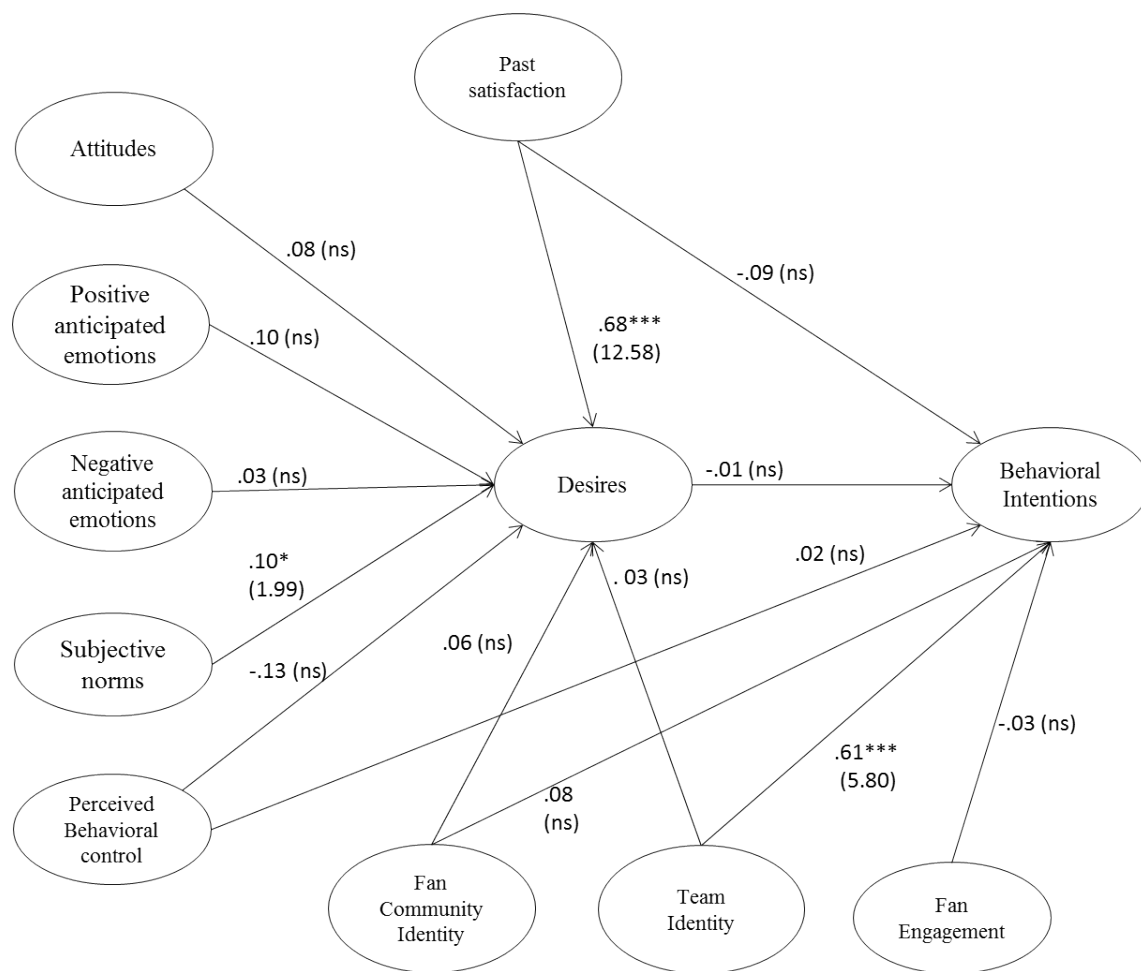


Figure 4.10. Results of the Model of Goal-directed Behavior for Millennial Generation's Social Media Activities Participation Behavior.

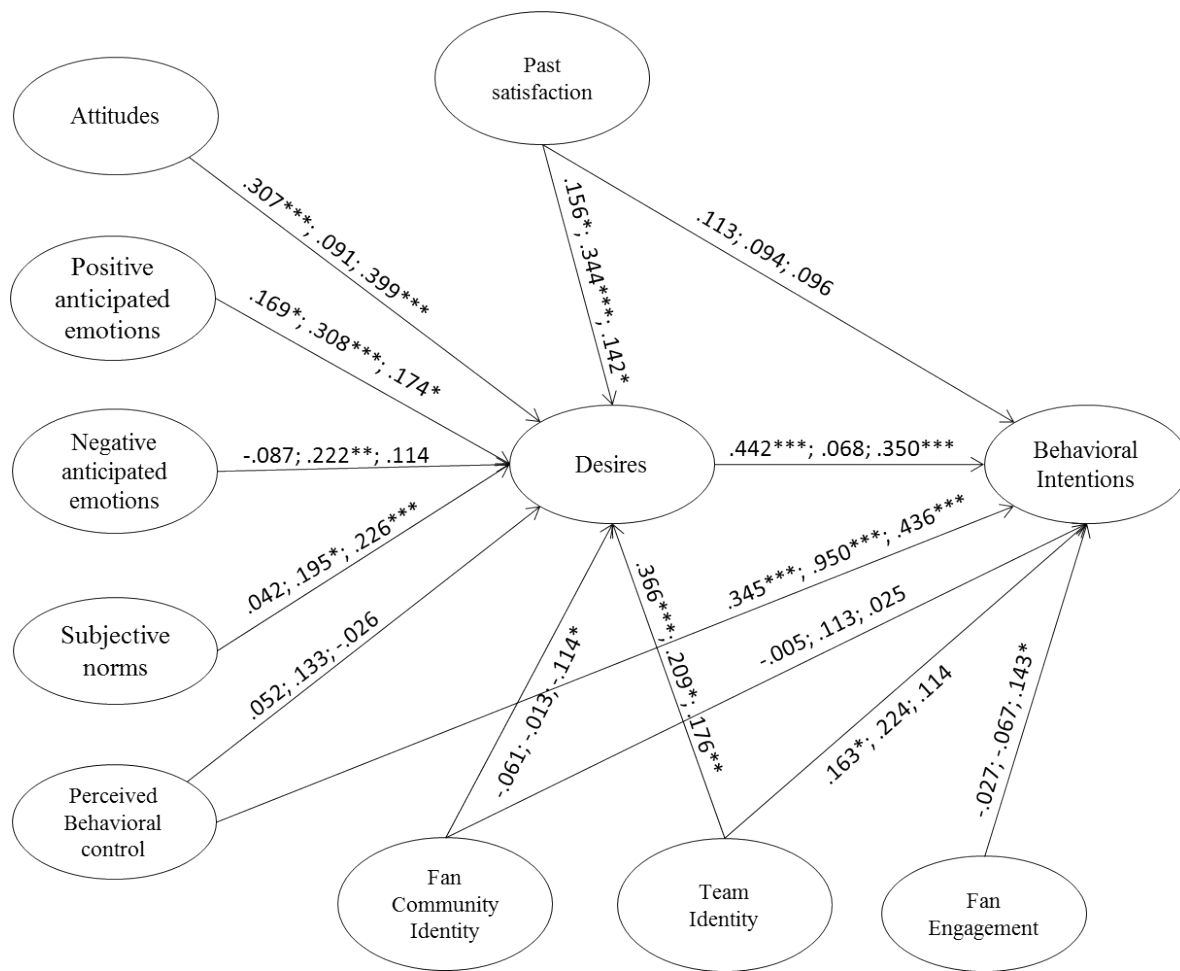


Figure 4.11. Results of the Model of Goal-directed Behavior for the Three Generations' Game Attendance Behavior.

Note: The first coefficients denote Millennial Generation, second coefficients denote Baby Boomers, and the third coefficients denote Generation X.

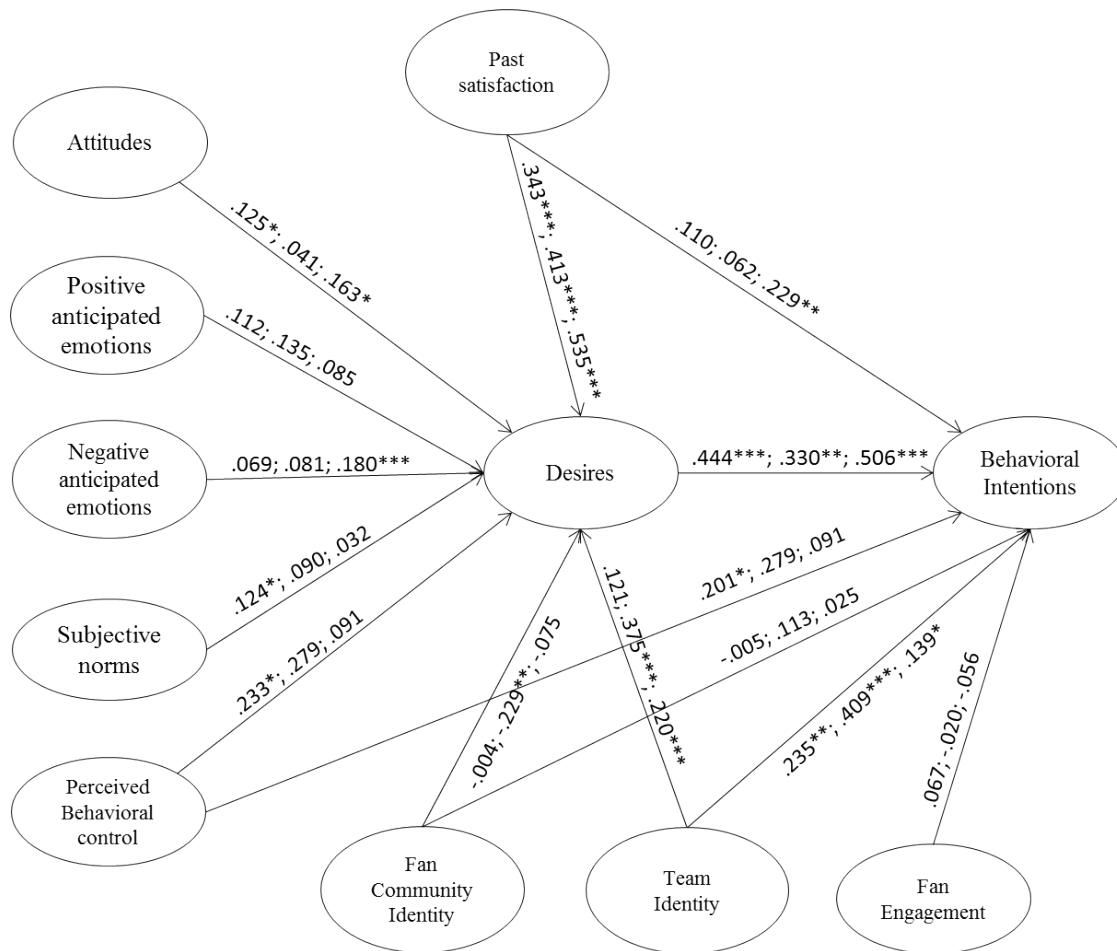


Figure 4.12. Results of the Model of Goal-directed Behavior for the Three Generations' TV Watching Behavior.

Note: The first coefficients denote Millennial Generation, second coefficients denote Baby Boomers, and the third coefficients denote Generation X.

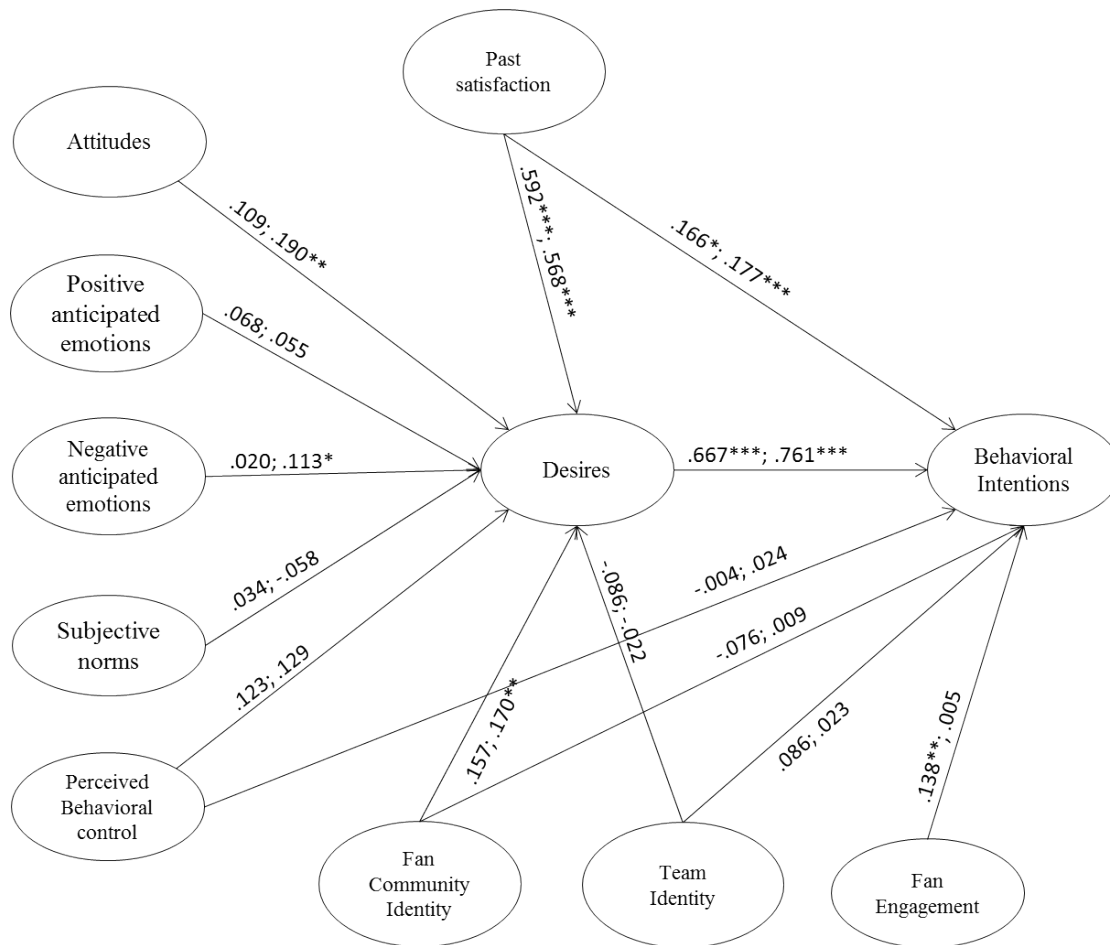


Figure 4.13. Results of the Model of Goal-directed Behavior for the Three Generations' Online Activities Participation Behavior.

Note: The first coefficients denote Millennial Generation and the second coefficients denote Generation X. The latent variable covariance matrix Baby Boomers was not positive definite.

For online behavior, Mills vs GenX was compared.

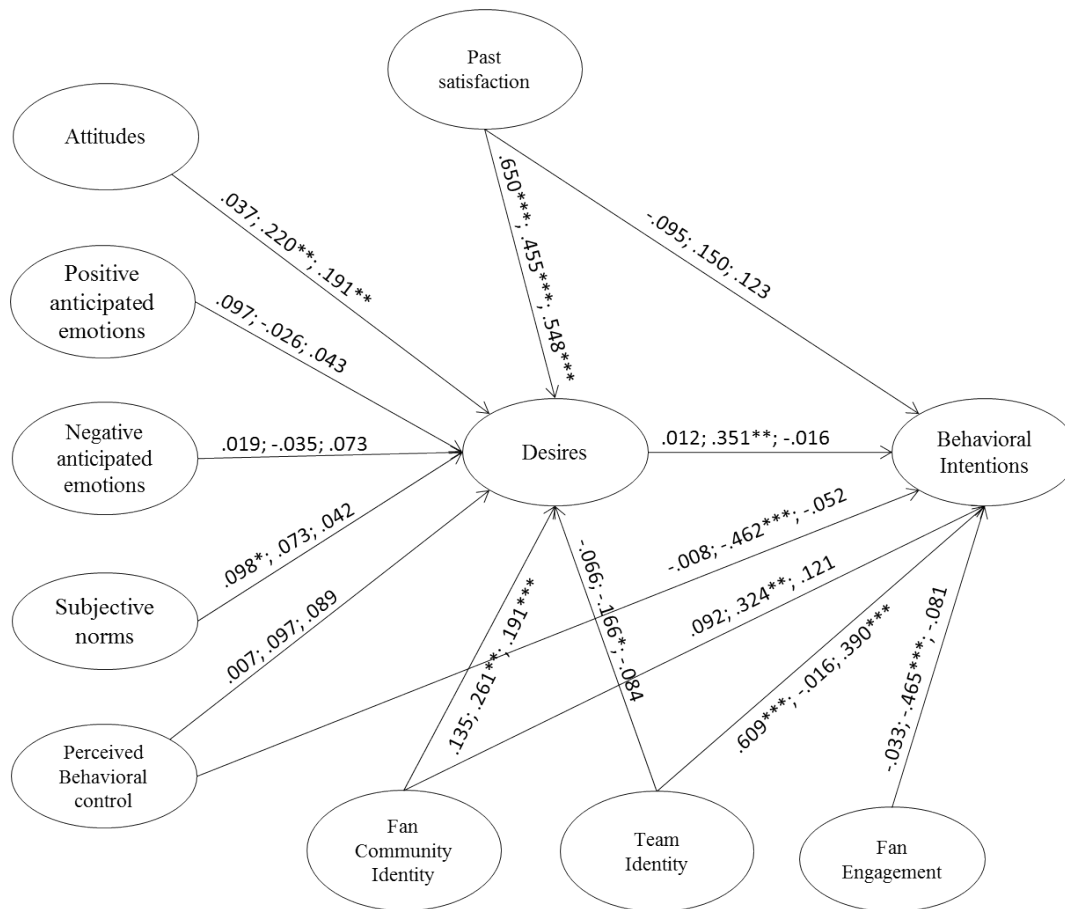


Figure 4.14. Results of the Model of Goal-directed Behavior for the Three Generations' Social Media Activities Participation Behavior.

Note: The first coefficients denote Millennial Generation, second coefficients denote Baby Boomers, and the third coefficients denote Generation X.

Equation 4.1. Chin (2004) path coefficient difference test equations.

$$S_{pooled} = \sqrt{\left\{ \left[\frac{N_1-1}{N_1+N_2-2} \right] \times SE_1^2 + \left[\frac{N_2-1}{N_1+N_2-2} \right] \times SE_2^2 \right\}}$$

$$t_{spooled} = (PC_1 - PC_2) / [S_{pooled} \times \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{N_1} + \frac{1}{N_2} \right)}]$$

Where S_{pooled} : pooled estimator for the variance

$t_{spooled}$: t-statistic with $(N_1 + N_2 - 2)$ degree of freedom

N_i : sample size of the dataset for generation i

SE_i : standard error of path in the structural model for generation i

PC_i : path coefficient in the structural model generation i

i : 1=Millennial, 2=Generation X, 3=Baby Boomers

CHAPTER 5

VALIDATION OF THE SPORT FAN MODEL OF GOAL-DIRECTED BEHAVIOR:
COMPARISON TO THEORY OF REASONED ACTION, THEORY OF PLANNED
BEHAVIOR, AND MODEL OF GOAL-DIRECTED BEHAVIOR³

³ Yim, B. H., Byon, K. K., Baker, T. A., & Zhang, J. J. To be submitted to *Sport Marketing Quarterly*.

Abstract

The model of goal-directed behavior (MGB; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001) extended the theory of reasoned action (TRA; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the theory of planned behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1991) by adding positive/negative anticipated emotion, desire, and past behavior. In Chapter 4, the sport fan MGB was developed by adding sport fan-specific variables (i.e., team identity, fan community identity, past satisfaction, and fan engagement).

However, the efficacy and usefulness of this Sport Fan MGB to explain the Millennials' sport consumption behavior remains uncertain in comparison to other well-known behavioral models that include the original MGB, TRA, and TPB. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter was to further validate the Sport Fan MGB by comparing to MGB, TPB, and TRA. To examine its relative effectiveness and efficiency, non-nested model comparison was conducted with AIC and R-square values (e.g., Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001) using (a) Millennial sample data ($n = 222$) and (b) the pooled data (i.e., Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials; $N = 603$). The results indicate that the Sport Fan MGB significantly increased variance explained over the original MGB. Specifically, it added more explanatory power to desire to engage in each behavior for both Millennials and the pooled sample. Therefore, the usefulness of the Sport Fan MGB in examining Millennial and general sport fan consumption behavior has been demonstrated.

Keywords: Millennial, sport marketing, fan consumer behavior, generation, Baby Boomers,

Generation X, MGB, TPB, TRA

Introduction

The model of goal-directed behavior (MGB; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001) extended the theory of reasoned action (TRA; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the theory of planned behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1991) by adding positive/negative anticipated emotion, desire, and past behavior. In Chapter 4, MGB was used to explore the critical factors that influence Millennial sport fan behavior. The ability of this model to explain consumption behavior has been demonstrated in psychology and marketing (e.g., Xie, Bagozzi, & Ostli, 2013). In addition, this model contains variables that are similar to the unique traits of Millennial sport fans. MGB contains anticipated positive and negative emotion and subjective norm.

Before the current study, MGB had not been used in the sport marketing context. Furthermore, the Sport Fan MGB includes more variables, such as past satisfaction, team identity, fan community identity, and fan engagement. Although the model fit results of the Sport Fan MGB for four Millennial sport fan behavioral intentions (i.e., event attendance, TV viewing, online activity participation, and social media activity participation), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM) were acceptable, and the variance explained values of three behavioral intentions were adequate (64% for event attendance, 70% for TV viewing, 75% for online activity participation), its efficiency remained questionable. There are other behavioral models such as MGB, TPB, and TRA those fairly well explained the volitional behaviors and could be adopted when examining Millennial sport fan behavior. Moreover, unlike the complex Sport Fan MGB, the other models are much more parsimonious so model comparison was necessary to validate the Sport Fan MGB and to suggest which model was the most appropriate model to explain Millennial sport fan behavior

Therefore, the purpose of this chapter was to validate the usefulness of the Sport Fan MGB in examining Millennial and general sport fan consumption behavior. Following the Perugini and Bagozzi's (2001) approach, the Sport Fan MGB was compared to MGB, TPB, and TRA to examine its relative effectiveness and efficiency with AIC and R-square values using the Millennial sample data ($n = 222$) and the pooled data (i.e., Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials; $N = 603$).

Literature Review

Development of MGB

MGB is an extension of TRA (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and TPB (Ajzen, 1991). TPB (Ajzen, 1991) is an extension of TRA that introduced perceived behavioral control. Among the three, TRA was developed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) to explain volitional behaviors.. Attitude toward behavior and subjective norms were the two predictors (see Figure 5.1) within the model. Attitude was defined as the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of a behavior. Although there is no direct emotional variable in the model, this attitude contained the emotional aspect toward the behavior. Subjective norms were defined as the belief that most people will approve or disapprove the behavior. Intention was referred to the motivational factor that directly influences the behavior.

TPB introduces a new construct, perceived control (see Figure 5.2), to increase the predictive power of TRA. Basically, this model is very similar to TRA except for the perceived control variable. Perceived control refers to a person's perception of the ease or difficulty of engaging in the behavior of interest. Later, perceived control was shown to predict behavior directly, for it was found to correspond to actual behavioral control (Ajzen & Madden, 1986).

Although TPB has been a popular model in predicting consumer behavior, it has received some criticism. One of the criticisms of TRA and TPB is that they do not incorporate emotional, social, and cultural processes when predicting human behavior (e.g., Xie, Bagozzi, & Ostli, 2013). A meta-analysis (Armitage & Conner, 2001) revealed that TPB accounted on average for 40% of the variance in intention and 29% of the variance in behavior. The numbers are quite efficient considering that TPB is a parsimonious model, but its sufficiency has been questioned (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). To address these problems, taking the theory broadening and theory deepening approach, Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) improved TPB by including positive/negative anticipated emotion, desire, and past behavior to suggest MGB (see Figure 5.3).

The first difference between TPB and MGB is that the latter includes anticipated emotion. Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) suggested that by adding anticipated emotion, the sufficiency of TPB would be improved, and many studies (e.g., Parker, Manstead, & Stradling, 1995; Richard, van der Pligt, & Vries, 1995) have shown that it is an important antecedent to explicate human decision making. Probably one of the biggest questions to emerge when adding anticipated emotion to the model is whether it would overlap with attitude toward behavior (also known as attitude toward act). But Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) insisted that they are conceptually different. Attitude is one's psychological tendency expressed by some degree of favor or disfavor with a certain object (e.g., Eagly & Chaiken, 1993) whereas anticipated emotion focuses not on "action" but on achievement of a personal goal that a person imagines. Also, attitude toward behavior arises from learning and experiences over a period of time in the past and, therefore, will show more consistency; anticipated emotion is more dynamic and can change depending on the context (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Another difference between the two concepts is the way they are measured. Because attitude is a degree of favor or disfavor, respondents are forced to

choose on a bipolar scale. However, to measure anticipated emotion, uni-polar emotional adjective-type items are used (Bagozzi, Baumgartner, & Pieters, 1998).

Next, desire was included in MGB. Some scholars have questioned whether attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control directly predict intention (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Most of the criticism basically suggests that there is a missing piece (i.e., latent factor) between the antecedent variables and intention. Some have argued that TPB fails to consider how the antecedents are energized that motivational content is needed to induce intention to act, and that desire can provide the motivational impetus for that intention (e.g., Bagozzi, 1992). So desire was included in MGB to represent the motivational state between antecedents and intention.

The last difference between TPB and MGB is the presence of past behavior in the latter. A meta-analysis study (Oullette & Wood, 1998) found robust evidence that the frequency of past behavior predicts both intention and future behavior. Also, the recency of behavior is included in the model, following Tversky and Kahneman (1974), who suggested that people will make judgments and decisions based on immediately available information.

Sport Fan MGB

In the current study, MGB was modified to fit the sport marketing context using a few more variables to help explain sport consumption: past satisfaction, fan engagement, team identity, and community identity (i.e., fan community identity) (see Figure 5.4). Customer satisfaction refers to a pleasurable fulfillment response toward a good, service, benefit, or reward (Oliver, 1997). Satisfaction has been identified as a significant predictor of future behavioral intention (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Kwon, Trail, & Anderson; 2005; Wakefield & Blodgett, 1996; Yoshida & James, 2010). Spectator sport is part of the entertainment industry, where customer satisfaction is directly related to the success of an organization. Furthermore, the

number of games played varies between sports, but to increase the chance that spectators will revisit a venue, sport organizations should increase the customer satisfaction (e.g., Wakefield & Blodgett, 1996; Yoshida & James, 2010).

Yoshida, Gordon, Makoto, and Biscaia (2014) defined fan engagement as “a sport consumer’s extrarole behaviors in nontransactional exchanges to benefit his or her favorite sport team, the team’s management, and other fans” (p. 403). Fan engagement has been theorized to be observable at the allegiance stage, when individuals commit to a sport team (Funk & James, 2001). Highly engaged sport fans show extrarole behaviors such as spreading positive WOM, displaying supportive behavior for their team (e.g., Swanson, Gwinner, Larson, & Janda, 2003), recruiting new customers, providing comments to help improve products, participating in new product development, and collaborating with other fans (Ahearne, Bhattacharya, & Gruen, 2005; Bettencourt, 1997; Füller, Matzler, & Hoppe, 2008). Millennials show high levels of engagement behavior with organizations in which they are interested (e.g., Bolton et al., 2013; Bucic, Harris, & Arli, 2012; Paulin, Ferguson, Jost, & Fallu, 2014), making fan engagement an important element to include in the Sport Fan MGB.

Next, team identity has received much attention from sport marketing researchers due to its ability to predict sport consumption and behavioral intention (e.g., Fink et al., 2009; Laverie & Arnett, 2000). Branscombe and Wann (1992) defined identification as the level of psychological attachment a sport fan feels towards one’s favorite team. As a sport fan becomes more affiliated with a team, identification with the team is likely to increase (Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Many studies have found that sport consumers identify with sport teams (e.g., Cialdini, Borden, Thorne, Walker, Freeman, & Sloan, 1976; Fisher & Wakefield, 1998). Ashforth and Mael (1989) and Fisher and Wakefield’s (1998) definition of team identity will be

used to distinguish it from fan community identity: one's psychological attachment to a team to the degree that a sport fan tends to treat that team's successes and failures as his or her own.

Lastly, community identity was added to the Sport Fan MGB. Although team identity and fan community identity both derive from social identity theory, team identity is more individualistic whereas fan community identity is collectivistic (Schau, Muniz, & Arnould, 2009). Individuals have a desire to belong to a particular community and behave according to that community's norms and values (Heere, Walker, Yoshida, Ko, Jordan, & James, 2011). To fulfill this desire, individuals seek out communities, suggesting that the social identity of individuals is formed by their perception of belonging to a community (i.e., community identity) (Ashmore, Deaux, & McLaughlin-Volpe, 2004). Due to the development of social networking services (SNS) through which brand community members can meet and share opinions, community members participate in collective consumption behaviors that enhance their community identity and organization-consumer relationships (Heere et al., 2011). These relationships have shown a significantly positive influence on consumption behavior (e.g., Homburg, Wieske, & Hoyer, 2009). In addition, Millennials use communication technology such as SNS to stay connected with others (e.g., Barker, 2012) who might increase community identity. Therefore, community identity was added to MGB to predict the behavioral intention of Millennial sport consumers more effectively.

Until the current study, MGB had not been validated in the sport marketing context. It is a complex model that includes positive/negative anticipated emotion, desire, and past behavior; however, the Sport Fan MGB is an even more complex model. Accordingly, the question of efficiency rises because MGB, TPB, and TRA are much more parsimonious models. To address this question, the Sport Fan MGB was compared to the more parsimonious MGB, TPB, and TRA.

Using two data sets (Millennials ($n = 222$) and the three generation combined ($N = 603$), the Sport Fan MGB was compared to MGB, TPB, and TRA with AIC (e.g., Kline, 2011) and R-square values (e.g., Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001) to examine relative effectiveness and efficiency in predicting event attendance, TV viewing, and online activity participation.

Methodology

Participants and Data Collection

The two data sets from Chapter 4 were used to compare the models. The data were collected from three generations (i.e., Millennials, Baby Boomers, and Generation X) via a crowd-sourcing web service (Amazon Mechanical Turk) using online self-administered surveys on Qualtrics. A total of 614 data were collected, but after eliminating 11 data that did not meet the filtering criteria, 603 were retained. Out of the 603, 139 were Baby Boomers, 242 were Generation X, and 222 were Millennials. The average age was 58.2 for Baby Boomers, was 35.6 for Generation X, 25.3 for Millennials. Notably, the average year increment was 22.6 between Baby Boomers and Generation X but only 10.3 between Generation X and Millennials. The Millennial sample in this study does not represent the entire Millennial population, only the Early-Early Millennials (born between 1986 and 1990; Markers, 2004).

Instruments

TRA contains two antecedents, attitude and subjective norms, that predicted behavioral intention.

Attitude. Attitude was measured using the 7-point semantic differential scale originally developed by Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (1957). The participants were asked to respond to the following statement: “On the following scales, please express your attitude toward

[behavior].” Three items were presented, anchored by “bad-good,” “harmful-beneficial,” and “unpleasant-pleasant.”

Subjective norms. Subjective norms were measured on a 7-point scale using the following two items: (a) “Most people who are important in my life think I (circle appropriate number): should 1: 2: 3: 4: 5: 6: 7: should not [behavior]” and (b) “Most people who are important to me would (circle appropriate number): approve of 1: 2: 3: 4: 5: 6: 7: disapprove of [behavior].”

Behavioral intention. Behavioral intention was measured for four sport fan behaviors in Chapter 4, but in the current chapter, social media activity participation was excluded because it was not found to be statistically significant within the sport fan MGB. Revisit intention and media consumption intention were rated using measures from Kim, Trail, and Ko (2011). A 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) was used. Online activity participation was also measured using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree).

TPB included one additional antecedent: perceived behavioral control. Originally, perceived control directly and indirectly (through intention) predicted behavior, but because the current study did not measure actual behaviors, it predicted only intention.

Perceived behavioral control. Perceived behavioral control was measured using the scales from Bagozzi, Dholakia, and Mookerjee (2006). Two items were measured on a 7-point scale. The first item was “How much control do you have over [behavior],” anchored by “no control” and “total control.” The second item was “For me [behavior] is,” anchored by “difficult” and “easy.”

In addition to the variables above, MGB included desire and anticipated emotion. Past behavior was not included in the current study.

Desire. Desire was measured using the scale from Perugini and Bagozzi (2001). Three items were used to measure desire to engage in the four behaviors: “I desire to [behavior]” and “I want to [behavior]” (followed by an 11-point scale anchored by “false” and “true”) and “My desire for [behavior]” (followed by choices of (a) “no desire,” (b) “very weak desire,” (c) “weak desire,” (d) “moderate desire,” (e) “strong desire,” and (f) “very strong desire”).

Anticipated emotion. Bagozzi et al.’s (1998) goal-directed emotions were used to measure sport fan anticipated emotion. This scale is commonly used when measuring goal-directed emotions and is therefore considered an appropriate scale to measure fan consumption intention. MGB used this scale as well (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Seven items of emotional adjectives were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by “not at all” and “very much.” Three positive anticipated emotion items were measured based on the statement “If I [behavior], I will feel [emotion].” Four negative anticipated emotion items were measured based on the statement “If I don’t [behavior], I will feel [emotion].”

Finally, in the Sport Fan MGB, four sport fan-specific variables, fan engagement, fan community identity, team identity, and past satisfaction were measured. All of these variables showed high predictability for behavioral intention.

Fan engagement. Fan engagement was measured using the scale from Yoshida, Gordon, Makoto, and Biscaia (2014). A reduced set of 6 items was measured using a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Fan community identity. Fan community identity was measured in the cognitive dimension (Bagozzi et al., 2006). The item from Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) is an 8-point

visual and verbal representation of an individual's perceived overlap between self-identity and group identity. One item from Bagozzi et al. (2006) and modified by stating, "indicate the degree to which your self-image overlaps the identity of your fan community as you perceive it," followed by a 7-point scale anchored by "not at all" and "very much."

Past satisfaction. Past satisfaction toward each behavior was measured using a modified version (so that previous satisfaction could be measured) of the scale from Yoshida and James (2010). The respondents were asked to recall the most recent sport consumption behavior in which they had engaged and respond. The scale consisted of two items rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree).

Team identity. The team identification scale from Trail and James (2001) was used to measure team identity. Three items with a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) were used.

Data Analysis

Before conducting model comparison, the hierarchical relationship between the models should be identified (Kline, 2011). There are two types of model comparison: 1) nested model comparison (also known as hierarchical models), and 2) non-nested model comparison (also known as nonhierarchical models). The most well-known model comparison method for the nested model is the chi-square difference test. For the non-nested model comparison, Akaike's Information Criterion values (AIC; Akaike, 1974) and R-squared values are compared between competing models. The criterion to select the better model is lower AIC and higher R-squared value. The current study compared the Sport Fan MGB, MGB, TPB, and TRA those are nonhierarchical models. Therefore a non-nested model comparison was conducted. Mplus 6 was used to conduct SEM to calculate the AIC and R-squared values for each model (TRA, TPB,

MGB, and the Sport Fan MGB) of the three behavioral intentions (i.e., event attendance, TV viewing, and online activity participation) for the Millennial sample and for the pooled sample. The AIC and R-squared values were compared to evaluate the relative predictive power and effectiveness of each model. In addition, chi-square, normed chi-square (χ^2/df ratio; ≤ 5 , Kline, 2011), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) (cut-off value of .90), Bentler's (1990) comparative fit index (CFI) (cut-off value of .90), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) (cut-off value of .06) were also examined to compare overall fit of the models.

Results

The results of the model comparison using the Millennial generation data ($n=222$) are presented in Table 5.1 – 5.3. Sport Fan MGB, MGB, TPB, and TRA models were compared for game attendance, TV watching, and online consumption behavior. For the game attendance behavior, the Sport Fan MGB ($\chi^2 = 883.40$; $df = 445$; χ^2/df ratio = 1.98; CFI = .923; TLI = .909; RMSEA = .067; AIC = 20836.33), MGB ($\chi^2 = 335.60$; $df = 153$; χ^2/df ratio = 2.19; CFI = .944; TLI = .930; RMSEA = .073; AIC = 12350.35), TPB ($\chi^2 = 83.82$; $df = 29$; χ^2/df ratio = 2.89; CFI = .960; TLI = .938; RMSEA = .092; AIC = 6471.74), and TRA model ($\chi^2 = 49.85$; $df = 17$; χ^2/df ratio = 2.93; CFI = .974; TLI = .957; RMSEA = .093; AIC = 4813.12) were compared. The variance explained for game attendance intention was 66% for the Sport fan MGB, 67% for MGB, 53% for TPB, and 37% for TRA. The variance explained for desire was calculated only for MGB and the Sport Fan MGB. The variance explained for attendance desire was .64 for the Sport Fan MGB and .56 for MGB (see Table 5.1).

For the TV watching behavior, the Sport Fan MGB ($\chi^2 = 821.29$; $df = 445$; χ^2/df ratio = 1.85; CFI = .933; TLI = .920; RMSEA = .062; AIC = 19253.43), MGB ($\chi^2 = 240.60$; $df = 153$; χ^2/df ratio = 1.57; CFI = .972; TLI = .965; RMSEA = .051; AIC = 10950.04), TPB ($\chi^2 = 25.94$;

$df = 29$; χ^2/df ratio = 0.89; CFI = 1.000; TLI = 1.003; RMSEA = .000; AIC = 5333.59), and TRA model ($\chi^2 = 16.78$; $df = 17$; χ^2/df ratio = 0.98; CFI = 1.000; TLI = 1.000; RMSEA = .000; AIC = 4048.99) were compared. The variance explained for TV viewing intention was 70% for the Sport fan MGB, 65% for MGB, 52% for TPB, and 33% for TRA. The variance explained for TV viewing desire was .64 for the Sport Fan MGB and .57 for MGB (see Table 5.2).

For the online consumption behavior, the Sport Fan MGB ($\chi^2 = 793.82$; $df = 445$; χ^2/df ratio = 1.78; CFI = .949; TLI = .940; RMSEA = .059; AIC = 20641.11), MGB ($\chi^2 = 232.92$; $df = 153$; χ^2/df ratio = 1.52; CFI = .981; TLI = .977; RMSEA = .049; AIC = 12307.49), TPB ($\chi^2 = 36.02$; $df = 29$; χ^2/df ratio = 1.24; CFI = .996; TLI = .994; RMSEA = .033; AIC = 6001.60), and TRA model ($\chi^2 = 20.11$; $df = 17$; χ^2/df ratio = 1.18; CFI = .998; TLI = .997; RMSEA = .014; AIC = 4657.49) were compared. The variance explained for online consumption intention was 75% for the Sport fan MGB, 73% for MGB, 34% for TPB, and 32% for TRA. The variance explained for online consumption desire was .66 for the Sport Fan MGB and .47 for MGB (see Table 5.3).

Next, the model comparison was conducted using the pooled data ($N=603$). Sport Fan MGB, MGB, TPB, and TRA models were compared for game attendance, TV watching, and online consumption behavior. For the game attendance behavior, the Sport Fan MGB ($\chi^2 = 1433.41$; $df = 445$; χ^2/df ratio = 3.22; CFI = .940; TLI = .929; RMSEA = .061; AIC = 50402.96), MGB ($\chi^2 = 498.77$; $df = 153$; χ^2/df ratio = 3.26; CFI = .966; TLI = .957; RMSEA = .061; AIC = 33154.93), TPB ($\chi^2 = 127.38$; $df = 29$; χ^2/df ratio = 4.39; CFI = .978; TLI = .966; RMSEA = .075; AIC = 17501.52), and TRA model ($\chi^2 = 95.63$; $df = 17$; χ^2/df ratio = 5.63; CFI = .981; TLI = .969; RMSEA = .088; AIC = 12908.36) were compared. The variance explained for game attendance intention was 66% for the Sport fan MGB, 67% for MGB, 53% for TPB, and 37% for TRA. The variance explained for desire was calculated only for MGB and the Sport Fan MGB. The

variance explained for attendance desire was .64 for the Sport Fan MGB and .56 for MGB (see Table 5.4).

For the TV watching behavior, the Sport Fan MGB ($\chi^2 = 1335.11$; $df = 445$; χ^2/df ratio = 3.00; CFI = .944; TLI = .934; RMSEA = .058; AIC = 50632.87), MGB ($\chi^2 = 436.35$; $df = 153$; χ^2/df ratio = 2.85; CFI = .970; TLI = .963; RMSEA = .055; AIC = 28210.77), TPB ($\chi^2 = 93.28$; $df = 29$; χ^2/df ratio = 3.22; CFI = .985; TLI = .977; RMSEA = .061; AIC = 13633.06), and TRA model ($\chi^2 = 61.50$; $df = 17$; χ^2/df ratio = 3.62; CFI = .988; TLI = .981; RMSEA = .066; AIC = 10282.52) were compared. The variance explained for TV viewing intention was 71% for the Sport fan MGB, 67% for MGB, 49% for TPB, and 33% for TRA. The variance explained for TV viewing desire was .70 for the Sport Fan MGB and .57 for MGB (see Table 5.5).

For the online consumption behavior, the Sport Fan MGB ($\chi^2 = 1405.99$; $df = 445$; χ^2/df ratio = 3.16; CFI = .950; TLI = .941; RMSEA = .060; AIC = 55537.62), MGB ($\chi^2 = 380.06$; $df = 153$; χ^2/df ratio = 2.48; CFI = .982; TLI = .977; RMSEA = .050; AIC = 32502.27), TPB ($\chi^2 = 73.13$; $df = 29$; χ^2/df ratio = 2.52; CFI = .992; TLI = .988; RMSEA = .050; AIC = 15855.98), and TRA model ($\chi^2 = 38.27$; $df = 17$; χ^2/df ratio = 2.25; CFI = .996; TLI = .994; RMSEA = .046; AIC = 12170.93), were compared. The variance explained for online consumption intention was 80% for the Sport fan MGB, 79% for MGB, 40% for TPB, and 36% for TRA. The variance explained for online consumption desire was .66 for the Sport Fan MGB and .49 for MGB (see Table 5.6).

Discussion

The purpose of this chapter was to validate the effectiveness of the Sport Fan MGB over MGB, TPB, and TRA. The overall model fit indices, the AIC values (the smaller the better model), and R-square values (the larger the better model) were examined to determine Sport Fan MGB's effectiveness and efficiency (e.g., Kline, 2011; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Overall

model fit results showed acceptable indices for all models, indicating all the models fit well with the data. The model comparison in the current research was non-nested model comparison therefore, AIC and R-square values were compared to examine the effectiveness of the Sport Fan MGB. AIC comparison results indicated TRA model is the best model for explaining sport fan behaviors for both Millennial and pooled data. However, as Kline (2011) noted AIC is a parsimony-adjusted index that favors simpler models. The number of variables used to test TRA in the current study was only 3, attitude, subjective norm, and intention. On the other hand, Sport Fan MGB contained 11 factors that predict sport fan behaviors. Therefore in the current study, not only the efficiency of the models were compared with AIC but the effectiveness and predictive power of the models were considered to validate the models. The results of R-square value comparison indicate that the Sport Fan MGB significantly increased variance explained over MGB. Specifically, it added explanatory power to the desire to engage in each behavior, not only for the Millennial sample but also for the pooled sample. For the Millennial sample ($n=222$), variance explained increased as from TRA to the Sport Fan MGB. The Sport Fan MGB explained approximately 1% less, 5% more, and 2% more of the variance than MGB for event attendance intention, TV viewing intention, and online activity participation intention, respectively. The variance explained for desire was calculated only for MGB and the Sport Fan MGB. The variance explained for attendance desire was .56 for MGB and .64 for the Sport Fan MGB. The variance explained for TV viewing desire was .57 for MGB and .64 for the Sport Fan MGB. Lastly, the R-squared value for online activity participation desire was .47 for MGB and .66 for the Sport Fan MGB. The Sport Fan MGB explained approximately 8% more, 7% more, and 19% more of the variance than MGB for event attendance, TV viewing, and online activity participation desire, respectively. Combining the numbers for desire and intention, the

Sport Fan MGB explained 7% more, 12% more, and 21% more of the variance than MGB for event attendance, TV viewing, and online activity participation, respectively.

For the pooled sample ($N=603$), variance explained increased from TRA to the Sport Fan MGB. The Sport Fan MGB explained approximately 1% less, 4% more, and 1% more of the variance than MGB for event attendance intention, TV viewing intention, and online activity participation intention, respectively. The Sport Fan MGB explained approximately 8% more, 13% more, and 17% more of the variance than MGB for event attendance, TV viewing, and online activity participation desire, respectively. Combining the numbers for intention and desire, the Sport Fan MGB explained 7% more, 17% more, and 18% more of the variance than MGB for event attendance, TV viewing, and online activity participation, respectively.

Desire functions within MGB as a motivator variable that mediates between antecedents and intention, this finding implies that the sport fan-specific antecedents in the Sport Fan MGB influenced fan motivation to engage in the behavior. And as Chapter 4 found, desire for the three behaviors significantly and positively predicted the respective behavioral intention, establishing the validity and efficiency of the Sport Fan MGB. Furthermore, the added variance explained for Millennial sport consumers (7%, 12%, and 21% more variance explained than MGB for event attendance, TV viewing, and online activity participation, respectively) and general sport consumers (7%, 17%, and 18% more variance explained than MGB for event attendance, TV viewing, and online activity participation, respectively) in the current study did not include variance in actual behavior. If the R-squared values for actual behaviors had been included, the total variance explained through the Sport Fan MGB might have been even greater. Therefore, the usefulness of the Sport Fan MGB in examining Millennial and general sport fan consumption behavior was demonstrated through this model comparison study.

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Table 5.1.
*Comparison of Sport Fan MGB to TRA, TPB, and MGB for Game Attendance Behavior Using
 Millennial Sport Fan Sample (n = 222)*

Model fit	Sport Fan MGB	MGB	TPB	TRA
Chi-square (<i>df</i>)	883.40(445)	335.60(153)	83.82(29)	49.85(17)
Chi-square/ <i>df</i>	1.98	2.19	2.89	2.93
CFI	.923	.944	.960	.974
TLI	.909	.930	.938	.957
RMSEA	.067	.073	.092	.093
AIC	20836.33	12350.35	6471.74	4813.12
R ²	.66 (.64)	.67(.56)	.53	.37

Note. (R²) is desire.

Table 5.2.
*Comparison of Sport Fan MGB to TRA, TPB, and MGB for TV Watching Behavior Using
 Millennial Sport Fan Sample (n = 222)*

Model fit	Sport Fan MGB	MGB	TPB	TRA
Chi-square (<i>df</i>)	821.29(445)	240.60(153)	25.94(29)	16.78(17)
Chi-square/ <i>df</i>	1.85	1.57	0.89	0.98
CFI	.933	.972	1.000	1.000
TLI	.920	.965	1.003	1.000
RMSEA	.062	.051	.000	.000
AIC	19253.43	10950.04	5333.59	4048.99
R ²	.70(.64)	.65 (.57)	.52	.33

Note. (R²) is desire.

Table 5.3.
Comparison of Sport Fan MGB to TRA, TPB, and MGB for Online Consumption Behavior Using Millennial Sport Fan Sample (n = 222)

Model fit	Sport Fan MGB	MGB	TPB	TRA
Chi-square (<i>df</i>)	793.82(445)	232.92(153)	36.02(29)	20.11(17)
Chi-square/ <i>df</i>	1.78	1.52	1.24	1.18
CFI	.949	.981	.996	.998
TLI	.940	.977	.994	.997
RMSEA	.059	.049	.033	.014
AIC	20641.11	12307.49	6001.60	4657.49
R ²	.75 (.66)	.73 (.47)	.34	.32

Note. (R²) is desire.

Table 5.4.
Comparison of Sport Fan MGB to TRA, TPB, and MGB for Game Attendance Behavior Using Pooled Sample (N = 603)

Model fit	Sport Fan MGB	MGB	TPB	TRA
Chi-square (<i>df</i>)	1433.41(445)	498.77(153)	127.38(29)	95.63(17)
Chi-square/ <i>df</i>	3.22	3.26	4.39	5.63
CFI	.940	.966	.978	.981
TLI	.929	.957	.966	.969
RMSEA	.061	.061	.075	.088
AIC	56402.96	33154.93	17501.52	12908.36
R ²	.70 (.62)	.71 (.54)	.58	.35

Note. (R²) is desire.

Table 5.5.
Comparison of Sport Fan MGB to TRA, TPB, and MGB for TV Watching Behavior Using Pooled Sample (N = 603)

Model fit	Sport Fan MGB	MGB	TPB	TRA
Chi-square (<i>df</i>)	1335.11(445)	436.35(153)	93.28(29)	61.50(17)
Chi-square/ <i>df</i>	3.00	2.85	3.22	3.62
CFI	.944	.970	.985	.988
TLI	.934	.963	.977	.981
RMSEA	.058	.055	.061	.066
AIC	50632.87	28210.77	13633.06	10282.52
R ²	.71 (.70)	.67 (.57)	.49	.33

Note. (R²) is desire.

Table 5.6.
Comparison of Sport Fan MGB to TRA, TPB, and MGB for Online Consumption Behavior Using Pooled Sample (N = 603)

Model fit	Sport Fan MGB	MGB	TPB	TRA
Chi-square (<i>df</i>)	1405.99(445)	380.06(153)	73.13(29)	38.27(17)
Chi-square/ <i>df</i>	3.16	2.48	2.52	2.25
CFI	.950	.982	.992	.996
TLI	.941	.977	.988	.994
RMSEA	.060	.050	.050	.046
AIC	55537.62	32502.27	15855.98	12170.93
R ²	.80 (.66)	.79(.49)	.40	.36

Note. (R²) is desire.

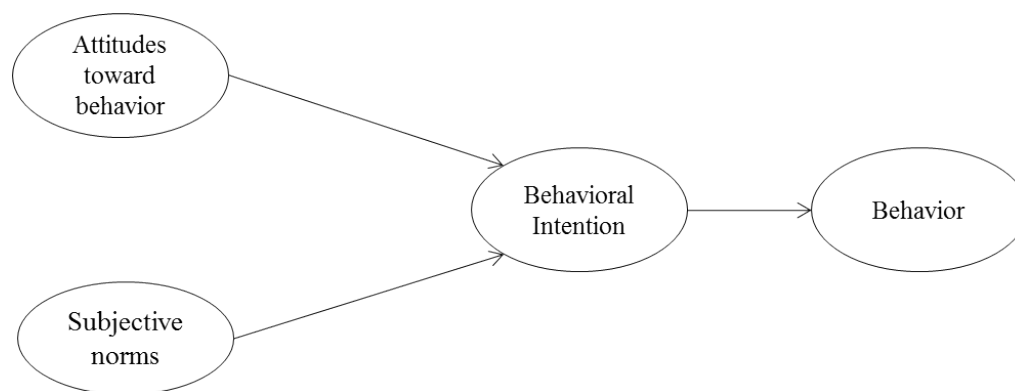


Figure 5.1. Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

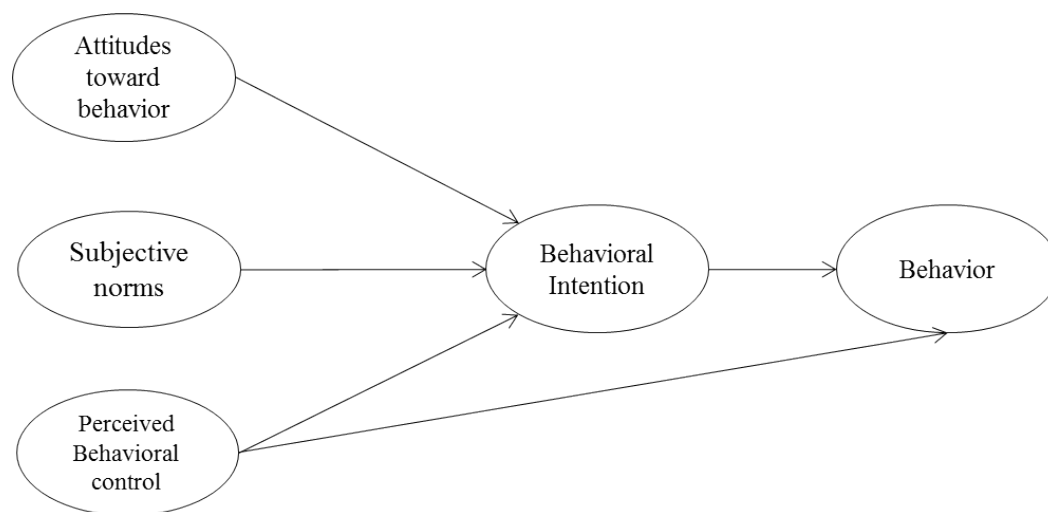


Figure 5.2. Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Madden, 1986).

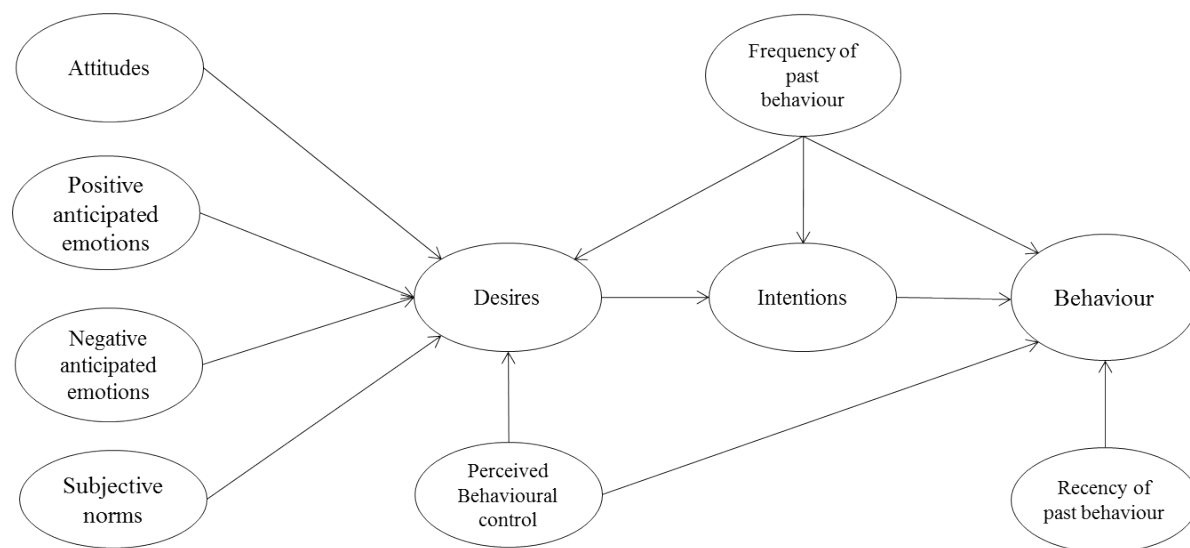


Figure 5.3. The model of goal-directed behavior (MGB; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

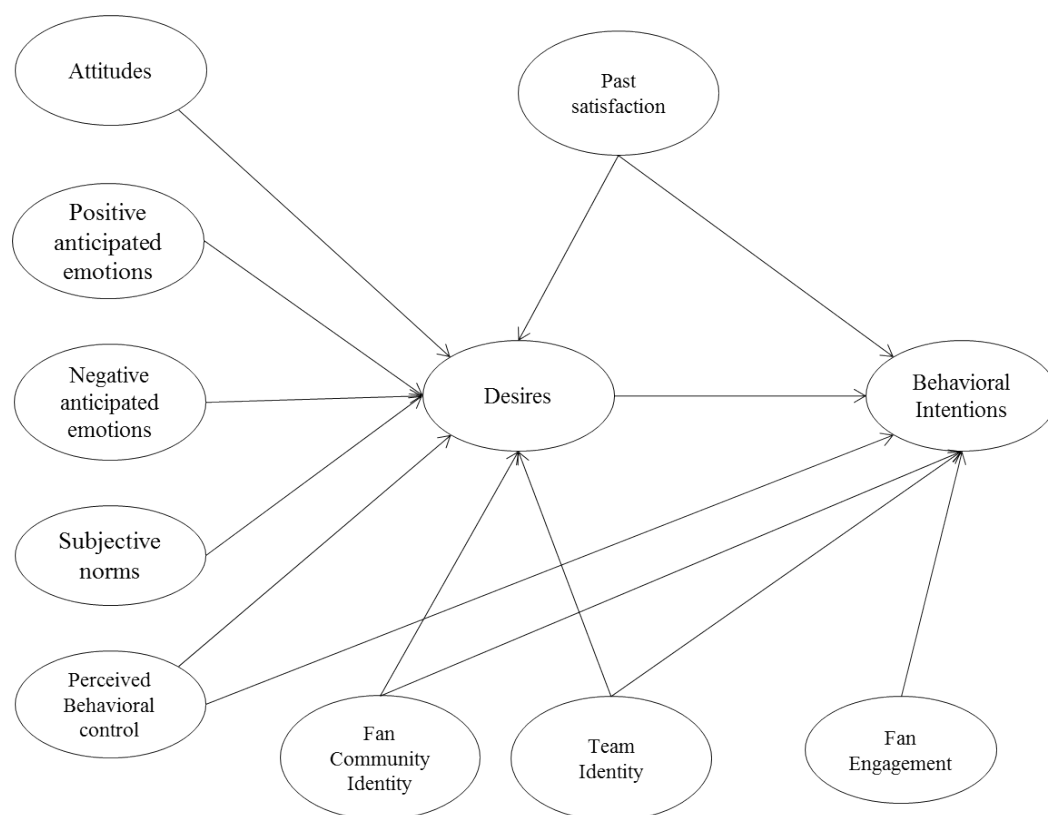


Figure 5.4. Sport Fan MGB.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Millennial consumers have become an important consumer group due to their population size, consumption power, and influence on other consumers' decision making (Fromm & Garton, 2013). Sport marketers in the field recognize the importance of Millennials and that knowing their needs and desires is critical to the future success of sport organizations. Although the results from Millennial consumer behavior research conducted in other academic disciplines provide some clues about the factors that influence Millennial sport fan behavior, sport products and sport consumers are unique (Gladden & Funk, 2002; Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007), suggesting that the traits that influence of Millennial sport fan consumption need to be explored. Yet few Millennial sport consumer studies have been conducted. In addition, there is not wide agreement about how to categorize Millennials, an important consideration in generational study.

To address these issues, three studies were conducted. The purposes of the first study (see Chapter 3) were (a) to identify the proper categorization standard to define sport generations and (b) to identify the unique consumption traits that influence Millennial sport fans behavior. The purpose of Study 2 (Chapter 4) was to test those unique traits empirically in a sport marketing context using the Sport Fan MGB. In Study 3 (Chapter 5) the efficiency of the Sport Fan MGB was validated by conducting a non-nested model comparison (vs. TRA, TPB, and MGB) using AIC and R-squared values.

Five unique Millennial consumption traits emerged through mixed method triangulation (i.e., extensive literature review, focus group interviews, and surveys; Greene, 2007): (a)

community-driven, (b) peer pressure-influenced, (c) emotional, (d) adamant that their voices be heard, and (e) technology-driven. Based on the findings, these unique traits are likely to influence Millennial sport fan behavior.

These unique Millennial traits and other significant sport fan-specific variables were tested in the Sport Fan MGB for four sport fan behaviors: (a) event attendance, (b) TV viewing, (c) team-related online activity participation, and (d) team-related social media activity participation. The Sport Fan MGB for Millennials better explained traditional sport fan behaviors such as event attendance and viewing events on TV than the relatively new sport fan behaviors such as online consumption and social media consumption. One possible reason that social media consumption was not well predicted using the Sport Fan MGB is that it is more likely a dependence behavior, one that satisfies surface-desires but ignores deeper needs (Wright, 2006). Millennial attitude toward the event, perceived control, positive anticipated emotion toward an event, past satisfaction, and team identity predicted, directly and indirectly via desire, event attendance. Millennial attitude toward viewing an event on TV, perceived control, past satisfaction, and team identity predicted, directly and indirectly via desire, TV viewing. These findings suggest that the Sport Fan MGB effectively predicted Millennial event attendance and TV viewing. The Millennials could consume social media habitually (e.g., Wang et al., 2015), when examining social media consumption using MGB, boundary condition of social media consumption should be considered. There may be two types of social media behavior: 1) habitual and 2) goal-directed. Habitual social media consumption involves following one's player on Twitter without any particular goal or deeper level motivation. On the other hand, goal-directed social media behavior has a particular goal such as supporting favorite team on the social

networking services or purchasing group discount ticket on the social media which could be better predicted through MGB than the habitual social media consumption.

Moreover, the moderating effect of generation on decision making was found for all four behaviors. Millennial team identity was more influential on event attendance desire and intention than the other generations. When Baby Boomer and Generation X sport fans made event attendance decisions, variables such as subjective norms, negative emotion, and fan engagement were more influential. Millennial fans were influenced more by subjective norms and perceived control when making TV viewing decision than the other generations. Social media participation results showed interesting generational differences. Millennials primarily used subjective norms, past satisfaction, and team identity to make social media consumption decisions. On the other hand, Baby Boomers and Generation X were influence more by attitude toward social media usage and community identity. This group difference indicates that Millennials participate in social media consumption regardless of attitude and fan community identity, but the other generations consumed social media when they had a positive attitude toward social media usage and when their fan community identity was high. The Sport Fan MGB was further validated through a model comparison and its efficiency and usefulness were demonstrated. This model could help sport researchers and practitioners reach a better understanding of Millennial and general sport fan consumption behavior. Nevertheless, there are several limitations of the current study and suggestions for future research. First, the usefulness of the Sport Fan MGB might be limited to the goal-directed behaviors of sport fans. Second, the Millennial sample population in the current study was limited to people who were born between 1986 and 1997 (Early-Early Millennials and Early-Late Millennials). Future studies should include Late-Early and Late-Late Millennials. Lastly, the existing subjective norm and community identity scales were adopted to

measure peer pressure and fan community identity, but to more precisely capture the importance of peer influence and social interaction, more accurate scale development is suggested.

In conclusion, despite some limitations, these studies were the first to develop the sport fan MGB to explore, identify, and test the unique traits that influence Millennial sport fan consumption behavior.

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Appendix A

FOCUS GROUP QUESTIONS

Engagement questions:

1. What is your favorite sport team?
2. What are your mode behaviors (such as buying tickets, watching, listening, etc.) to consume sport?

Exploration questions:

3. How does your identification to fan community (community-driven) influence on your sport consumption?
4. How do your emotions influence on your sport consumption?
5. How do you feel the peer pressure influence on your sport consumption behavior?
6. Do you want to contribute to your sport team by providing your opinion (adamant that their voices to be heard) and interacting with the team? If so how?
7. How does the technology influence on your sport consumption behavior?
8. How do you use online to conduct sport consumption behaviors (e.g., online community, online buying, SNS, Twitter, Instagram etc.) and what are the experiences?
9. What do you think your generations (Millennials) behave differently when consuming sport?

Exit questions:

10. Is there anything else you would like to say about your sport consumption behaviors as a Millennial sport fan?

Appendix B

MILLENNIAL SPORT CONSUMPTION SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Favorite team

1. Could you please identify your favorite team(s)? _____
2. How many teams do you think you are a fan of? _____
3. How many teams do you follow and check regularly? _____
4. Please indicate all the fantasy sport you regularly play (including March Madness)

5. Please indicate all the team message board/online community you regularly participate

6. How many teams/players do you follow on Twitter? _____
7. How many teams/players are you friend of on Facebook? _____

Past Behaviors

1. How often did you attend your favorite team's game this (or last season if the season is over for your team) season? 7-point Likert Type Scale (Never=1, Very often=7)
2. How many times have you attended your favorite team's game this (or last season if the season is over for your team) season? Actual number _____
3. What are is the primary source(s) you purchase your favorite team's ticket? Multiple choice: 1) ticket booth (office) 2) phone call 3) will call 4) official online ticket site (e.g., Ticketmaster, school's official site etc.) 5) secondary online ticket market (e.g., StubHub) 6) site such as craigslist 7) group ticket through fan community online site 8) ticket through social networking service (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, etc.) 9) Other _____
4. How much money did you spend for attending your favorite team's game last season (i.e., per year)? _____
5. How important is the social aspect when you attend your favorite team's game? 7-point Likert Type Scale (Not at all=1, Very much=7)
6. How often did you watch your favorite team's game this (or last season if the season is over for your team) season on TV? 7-point Likert Type Scale (Never=1, Very often=7)
7. How much times do you spend watching your favorite team's game this (or last season if the season is over for your team) season?
8. Please check all that apply.

I subscribe: 1) cable TV 2) satellite TV 3) uverse 4) internet TV 5) Netflix 6) directTV 7) Other _____

9. Indicate the degree to how much you agree with following statement.
I subscribe current TV contract mainly to watch Sport channels. 7-pont Likert Type Scale
(Totally wrong=1, Totally correct=7)
10. The primary media I watch favorite team is: (Multiple choice) 1) TV 2) Watch live on online streaming 3) Webpage (e.g., gametrack information) 4) Watch live on mobile phone 5) Twitter game updates 6) Other _____
11. How important is the social aspect when you watch your favorite team's game on TV? 7-pont Likert Type Scale (Not at all=1, Very much=7)
12. How much time do you spend on following (i.e., information search, online community activities, fantasy sport participation, etc.) your favorite team on online (excluding mobile usage) daily?
_____ hour(s)
13. How important is the social aspect when you participate in online activities (e.g., information search, online community activities, fantasy sport participation, etc.)? 7-pont Likert Type Scale (Not at all=1, Very much=7)
14. What are your primary (if any) social networking services you use to follow your team (or chat with your significant others)? Multiple choice: 1) Twitter 2) Facebook 3) Instagram 4) Whats App 5) Other _____
15. How much time do you spend on following (i.e., check scores via SNS, SNS such as twitter, chatting about your sport team/player with your significant others via SNS, etc.) your favorite team on Social Networking Service via mobile devices daily? _____ hour(s)
16. How important is the social aspect when you are involved in SNS activities (e.g., check scores via SNS, SNS such as twitter, chatting about your sport team/player with your significant others via SNS, etc.)? 7-pont Likert Type Scale (Not at all=1, Very much=7)
17. Do you think your favorite team had (or having) a successful season? 7-pont Likert Type Scale (Not at all=1, Very much=7)

Anticipated Emotions

Please imagine you made the decision to attend you favorite team's game. What would be your future emotions after the game?

Not at all	Moderate	Very
		much

Satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Regretful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please imagine you made the decision to watch your favorite team's game on TV. What would be your future emotions after the game?

	Not at all			Moderate			Very much
Satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Regretful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please imagine you made the decision to participate in online activities (e.g., information search, online community activities, fantasy sport participation, etc.) related to your favorite team. What would be your future emotions after the game?









	Not at all			Moderate			Very much
Satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Regretful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please imagine you made the decision to SNS activities (e.g., check scores via SNS, SNS such as twitter, chatting about your sport team/player with your significant others via SNS, etc.) related to your favorite team. What would be your future emotions after the game?

	Not at all			Moderate			Very much
Satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Regretful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Fan Community Identity Scale

Q. Indicate the degree to which your self-image overlaps the identity of your fan community as you perceive it

	Self	Fan community	
A			Far Apart
B			Close Together but Separate
C			Very Small Overlap
D			Small Overlap
E			Moderate Overlap
F			Large Overlap
G			Very Large Overlap
H			Complete Overlap

	not at			very			
	all			much			
Indicate the degree to which your self-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
image overlaps the identity of your fan							
community as you perceive it							

Fear Of Missing Out (FOMO) Adopted from Przybylski et al.'s 2013 scale

Below is a collection of statements about your fan experience. Using the scale provided please indicate how true each statement is of your general experiences. Please answer according to what really reflects your experiences rather than what you think your experiences should be. Please treat each item separately from every other item. 5-point Likert Type scale (Not at all true of me = 1; Slightly true of me = 2; Moderately true of me =3; Very true of me =4; Extremely true of me = 5)

1. I fear others have more rewarding fan experiences than me.
2. I fear my friends have more rewarding fan experiences than me.
3. I get worried when I find out my friends are having game related fun without me.
4. I get anxious when I don't know what my team is up to.
5. It is important that I understand my friends "in jokes" related to sport.
6. Sometimes, I wonder if I spend too much time keeping up with what is going on.
7. When I have a good time (with my team's game) it is important for me to share the details online (e.g. updating status).
8. When I go on vacation/break, I continue to keep tabs on what my friends are doing related to the sport team.

Fan Engagement adopted from Yoshida, Gordon, Makoto, and Biscaia (2014)

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	
I try to work cooperatively with my team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do things to make my team management easier	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The employees of my team get my full cooperation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I often interact with other fans to talk about issues related to my team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I often advise other fans to get better understanding of my team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I spend time on social media (e.g., facebook, twitter) sharing information with other fans of my team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I wear apparel which represents the fans of my team even if my favorite team has an unsuccessful season	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I display the logo of my favorite team on my clothing even if the team does not perform well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I wear clothing that displays the name of my favorite team even if the team has an unsuccessful season.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Demographic Questions

Are you:	Male	Female				
When were you born?						
Are you a:	Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	Senior	Graduate	Non-Student
Are you:	White	Asian	Hispanic or Latino	African American	Other: _____	
What is your annual income range	~\$20,000	\$20,001 – \$40,000	\$40,001 - \$60,000	\$60,001 - \$80,000	\$80,001 - \$100,000	\$100,001 -
How long do you have to drive to your team's game	Less than 30 minutes	31-60 minutes	1 – 2 hours	3 - 4 hours	More than 4 hours	

Appendix C

Sport Fan MGB Survey Questions for Millennial Sport Consumption Study

Attitude

On the following scales, please express your attitude toward:

Attending your favorite team's game

harmful						beneficial
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
unpleasant						pleasant
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
bad						good
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Watching your favorite team's game on TV

harmful						beneficial
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
unpleasant						pleasant
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
bad						good
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Participate in online activities (e.g., information search, online community activities, fantasy sport participation, etc.) related to your favorite team

harmful						beneficial
---------	--	--	--	--	--	------------

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
unpleasant						pleasant
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
bad						good
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SNS activities (e.g., check scores via SNS, SNS such as twitter, chatting about your sport team/player with your significant others via SNS, etc.) related to your favorite team

harmful						beneficial
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
unpleasant						pleasant
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
bad						good
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Anticipated Emotions

Please imagine you made the decision to attend you favorite team's game. What would be your future emotions after the game?

	Not at all			Moderate			Very much
Satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Regretful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Please imagine you made the decision to watch your favorite team's game on TV. What would be your future emotions after the game?

	Not at all			Moderate			Very much
Satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Regretful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please imagine you made the decision to participate in online activities (e.g., information search, online community activities, fantasy sport participation, etc.) related to your favorite team. What would be your future emotions after the game?

	Not at all			Moderate			Very much
Satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Regretful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please imagine you made the decision to SNS activities (e.g., check scores via SNS, SNS such as twitter, chatting about your sport team/player with your significant others via SNS, etc.) related to your favorite team. What would be your future emotions after the game?

	Not at all			Moderate			Very much
Satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Regretful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Subjective Norms Scale

Please express how strongly most people who are important to you feel you should or should not ATTEND your favorite team's game

	should			Should not			
Most people who are important in my life think I (circle appropriate number)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	approve of			disapprove of			
Most people who are important to me would (circle appropriate number)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please express how strongly most people who are important to you feel you should or should not WATCH your favorite team's game on TV

	should			Should not			
Most people who are important in my life think I (circle appropriate number)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	approve of					disapprove of	
Most people who are important to me would (circle appropriate number)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please express how strongly most people who are important to you feel you should or should not

PARTICIPATE in ONLINE ACTIVITIES related to your favorite team

	should					Should not	
Most people who are important in my life think I (circle appropriate number)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	approve of					disapprove of	
Most people who are important to me would (circle appropriate number)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please express how strongly most people who are important to you feel you should or should not

PARTICIPATE in Social Networking Service ACTIVITIES related to your favorite team

	should					Should not	
Most people who are important in my life think I (circle appropriate number)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	approve of					disapprove of	
Most people who are important to me would (circle appropriate number)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Perceived Behavioral Control

	No control					Total control	
How much control do you have over attending the game	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How much control do you have over watching the game on TV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How much control do you have over participating online activities related to your team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How much control do you have over participating SNS activities related to your team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	difficult						easy
For me attending the game is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
For me watching the game on TV is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
For me participating online activities related to my team is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
For me SNS activities related to my team is	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Desire

	false										true
I desire to attend my favorite team’s game	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
I desire to watch the game on TV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
I desire to participate online activities related to my team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
I desire to participate SNS activities related to my team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
I want to attend my favorite team’s game	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
I want to a watch the game on TV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
I want to participate online activities related to my team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
I want to participate SNS activities related to my team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	no desire		very weak desire		weak desire		moderate desire		strong desire		very strong

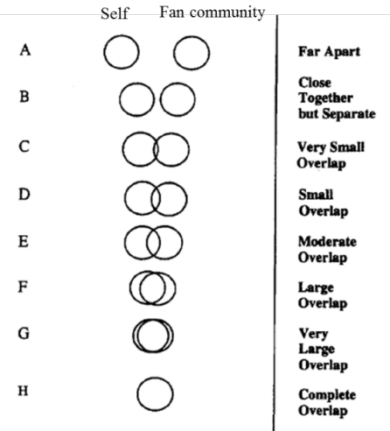
	desire					
My desire for attending my favorite team's game	1	2	3	4	5	6
My desire for watching the game on TV	1	2	3	4	5	6
My desire for participating online activities related to your team	1	2	3	4	5	6
My desire for participating SNS activities related to your team	1	2	3	4	5	6

Team Identification Scale

	Totally wrong						Totally Correct
I am a loyal (name of the team) fan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to let people know that I am a (name of the team) fan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Win, or lose, I will always be a (name of the team) fan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Fan Community Identity Scale

Q. Indicate the degree to which your self-image overlaps the identity of your fan community as you perceive it



	not at							very
	all							much
Indicate the degree to which your self-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
image overlaps the identity of your fan								
community as you perceive it								

Satisfaction Scale

	Strongly							Strongly
	Disagree							Agree
You t were satisfied with the game you experienced at this stadium.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
You were happy with the game you experienced at this stadium	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
You were satisfied with the TV watching you experienced with your favorite team’s game	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
You were happy with the TV watching you experienced with your favorite team’s game	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

You were satisfied with the online activities related to your team you experienced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
You were happy with the online activities related to your team you experienced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
You were satisfied with the SNS activities related to your team you experienced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
You were happy with the SNS activities related to your team you experienced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Fan Engagement adopted from Yoshida, Gordon, Makoto, and Biscaia (2014)

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
I try to work cooperatively with my team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do things to make my team management easier	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The employees of my team get my full cooperation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I often interact with other fans to talk about issues related to my team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I often advise other fans to get better understanding of my team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I spend time on social media (e.g., facebook, twitter) sharing information with other fans of my team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I wear apparel which represents the fans of my team even if my favorite team has an unsuccessful season	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I display the logo of my favorite team on my clothing even if the team does not perform well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I wear clothing that displays the name of my favorite team even if the team has an unsuccessful season.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Behavioral Intention Scale

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
I intend to attend the (Team Name)'s game(s)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The likelihood that I will attend the (Team Name)'s game(s) in the future is high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will attend the (Team Name)'s game(s) in the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to watch the (Team Name)'s game(s) on TV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The likelihood that I will watch the (Team Name)'s game(s) on TV in the future is high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will watch the (Team Name)'s game(s) on TV in the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to participate in Online activities related to the (Team Name)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The likelihood that I will participate in Online activities related to (Team Name) in the future is high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I will participate in Online activities related to the (Team Name) in the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to participate in SNS activities related to the (Team Name)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The likelihood that I will participate in SNS activities related to (Team Name) in the future is high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will participate in SNS activities related to the (Team Name) in the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Demographic Questions

Are you:	Male	Female				
When were you born?						
Are you a:	Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	Senior	Graduate	Non-Student
Are you:	White	Asian	Hispanic or Latino	African American	Other: _____	
What is your annual income range	~\$20,000	\$20,001 – \$40,000	\$40,001 - \$60,000	\$60,001 - \$80,000	\$80,001 - \$100,000	\$100,001 -
How long do you have to drive to your team's game	Less than 30 minutes	31-60 minutes	1 – 2 hours	3 - 4 hours	More than 4 hours	