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Rivalry in Sport Understanding Fan Behavior and Organizations

Cody T. Havard

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*To my family, Kristin, Harrison, Lincoln, and Begley. Keep working,
dreaming, and singing. Never lose your imagination!*

PREFACE

Sport holds a special place in society, and competition and rivalry are important facets of sport. In my research on rivalry, I have been fortunate enough to observe fan behavior through interviews and quantitative investigation. Through these ventures, I have made five primary observations.

First, fan and group behavior is a fascinating area of inquiry, as Daniel Wann, Ph.D., once told me, if 100 people were asked why they consume sport, you would get 100 different answers. The study of fandom and rivalry has been an interesting and worthwhile area of investigation for me, and I hope to share my passion with others and encourage others to inquire in this area through this book.

Second, the investigation into rivalry and what it means to fans and group members is relatively new, with most of the work in the area being published over the last decade. This means that more researchers are needed to investigate and better understand the phenomenon. This book was written to try and help researchers, academics, and practitioners wanting to engage in this line of inquiry.

Third, it is important that valid and reliable measures are presented to assist those researching and investigating rivalry and its influence on sport fans and group members. This book discusses several instruments that have been used to measure fandom and rivalry.

Fourth, scientific investigation is a never-ending pursuit, and the search for information and answers is many times more enjoyable than containing

answers. In the pursuit of knowledge, researchers should build on the work of others in a constant attempt to advance understanding in an area of inquiry. This book is written in this spirit and hopes to further engage people with the subject area and encourage readers to ask questions and seek answers.

Fifth and finally, in our society, gaining a better understanding of rivalry and group behavior helps shape knowledge about the human condition. It is the hope that through more information, we as a society can better understand each other and be able to engage in more positive relationships and actions toward others.

These five observations have shaped much of my research into the rivalry phenomenon, which started with college sport and has advanced to include professional and international sport, the responsible promotion of rivalry and competition, teaching readers about rivalry and appropriate group member behavior, and rivalry in and out of the sport setting. This book is written in the spirit of sharing information and encouraging others to build on previous work so that we all can better understand how people interact with others in an attempt to improve our society. May the work presented in this book be used as either a launching point, rest area, or stepping stone by others in seeking answers to our pressing questions.

I hope you enjoy and thank you for playing along!

Memphis, USA

Cody T. Havard, Ph.D.

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Cody T. Havard, Ph.D.

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ABBREVIATIONS

AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BIRGing	Basking In Reflected Glory
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CI	Confidence Intervals
GAM	General Aggression Model
GORFing	Glory Out of Reflected Failure
MANCOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Covariance
MLR	Maximum Likelihood Estimation with Robust Standard Errors
MTurk	Amazon Mechanical Turk
OAP	Out-group Academic Prestige
OIC	Out-group Indirect Competition
OP	Out-group Prestige
OS	Out-group Sportsmanship
Pac 12	Pacific 12 Conference
SIT	Social Identity Theory
SLT	Social Learning Theory
SoS	Sense of Satisfaction
SRFPS	Sport Rivalry Fan Perception Scale
SSIS	Sport Spectator Identification Scale
THI	Team Identification Index
U.S.	United States
VDT	Voodoo Doll Task
WAC	Western Athletic Conference

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Cody T. Havard

Abstract This chapter introduces readers to the content and format of the text. It previews the chapters of the book and discusses how various readers can best utilize information in the book. For example, the chapter discusses the chapters and topics that students, researchers, and practitioners can use to inform their views and understanding of rivalry. Further, the chapter seeks to peak interest in the study of rivalry and group behavior in readers and welcomes readers to the wonderful journey of investigating and better understanding group behavior.

Keywords Rivalry · Sport fans · Research · Social Identity Theory · Group behavior

Sport in our society takes on many important roles. For people choosing to play, it enables people to participate in physically active competitions, even elevating a select few to heights which benefit them financially. Further, sport practitioners frequently like to communicate the many positive outcomes associated with sport participation, such as learning to face adversity, play within a team setting (even for some playing sports

such as tennis and golf), and learn important lessons about preparation and critical thinking (Coakley, 2009).¹

For people that consume sport, sport fans, following a sport and team, present both positive and negative outcomes. For example, following a team can help people socialize and acclimate to their environments (Wann & Robinson, 2002). Additionally, identifying with a sport team can alleviate feelings of loneliness or depression (Branscombe & Wann, 1991). Placing oneself into an identified group based on what that membership communicates about an individual is known as social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978). Typically, individuals chose to associate with groups in which they currently or desire to share characteristics. For example, in sport, if someone sees themselves as hardworking, they may choose a team that exemplifies a *blue collar* ethic such as the Pittsburgh Steelers or Nebraska Cornhuskers (Aden, 2008).

Sport is also a consumer product that many people in society enjoy. Sport is consumed through attendance, participation, watching on television or the Internet, reading content, and wearing and purchasing merchandise of favorite teams, leagues, and sports. An important part of the consumer product that is sport is the competition between players and fans (Kilduff, Elfenbein, & Staw, 2010), and how such competition impacts fans. For instance, the competition between players and teams allows supporters of those entities to vicariously compare with others. This comparison is the crux of rivalry within the sport context. As such, rivalry influences many aspects of sport and the consumer product known as spectator sport. This book focuses on the rivalry phenomenon in the sport setting and offers readers with key findings and tools to help further understand how the simple identification with a sport team influences the disparate way groups and individual perceive and treat others. The rest of the introductory chapter provides brief descriptions of the chapters and topics covered throughout the rest of the book. Further, this introduction also informs readers of issues such as the various stakeholders that could utilize the information in this text along with the best ways to use this text.

¹Conversely, some academics have argued that sport may not present the types of positive outcomes, or to the degree advertised by practitioners (Merkel, 2013).

CHAPTERS AND TOPICS

Chapter 2 introduces readers to the rivalry phenomenon by providing an in-depth literature review of the subject, from within and outside of the sport setting. Additionally, the chapter discusses the role of the sport organization in properly and responsibly promoting rivalry in a way that increases fan and consumer engagement while trying to avoid also increasing animosity, deviance, and potential violence among team supporters. The chapter also provides examples of responsible and irresponsible promotion of rivalry among teams. Chapter 3 introduces readers to the Sport Rivalry Fan Perception Scale (SRFPS: Havard, Gray, Gould, Sharp, & Schaffer, 2013), an instrument that measures how fans perceive rival teams and supporters. The chapter also illustrates how the instrument is used to measure fan perceptions of rival teams in different situations. Specifically, the chapter investigates contact hypothesis by comparing rival perceptions between fans that have visited the city or university where a rival team plays for reasons other than a sport competition with fans that have not visited for reasons other than sport competition. From there, the chapter then transitions into an investigation of how relative proximity influences rival perceptions by examining fans of the Colorado Buffaloes, Colorado State Rams, and Wyoming Cowboys, three teams that all compete in collegiate football in the United States and are located reasonably close to each other.

Chapter 4 introduces Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORFing), a term that explains how some fans cheer and celebrate when a rival team loses to someone other than their favorite team (Havard, 2014). The indirect failure of a rival group is something that can make in-group members feel better about their group, and thereby, better about themselves. The chapter discusses a modified instrument to measure GORFing and examines how the phenomenon influences fan consumption of favorite team merchandise. Chapter 5 presents a call to action for practitioners and researchers on future ways to promote and investigate rivalry. It is imperative that both practitioners and researchers gain more understanding of the rivalry phenomenon and seek ways to decrease the occurrences of derogations and overly negative interactions between competing group members.

Chapter 6 introduces readers to Sport Rivalry Man and the Sport Rivalry Man Curriculum. The curriculum was created in an effort to teach the public about the rivalry phenomenon and was developed

with the primary focus that education leads to increased understanding and positive influence on behavior. At this time, five lessons in the curriculum package have been produced using standards set by the American School Counselor Association (ASCA). Specifically, lessons currently address issues important to young readers such as online and school bullying, kindness/acceptance, decision making, and teamwork. Chapter 7 provides a conclusion to the materials discussed in the book and provides researchers and practitioners with additional streams of research and inquiry.

HOW TO USE THIS BOOK

This text is presented in a way so that it adds support to researchers, practitioners, and students within and outside of the sport setting. This section discusses the key audiences for this book and how to best utilize the text. Chapters within this text are written in a fashion that one could read the text from beginning to end and see the story of how rivalry influences fan and group member behavior. In this approach, people reading the text first learn about what rivalry is and how organizations should be responsible for the healthy promotion of rivalry, before being introduced to concepts that help explain how rivalry influences fans and group members, before reading a call to action regarding the future study of the phenomenon, and learn about a creative way to teach group member behavior to audiences. This text is also written so that chapters can represent stand-alone chapters or studies, with each entry containing background literature, discussion, and future study recommendations. In that regard, readers can utilize individual chapters based on their interests and needs. For each group discussed below, readers would of course find interest and helpful information throughout the text, but additional ideas for reading the text are also presented.

Students

The text provides students in fields such as sport management, psychology, sociology, marketing, general management, and education with information about what causes group members to view others differently. The book really tells a story that should help students in various areas better understand how rivalry is formed, and how it influences group member perceptions and behaviors. For example, a student

enrolled in a sport management, marketing, or general management class can read Chapters 2 and 5 for an overview of important information valuable to someone wanting to deliver consumer goods and services as they focus on the proper and responsible way to promote competition while trying to decrease out-group animosity. Additionally, students enrolled in psychology and sociology would likewise find Chapters 2 and 5 useful, along with Chapter 6 and potentially Chapter 3. Students in education classes would potentially find Chapters 2, 5, and 6 helpful in understanding group member behavior, and ways to help decrease negativity and teach appropriate group interaction. Students interested in research methods, in all areas, would find Chapters 3 and 4 helpful in explaining how the scientific method has been used to examine rivalry and group member behavior, along with Chapter 2 for background on the phenomenon, and Chapters 5 and 7 for future avenues of research.

Researchers

People working in academia or researching within organizations are best to read the book as a reference piece meant to assist in the investigation of fan behavior and rivalry in and out of the sport settings. For example, the two rivalry scales discussed in the book (Sport Rivalry Fan Perception Scale and Glory Out of Reflected Failure) have been used in both sport and non-sport settings. Researchers and academics will find most chapters in the book as useful references in their research. In particular, Chapter 2 provides a review of rivalry and group behavior, which can help researchers when gathering preliminary information for investigations. Chapters 3 and 4 provide blueprints for using two scales developed and validated to measure rivalry and group behavior. Specifically, Chapter 3 illustrates how the Sport Rivalry Fan Perception Scale can be used to investigate how people view an out-group and out-group members, and Chapter 4 uses the Glory Out of Reflected Failure to measure fan behavior and reactions to rival's indirect failure. Chapters 5 and 7 provide additional avenues for future study that may help researchers identify questions that should be addressed to better understand fan and group behavior.

Practitioners

Like students, practitioners can utilize the book as a way to learn about how competition influences consumers and how to better offer products and services to customers. In particular, Chapters 2 and 5 provide important insight into promoting rivalry and competition in a healthy manner to increase consumer engagement while working to decrease out-group negativity. Further, Chapters 6 and 7 provide practitioners with a curriculum to teach positive group member behavior (Chapter 6) and future directions of rivalry (Chapter 7). In particular, practitioners working with youth could utilize the Sport Rivalry Man Curriculum from Chapter 6, along with Chapters 2 and 5 to better understand group member behavior. Practitioners with a vested interest in understanding how rivalry is measured would find Chapters 3 and 4 particularly interesting and helpful.

This book was written to help stakeholders better understand rivalry and how it can influence fan and group member behavior. Because the chapters are written about specific topics investigations, readers can use individual chapters or the whole text to help form questions, design investigations, and present answers. One final word of introduction, this book is written in the spirit of research and understanding being ever evolving, and research building upon previous findings like stones of a wall or bricks of a house, presenting fascinating results and fostering interesting ideas and discussion along the way.

Thank you for taking this journey with me, and enjoy the ride!

Cody T. Havard, Ph.D.

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What is Rivalry and Where We Go From Here

Cody T. Havard

Abstract Of the many ways, sport can positively impact individuals and society as a whole, it also possesses the ability to separate people into groups, with an unfortunate side effect being in-group bias and out-group derogation. This chapter provides an overview of the rivalry phenomenon and discusses an organization's role in responsibly promoting rivalry. Sport managers and researchers have to collectively engage in open dialogue to find solutions to some of the negative consequences of rivalry. If sport truly is a catalyst for bringing people from diverse backgrounds together, managers and researchers must look at practices and work toward providing solutions that can not only help the sport product, but ultimately provide a positive influence on society as a whole.

Keywords Rivalry · Fan behavior · In-group bias · Out-group derogation · Responsible promotion

At this time in society, supporters of competing groups, whether that be political parties, religious ideology, racial makeup, and others, seem to be separating from each other at a rapid rate.¹ When, as a group member,

¹Recent findings in television viewership and politics suggest that people are possibly less divided on major issues (Blakely et al., 2019). However, in the age of social media, and with personalities on social media drawing distinct lines between groups and ideology, one may not see this in their everyday lives.

one can consume similar viewpoints and consume differing perspectives with the primary goal of attacking the source, most people choose not to engage in respectable discourse with someone outside of their perceived group (Leetaru, 2018). Further, with the increasing popularity of using online social media and non-face-to-face communication, people don't have to interact with those they disagree with, and instead can only engage with people who share their characteristics or ideology (Nelson, 2014). As this behavior continues, it becomes increasingly difficult to bring people of diverse backgrounds, beliefs, and ideologies together. To this end, managers like to promote sport as a medium that can bring people together. Therefore, this perspective discusses the issue of sport fans and rivalry, and its potential impact on the sport setting and society.

Sport can do many things for individuals, such as provide feelings of belonging to a group (Festinger, 1954; Wann, 2006a, 2006b), feelings of vicarious achievement through a team's victory (Bandura, 1977), ability to meet others (Wann, Brame, Clarkson, Brooks, & Waddill, 2008), and opportunities to share characteristics with other group members (Tajfel, 1981). In that, sport possesses the capacity to bring people together, which is a popular sentiment used in popular media and in the public sector. However, sport also has the capacity to highlight differences between groups, real or perceived, which is usually the case between teams that identify as rivals. Because sport brings head-to-head competition, it places two groups of opposing sides in face-to-face comparison.

Rivalry is synonymous with sport, and more attention has been paid to the phenomenon in the past decade. Rivalry is different from mere competition in that the participants (e.g., players, coaches, fans) place higher importance on the relationship and treat outcomes as part of a narrative that includes past and future competitions (Converse & Reinhard, 2016). Because rivalry is a popular phenomenon in sport, managers have used it to promote the sport product.² Additionally, rivalry carries many positive consequences that have been, and should be, used by managers to promote the sport product.³ However, much like in politics where two candidates and their supporters compete head to head can lead to group members interacting with each other in negative ways, sport

²Rivalry positively influences fan consumption (Havard, Shapiro, & Ridinger, 2016; Mahony & Moorman, 1999; Sanford & Scott, 2016; Wann et al., 2016).

³Rivalry increases feelings of uniqueness (Berendt & Uhrich, 2016; Berendt, Uhrich, & Thompson, 2018) and group cohesion (Delia, 2015; Smith & Schwartz, 2003).

unfortunately has the ability to produce the same outcomes. These group differences are most prominently on display in sport when teams identified as rivals are competing as the symbiotic competitive nature of rival and competing teams does not always spill over to fans.⁴ If sport is in fact an avenue to bring people together, we must analyze and better understand when rivalry rises to a level that could, and sometimes does, result in deviance and fan aggression.

This chapter serves three purposes. First, an overview of the current knowledge on the rivalry phenomenon is presented, including a discussion of what constitutes a rival and a rival competition, so that researchers and managers can better understand fan rivalry and behavior between group members. This understanding is important because it can drive future study and also help managers plan for contests between rival teams and fan groups. Second, a discussion of an organization's role in developing and promoting rivalry, including examples of responsible and irresponsible promotion of rivalry by sport organizations. The aim of this discussion is to provide readers with guidance regarding how rivalry competitions, and the rivalry phenomenon, should be promoted in an effort to gain the positive consequences of rivalry while working to avoid some of the negative outcomes such as fan deviance and violence. Finally, this perspective serves as a call to action for researchers and practitioners regarding future avenues to better understand rivalry among fans. This is important as researchers and practitioners have to work together to better understand and promote rivalry in sport.

At this time, a note of clarification regarding the use of managers, researchers, and practitioners is offered. Managers are used to describe all working in the sport field, regardless of profession, whereas researchers and practitioners are used to distinguish between those in academia and in the front office. If sport, as many claim, is a catalyst for bringing diverse individuals and groups together, then managers must take a constructive and critical look inward and examine where our field can improve. In that, we must identify the problem and discuss ways to address the issue through both research and practice. One such area is the way that rivalry is used to promote the sport product, as doing so in an irresponsible manner can work to negate much of the positive outcomes sport claims to provide society.

⁴Teams that compete during games also have to work together toward a common goal of attaining success for the league (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2014).

FANDOM AND FAN RIVALRY

A sport fan can be described as someone who feels she/he has a personally important connection to a sports team (Wann, Melnick, Russell, & Pease, 2001). Individuals identify with sport teams for numerous reasons (Wann, 1995) and typically do so in hope that the team will in some way reflect positively on herself/himself (Tajfel, 1974; Tajfel & Turner, 1979).⁵ To this end, fans can adopt and celebrate the characteristics of a chosen group (Ashmore, Deaux, & McLaughlin-Volpe, 2004; Crocker & Luhtanen, 1990), which in turn can positively impact an individual's socio-psychological well-being (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Wann, 2006b; Wann et al., 2008). Further, an individual's affinity for a team fluctuates throughout their life cycle based on personality traits and significant events (Brown-Devlin, Devlin, & Vaughn, 2017; Devlin & Brown, 2017; Funk, 2008; Toma, 2003),⁶ which makes fan engagement all the more important for sport organizations and managers.

The innate human characteristic to believe one is successful (Bandura, 1977; Crocker & Park, 2004; Deci, 1975) not only leads individuals to seek positive attributes of the self that can be used to compare to others (Madrigal, 1995; Turner, 1975), it also influences individuals to highlight successes and failures based on group affiliation (Tajfel, 1978). In short, when members of rival groups interact (Sherif, 1966), they tend to display bias toward the in-group and derogation toward the out-group (Rubin & Hewstone, 1998; Tajfel, 1978). While it is true that comparison between two groups can be healthy, it is also the case that out-group negativity can turn into aggression and deviant behavior if not properly controlled (Lee, 1985; Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood, & Sherif, 1961),⁷ leading for calls of responsible promotion of rivalry competitions and relationships (Dalakas & Melancon, 2012; Havard, Gray, Gould, Sharp, & Schaffer, 2013; King, 2014).

⁵For example, someone who sees themselves as a hard worker may want to identify with teams sharing that blue-collar or hardworking mentality (Aden, 2008; Kohan, 2017).

⁶Proximity to a team, ties to an alma mater, family structure, change in financial resources can all influence identification and consumption of a team.

⁷For example, a healthy comparison among rival fans would be family members ribbing each other about their preferred teams. Unhealthy behavior would be the family members becoming upset and displaying negativity toward each other based on the teams they follow.

Definitions, Antecedents, and Characteristics of Rivalry

The rivalry phenomenon has commonly been discussed within social identity theory (SIT), or the belief that membership in a group tells something about someone on a private and public level (Tajfel, 1981). SIT helps explain the associative tendencies people display based on perceived success and failure of a team (Cialdini et al., 1976; Snyder & Fromkin, 1980; Snyder, Lassegard, & Ford, 1986) in an attempt to protect image and self-esteem (Madrigal, 1995; Vohs & Heatherton, 2001). Further, because fans that share a strong bond with a team have a more difficult time after a team's loss (Wann & Branscombe, 1990), they may try to find ways to derogate an opponent (Cialdini & Richardson, 1980) or focus on attributes in which their team is superior to a competitor (Bernache-Assollant, Chantal, Bouchet, & Kada, 2018).

In sport, when the phenomenon of rivalry is addressed, many different definitions have been used (Table 2.1). Further, there are also several tested characteristics and antecedents of rivalry that have been offered such as competition, proximity, parity, competition for personnel, cultural similarities and differences, and perceived fairness (Kilduff, Elfenbein, & Staw, 2010; Tyler & Cobbs, 2015). It is sometimes difficult to tell between a competition and a rivalry competition, in which these characteristics, antecedents, and definitions can be used to help clarify. Within social psychology, rival competitions are discussed as those competitions that are *embedded* in group members' psyches (Converse & Reinhard, 2016; Kilduff et al., 2010). Further, three key qualities of rivalry are their subjective nature, dependence on shared history, and that they carry consequences for those engaged, either directly or vicariously with the competition. These qualities thus separate a rival game from others. In short, teams that are rivals share a competitive history in which members of both groups see the relationship being influenced by previous games while looking at how current outcomes will impact the legacy of their favorite teams along with the rivalry.

It is also important to note that fans play a large role in deciding who to identify as a rival. In fact, in most studies on the subject, fans identify teams they see as biggest rival rather than report on one a priori. Because individuals feel an inherent need to identify a rival (Havard & Eddy, 2013), they often identify multiple teams in which to compare (Wann

Table 2.1 Definitions/Descriptions of rivalry, rival groups, and rival competitions

<i>Source</i>	<i>Consequence of Rivalry</i>
Kilduff et al. (2010, p. 945)	A subjective competitive relationship that an actor has with another actor that entails increased psychological stakes of competition for the focal actor, independent of the objective characteristics of the situation
Havard, Gray et al. (2013, p. 51)	A fluctuating adversarial relationship, existing between two teams, players, fans, or groups of fans, gaining significance through on-field competition, on-field or off-field incidences, proximity, demographic makeup, and/or historical occurrence(s)
Tyler & Cobbs (2015, p. 230)	A rival group is a “highly salient out-group that poses an acute threat to the identity of the in-group or to the in-group members’ ability to make positive comparisons between their group and the out-group”
Converse & Reinhard (2016, p. 193)	A rival competition is “one in which the images of self and other are represented in the context of competition (e.g., associate with memories of past competitions), and in which the expected pattern of future interaction is therefore competitive”

et al., 2016),⁸ and report differing perceptions of those teams (Havard & Reams, 2018; Tyler & Cobbs, 2017).⁹ For instance, examples of teams identifying, and being identified by multiple rivals, and perceptions and strengths of those rivals are available on sites such as www.SportRivalry.com and www.KnowRivalry.com.¹⁰

⁸It is common for fans to identify multiple rival teams: one to which they aspire, one in which they share competitive balance, and one to which they favorably compare.

⁹Degree of animosity toward rival teams can be influenced by variables such as conference/league affiliation (Cobbs, Sparks, & Tyler, 2017; Havard & Reams, 2016; Havard, Wann, & Ryan, 2013, 2017) and contest outcomes (Havard, Reams, Gray, 2013; Leach & Spears, 2009).

¹⁰www.KnowRivalry.com features information about the most heated fan rivalries in college athletics and lists of teams that identify and are identified as rivals most frequently using the Sport Rivalry Fan Perception Scale (SRFPS: Havard, Gray et al., 2013). www.KnowRivalry.com contains data on rival relationships that are updated regularly for college

Consequences of Rivalry

Rivalry has been found to influence characteristics like perceived credibility or trust of others (MacDonald, Schug, Chase, & Barth, 2013), and the way people evaluate the actions of in-group and out-group members (Maass, Salvi, Arcuri, & Semin, 1989; Partridge & Wann, 2015).¹¹ In-group stereotyping has been exhibited by college students (Wenger & Brown, 2014),¹² political party supporters (Westen, Blagov, Harenski, Kilts, & Hamann, 2006)¹³ between US Arab and Israeli citizens (Bruneau & Saxe, 2010),¹⁴ and people making judgments about group members loyalty and honor in *whistle-blowing* situations (Hildreth & Anderson, 2018). Examples of positive and negative consequences of rivalry in sport are shown in Table 2.2. For instance, while rivalry in sport can increase participant effort and group cohesion (Leach et al., 2008), it can also lead people to consider unethical behavior (Kilduff, Galinsky, Gallo, & Reade, 2016).

Reactions to Rival Misfortune

Sport fans can experience similar amounts of joy from a rival team's failure to that following a favorite team's victory (Mahony & Howard, 1998). For example, direct competition with a rival influences both fans' physical reactions (Hilman, Cuthbert, Bradley, & Lang, 2004) and their public display of support (Zillman, Bryant, & Sapolsky, 1989). However, when direct competition between groups is absent, individuals often have to find other variables that can be used to derogate the rival (Cialdini & Richardson, 1980; Havard, Ryan, & Workman, 2019).

Heider (1958) discussed the idea of *schadenfreude* and taking pleasure in the demise of another, which has also been described as counter-empathy (Vanman, 2016). In fact, group members can enjoy and

and professional leagues in the United States and abroad using a social networking approach in which 100 rivalry points are allocated among identified rival teams.

¹¹ People stereotype positive actions to the in-group and negative actions to the out-group, and will distance from shameful in-group behavior if necessary.

¹² College students held both implicit and explicit favorability for favorite teams and negativity for rival teams.

¹³ Supporters found ways to delegitimize potentially harmful stories about favored candidate.

¹⁴ Out-group negativity influenced implicit and explicit reactions to the in-group and out-group.

Table 2.2 Positive and negative consequences of rivalry on individuals and organizations

<i>Positive consequences</i>	<i>Negative consequences</i>
<p><i>Preparation and Goal Attainment</i></p> <p>The presence of rivalry leads to improvement on views and goals strategies, and influences individuals to increase their personal effort when preparing for or competing against a rival team (Converse & Reinhard, 2016; Kilduff, 2014; Kilduff, Elfenbein, & Staw, 2010)</p>	<p>The presence of rivalry made participants less willing to accept feedback from out-group members, and influenced managers to act in unethical ways to gain competitive advantages (Hobson & Inzlicht, 2016; Kilduff et al., 2016)</p>
<p><i>Group Membership and Affiliation</i></p> <p>The presence of rivalry influenced individuals to experience an increased feeling of uniqueness from other groups, and a closer bond with in-group members (Berendt & Uhrich, 2016; Berendt, Uhrich, & Thomson, 2018; Delia, 2015; Smith & Schwartz, 2003)</p>	<p>The presence of rivalry influenced fans to report more negativity toward out-group fan behavior, especially among peripheral in-group members, and leads to more negative evaluations of out-group players/participants (Noel, Wann, & Branscombe, 1995; Wann et al., 2016)</p>
<p><i>Consumption and Action</i></p> <p>The presence of rivalry increases fan excitement, engagement, and consumption actions such as game attendance, watching and reading about games, wearing favorite team merchandise, paying price premiums for content, and likelihood to watch a rival play a game not featuring the favorite team (Havard, Shapiro, & Ridinger, 2016; Kimble & Cooper, 1992; Kwak, Kwon, & Lim, 2015; Mahony & Moorman, 1999; Sanford & Scott, 2016; Tyler, Morehead, Cobbs, & DeSchrive, 2017)</p>	<p>People were less willing to experience personal pain in place of an out-group member and were more willing to help in-group members in an emergency situation than out-group members (Hein, Siliani, Preuschoff, Batson, Singer, 2010; Levine, Prosser, Evans, & Reicher, 2005)</p>
<p><i>Messaging and Interpretation</i></p> <p>Rivalry influences fan perceptions and attitudes toward league messaging and sponsored products and services (Angell, Gorton, Bottomley, & White, 2016; Bee & Dalakas, 2013; Dalakas & Levin, 2005; Davies, Veloutsou, & Costa, 2006; Nichols, Cobbs, & Raska, 2016)</p>	<p>Rival perceptions influenced the way people interpreted an indiscretion by the out-group, and exposure to a negative story involving rival teams lead to negative perceptions and attitudes toward both brands (Bee, King, & Stornelli, 2019; Havard & Eddy, 2019; Havard, Ferrucci, & Ryan, 2019)</p>

even hope for an out-group, or out-group member's, failure (Cikara, Botnick, & Fiske, 2011; Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001; Leach, Spears, Branscombe, & Doojse, 2003; Zillman & Cantor, 1976).¹⁵ Seeing another person experience failure or misfortune can influence one's self-esteem and other human needs, even if the out-group misfortune is undeserved (Berndsen, Tiggemann, & Chapman, 2017; Brambilla & Riva, 2017). This was the case with the Cleveland Browns that exhibited *schadenfreude* online following the death of Art Modell (Dalakas, Melancon, & Sreboth, 2015).¹⁶ However, it should also be noted that *schadenfreude* can decrease as the perceived severity of the out-group misfortune increases (Berndsen & Feather, 2016). Similarly, Havard (2014) also described Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORFing), or the tendency of fans to experience joy when their biggest rival loses to another team as a competitive aspect of *schadenfreude* where the rivalry phenomenon *has* to be present in order to be activated (Havard, Wann, & Ryan, 2018).¹⁷ For example, contemporary investigations in *schadenfreude* involve the favorite team experiencing failure, whereas evidence suggests that GORFing can exist regardless of favorite team competitive outcomes (Havard, Inoue, & Ryan, 2018). Fans of the Auburn Tigers celebrating when their rival Alabama Crimson Tide lost to Clemson in the 2017 College Football Championship is such an example (Cooper, 2017).

It is important to note that feelings of *schadenfreude* and GORFing are not necessarily bad in the sport setting. After all, rivalry is something that adds a great deal of excitement to sport. For example, a form of rivalry or *lack of fondness* can help increase fan engagement as previously discussed. Further, the positive psychological consequences of *schadenfreude* and GORFing to the fan also should not be overlooked, as the loss of a rival can bring joy, and sometimes help to temper feelings of disappointment from a favorite team's loss. It is in severe instances,

¹⁵ Feelings of *schadenfreude* can be influenced by characteristics such as in-group inferiority (Leach & Spears, 2009), envy or dislike of the out-group or its members (Hareli & Weiner, 2002) and expected outcomes or prestige of the out-group (Cikara & Fiske, 2012).

¹⁶ Art Modell was owner of the Cleveland Browns when the team moved to Baltimore.

¹⁷ Individuals can experience *schadenfreude* if a non-rival group experiences failure, such as a highly successful team or personality in popular culture. In order for *schadenfreude* to activate, an individual *must* identify the group as a rival.

when fans take their derogation too far that significant issues arise. So, this perspective is not meant to label these outcomes as something that should be avoided; rather, these are things managers have to be cognizant of and monitor for the overall benefit of consumers and the organization. In other words, managers and researchers should strive to find a line or cutoff in which they engage fans by raising their interest in the product without encouraging overly negative feelings that lead to deviant or violent behavior.

Fan Deviance and Violence

Fandom allows otherwise rationale people to act and react in irrational ways (Dwyer, Greenhalgh, & LeCrom, 2015). For example, an individual is not likely to cheer seeing someone getting tackled while walking to work; however, fans do so loudly when a player from the favorite team tackles an opponent. This behavior can be enhanced when rivalry is in play as games between rivals are viewed as more violent than non-rivalry games (Raney & Kinally, 2009), and this belief and behavior is on display at many rivalry games, as shown in Table 2.3. Ledgerwood and Chaiken (2007) assert that the salience regarding group boundaries influence conflict toward out-group members. Further, social learning theory (SLT) states that individuals learn behaviors from watching others (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1961). For example, exposure to aggressive stimuli influenced children to behave aggressively toward an inanimate object. To this end, rivalries in sport, and the way they are promoted by organizations and the media (e.g., showing players and fans interacting in a negative manner), serve to heighten salience of in-groups (i.e., favorite teams), illustrate aggressive behavior, and thereby could encourage greater negativity toward out-groups (i.e., rival teams and supporters). Simple group differentiation and superiority, even imagined, is enough to cause negativity between groups (Bland, 2017), and a group believed to be in charge or of superior standing may treat the minority group in negatives ways (Smith, 2011; Zimbardo, 2008). Contemporary examples include derogatory statements about and deviant conversations between rival group members regarding consumer products on the Internet (Ewing, Wagstaff, & Powell, 2013; Phillips-Melancon &

Table 2.3 Fan deviance/violence examples around rivalry or high-profile games

<i>Team(s)</i>	<i>Incident</i>
Alabama Crimson Tide	Fan was charged with sexual indecency when he placed his genitals on a passed-out LSU Tigers fan following the 2012 college football national championship game (Simerman, 2012)
Alabama Crimson Tide	Harvey Updyke sentenced to prison for poisoning famous trees near Auburn University's campus following the Tigers winning the 2011 football national championship (Gray, 2015)
Argentine Superliga's Superclasico	A stampede of fans in 1968 killed 71 people and injured another 150 during a match between rivals River Plate and Boca Juniors, leading to many theories regarding the cause of the stampede (Coates, n.d.)
Australian Football League's West Coast	Fans cheered a player from their team that punched a rival player causing severe damage, even after the perpetrator showed remorse for his actions (Hinds, 2018)
Dallas Cowboys	With other fans and personnel presents, a Green Bay Packers supporter was assaulted by a Dallas Cowboys fan following a 2016 NFL playoff game (Healy, 2017)
Italian Serie A's Lazio	In 1979, a fan was killed after being hit in the eye by a flare shot by opposing fans from rival Roma during the Capital Derby (Fantauzzi, 2018)
Paris Saint-Germain vs. Red Star Belgrade	In 2018, UEFA charged PSG and Red Star Belgrade after rival fans clashed following a Champions League Game (UEFA charges PSG, 2018)
San Francisco Giants	Bryan Stow severely injured when he was beaten by opposing fans following a rivalry game outside the San Francisco Giants stadium (Rocha, 2015)

Dalakas, 2014; Tucker, 2017).¹⁸ Finally, recent findings assert that low self-esteem leads to out-group derogation through the amount of collective narcissism an individual experiences (Golec de Zavala et al., 2019). In other words, as an individual's self-esteem decreases, collective narcissism (i.e., my group is the best) increases, which also increases derogation toward a targeted out-group.

Even as people who follow sport are not significantly different in trait aggression from those that do not follow sport (Wann, Fahl, Erdmann, & Littleton, 1999), a wealth of research suggests that 1–2% of fans report they are *Definitely Willing* to consider the most heinous act of aggression (e.g., physical harm or murder) toward a rival if the incident were kept completely anonymous (Havard, Wann et al., 2013, 2017; Wann, Haynes, McLean, & Pullen, 2003; Wann, Peterson, Cothran, & Dykes, 1999; Wann & Waddill, 2013). While these percentages may not seem very high or alarming, looking at the conservative figure of 1% sends a stark message regarding rival fan behavior and potential risks to managers and organizations, especially considering some of the largest capacities in sport exceeding 100,000 spectators.¹⁹ Further, these statistics are important because managers want fans to be excited and bring an extra level of fun and joy to a game against a rival team. However, managers also do not want people engaging in deviant and violent actions as these can have severe repercussions for an organization and its fans.

Summary of Current Knowledge

To this point, the general knowledge and contemporary understanding regarding rivalry in sport have been presented. From SIT and the introduction of an out-group, to the consequences of rivalry and out-group indirect failure, the phenomenon plays an important role in not only the way the sport product is promoted, but also the way sport fans consume and internalize meanings of in-group and out-group membership. The focus of this perspective now moves toward a discussion of

¹⁸ Ewing, Wagstaff, & Powell (2013)—fans of Ford and Holden (GM) in Australia; Phillips-Melacnon & Dalakas (2014)—fans Apple and Android phones; Tucker (2017)—fans of *Marvel* and *DC Comics*.

¹⁹ Number of fans within a venue that have indicated willingness to consider heinous acts of aggression toward a rival team using the conservative 1% figure (Capacity/Number of Fans)—100/1; 1000/10; 10,000/100; 100,000/1000.

what managers, both researchers and practitioners, can do in order to help better understand rivalry and alleviate some of the negative consequences that accompany it.

ORGANIZATIONAL ROLE IN RIVALRY

The wording used by organizations to promote rivalry can also highlight negative behavior between groups (e.g., *Hate, War, Battle*, etc.). Two studies focused on the outcomes associated with sport managers and organizations' promotion of rivalry games. First, in the United States, where teams, organizations, and league commonly try to play up the animosity between rival teams, Havard, Wann, and Grieve (2018) found that using the word "Hate" rather than "Rivalry" to promote a rivalry increased level of out-group animosity. On the international sport stage, Berendt and Urich (2017) found that acknowledging rather than downplaying or ignoring the history of rivalry and animosity actually helped to decrease out-group derogation. These findings are interesting as sport managers on the international stage typically try to downplay rivalry matches while those in the United States try to magnify the animosity between teams.

The online activity, and boldness, of fans is further enhanced by messages and promotions such as "Hate Week." Other media avenues are also responsible for spreading these messages of animosity. For example, a popular radio talk show in an NBA market previously featured a segment labeled "Reasons to Hate (Opposing Team)," where the hosts would use the roster of a visiting team to make derogatory comments about each opponent. For most fans, these types of radio segments and skits performed at live contests are for entertainment purposes only and understand that they do not give fans the right to physically harm rival players or fans. However, the 1% discussed earlier may find justification and even encouragement in these examples as a sign the organization and affiliated groups encourage deviant and dangerous behavior. Because the Internet is so important to group member consumption and perceptions (McClung, Eveland, Sweeney, & James, 2012; Moyer, Pokrywczynski, & Griffin, 2015; Mudrick, Miller, & Atkin, 2016), it is important that organizations are aware of how their behavior toward a rival can influence fans via the online environment. Further, highly identified group members are more likely to engage in verbal and instrumental aggression toward an out-group (Wann, Carlson, & Schrader, 1999; Wann, Waddill,

Bono, Scheuchner, & Ruga, 2017), which makes it all the more important that organizations and managers show caution in the way they use online mediums, particularly when rivalry is present.

Another area where organizations have to be cognizant of their influence on fan behavior is the public displays of out-group derogation in the form of skits and promotions. For example, skits that in some way promote negativity between opposing groups, they should be aware that through their actions they are placing out-group fans in negative situations and can be held legally and financially liable for fan behavior.²⁰ Further, the finding of the Connecticut Supreme Court that gun maker Remington Outdoor could be held liable for the way they advertise their products (Gershmann & McWhirter, 2019) points to a potential shift in organizations being able to distance from the actions of consumers and bring more scrutiny to the way products and services are promoted. Other examples of organizational messaging potentially encouraging out-group deviance and violence are shown in Table 2.4. It is vitally important that organizations better understand their roles in promoting rivalry in a responsible manner, because aside from a moral obligation to provide fans with a fun and safe environment in which to consume the sport product, failing to do so can expose an organization to outcomes that inhibit consumption of their product.²¹

Organizations must have to be aware of their responsibilities regarding rivalry and fan behavior. For example, if two get into a fight regarding a rivalry game, especially in or around their facility, and one fan suggests the organization promoted this negative behavior, managers are going to try and distance the organization from the behavior (e.g., we don't condone that behavior). This stance becomes difficult when organizations use skits,

²⁰A common example is a *fan* (employee of the home team) acting obnoxiously to the jeers of the home crowd, then getting covered in silly string or confetti, possibly even subjected to physical aggression to the enjoyment and cheering of the crowd.

²¹If a physical altercation between fans occurs at a game, organizations can be negatively impacted in three ways. First, possible legal ramifications warrant attention. For instance, if someone involved in the altercation is injured, the organization can be held liable for events occurring on their property (e.g., Bryan Stow). Second, other fans may choose to decrease their consumption of the sport product, which in turn leads to a loss of fan engagement and revenue. Finally, an individual could influence the consumption of other potential consumers through negative word of mouth (Huete-Alcocer, 2017; Lau, 2001; Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008).

Table 2.4 Organizational messaging that potentially promotes Fan deviance and violence

<i>Team(s)</i>	<i>Message/Promotion</i>
Memphis Grizzlies (NBA)	Grizz, the mascot of the Memphis Grizzlies body, slammed a faux San Antonio Spurs mascot during a timeout in the 2015 league playoffs to excite the home crowd (Diaz, 2016) ^a
Memphis Grizzlies (NBA)	A promotional giveaway for a game against the Los Angeles Clippers was a pair of flip flops, playing on the <i>Los Angeles Floppers</i> moniker popular among rival team fans at the time ^b
Fox Sports 1 (College Football)	Ran an advertisement for the 2017 college football season that glamorized the animosity and negative behavior between rival teams, players, and fans, using words such as <i>hate</i> and <i>enemy</i> to describe rival teams (Fox's Big Ten, 2017) ^c
University of Missouri/University of Arkansas	To promote their new rivalry in the Southeastern Conference, administrators used the name <i>Battle Line</i> rivalry to excite fans (Livingston, 2015)

^aVideo this skit can be viewed at <https://www.sbnation.com/lookit/2016/4/23/11493186/grizzlies-mascot-jumps-off-a-ladder-and-flattens-a-spurs-mascot>

^b*NOTE* when Chris Paul played for the Clippers, the two teams built a heated, and sometimes deviant rivalry. Further Paul and the team had a reputation of “flopping” during games in order to get favorable calls

^cLink for College Football on FOX and FS1: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QLWm77g2zAg>

phrases, or promotional messages that include negative wording or otherwise increase out-group animosity. The messaging used by organizations play a role in promoting positive or negative fan perceptions and behavior toward a rival team and their supporters. On the other hand, sport organization employing practices meant to illicit positive feelings, and decrease negative feelings, between out-groups would be correct in asserting they do not condone deviant or violent behavior. Replicating the findings of Havard, Wann et al. (2018) regarding promotional messaging and further testing using secondary and primary field data would help validate these practices.

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Place Matters: Rivalry, Rival Perceptions, and the Influence of Exposure and Proximity

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Abstract This chapter uses two studies to illustrate the use of the Sport Rivalry Fan Perception Scale (SRFPS) by investigating differences in rival perceptions based on exposure and relative proximity to the out-group. Specifically, Study 1 examined how having visited the city where the rival team plays outside of sport consumption influenced perceptions of the rival team, and Study 2 compared how college students at the University of Colorado, Colorado State University, and the University of Wyoming viewed their rival schools. Results showed that both out-group exposure and relative proximity influenced participant rival perceptions. Taken together, the studies added further support for using the SRFPS and added to the literature on rivalry and group behavior. Implications and avenues for future research are discussed.

Keywords Rivalry · Sport Rivalry Fan Perception Scale · Group member behavior · Fandom · Fan behavior

Rivalry is a phenomenon that has far-reaching impact on sport and sport fans. For instance, the added excitement of playing a rival can make people more likely to attend (Havard, Shapiro, & Ridinger, 2016), pay higher prices to attend (Sanford & Scott, 2016), and wear favorite team merchandise (Kwak, Kwon, & Lim, 2015). Fans have even reported being

more likely to watch a game in which their rival was playing a third team in hope the rival team would lose (Mahony & Moorman, 1999), because a rival loss can give some fans a similar level of excitement as a favorite team victory (Mahony & Howard, 1998).

Rivalry has such an impact on the sport product that organizations regularly use the competition phenomenon for promotional purposes. Although rivalry encourages increased consumption, it can lead to deviance such as unethical and violent behavior (Kilduff, Galinsky, Gallo, & Reade, 2016; Lee, 1985). For this reason, researchers have discussed the need for practitioners to show caution when promoting rivalry to keep from encouraging negative and violent behavior (Dalakas & Levin, 2005; Havard, 2014). In order to better understand rivalry and its influence on sport fans, and how to promote it without encouraging deviant or violent behavior, it is important to investigate what rivalry means to fans and some of the variables that influence fan perceptions of rival teams and supporters.

This chapter discusses the Sport Rivalry Fan Perception Scale (SRFPS) as a way to measure the way fans and group members perceive a rival team or out-group (Havard, Gray, Gould, Sharp, & Schaffer, 2013). Specifically, the SRFPS is showcased using data from two samples to illustrate how exposure and proximity to a rival group can influence the way someone views a rival team or out-group. The chapter concludes with discussion about the implications of the measure and avenues for future research.

BACKGROUND

Rivalry begins with an understanding of social identity theory (Tajfel, 1981), or the idea that individuals choose membership in a group he/she believes will be of benefit to self-esteem and public perception. When someone joins a group, the individual typically finds people that share similar interests and characteristics and can begin to take on the identity of the collective group (Crocker & Luhtanen, 1990). They also usually interact with people in various out-groups or supporters of rival teams in the sport setting (Sherif, 1966). When groups and competing group members engage with each other, a common outcome is what is known as in-group bias, or showing preference to someone within an in-group

and derogation toward someone in an out-group (Tajfel, 1978).¹ Rivalry is common in consumer products as companies and brands compete for consumer loyalty and market share. Some high-profile rivalries include Apple/Samsung (Phillips-Melancon & Dalakas, 2014), Coca-Cola/Pepsi (Muniz Jr. & Hamer, 2001), Ford/GM (Ewing, Wagstaff, & Powell, 2013), Marvel/DC (Tucker, 2017), and Disney/Comcast (Havard, 2020).

As for rivalry in the sport setting, it has been defined as “a fluctuating adversarial relationship, existing between two teams, players, fans, or groups of fans, gaining significance through on-field or off-field incidences, proximity, demographic makeup, and/or historical occurrence(s)” (Havard, Gray et al., 2013, p. 51). Further, a rival has been defined as a “highly salient out-group that poses an acute threat to the identity of the in-group or to the in-group members’ ability to make positive comparisons between their groups and the out-group” (Tyler & Cobbs, 2015, p. 230). Rivalry can influence many things, from contest and merchandise consumption (Havard, Eddy, & Ryan, 2016; Kwak et al., 2015; Mahony & Moorman, 1999) to one’s willingness to help others in emergency situations (Levine, Prosser, Evans, & Reicher, 2005) and consider anonymous acts of aggression (Wann, Haynes, McLean, & Pullen, 2003; Wann, Peterson, Cothran, & Dykes, 1999; Wann & Waddill, 2013).

Rivalry can also be influenced by several variables, such as gender (Havard, Achen, & Ryan, 2020), team identification (Wann et al., 2016), type of sport (Havard, Reams, & Gray, 2013), league affiliation (Cobbs, Sparks, & Tyler, 2017), mediated and league messaging (Havard, Ferruci, & Ryan, 2019; Nichols, Cobbs, & Raska, 2016), promotional messaging (Havard, Wann, & Grieve, 2018), failure of an out-group (Cikara, Botvinik, & Fiske, 2011; Havard, 2014), and competition realignment (Havard, Wann, & Ryan, 2013, 2017; Havard, Wann, Ryan, & O’Neal, 2017). Rivalry can also be influenced by the proximity of teams and group members to each other (Havard, Ryan, & Workman, 2019). Further, the extended contact hypothesis asserts that as out-group members spend more time together, the more likely they are to gain a better understanding of each other which in turn can potentially decrease out-group animosity (Gaertner, Dovidio, Anastasio, Bachman, & Rust, 1993). As

¹Maass, Salvi, Arcuri, & Semin (1989) found that people tended to stereotype positive behaviors to in-groups and negative behaviors to out-groups.

this chapter and book discuss how fans and group members perceive and behave toward rival teams, it is important to understand how fan reactions are measured.

Sport Rivalry Fan Perception Scale

The SRFPS is a four-facet, twelve-item scale (*1—Definitely Disagree* to *7—Definitely Agree*) that measures how someone feels or perceives a team they consider to be a rival (Havard, Gray et al., 2013). Originally developed and validated using fans of collegiate sport teams in the United States, the SRFPS has also been validated to study rival perceptions in professional (Havard & Hutchinson, 2017) and international sport (Havard, Inoue, & Ryan, 2018). More recently, the scale has also been utilized to measure perceptions of rival groups outside of the sport setting (Havard, Grieve, & Lomenick, 2020; Havard, Wann, Grieve, & Collins, 2020a, 2020b). The scale takes an approach that provides a well-rounded glimpse at how an individual perceives their relevant out-groups. The facets of the SRFPS have been used in combination with each other to test or control for the rivalry phenomenon, and most commonly, as distinct measures to investigate differences among rival fans and group members. All subscales of the SRFPS with the exception of OIC are worded so that higher scores indicate more negativity toward the rival. Below are descriptions of the four facets of the SRFPS.

The first SRFPS facet is out-group indirect competition (OIC), or the willingness to support a rival team when they are playing in a contest not involving their favorite team. Most commonly, someone may choose to support their rival team in a game not involving their favorite team in hopes that the outcome will positively reflect on their team and himself/herself. For example, if a rival team is playing in the postseason or a championship game, someone may want the rival to win because the victory would indirectly reflect positively on the conference in which their favorite team is a member, on their favorite team, and ultimately on his/her self-esteem. On the other hand, some fans disclosed that a rival losing in a high-profile game is more enjoyable than if the rival had won, while others reported they don't like seeing the team in the high-profile game regardless of the outcome (Havard, 2014). As mentioned above, only for this subscale does a lower score correspond to greater negativity toward the rival.

The second facet measures how someone perceives the prestige of a rival team or group (Out-group Prestige, OP). In collegiate athletics, the three questions that measure this facet ask fans to report their perceptions of the rival institution's academic prestige. This facet follows and supports the work of Cialdini and Richardson (1980), in which college students described the characteristics of their school more favorably than their rival school. Additionally, interview respondents revealed that even if they knew little about the rival school's academics, they believed they could not be as good as that of their favorite institution (Havard, 2014). When measuring fan perceptions at the professional or international sport level, the facet asks fans to rate the prestige of the rival city or region instead of academics.

The out-group sportsmanship (OS) or out-group behavior facet measures how fans perceive the behavior of rival supporters (Havard, Gray et al., 2013). Fans typically report that fans of their favorite teams behave better than the out-group, and as previously discussed will stereotype positive behaviors to the in-group and negative behaviors to the out-group (Maass et al., 1989). This facet combines with out-group prestige to measure perceptions of rival groups in *off-field competition*. The OP facet also allows fans to view their rival team or group in a more well-rounded fashion than simply being asked to rate their dislike or feelings toward a rival.

The final facet of the SRFPS is sense of satisfaction (SoS) or the pleasure one receives when their favorite team beats the rival team in direct competition. This facet in that vein pulls on Basking In Reflected Glory (BIRGing, Cialdini et al., 1976) and the enjoyment an individual can receive from the vicarious achievement of a favorite team (Bandura, 1977). When the SoS has been used to investigate groups outside of sport, the questions gauge the satisfaction one receives when their in-group compares favorably to the out-group.

The Current Studies

Because rivalry, through its influence on the human condition, can help explain group dynamics and group member behavior, and because the phenomenon itself can be influenced by many variables, the chapter uses the SRFPS to illustrate how rivalry is impacted by familiarity and proximity. Specifically, the extended contact hypothesis states that the more someone spends around other groups, their perceptions of that group will

begin to change (Gaertner et al., 1993). To investigate this, we utilized data in Study 1 that asked people whether they had ever visited (or lived in) the city where their identified rival plays for any reason other than to attend a sporting event or support their favorite team. We expected that people having visited the city where the rival team plays for reasons other than sport consumption would report different perceptions of their rival than those that had not. Therefore, we hypothesized:

H1: Fans that have visited the city where their rival team plays will report different rival perceptions than fans that never visited the city where the rival team plays.

Taking a next step based on the findings that exposure outside of sport can influence rival perceptions, Study 2 gives a case study look at how relative proximity impacts fan perceptions of out-groups. Specifically, we used data from a national sample of university students to highlight the relationship between the University of Colorado (Colorado), Colorado State University (Colorado State), and the University of Wyoming (Wyoming) in US collegiate athletics. Based on the data specific to the three schools and their relationships, we expected two things. First, we anticipated that fans of Colorado State would report more negative perceptions of Colorado than would Colorado fans toward Colorado State. We also expected that fans of Colorado and Wyoming would differ in their perceptions of Colorado State, a rival common to both schools. Therefore, we hypothesized:

H2: Students of Colorado State will report more negative perceptions of Colorado than will students of Colorado regarding Colorado State.

H3: Students of Wyoming and Colorado will report different perceptions of rival Colorado State.

STUDY 1

Method

Study 1 was built using the software package Qualtrics and distributed using Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk), an online distribution website that allows people to participate in studies and *tasks* for companies and academic researchers. Study 1 used data from 559 participants to test H1. Further, the study utilized the Team Identification Index (TII), a three-item scale, to measure the level of identification someone felt toward their

favorite team (Trail, Robinson, Dick, & Gillentine, 2003). To measure rival perceptions, the SRFPS was utilized (Havard, Gray et al., 2013). Finally, the independent variable in the investigation was a question that asked people whether they had ever visited the city where the rival team plays for reasons other than sport consumption. For analysis purposes, people that reported having visited (or lived in) the city where the rival team plays were coded with 1 and people that had not visited as 0 .

Results

Descriptive statistics for the five measures (TII, four subscales of the SRFPS) are shown in Table 3.1. Overall in the sample, fans were highly identified with their favorite teams, were not supportive of their rival team when playing another team, did not agree that the prestige of the rival was poor, somewhat believed that rival fans behaved poorly, and experienced high levels of satisfaction when their favorite team defeated their rival team. All five scales showed reliability, with α ranging from .845 to .905.

H1 asserted that exposure to the rival team outside of sport consumption would influence perceptions of rival teams. To test the hypothesis, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was used. Because team identification influences how fans view rival teams, the TII was used as a covariate to control for level of identification with the favorite team. A significant Wilk's Lambda indicated that significant differences were present ($.940(4, 553) = 8.80, p < .001$). Univariate results indicated that a significant difference existed between fans regarding perceived sportsmanship of rival fans $F(1, 556) = 14.72, p < .001$. Respondents that had visited the city where the

Table 3.1 Descriptive statistics for scales used in study 1

<i>Item</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	α
TII	5.69	1.20	.845
OIC	2.87	1.77	.905
OP	2.95	1.58	.863
OS	4.15	1.64	.904
SoS	5.72	1.24	.882

TII—Team Identification Index; OIC—Out-group Indirect Competition; OP—Out-group Prestige; OS—Out-group Sportsmanship; SoS—Sense of Satisfaction

Table 3.2 SRFPS subscales by fans that visited and not visited rival city other than for sport

Item	Visited		Not visited	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
OIC	2.99	1.94	2.76	1.60
OP	2.89	1.58	3.01	1.57
OS	4.43*	1.55	3.89*	1.67
SoS	5.75	1.18	5.70	1.29

*Significant at .001 level

rival team plays for purposes other than sport consumption ($M = 4.43$, $SD = 1.55$) rated the behavior of rival fans more poorly than those that had not visited the rival city ($M = 3.89$, $SD = 1.67$). Hypothesis 1 was supported (Table 3.2).

Discussion of Study 1

Study 1 investigated the influence exposure to the rival could have by comparing rival perceptions between people who had visited the city where the rival team plays for reasons other than sport consumption with those that had not visited. Findings showed that people who reported they had visited (or lived in) the city where the rival team played were more negative regarding behavior of rival team fans than people who had not visited the city for reasons other than sport consumption. While the difference between groups supported the hypothesis, it was somewhat surprising that people who visited the city where the rival team plays reported stronger negative perceptions of the out-group. This is contrary to the assertion of the extended contact hypothesis (Gaertner et al., 1993). However, perhaps if someone lives in a city where they are inundated with supporters, messages, and media coverage of their rival team, they could perceive supporters to behave in negative ways.

Even as the finding was somewhat contrary to expectations, it did illustrate the influence that exposure, and sometimes repeated exposure, can have on rival perceptions and the way people view the out-group. From this finding, it is important to next investigate how relative proximity could impact rivalry and rival perceptions. Study 2 addresses this question.

STUDY 2

Method

Study 2 utilized a case study approach to examine how relative proximity can influence perceptions of a rival among three groups. Proximity is an important characteristic of rivalry (Havard, 2014; Kilduff, Elflein, & Staw, 2010; Tyler & Cobbs, 2015) and can often lead teams and rival supporters to interact on a regular basis, adding to the intensity and excitement of competitions. In particular, data from students of Colorado, Colorado State, and Wyoming were used to investigate the stated hypotheses.

The data used in Study 2 were a subset of a national sample that was built using Qualtrics software and collected with the assistance from the National Association of Collegiate Marketing Administrators and member schools (e.g., Colorado, Colorado State, and Wyoming in the current study). Study 2 used a sample of 283 college students attending the three schools. To measure identification with their favorite team, a modified version of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (Wann & Branscombe, 1993) and the SRFPS was utilized to measure rival perceptions.

The Schools

The University of Colorado is located in Boulder, Colorado, in the foothills of the Rocky Mountain. Their athletics teams, the Buffaloes, compete in the Pacific 12 Conference (Pac 12), although they spent a long time competing in the Big 8 and Big 12 Conferences where they shared a competitive rivalry with the University of Nebraska. However, they have long shared perhaps a more significant rivalry with the Colorado State Rams because of their relative distance. The two schools play in most sponsored sports on an annual basis, and their annual matchup in football was played in the capital city of Denver, Colorado, in the home of the Denver Broncos National Football League team.²

Colorado State University is located in Fort Collins, Colorado, about an hour north of Boulder and an hour south of the Wyoming/Colorado border. The Colorado State Rams athletics teams compete in the Western Athletic Conference (WAC). The Rams share an intrastate rivalry, dubbed

²The two schools are scheduled to play their 2020 matchup in Fort Collins, after which the schools may not play on a regular basis (Keeler, 2019).

the *Rocky Mountain Showdown*, with the Colorado Buffaloes of the Pac 12 and a conference and interstate rivalry tabbed the *Border War* with the Wyoming Cowboys.

The University of Wyoming is located in Laramie, Wyoming, and is home to the Cowboys and Cowgirls athletics teams. The cities of Laramie and Fort Collins are separated by approximately 65 miles. The *Border War* football game between Wyoming and Colorado State is typically played at the end of each school's regular season schedule and serves as a way for fans of both teams and states to seek favorable comparison on a regular basis.

Even as the three schools are located in relatively close proximity, Colorado fans typically identify either Colorado State or the University of Utah Utes as primary rivals (Havard & Eddy, 2013). In turn, fans of Colorado State consider the Colorado Buffaloes to be primary rivals and the Wyoming Cowboys/Cowgirls secondary rivals.³ Finally, fans of Wyoming consider the Colorado Rams to be primary rivals.⁴ Based on the data used in Study 2, comparisons of rival perceptions were made between fans of Colorado and Colorado State regarding their intrastate rival, and fans of Colorado and Wyoming regarding their rivalry with Colorado State.

Results

Descriptive statistics for the scales (SSIS, four subscales of the SRPFS) are shown in Table 3.3. All scales displayed reliability, with α ranging from .808 to .921. Overall, respondents reported high identification with their favorite team, were not willing to support their rival in indirect competition, and experienced high amounts of satisfaction when their favorite team defeated the rival team in direct competition. Respondents did not agree that the academic prestige of their rival school was poor, and somewhat disagreed that rival fans behaved poorly.

³Residing in the same state, fans of Colorado and Colorado State often use their athletics contests as ways to indicate which group reigns supreme in the state, which is common among intrastate rivals.

⁴In the data used in Study 2, 62 fans of Colorado and 172 fans of Wyoming considered Colorado State to be their primary rival. In turn, 49 Colorado State fans considered Colorado their primary rival, whereas 3 assigned that title to Wyoming.

Table 3.3 Descriptive statistics for scales used in study 2

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	α
SSIS	5.48	1.29	.916
OIC	3.21	1.53	.808
OP	3.41	1.69	.901
OS	3.97	1.51	.921
SoS	5.81	1.23	.862

SSIS—Sport Spectator Identification Scale; OIC—Out-group Indirect Competition; OP—Out-group Prestige; OS—Out-group Sportsmanship; SoS—Sense of Satisfaction

H2 asserted that students of Colorado State would report stronger negative perceptions of Colorado than Colorado students would of Colorado State. A MANCOVA was used to test the hypothesis with the SSIS treated as a covariate to control for team identification. A significant Wilk's Lambda $.711(4, 105) = 10.64, p < .001$ indicated that significant differences were present, and univariate results revealed that students differed in their perceptions of rival fan behavior $F(1, 108) = 29.19, p = .001$. In this instance, Colorado State ($M = 5.10, SD = 1.58$) students reported that Colorado ($M = 4.14, SD = 1.67$) students behaved more poorly than vice versa. H2 was supported (Table 3.4).

H3 stated that students of Wyoming would report stronger negative perceptions of rival Colorado State than would students of Colorado. A MANCOVA was used for analysis, again utilizing the SSIS as a covariate to control for team identification. A significant main effect was

Table 3.4 SRFPS subscales for Colorado, Colorado State, and Wyoming comparison

Item	Colorado		Colorado State		Wyoming	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
OIC	3.16	1.74	2.90	1.60	3.23	1.46
OP	4.40 ^c	1.80	3.60	1.77	3.06 ^c	1.51
OS	4.14 ^a	1.67	5.10 ^a	1.58	3.91	1.45
SoS	6.18 ^b	0.88	5.90	1.40	5.68 ^b	1.31

^aSignificant difference between Colorado and Colorado State at .001 level

^bSignificant difference between Colorado and Wyoming at .05 level

^cSignificant difference between Colorado and Wyoming at .001 level

found (Wilk's Lambda $.858(4, 231) = 9.58, p < .001$), and univariate results showed significant differences were present regarding out-group academic prestige $F(1, 234) = 30.46, p < .001$ and the sense of satisfaction experienced when the favorite team beats the rival team in direct competition $F(1, 234) = 6.28, p = .014$. Regarding the academic prestige of Colorado State, students at Colorado ($M = 4.40, SD = 1.80$) reported stronger negative perceptions than did students at Wyoming ($M = 3.06, SD = 1.51$). Likewise, students at Colorado ($M = 6.18, SD = 0.88$) reported experiencing more satisfaction from defeating Colorado State in direct competition than did students of Wyoming ($M = 5.68, SD = 1.31$). H3 was supported (Table 3.4).

Discussion of Study 2

Study 2 investigated how relative proximity influenced rival perceptions of students at Colorado, Colorado State, and Wyoming. Taken together, the hypotheses revealed that students at Colorado State were more negative toward Colorado than vice versa, and students at Colorado were more negative toward rival Colorado State than students at Wyoming. First, students at Colorado State showing more negativity toward Colorado than vice versa support the common belief that more animosity is directed toward a flagship school within a state.⁵

It is interesting that students at Colorado reported more negativity toward Colorado State than did students at Wyoming. This finding suggests that even though students may view Colorado as more prestigious, they still hold a strong rivalry with Colorado State, as evidenced by their negativity toward the school. In turn, students at Wyoming focus more attention on Colorado State than is returned because (1) the state of Wyoming does not have other schools with athletics competing at the Division I level, and (2) students at Colorado State view Colorado as a more prominent rival group.

⁵In many states, the flagship school receives more animosity than other schools because of their stature as *The University of*. In turn, fans of flagship schools typically view state or agricultural schools as though they are not as prominent (Havard & Eddy, 2013).

GENERAL DISCUSSION

In two studies, the chapter introduced the SRFPS to measure perceptions of rival groups and investigated how exposure to an out-group and relative proximity can influence the rivalry phenomenon. First, the SRFPS is a measure that can be used to examine how one group of people perceive or feel about another group. Within the sport setting, this comparison is commonly made between two teams that consider themselves rival competitors. Outside of the sport setting, the SRFPS can be used to compare groups of supporters from entertainment and consumer brands (Havard, Grieve et al., 2020; Havard, Wann et al., 2020a, 2020b) to politics. The four-facet, twelve-item scale accurately measures perceptions of group members and provides insight into how people view an out-group.

The findings taken together suggest that exposure and relative proximity can influence the way people view out-groups and out-group members. In particular, exposure, and potentially extended exposure, to a rival group can influence someone to view out-group behavior more negatively than someone who may not have the same time of contact. Again, this is contrary to the extended contact hypothesis (Gaertner et al., 1993), but also suggests that sport fans with extended exposure may deviate from previous findings. It is worth mentioning that in the study, people who had visited at least once were combined with those that had visited many times or even lived in the city. This may have influenced the findings, and future research separating these individuals may provide further insight.

The findings from Study 2 help add information to rivalry and group member literature by further showing how relative distance and competitive relationships influence rivalry. The current findings support and add to previous research on students at the University of Nebraska, Lincoln, where the students reported they held more negative perceptions of a school in closer proximity to their campus (Havard, Wann et al., 2018).⁶ Further, the findings highlight how important intrastate rivalries can be. In particular, the students at Colorado State viewed Colorado (intrastate and interconference) as a more relevant rival than Wyoming (interstate and intraconference). While this is not the case with all flagship and

⁶Students reported more negative perceptions of the University of Iowa (303 miles from Lincoln and bordering state) than the University Wisconsin (480 miles from Lincoln). Among other factors, proximity seemed to play a role in their perceptions of relevant rival schools.

state schools, in the state of Colorado, it seems the relationship between Colorado and Colorado State is one of high importance to fans, students, and alumni. It should also be stated that Colorado only recently joined the Pac 12 Conference, leaving behind a long history with schools in the Big 8/12 Conference.⁷

Implications and Future Research

The findings from the chapter carry implications for researchers and practitioners working within the sport setting. First, the current findings potentially add an interesting caveat to the extended contact hypothesis (Gaertner et al., 1993) and should be investigated using both quantitative and qualitative methods to further understand their validity and implications for the theory. Further, practitioners should take the finding to better understand how fans who visit, sometimes frequently, or live in a rival city relate to their favorite and rival teams.

Second, the findings from H2 and H3 provide researchers with additional case study evidence detailing the influence of relative proximity and inter/intrastate makeup of rivalries. While the results represent a case study of three schools in and around the state of Colorado, researchers could use the method discussed in the chapter to conduct similar research on other schools and fan groups. It is also important to note that the samples used to test H2 and H3 were students currently attending their respective universities. Based on the impact of the life cycle on sport (Devlin & Brown-Devlin, 2017; Funk, 2008), alumni and other fans may experience rivalry differently than the sample used in the chapter. Future study could also examine this using a different respondent sample in an attempt to better understand the rivalry phenomenon. Practitioners should also use the findings when planning for contests and relationship with interstate and intrastate rivals. For this reason, it bears repeating that for managers, it is advised to conduct or commission a case study investigation on relevant rivals to better inform their practices. Finally, it is of the utmost importance that researchers and practitioners work to promote rivalry in a manner that works to alleviate, or at least not encourage, negativity among out-groups and out-group members.

⁷Had Colorado still competed in the Big 12 Conference, or if they had competed in the Pac 12 for a longer period of time, many students may have not identified Colorado State as a primary rival.

In conclusion, the studies discussed in this chapter investigated how exposure and relative proximity influenced rivalry. Having valid measures available to investigate rivalry is important as it helps researchers conduct reliable investigations and allows practitioners to better produce a sport product that meets the desires of consumers. The studies discussed here, along with the SRFPS measure, help provide reliable measures and information to better understand, research, and promote rivalry in a responsible way.

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Consumer Reactions to Rival Failure: Examining Glory Out of Reflected Failure

Cody T. Havard, Timothy D. Ryan, and Yash Padhye

Abstract This chapter focuses on the Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORFing) phenomenon and its relationships regarding team identification, rival perceptions, and favorite team behavior intentions. A sample of 555 sport fans provides responses regarding their team identification, the perceptions of rival teams, their likelihood to experience GORFing, and behavioral intentions toward the favorite team when their rival loses to a third, neutral team. Structural model results showed that rival perceptions are associated with the likelihood of experiencing GORFing, which in turn was associated with behavioral intentions following a rival team's loss to a comparable team, and mediated the relationship between rival perceptions and behavioral intentions. Contributions and implications for researchers and practitioners are discussed, and avenues for future study are introduced.

Keywords Rivalry · Perceptions of out-groups · Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORFing) · Behavioral intentions · Sport fans

The study of rivalry has started to receive more attention in the marketing, psychology, and management literatures (Cikara, Botnick, & Fiske, 2011; Dalakas & Melancon, 2012; Havard, 2014; Kilduff, Elfenbein, & Staw, 2010; Markman, Gianiodis, & Buchholtz, 2009; Park &

Lee, 2015; Tyler & Cobbs, 2015). For example, rivalry influences reactions toward consumers of opposing brands (Muniz & Hamer, 2001) and drives firms to gain a competitive advantage (Capron & Chatain, 2008). Rivalry has also been linked to treatment and evaluation of an out-group (Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood, & Sherif, 1961) and unethical managerial behavior (Kilduff, Galinsky, Gallo, & Reade, 2016). Understanding the impact of rivalry is important to academics and practitioners alike. First, gaining more understanding of the relationship between consumers and their in-groups and out-groups can add to the literature addressing social identity theory (SIT; Tajfel, 1974) and in-group bias (Turner, 1975). Second, understanding how the rivalry phenomenon is associated with consumer behavior toward a favorite and rival brand can assist practitioners responsible for promoting products.

In the current study, we used the sport setting to investigate how the perceptions people reserve for their biggest rival impact how they internally react when the rival experiences indirect failure (e.g., against someone other than the in-group), and their behavioral intentions toward the in-group (i.e., favorite sport team). Rivalry in sport can impact fan consumption (Havard, Shapiro, & Ridinger, 2016), such as attendance (Paul, 2003; Tyler, Morehead, Cobbs, & DeSchriver, 2017), television viewership (Sung, Mills, & Tainsky, 2016), paying premium ticket prices (Sanford & Scott, 2016), and likelihood to watch a rival play against someone other than the favorite team (Mahony & Moorman, 1999). Additionally, rivalry can indirectly impact products associated with sport (Carrillat, d'Astous, & Christianis, 2014; Dalakas & Levin, 2005; Park & Lee, 2015). However, little research has addressed the outcomes fans experience toward their favorite team when their rival loses to someone other than the favorite team (i.e., indirect failure).

Studies on *schadenfreude* found that fans experience joy when a rival team (i.e., out-group) loses to another team (Cikara et al., 2011; Cikara & Fiske, 2012; Dalakas & Melancon, 2012), and high levels of identification with a favorite team seem to intensify the pleasure of a rival team's misfortune (Dalakas, Melancon, & Sreboth, 2015). Additionally, fans can experience similar feelings of euphoria when a rival team loses as when a favorite team wins (Mahony & Howard, 1998). Building on SIT (Tajfel, 1974) and *schadenfreude* (Heider, 1958), the current study addresses a research question not previously covered in the sport rivalry literature: What determines fans' likelihood to experience Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORFing) toward a rival team and behavioral intentions toward

a favorite team when the rival loses to someone other than the favorite team, regardless of the favorite team's performance?

GORFing refers to the joy a fan experiences when a rival team loses to someone other than the favorite team regardless of how well the favorite team performs (Havard, 2014). Additionally, GORFing can be described as the competition aspect of *schadenfreude*. Other important differences between GORFing and *schadenfreude* include the presence of a rival team (e.g., a person can experience *schadenfreude* against a team or individual they do not consider a rival) and the impact of a rival team's indirect failure on both the individual and the group or team they represent (e.g., findings on *schadenfreude* have focused on the individual rather than the individual and group).¹

The current study seeks to better understand the GORFing phenomenon and determine how it is related to rival perceptions and likelihood of consuming favorite team merchandise. Specifically, how the phenomenon relates to the perceptions fans have of a rival team and behavioral intentions toward the favorite team was investigated. In order to do this, we examine the relationship between the perceptions people reserve for a rival team, using the Sport Rivalry Fan Perception Scale (SRFPS), Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORFing), and the likelihood to consume the favorite team following a rival's indirect failure. Rivalry is an important area of study. For example, understanding how group membership influences the way someone views and reacts to the failure of another, whether that be a person or group, is important for researchers and managers as this can influence conscious and subconscious reactions. Additionally, having a better understanding of how consumption is influenced by the failure of an out-group is important for managers and marketers. The current study addresses these important gaps in the existing literatures.

¹For more information regarding GORFing and *schadenfreude*, please see Havard, Inoue, and Ryan (2018).

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Rivalry

Rivalry begins from a discussion of SIT, which posits that people will allow the groups in which they belong to influence their sense of self-esteem (Tajfel, 1974). When a person identifies and interacts with a group (i.e., in-group), he or she does so to protect the social identity derived from association with said group (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; Cameron, 1999) and can begin to adopt the identity of the collective (Crocker & Luhtanen, 1990). Further, because of the membership in an in-group and in the presence of perceived competition (Festinger, 1954), people will also choose an out-group to disidentify from (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001). Intergroup behavior is on display when members of opposing groups interact (Sherif, 1966), which allows individuals to differentiate between members of the in-group and out-group (Brewer, 1979), and can lead to rivalrous relationships. Intergroup rivalry can be caused by the perceived threat to (Stephan, Ybarra, & Rios, 2016), the relative inferiority of (Leach & Spears, 2009; Leach, Spears, Branscombe, & Doosje, 2003), and the perceived distinctiveness of the in-group (see Jetten, Spears, & Manstead, 1999). Rivalry can also influence participant competition (Kilduff, 2014), motivation (Triplet, 1898), in-group bias (Sherif et al., 1961; Turner, 1975), unethical behavior (Kilduff et al., 2016), and hostility toward the out-group (Chang, Krosch, & Cikara, 2016).

Within the scope of marketing, rivalry influences the way consumers react to brands. For example, a sample of Apple users displayed *schadenfreude* toward the Microsoft brand (Phillips-Melancon & Dalakas 2014). Consumers of Coca-Cola and Pepsi Cola exhibited negativity toward not only the opposing brands but also consumers of those brands (Muniz Jr. & Hamer, 2001). Within management, research has shed light onto actions firms take to gain competitive advantage over rival firms (Capron & Chatain, 2008), factors that cause rivalry among companies offering similar and dissimilar products (Markman et al., 2009), and lessons that can be learned from corporate rivalries (Havard, 2020).

Sport Rivalry

Sport rivalry has been defined as “a fluctuating adversarial relationship existing between two teams, players, or groups of fans, gaining significance through on-field competition, on-field or off-field incidences, proximity, demographic makeup, and/or historical occurrence(s)” (Havard, Gray, Gould, Sharp, & Schaffer, 2013, p. 51). Antecedents and contributors of rivalry include proximity, historical competition, relative dominance, prior interaction, defining moments, star power, perceived unfairness or bias, competition for personnel, and perceived success (Ambrose & Schnitzlein, 2017; Kilduff et al., 2010; Quintanar, Deck, Reyes, & Sarangi, 2015; Reams & Eddy, 2017; Tyler & Cobbs, 2015). Additionally, Ewing, Wagstaff, and Powell (2013) described rivalry as a phenomenon that continuously exists between two groups that can be heightened by certain big events. For example, fans may identify multiple teams as rivals while differing in their perceptions of and intensity toward said teams (Tyler & Cobbs, 2017). This means that fans can identify multiple teams as rivals, and their intensity toward those teams fluctuates depending on the characteristics identified above (Kilduff et al., 2010; Quintanar et al., 2015; Tyler & Cobbs, 2015).

In sport, rivalry has been found to impact fan physiological reactions to contests (Hillman, Cuthbert, Bradley, & Lang, 2004), public identification with a favorite team (Kimble & Cooper, 1992; Smith & Schwartz, 2003), in-group cohesiveness (Delia, 2015), descriptions of rival behavior (Wann & Dolan, 1994; Wann & Grieve, 2005), evaluations of player performance (Wann, Koch, Knoth, Fox, Aljubaily, & Lantz, 2006), and fantasy sport decisions among fans (Spinda & Havard, 2016). The rivalry phenomenon can also impact fan attitudes toward sponsored products (Angell, Gorton, Bottomley, & White, 2016; Bee & Dalakas, 2013; Dalakas & Levin, 2005; Davies, Veloutsou, & Costa, 2006), charitable beneficiaries (Park & Lee, 2015), evaluations of team-branded merchandise (Kwak, Kwon, & Lim, 2015), willingness to help others in emergency situations (Levine, Prosser, Evans, & Reicher, 2005), and willingness to consider committing acts of verbal and anonymous aggression toward participants and other fans (Havard, Wann, & Ryan, 2013; Rahmati, Kabiri, & ShadManfaat, 2014; Wann, Haynes, McLean, & Pullen, 2003; Wann, Peterson, Cothran, & Dykes, 1999; Wann & Waddill, 2013). Finally, Berendt and Uhrich (2016) found that rivalry can also carry benefits for sport fans such as in-group distinctiveness and cohesion.

Perceptions of Rival Teams in Sport

The current study focuses on the *perceptions* of rivals and their influence on fan reactions and behavior to indirect failure by a rival team. Perceptions refer to how individuals evaluate a rival team and its fans, whether implicit or explicit (Wenger & Brown, 2014). The perceptions of a rival team entail four facets of a rivalry (Havard, Gray et al., 2013), which can be categorized into two settings: (a) during sport competition and (b) outside of sport competition. The two factors that measure fan perceptions during sport competition are labeled *Out-group Indirect Competition* (OIC) and *Sense of Satisfaction* (SoS). The OIC factor captures the likelihood of fans to support their rival in a contest against a third, neutral team. The SoS factor, on the other hand, captures the sense of satisfaction or excitement fans receive when their favorite team beats the rival in direct competition (Havard, Gray et al., 2013).

The two factors that measure fan perceptions of rival teams outside of sport competition are *Out-group Prestige* (OP) and *Out-group Sportsmanship* (OS; Havard, Gray et al., 2013). The OP factor measures how fans perceive the prestige of the city of the rival professional team, or the prestige of the academic rigor for the rival intercollegiate team. This factor supports the research of Cialdini and Richardson (1980), who found that college students described the characteristics of the rival school as less prestigious than characteristics of the school they attended. At the professional level, this is similar to a fan describing the rival city more negatively than the city where their favorite team plays. Finally, the OS factor represents one's evaluation of the behavior of rival team fans (Havard, Gray et al., 2013) and supports research on descriptions of out-group member behavior (Lalonde, 1992; Wann & Dolan, 1994; Wann & Grieve, 2005) and linguistic intergroup bias (Maass, Salvi, Arcuri, & Semin, 1989), which states people will differ in their descriptions of in-group and out-group members.

Research in US intercollegiate athletics found that fan rival perceptions are influenced by, among other variables, the outcome of the most recent rivalry game (Havard, Reams, & Gray, 2013). Additionally, team and league affiliation can impact rival perceptions and animosity (Cobbs, Sparks, & Tyler, 2017; Havard, 2016; Havard & Reams, 2016). Finally, conference realignment impacted fan perceptions and behavior toward rival teams and fans (Havard, Wann et al., 2013; Havard, Wann, & Ryan, 2017; Havard, Wann, Ryan, & O'Neal, 2017). To this point, however, research has not focused on how fans react toward a favorite team when

their rival experiences indirect failure, losing a third comparable team in this instance. It is important to understand how sport fans react to rival's indirect failure as it (a) adds to the literature examining the influence of sport rivalry and (b) can help practitioners better promote the sport product in a responsible way.

Determinants and Consequences of Glory Out of Reflected Failure

It is important to determine how specific fan behaviors and perceptions are correlated with GORFing. Figure 4.1 presents the conceptual framework of this study, which identifies fan perceptions of a rival team as

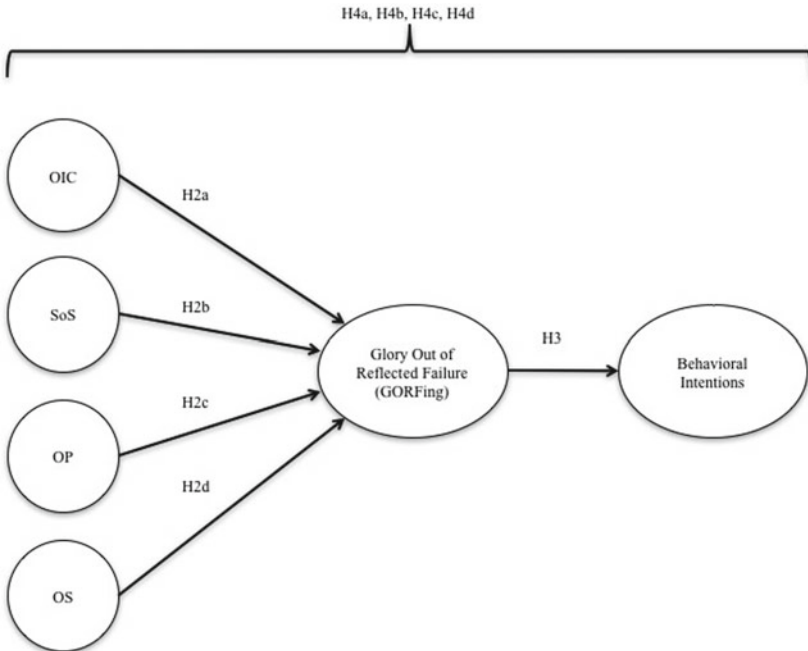


Fig. 4.1 Conceptual framework for H2–H4 (OIC = willingness to support a rival team when the play others; SoS = sense of satisfaction experienced when the favorite team defeats their rival team; OP = perceptions of rival prestige; OS = perceptions of rival team fan behavior)

determinants of GORFing, which, in turn, affects fans' likelihood to consume favorite team merchandise when the rival team loses to a third, comparable team. This framework proposes that the outcome examined, intention to consume favorite team merchandise, is influenced by rival perceptions through the mediation of GORFing. First, it is important to quantitatively show that the GORFing is a distinctive construct from factors constituting rival perceptions (Havard, Gray et al., 2013). A difference is hypothesized because the likelihood of GORFing is an outcome that occurs when a rival team experiences indirect failure (Havard, Inoue et al., 2018), whereas the measures used in the current study to understand views of rival teams occur exclusive of out-group success or failure. The following hypothesis is offered:

H1: GORFing will display distinct psychometric properties from rival team perceptions.

Once GORFing is shown to be a distinct psychometric measure from OIC, SoS, OP, and OS, the next step is to examine (a) how it is influenced by rival perceptions, and (b) how it influences a fan outcome. Because research shows that the facets of rivalry can influence fans in various ways, such as consumption likelihood (Havard et al., 2016), views of the out-group and in-group (Havard, Reams et al., 2013), and in-group member input (Kilduff et al., 2010), it also makes sense that rival perceptions can influence fan reactions such as GORFing. Therefore, the following hypothesis is offered to examine the influence of rival perceptions on fan likelihood of experiencing GORFing:

H2: OIC (*H2a*), SoS (*H2b*), OP (*H2c*), and OS (*H2d*) will significantly impact fan likelihood of experiencing GORFing when the rival loses to a third, comparable team.

Next, to test the predictive ability of GORFing on a fan outcome, we examine how the phenomenon directly impacts fan behavioral intentions toward their favorite team when the rival loses. For example, Carrillat et al. (2014) found that an athlete endorser scandal can not only hurt the direct sponsor but also influence competing products in the same category. In the current study, a rival team's loss to another team would not be considered a scandal; rather it may be considered celebratory, and therefore, we expect to see counter results. Additionally, because group affiliation influences the way people view and react toward members of the in-group and out-group, and the hypothesized influence of rival

perceptions on GORFing discussed above, we expect to see a relationship between likelihood of GORFing and favorite team behavioral intentions when a rival loses to a third, comparable team. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H3: GORFing will significantly impact fans' behavioral intentions toward their favorite team merchandise when the rival loses to a third, comparable team.

Our final hypothesis seeks to explain the roles GORFing would play in impacting fan behavioral intentions toward the favorite team. Specifically, the predictions made on H2 and H3 collectively suggest that GORFing may mediate the effects of rival perceptions on fan behavioral intentions. Therefore, the following hypothesis is developed:

H4: GORFing will mediate the relationships between OIC (*H4a*), SoS (*H4b*), OP (*H4c*), and OS (*H4d*) and fan behavioral intentions toward their favorite team merchandise when the rival loses to a third, comparable team.

In summary, H1 suggests that GORFing is a psychological response unique from the rival perceptions of OIC, SoS, OP, and OS, while H2 to H4 further propose GORFing as a mediator between the perceptions of a rival team and fan behavioral intentions toward their favorite team merchandise.

METHOD

Data Collection and Participants

The first purpose of the current study was to test H1 by examining whether GORFing represents a distinctive construct from the four facets of rival team perceptions proposed and validated by Havard, Gray et al. (2013): OIC, OP, OS, and SoS. Because GORFing and the factors of the SRFPS examine the relationship between a fan and their favorite team's rival, it is important to first show that the constructs are distinct before testing their influence on the outcome variable in the current study. The second purpose of this study was to test the structural relationships between rival team perceptions, likelihood of experiencing GORFing

outcomes, and likelihood of favorite team merchandise consumption, as hypothesized in H2–H4.

Data were collected using an online convenience sample of sport fans reached through Amazon MTurk. Only individuals indicating at least 18 years of age were allowed to complete the survey, and participants were paid \$0.50 upon survey completion. Nine hundred and fifty-seven individuals started the survey, and 699 participants completed the survey for a completion rate of 73%. Of the 699 participants, the final sample consisted of 555 participants who provided usable answers for all study constructs, resulting in a usable completion rate of 58%. Responses were dropped from analysis based on a number of factors. First, incomplete surveys (e.g., ones with missing responses to answer the hypotheses) were excluded. Second, as a way to ensure sport fans were used in analysis, if individuals did not identify an existing team, their responses were removed. Next, if individuals did not identify actual rival teams or rival comparable teams, their results were removed. Finally, the researchers examined participant responses for consistency between favorite, rival, and rival comparable teams, and those where consistency was not found were removed.

The final sample included 63.6% male and 36.0% female, with two participants (0.4%) choosing not to provide gender information. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 77 ($M = 33.49$, $SD = 11.25$), with roughly one-third of the sample being 25–30 years of age and constituting the largest age group. People who identified as white made up the majority of the sample (66.3%), followed by Asian (19.6%), African American (7.0%), Hispanic (4.3%), and Pacific Islander (0.4%), and 13 people did not disclose their ethnicity (2.4%). Regarding a favorite team, 77.1% of the sample indicated following a team in the United States, and the remaining 22.9% indicated following a team in another country. In addition, 76.9% identified a professional team as their favorite team, while 23.1% identified a US intercollegiate athletic team as their favorite team.

Measures

In the survey, respondents first identified their own favorite team (either a professional or US intercollegiate athletic team) and indicated their perceptions of the team using the Team Identification Index (Trail, Anderson, & Fink, 2000). Next, they identified (a) a team they considered to be the main rival of their favorite team and (b) a team they

believed to be comparable to the rival team (i.e., a team the respondent perceived as comparable to the greatest rival other than the favorite team²), and responded to questions relating to both teams. Following Sierra, Taute, and Heiser (2010), respondents chose their own rival to control against any confusion that may be caused by the authors identifying one a priori. This also allowed fans to identify the team they believe to be the most significant rival, as rival teams may vary among sport fans (Tyler & Cobbs, 2017; Wann et al., 2016). Additionally, to ensure the rival was made salient during the study (Luellen & Wann, 2010), the names of the favorite team, rival team, and team comparable to the rival team were used in subsequent questions throughout the survey. Measures for the study constructs are explained below.

Likelihood of GORFing

Because no existing scales were available to measure the likelihood of experiencing GORFing, we developed a 3-item scale based on qualitative findings from Havard (2014). Specifically, fans indicated their favorite team was superior to their rival, wanted to brag to others about their favorite team, and felt better about themselves following a rival team's indirect failure (Havard, 2014). Participants responded to the following three 7-point Likert scale items (1 [*Very Unlikely*] to 7 [*Very Likely*]) "How likely are you to feel your favorite team is superior to the rival team when the rival team loses to its comparable team?"; "How likely are you to brag to others about your favorite team when the rival team loses to its comparable team?"; and "How likely are you to feel better about yourself when the rival team loses to its comparable team?"³ These three items yielded an acceptable reliability ($\alpha = .72$) based on preliminary data provided by another group of sport fans recruited through MTurk ($N = 229$).

Rival Team Perceptions

Four factors capturing the perceptions of the rival team were measured using the Sport Rivalry Fan Perception Scale (SRFPS; Havard, Gray et al., 2013). This scale is designed to evaluate fans' rival team perceptions based

²Wording for Rival Comparable Team: "Please identify a team you believe to be comparable to your BIGGEST RIVAL other than the identified FAVORITE TEAM". A parenthetical example was included in the question wording.

³Modified from Havard and Hutchinson (2017).

on the four facets of a rivalry—OIC, OP, OS, and SoS—discussed above. Each facet (or factor) in the SRFPS is measured with three items on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly Agree*). Higher scores on the OP, OS, and SoS factors indicate stronger negative perceptions of the rival team, while higher scores on the OIC factor indicate stronger positive perceptions. Scores from the OIC factor were reverse coded for consistency with the other three factors. The SRFPS has been used to measure rival perceptions in multiple settings including intercollegiate and professional sport (Havard & Hutchinson, 2017; Havard et al., 2016; Nichols, Cobbs, & Raska, 2016; Wann et al., 2016).

The SRFPS was originally created using a sample of highly identified fans of intercollegiate athletics, with the intent to be applied to other sport contexts (Havard, Gray et al., 2013). However, later studies modified items in OP for non-college sport fans, to measure the prestige of the city or region where the rival team plays.

Behavioral Intentions Toward the Favorite Team

Two 7-point Likert scale items (1 [*Very Unlikely*] to 7 [*Very Likely*]) were adapted from Havard et al. (2016) to measure fans' behavioral intentions toward the favorite team, especially in terms of the consumption of team merchandise. For these items, participants were asked to indicate their intentions to purchase and wear favorite team merchandise when the main rival team lost to a comparable team. These two items were used based on the definition of the variable. In particular, the current study was interested in fan active presentation of team affiliation in the form of favorite team merchandise consumption rather than more private ways of consuming a favorite team (e.g., watching games on television or the Internet).

Team Identification

A 3-item subscale of team identification from the Team Identification Index (Trail et al., 2000) was used to measure respondents' perception of psychological connection with their favorite team. All three items from this subscale were measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly Agree*). Team identification was treated as a control variable in the current study, as the construct has been shown to influence many facets of fan behavior (Bizman & Yinon, 2002;

Campbell, Aiken, & Kent, 2004; Funk & James, 2001, 2006; Wann & Branscombe, 1990, 1993).

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Testing of Measurement Model

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed using Mplus 7.0 to test the discriminant validity of GORFing as proposed in H1 and further assess the reliability and validity of the measures for the other constructs. To address a potential violation of multivariate normality, we employed an estimation method using maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors (MLR; Muthén & Muthén, 2010). The measurement model consisting of likelihood of GORFing (3 items), OIC (3 items), OP (3 items), OS (3 items), SoS (3 items), behavioral intentions (2 items), and team identification (3 items) yielded the following model fit indices: $\chi^2/df = 280.249/149 = 1.881$, CFI = .975, RMSEA = .040, SRMR = .034. These values suggest an adequate model fit for the measurement model (Hu & Bentler, 1999; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011).

Table 4.1 shows the results of CFA based on the measurement model. All measures included in the model met the threshold level of 0.70 for construct reliability and 0.50 for average variance extracted (AVE), demonstrating adequate reliability and convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; MacKenzie et al., 2011). Furthermore, as shown in the correlation matrix of the constructs in Table 4.2, a square root of the AVE value of each construct was greater than correlation coefficients between any pair of the constructs, supporting discriminant validity for all constructs in the measurement model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Consequently, the results provided evidence for H1 by demonstrating that the GORFing phenomenon represents unique outcomes that are distinguishable from the perceptions of the rival team (i.e., facets of SRFPS). The results further supported the reliability and validity of the constructs in the measurement model.

Testing of Measurement Invariance

The measurement model may be subject to construct bias (Kline, 2005) because (a) the final sample consisted of both participants following a professional team ($n = 427$, 76.9%) and those following an intercollegiate

Table 4.1 Standardized factor loadings, construct reliability coefficients, and average variance extracted for the measurement model

<i>Construct/Item</i>	β	CR	AVE
<i>Team identification</i>			
1. I consider myself to be a “real” fan of my favorite team	.74	.85	.66
2. I would experience a loss if I had to stop being a fan of my favorite team	.75		
3. Being a fan of my favorite team is very important to me	.92	.91	.77
<i>Willingness to support a rival team when they play others (OIC)^a</i>			
1. I would support the rival team in a championship game	.80		
2. I would support the rival team in out-of-conference play	.94		
3. I want the rival team to win all games except when they play my favorite team	.88	.87	.69
<i>Perceptions of rival prestige (OP)^b</i>			
1. The prestige of the rival team is poor	.76		
2. I feel people who live where the rival team play missed out on a good life	.85		
3. I feel the city where the rival team play is not very prestigious	.88	.90	.76
<i>Perceptions of rival team fan behavior (OS)</i>			
1. Fans of the rival team demonstrate poor sportsmanship at games	.89		
2. Fans of the rival team are not well behaved games	.88		
3. Fans of the rival team do not show respect for others	.85		

<i>Construct/Item</i>	β	<i>CR</i>	<i>AVE</i>
<i>Sense of satisfaction experienced when the favorite team defeats their rival team (SoS)</i>			
1. I feel a sense of belonging when the favorite team beats the rival team	.85	.88	.72
2. I feel a sense of accomplishment when the favorite team beats the rival team	.88		
3. I feel I have bragging rights when the favorite team beats the rival team	.81		
<i>Behavioral intentions toward the favorite team</i>			
1. How likely are you to wear your favorite team merchandise when the rival team loses to its comparable team?	.87	.83	.70
2. How likely are you to purchase your favorite team merchandise when the rival team loses to its comparable team?	.81		
<i>Likelihood of GORFing (modified)</i>			
1. How likely are you to feel your favorite team is superior to the rival team when the rival team loses to its comparable team?	.78	.84	.64
2. How likely are you to brag to others about your favorite team when the rival team lost to its comparable team?	.85		
3. How likely are you to feel better about yourself when the rival team loses to its comparable team?	.77		

Author Source—Used in the Current Study

Team identification—Trail et al. (2000); *SRFPS subscales* (OIC, OP, OS, SoS)—Havard, Gray et al., 2013; Behavioral intentions toward the favorite team—Havard et al. (2016); *GORFing*—Havard and Hutchinson (2017)

Note $N = 555$; $\beta =$ standardized factor loading; *CR* = construct reliability coefficient; *AVE* = average variance extracted. All standardized factor loadings were significant ($p < .001$). Actual team names were used for favorite, rival, and comparable teams in the survey. All items were measured with a 7-point Likert scale

^aAll items under this subscale were reverse coded before the analysis

^bThe following items were used for college samples: (1) The academic prestige of the rival team is poor; (2) I feel people who attended school where the rival team plays missed out on a good education; (3) I feel the academics where the rival team plays are not very prestigious

Table 4.2 Descriptive statistics and correlations

<i>Construct</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>
1. Team identification	5.69	1.20	(.81)						
2. OIC	5.12	1.77	.16**	(.88)					
3. OP	2.94	1.58	.08	.06	(.83)				
4. OS	4.14	1.64	.24**	.31**	.48**	(.87)			
5. SoS	5.72	1.24	.57**	.28**	.06	.37**	(.85)		
6. Behavioral intentions toward the favorite team	4.08	1.69	.36**	.07	.21**	.23**	.35**	(.84)	
7. Likelihood of GORFing	4.38	1.57	.38**	.22	.32**	.39**	.45**	.75**	(.80)

Note *N* = 555; *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; OIC = willingness to support a rival team when they play others; OP = perceptions of rival prestige; OS = perceptions of rival team fan behavior; SoS = sense of satisfaction experienced when the favorite team defeats their rival team. Values in parentheses represent the square roots of the average variance extracted

** *p* < .01

team ($n = 128$, 23.1%) and (b) the measures of OP were modified for the former group of participants only as discussed above. To address this concern, we conducted a test of measurement invariance through a multi-sample CFA by dividing the sample into a group of professional sport fans ($n = 427$) and another group of intercollegiate sport fans ($n = 128$). This test involves the comparison of the model fit between a constrained model that specifies factor loadings to be equal across groups and a less constrained model that freely estimates factor loadings for each group (Kline, 2005).

Measurement invariance across the groups can be supported if the fit of the constrained model is comparable to that of the freely estimated model, as suggested by a value of the difference in CFI between the two models equal to or smaller than .01 (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). In this study, the constrained model restricting all factor loadings to be equal between the group of professional sport fans and that of intercollegiate sport fans provided a CFI of .959, whereas the less constrained model estimating the factor loadings freely for each group provided a CFI of .961. These CFI values led to a CFI of .002, supporting measurement variance between the two groups (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). Consequently, samples of both professional and intercollegiate sport fans were combined into one group ($N = 555$) in testing H2–H4.

Testing of Structural Model

To test the relationships presented in Fig. 4.1, a structural model was performed through Mplus 7.0. This structural model specified each of the four factors of rival team perceptions as an exogenous variable with a direct path to likelihood of GORFing. In turn, likelihood of GORFing was specified as a mediator between the four factors of rival team perceptions and the likelihood of merchandise consumption. Finally, team identification was included as a control variable that has a direct path to the likelihood of merchandise consumption to examine the behavioral influence of GORFing beyond team identification. The analysis provided the following results for the goodness-of-fit indices, $\chi^2/df = 296.819/154 = 1.927$, CFI = .973, RMSEA = .041, SRMR = .041, suggesting an adequate model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; MacKenzie et al., 2011).

Table 4.3 presents the results of the standardized coefficients for the direct paths in the structural model. First, regarding the effects of the four

Table 4.3 Standardized results of the direct paths in the structural model

<i>Path</i>	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>Hypothesis Supported?</i>
OIC → Likelihood of GORFing	.05	.05	H2a	No
SoS → Likelihood of GORFing	.39**	.05	H2b	Yes
OP → Likelihood of GORFing	.24**	.06	H2c	Yes
OS → Likelihood of GORFing	.10	.07	H2d	No
Likelihood of GORFing → Behavioral intentions toward the favorite team	.70**	.05	H3	Yes
Team identification → Behavioral intentions toward the favorite team	.11**	.04	NA	NA

Note $N = 555$; β = standardized coefficient; *SE* = standard error; OIC = willingness to support a rival team when they play others; SoS = sense of satisfaction experienced when the favorite team defeats their rival team; OP = perceptions of rival prestige; OS = perceptions of rival team fan behavior

** $p < .01$

factors of rival team perceptions on likelihood of GORFing, significant positive results were identified for SoS ($\beta = .39$, $p < .001$) and OP ($\beta = .24$, $p < .001$), but not for OS ($\beta = .10$, $p = .12$) and OIC ($\beta = .05$, $p = .34$). These results provided support for H2b and H2c, but rejected H2a and H2d. Next, the results identified a strong positive association between likelihood of GORFing and behavioral intentions ($\beta = .70$, $p < .001$), confirming H3. Additionally, team identification had a significant positive association with behavioral intentions ($\beta = .11$, $p = .005$), but its effect was smaller than the effect of likelihood of GORFing.

Furthermore, the mediating effects of likelihood of GORFing were tested by examining bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals (CI) for indirect effects based on 5000 bootstrap samples (Shrout & Bolger, 2002; Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010). As shown in Table 4.4, the 95% CI for the indirect effect of SoS [.191, .357] and OP [.089, .245] on behavioral intentions through likelihood of GORFing excluded zero, providing support for H4b and H4c. On the other hand, the indirect effect of OS [−.021, .162] and OIC [−.034, .097] included zero, leading to the rejection of H4a and H4d. Overall, the results identified likelihood of GORFing as a mediator that transmits the effects of SoS and OP (but not OS and OIC) on behavioral intentions.

Table 4.4 Bootstrap test of the indirect results

<i>Path</i>	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>Bootstrapping</i> (95% <i>CI</i>)		<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>Hypothesis Supported?</i>
			<i>Lower 2.5%</i>	<i>Upper 2.5%</i>		
OIC → Likelihood of GORFing → Behavioral intentions toward the favorite team	.032	.033	-.033	.097	H4a	No
SoS → Likelihood of GORFing → Behavioral intentions toward the favorite team	.274	.044	.191	.357	H4b	Yes
OP → Likelihood of GORFing → Behavioral intentions toward the favorite team	.167	.040	.089	.245	H4c	Yes
OS → Likelihood of GORFing → Behavioral intentions toward the favorite team	.071	.047	-.021	.162	H4d	No

Note $N = 555$; β = standardized coefficient; *SE* = standard error; *CI* = confidence interval; OIC = willingness to support a rival team when they play others; SoS = sense of satisfaction experienced when the favorite team defeats their rival team; OP = perceptions of rival prestige; OS = perceptions of rival team fan behavior

DISCUSSION

The current study focused on the GORFing phenomenon, how fan rival perceptions impact the likelihood of experiencing this outcome, and the influence of the outcome on behavior intentions toward their favorite team when the rival lost to a third, comparable team. First, results show that GORFing is distinct from the facets of fan rival perceptions and can therefore be used in coordination or independent from the SRFPS. These findings are important, as they provide quantitative support for the GORFing phenomenon, which was previously observed only from qualitative data (Havard, 2014). Based on the current evidence, future

researchers can use the GORFing phenomenon to quantitatively investigate the reactions toward a favorite team fans experience when their rival loses to another, neutral team. The current study tested (a) what would determine the likelihood of fans to experience GORFing when a rival loses to another team, and (b) how GORFing influences behavioral intentions toward a favorite team following a rival's indirect failure.

Second, the current study found that fans' perceptions of rival prestige, along with the sense of satisfaction experienced when their favorite team beats their rival team, were positively correlated with their likelihood of experiencing GORFing. In other words, the more negative a fan perceives the prestige of the rival to be, the more satisfaction they receive when the rival loses to someone other than their favorite team (i.e., GORFing). It is important to point out that fans reporting negative perceptions of rival prestige do not necessarily correspond with the *actual* prestige or how others (i.e., not highly identified fans) view the rival's prestige (Havard et al., 2018). In this way, reporting negative prestige of a rival team serves primarily as a way for someone to favorably compare their in-group to the out-group. This also supports findings from Elsbach and Bhattacharya (2001) stating that people will applaud the failure of an out-group they perceive to be negative in some way. Further, the greater sense of satisfaction a fan gets when their favorite team beats the rival, the greater likelihood he or she will experience GORFing when the rival loses to a third team. This could be attributed to individuals wanting to compare favorably to others in order to feel better about oneself, which supports the assertion of Mowen (2004) that people can do so through vicarious experiences. One way to favorably compare to another is to rejoice when they lose to a third team while believing the favorite team would fare better in the given situation.

The study also provided evidence that likelihood of experiencing GORFing is correlated with fan behavior intentions toward their favorite team when the rival team loses to a third, comparable team. This is important because it shows that fans not only celebrate a rival team's loss on a personal level (e.g., GORFing), but they also do actively (e.g., behavioral intentions toward a favorite team). Additionally, the relationship between GORFing and behavioral intentions was expected because the former was activated when the rival lost to someone other than the favorite team. The current findings also show that GORFing is a stronger predictor of behavioral intentions than team identification, which has previously been discussed as a key determinant of fan behavior.

Neither fans' willingness to support the rival against other teams or their perceptions of rival fan behavior had a significant effect on likelihood of experiencing GORFing. Regarding the willingness to support for the rival in indirect competition, one possible explanation for this finding is that fans who are not willing to support their rival in indirect competition do not necessarily root against the rival team. Instead, perhaps the fans either choose not to consume the rival's game or may watch with little rooting interest. This finding contradicts that of Mahony and Moorman (1999) indicating that fans of the National Basketball Association were likely to watch rival play someone other than the favorite team if they believed the rival would lose. A second explanation may be the multiple group identities that fans experience such as conference affiliation (Heere, James, Yoshida, & Scremin, 2011; Spinda, Wann, & Hardin, 2015). For example, fans may not support the rival in indirect competition; however, if their rival plays in the same conference as their favorite team, they may not experience joy if the rival loss will reflect poorly on the favorite team's conference. This should be tested in future examinations of rivalry. It is also interesting that evaluations of rival fan behavior are independent from the likelihood of experiencing GORFing. It would appear that the way someone perceives the behavior of out-group members may influence their likelihood of experiencing joy when the out-group members experience a form of failure, but that was not supported in the current study.

Finally, this study identified the meditational role GORFing can play between fan rival perceptions and behavioral intentions toward a favorite team when the rival loses to a comparable team. In particular, GORFing mediated the relationship between the sense of satisfaction felt when the favorite team defeats the rival team and behavioral intentions toward their favorite team. This is possibly an outcome of people wanting to positively compare to rival fans through the vicarious achievement of the favorite team (Mowen, 2004). GORFing also mediated the relationship between perceptions of rival fan sportsmanship and behavioral intentions toward the favored team, which asserts that not just the rival team failure, but also the perceived failure of rival supporters play a significant role in fans choosing to display affiliation with their favorite team. The current study was the first to address the meditational role that GORFing can play between rival perceptions and behavioral intentions. This is important because as previously shown, GORFing is activated when the rival team loses to a third team. Further, the higher likelihood a fan has of

experiencing GORFing makes them more likely to consume favorite team merchandise when their rival team loses to a third team.

Implications

Findings from the current study carry implications for both academics and practitioners. First, the current findings add to literature addressing the rivalry phenomenon in sport by confirming the existence of the GORFing phenomenon. The current study quantitatively examined GORFing (Havard, 2014) and showed that GORFing is an independent measure from that of rival perceptions and can be used as such in future study. Findings illustrated how rival perceptions and GORFing can be associated with behavioral intentions toward the favorite team when the rival loses to another team.

These findings add to the psychology literature, in particular to SIT and in-group bias, by testing how group identity influences an individual's reaction to a rival team's loss to a third, comparable team. For example, controlling for the level of identification a fan has with their favorite team extends the findings of Cikara et al. (2011). Further, the current study extends the literature on *schadenfreude* (Heider, 1958) by showing how a rival team's loss to another team can influence their outcomes toward a favorite team, regardless of favorite team performance. The assertion that GORFing is the competitive aspect of *schadenfreude* provides researchers with a starting place to begin investigating what specific differences exist between the phenomena.

The findings add to the marketing literature by illustrating that a rival or out-group indirect failure can lead to increased behavioral intentions toward the favorite team or brand. Previous authors assert that rivalry can influence television viewership (Mahony & Moorman, 1999), sponsor consumption (Dalakas & Melancon, 2012), and charitable beneficiaries (Park & Lee, 2015). The current study empirically asserts that (a) rival groups' indirect failure can positively impact behavioral intentions toward the favored group and (a) perceptions of the out-group influence these intentions. More investigation is needed to determine why or to what extent GORFing occurs and its influence on behavioral intentions, and the current study provides such a basis. The current study adds to the rivalry and sport management literatures by showing how specific factors in the SRFPS affect likelihood to experience GORFing, which is important to further understand the rivalry phenomenon. For instance,

academics can focus on specific perceptions of rival teams to predict how a person will react to the competitive outcomes of the rival team.

Understanding how rival perceptions and GORFing can influence fan reaction is also important to practitioners. Practitioners can use findings from the current study to engage fans surrounding a rival's game against teams other than the favorite. For example, marketers can appeal to fans by showcasing the rival throughout the year. This is commonly on display in online chat rooms that devote space and topics to the rival team, whether or not they are playing the favorite. The findings are also critical for practitioners, as they can expect more people to represent the favorite team by wearing or purchasing merchandise following a rival team's indirect loss and plan accordingly. A note of caution is in order, however, to not increase negative feelings and behavior between rival fan groups. Academic research (Dalakas & Melancon, 2012; Havard, 2014; Lee, 1985) and popular culture examples (e.g., San Francisco Giants fan Bryan Stow beaten by Los Angeles Dodgers fans) assert that rivalry can foster deviant behavior if not properly controlled, and it is important that both researchers and practitioners are aware how their promotional actions can influence perceptions and behavior between rival fans. Additionally, rivalry games have been rated as more violent than non-rivalry games (Raney & Kinnally, 2009), and the messaging by media and organizations may inadvertently encourage negativity among rival groups (Havard & Eddy, 2019; Havard, Ferrucci, & Ryan, 2019; Havard, Wann, & Grieve, 2018). This further emphasizes the caution that should be displayed by managers when promoting relationships between competing teams or groups.

Even as the majority of the sample was made up of fans following teams within the United States, and a portion following US intercollegiate athletics, managers working in Europe can still draw conclusions and implications from the research. The understanding of fandom and how group membership influences the way people view and react to out-groups and rival teams reaches outside of the US setting. US intercollegiate athletics is a more unique setting than professional sport; however, there are counterparts in international sport. Mainly sport development clubs where participants and fans identify with an organization beyond the professional level. For example, in US intercollegiate athletics, some may identify with a team because that is where they received a degree of higher education or credential. This can be similar to someone identifying with a local club team based on what the team represents about

their community or because someone participated and was a member of the club during their formative years.

Limitations and Future Research

As with any investigation, the current study is not without limitations. The data collection process is worth addressing as a potential limitation, as fan responses could differ whether using online or offline collection procedures. The use of MTurk could be a possible limitation as well. Because of the nature of MTurk, researchers have to take precautions such as inclusion of control questions to ensure sport fans participation. Researchers should also collect data using team sites or fan pages to examine reliability of the findings. Striving for a larger sample from international sport would help inform researchers and managers how group members react to out-group failure.

Along with the ideas for future research presented throughout the discussion section, other avenues include focusing specifically on countries and teams outside of the United States. The majority of respondents in the current study followed teams based in the United States, and future comparison research of other countries and regions is needed to help improve the SRFPS measure. It is also important that qualitative research follows the findings in the current study to gain a better understanding of individual experiences of rivalry in sport. In particular, this type of research may help to shed light on the lack of relationship between certain variables. Future researchers are encouraged to use GORFing to investigate how a rival team's loss through indirect competition can affect fan perceptions and behavior toward their rival and favorite teams. For example, the current study addressed GORFing when a rival lost to a comparable team. Future studies could utilize an underdog team, along with periphery rival teams, to examine fan likelihood to experience GORFing. Based on Markman et al.'s (2009) assertion that organizations offering different products can form rivalries under certain circumstances, future research should investigate fans' likelihood of experiencing GORFing when a home team in a league other than the identified favorite team experiences failure. Finally, utilizing a more general scale to measure team identification or support may help determine what type of influence fandom has on GORFing, and future research should follow this path.

The current study informed the literature about the GORFing phenomenon, and suggested differences may be present between GORFing and *schadenfreude*. Future research should thus investigate how the two phenomena are related (Havard, 2014). Future research should also test the rivalry perceptions (i.e., SRFPS) and GORFing frameworks independent of the sport setting. For example, future study should examine how competitive aspects such as revenue or earnings influence behaviors toward rival brands and favorite brands. In other words, does a fan of Ford celebrate negative sales reports of General Motors internally and behaviorally as the sport fans in the current study did? Findings from Ewing et al. (2013) could assist in their endeavor. Finally, the current study utilized fan self-reported likelihood to experience GORFing and favorite team consumption questions. Future research should follow Havard and Dalakas' (2017) call to use fan behavioral data to further the understanding of the phenomenon. For example, utilizing fan data regarding favorite team consumption or merchandise consumption would provide more support for the current findings.

The current study addressed how fan behavior and rival perceptions can be associated with the likelihood of experiencing GORFing. The findings are useful to both academics and practitioners, as they further the understanding of fan and consumer behavior within the psychology, marketing, and sport management literatures, specifically fan reactions to the rivalry phenomenon. Future research is needed to explain fan reactions to the sport rivalry phenomenon, and the current study provides an important step in doing so.

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The Future of Rivalry Research and Promotion: A Call to Action

Cody T. Havard

Abstract This chapter discusses the future of research on rivalry ways the phenomenon can be promoted in a way that engages fans without encouraging deviant behavior and violence. In particular, the chapter acts as a call to action for academics to further our collective understanding of rivalry to help explain the human condition. Further, discussion also focuses on potential ideas and practices that can help practitioners promote rivalry in a responsible way. For example, practitioners are presented with ideas to engage with multiple fan identities, promote similarities among rival fans, develop and promote new rivalries responsibly, and engage youth in education about the phenomenon.

Keywords Rivalry · Fan behavior · Out-group derogation · Responsible promotion · Common In-group · Identity foreclosure

This chapter is a call to action for practitioners and researchers in sport. The section will blend potential solutions for practitioners with potential ways for researchers to investigate or test their effectiveness, while offering additional information to help move forward our understanding of the rivalry phenomenon. First, the current perspective provides tools that researchers could utilize in investigating the phenomenon. Whether wanting to identify or measure strength of rivalry (Tyler & Cobbs, 2017),

or testing for differences among facets and outcomes of rivalry (Dalakas & Levin, 2005; Havard, Gray, Gould, Sharp, & Schaffer, 2013; Havard, Inoue, & Ryan, 2018), investigators have reliable tools developed in the sport setting at their disposal.¹ Future research should utilize, critique, and refine these tools, along with identifying new measures for investigating the influence of rival on fans and group members. Further, foundational research into the sport rivalry phenomenon and its impact on sport fans are readily available online.²

Social psychology academics have introduced measures and procedures that could help sport management researchers investigate rivalry. For example, use of the General Aggression Model (GAM) can help researchers investigate why group members engage in aggressive behavior (DeWall, Anderson, & Bushman, 2011; Wann & James, 2019). Further, investigative procedures such as the voodoo doll task (VDT) assess participant aggression across various settings and should be employed by future researchers seeking to better understand rivalry (DeWall et al., 2013).³

POTENTIAL AVENUES FOR PRACTITIONERS AND RESEARCHERS

The potential solutions and avenues discussed below are presented with the goal of better understanding rivalry and thus decreasing the amount of negativity and violence surrounding rival competitions and relationships. It is first important to note that regardless of an organization's efforts, there will always be fan deviance and violence. Additionally, the same can be said of researchers' attempting to learn more about the phenomenon and fan behavior. Therefore, it is not suggested that the

¹100-point Rivalry Points (Tyler & Cobbs, 2017) and Sport Rivalry Fan Perception Scale (SRFPS: Havard, Gray et al., 2013) identify and measure rival strength and perceptions. Schadenfreude (Dalakas & Levin, 2005) and GORFing (Havard et al., 2018) instruments measure the way fans react to rival indirect failure.

²Historical information on rivalry is available at www.SportRivalry.com and contemporary data available at www.KnowRivalry.com.

³The VDT presents individuals with a representation (voodoo doll) of a rival or out-group member, to which they are asked how many times they would stab the doll. This method has displayed strong reliability in measuring aggressive tendencies toward an out-group in a more realistic way without putting actual fans and participants in harm's way. In the sport setting, it would be interesting to investigate how fan aggression would differ if the doll represented a generic fan or a fan or participant from an identified rival team.

suggestions presented will completely eliminate deviant fan behavior; rather, they are provided so that rivalry can be promoted in a more honest and positive manner.

Messaging to Multiple Fan Identities

First, managers must be cognizant of the messaging used to promote rivalries. For practitioners, they must try to equip their fans with information that allows them to behave in a proper and appropriate way. Findings discussed in this perspective suggest this can be accomplished by using associate terms, or terms that bring two groups together rather than separating them (e.g., *US, WE*), instead of *US Versus Everybody*. This practice works from the common in-group identity model (Gaertner, Dovidio, Anastasio, Bachman, & Rust, 1993). In short, this theory suggests that highlighting similarities between individuals, such as membership in larger in-groups, can decrease feelings of exclusion between out-group members (Shi, Dang, Zheng, & Liu, 2017). Further, identity foreclosure asserts that when an individual limits the number of interests they follow or groups in which they belong, forms of perceived failure by the identified group impact his/her image compared to individuals with various interests or whom belong to many groups (Beamon, 2012). Recent findings comparing fandom in sport fandom with other popular culture genres support these assertions (Havard, Grieve, & Lomenick, 2020; Havard, Wann, Grieve, & Collins, 2020).⁴ Experimental and field investigation using qualitative and quantitative methods could help test the effectiveness of such efforts. The use of both experimental and qualitative design is currently lacking regarding sport rivalry (Havard & Dalakas, 2017) and would greatly increase literature in the area. For example, an experiment designed to measure how messages engaging rival groups, followed by field data, would help further understanding of an organization's role in the promotion of rivalry.

A common example appealing to in-groups on multiple levels is the popular sentiment *Welcome to the Friendly Confines* at Wrigley Field, which can illicit positive associations surrounding competition and rival presence. That is not to say that a fan of the St. Louis Cardinals or

⁴In two studies, being a fan of both a sport team and Disney's Theme Parks (Havard, Wann, Grieve, & Collins, 2020) or sport and the comic genre (Havard et al., 2020) decreased reported derogation of the relevant out-group.

Chicago White Sox may not feel uneasy when they attend a game at Wrigley, but the overall message of the sentiment is that *all* consumers of baseball, regardless of team affiliation, are welcome. Another potential practice using the common in-group theory and extended contact hypothesis would be showing fans of rival teams bonding over shared interests. For example, the Chick-fil-A commercials showing rival fans eating together before a game are illustrative of this practice. Further, as the use of *theme nights*⁵ by sport organizations increases, showing fans of rival teams interacting with the theme could potentially decrease negativity and derogation toward the out-group. Finally, on this note, because sport is often promoted as a *common bond* between disparate groups, showing individuals from different backgrounds (e.g., race or ethnicity, nationality, etc.) may help promote acceptance of identified out-group members.

Promoting Similarities Between Fan Bases

This is not to say that rival teams do not cooperate and only display animosity toward the other.⁶ Numerous examples of rival teams promoting their relationship responsibly exist. For instance, when the University of Nebraska joined the Big Ten Conference and conference administrators decided they would play the Iowa Hawkeyes to end their football season, the schools worked together to create a rivalry that carried a positive message. In particular, administrators at the two started promoting the annual game as the *Heroes Game*, choosing to use the event to highlight accomplishments and cooperation between the two schools by honoring a citizen from each state that acted in heroic fashion (Heroes Game, 2011).⁷ Additionally, Nebraska shares a similar rivalry with Wisconsin, named the *Freedom Trophy*, meant to honor military

⁵Sport organizations use Theme Nights to, among other purposes, attract people that may not otherwise attend a game. Common Theme Nights include superheroes, princesses, Star Wars, Harry Potter, etc.

⁶Many rival teams offer assistance in the recovery efforts following natural or man-made disasters (Inoue & Havard, 2015).

⁷During the first *Heroes Game*, a woman from Nebraska was highlighted because she saved two children from a house fire, while a police officer from Iowa was chosen for fostering 125 children and rescuing a mother and child during a snowstorm.

members (Kirshner, 2016). Both of these examples use the common in-group identity model (Gaertner et al., 1993) by allowing fans to identify with in-groups and different levels. For example, fans of Nebraska, Iowa, and Wisconsin can belong to their respective in-groups and to a larger in-group based on their collective support of *heroes* in the state and the US military. Based on SIT (Tajfel, 1981), the ability for individuals to belong to these various groups broadens both their personal and public understanding of in-group and out-group members.

Another solution for working to alleviate out-group negativity is to organize and promote events that highlight positive interactions between rival teams and fan groups. An example of such an effort would include the *Sport Clubs for Peace* campaign in Honduras which attempts to decrease negativity and violence between supporters of rival clubs, or *barras* (Honduras: Bringing together, 2014). Extended contact hypothesis states that with increased level of exposure to an out-group member, the derogatory or negative nature between group members will decrease (Allport, 1954; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006; Schlueter & Scheepers, 2010). Recent work in sport supports this, as exposure to positive stories about rival cooperation led to more positive associations with the rival team, whereas negative stories regarding a physical confrontation between rival team fans caused consumers to reserve negative attitudes not only toward the rival team, but also toward the favorite team (Harvard, Ferrucci, & Ryan, 2019).⁸ So, like many rival teams do, hosting a joint-venture that positively impacts the community or people (e.g., food/blood drive, charity 5 K/golf tournament, etc.) not only positively impacts the sport product, but can also help to create a larger in-group and possibly increase acceptance of minimal group members. Qualitative interviews and field data would assist researchers in assessing the effectiveness of such practices. Further, interviewing and working with practitioners engaged in such practices would enlighten understanding in the area.

Developing and Promoting New Rivalries

Managers in need of identifying and promoting new rivalries, such as occurred following conference realignment, are encouraged to gauge

⁸An important takeaway for practitioners from these findings is that negative interactions between rival groups can ultimately hurt both brands, which may further erode individual's desire to consume the sport product.

their consumers to determine which teams elicit the strongest feelings of rivalry rather than identifying one a priori. This is suggested based on the observation that rivalries grow over time based on characteristics such as history and parity of competition (Kilduff, Elfenbein, & Staw, 2010; Tyler & Cobbs, 2015). For this reason, practitioners would be wise to allow rivalries to grow in a more organic nature as rivalries can spring up from expected or unexpected areas. This practice is also suggested because, as previously noted, fans play a vital role in determining which team(s) will be treated as a rival (Livingston, 2015). Once a team(s) has been identified, managers are then encouraged to display caution in their promotional messaging surrounding the rivalry. Additionally, referring back to previously stated solutions, managers should produce and promote interaction between fan groups while monitoring fans for both positive and negative actions surrounding the rivalry.

However, it should also be noted that fans tend to view rival games as more violent (Raney & Kinally, 2009), and the example of the *\$5 Bits of Broken Chair Trophy* between the University of Nebraska and University of Minnesota illustrates this.⁹ A trophy born online and supported by fans, over the convening years, the administrations from both schools have publicly acknowledged the rivalry name, with players, coaches, and mascots posing with the trophy following victories. When the universities ceased acknowledging the trophy, fans began a fundraising effort to support charities associated with each university, which ultimately led to the trophy being restored for the 2018 season (The Return of, 2018). This example raises an interesting question regarding what types of characteristics fans look for in rivalry games (e.g., do they prefer negative associative wording)? Further, in a *chicken-or-the-egg* scenario, do fans prefer negative words on their own or because managers and media companies promote rivalries using negative association? The use of a qualitative design would assist researchers and practitioners in this area. For example, interviewing fans about their preferred messaging regarding rival games and relationships would help practitioners seeking to develop new

⁹Before the 2014 matchup, popular Twitter personalities *Faux Pelini* (parody account of former Nebraska football coach Bo Pelini) and *Goldy Gopher* (official account of the Minnesota mascot) engaged in an exchange in which the two tried to determine a trophy to exchange after the game. *Goldy Gopher* suggested a wager be placed on the game, to which *Faux Pelini* retorted that he would pay \$5 if Nebraska lost, but could break a chair over *Goldy Gopher's* head if the Cornhuskers won. *Goldy Gopher* agreed as long as the bits of broken chair could be used for a trophy the next year (Vint, 2014).

rivalries. Additionally, supporting quantitative investigation would provide managers with data to use in the decision-making process.

Engage Youth in Responsible Fan Treatment

Organizations should attempt to engage with young fans regarding appropriate treatment of rival groups. People are typically taught favorite and rival team(s) by family members and close connections, which means the behavior modeled by others can play a heavy influence on younger fan reactions (Havard, 2014; Wann, Melnick, Russell, & Pease, 2001). For example, by the age of three, children can start to show forms of segregation and discrimination (Burnett, 2012), which heightens the need for positive modeling. Among many programs that exist to teach children about acceptance and model appropriate behavior toward others, *Fair Play* encourages athletes to display characteristics such as fair competition, respect, and tolerance,¹⁰ and the *Adventures with Sport Rivalry Man*, and accompanying curriculum is an attempt to use sport and superhero comics to teach readers about appropriate group member treatment.¹¹ Future inquiry on young fans is vitally important to understanding the phenomenon and identifying responsible ways to promote rivalry.

Additional Areas for Further Inquiry

The study of rivalry would also greatly benefit from the use of diverse participant samples, such as fans of international sport, along with minority groups such as women and non-Caucasian fans. It very well may be the case that women and minority groups experience rivalry the same as Caucasian males; however, future investigation is required to add to our current understanding. Currently, little is known about how rivalry influences fans in individual sport. Two studies have investigated rivalry in this setting (Ambrose & Schnitzlein, 2017; Reams & Eddy, 2017); however, much more information is needed to inform the area.

¹⁰Information available at www.fairplayinternational.org.

¹¹Stories and curriculum available at www.sportrivalry.com. Curriculum focuses on themes such as teamwork, acceptance, and anti-bullying behaviors. A goal of the curriculum is for children to take lessons outside of the sport setting and potentially speak to others about appropriate group member behavior.

Regarding fan reactions to rival indirect outcomes, research on *schadenfreude* has shed light on an interesting aspect of rivalry (Cikara, Botvinik, & Fiske, 2011; Leach & Spears, 2009); however, little is known about how fans react when a rival team succeeds. Investigating *gluckschmerz*, or experiencing pain from another person's success, future researchers could help provide a more comprehensive perspective of fan reactions to both the successes and failures of out-groups (Smith & van Dijk, 2018). Based on the works discussed here, one could predict that people would exhibit negativity toward the success of a rival; however, future research is needed to either support or contradict such a hypothesis.

Finally, the myriad of suggestions provided in this section only scratch the surface of avenues for potential avenues and future study. Therefore, a final call to action is for researchers to identify new questions and methods to investigate the phenomenon, and to engage in collaborative inquiries in order to add, challenge, and thereby improve the overall understanding of rivalry. With every investigation comes numerous avenues for future inquiry and potential solutions, and as our understanding of rivalry grows, such paths will expand.

CONCLUSION

With the current state of discourse in society, much of that found and flamed online, sport now has the opportunity to take a leading role in bringing people of diverse backgrounds together, as managers like to claim. In order to do that however, managers have to properly address the negativity that presently surrounds the rival teams, participants, and fans. To paraphrase LeBron James comments during an interview about his new "I Promise" school for at-risk children in Akron, Ohio, sport was, is, and can be an outlet or medium to let people come together from diverse backgrounds. With the collective work of managers, both in the academy and in the front office, hopefully, the positive consequences of fandom can carry over out of the sport setting.

If the goal of sport *really* is to bring people together, sport managers can help accomplish this by responsibly administering the sport product, which includes the responsible promotion of rivalry and competition. To this point, managers must be aware of the negative consequences that sport rivalry and fan deviance and violence bring to the setting. Additionally, sport organizations do not have the luxury of either excluding

potential consumers or having people cease to use products or services due to fan negative behavior. Rivalry is used to engage fans and increase interest in a competition; however, many of the examples above illustrate that organizations and managers have a lot to learn about the responsible use of rivalry to engage and excite fans. With all the positive outcomes sport can give society, the field must collectively focus attention toward finding solutions for decreasing fan deviance and violence, and increasing responsible promotion and consumption of the product. This perspective provides an opportunity for others to take further steps in understanding fan and fan group relationships while discussing possible causes and solutions, and managers should welcome such discourse.

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Sport Rivalry Man Curriculum: A Superhero and Teaching Rivalry and Group Behavior

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Abstract This chapter introduces an online source which educators can use to teach about the rivalry phenomenon and group member behavior. The *Adventures with Sport Rivalry Man* stories and accompanying curriculum can be found on www.SportRivalry.com and provide easy access to stories and lessons on issues facing contemporary children such as bullying, teamwork, decision making, and helping others. The commentary focuses on the character Sport Rivalry Man, the *Adventures with Sport Rivalry Man* stories, and how to best utilize the curriculum. The tech corner commentary concludes with a discussion on the purpose and goals of the curriculum.

Keywords Rivalry · Sport Rivalry Man · Curriculum · Group member behavior · Acceptance

Children growing up in the United States and beyond are frequently exposed to negative group behavior out-group derogation. For example, on television, children can view shows in which hosts and guests debate,

sometimes negatively, on topics like politics, popular culture, sport, religion, race relations, and a myriad of other things. Children also see negativity on television through shouting matches, name-calling, and physical confrontation of out-group members. Further, children are exposed to negative messaging in the online environment as well as on mediums like Facebook, Twitter, and other social media platforms, along with popular sites and in chat rooms and editorial comment sections. Finally, children also see their parents and other adults engage in derogatory behavior toward out-group members. Collectively, children seeing these examples ultimately influence their attitudes and behaviors toward others. In fact, children as young as five years of age have been found to display bias against another group (Williams & Steele, 2017). These examples present a question to contemporary educators: How can children be taught about the correct ways to treat out-group members?

The current tech corner commentary addresses this question by describing a curriculum that uses popular mediums like sport and superhero comics to teach children about appropriate group member behavior. Specifically, we developed a superhero named Sport Rivalry Man and featured him in stories about rivalry and group member behavior entitled *Adventures with Sport Rivalry Man*. Further, an accompanying curriculum entitled Sport Rivalry Man Curriculum was created to use the comics in the grade school setting to instruct students of the rivalry phenomenon and appropriate group member behavior. Further, increasing the potential for wide distribution of the lessons, all stories and curriculum are available in the online format. The following sections detail the curriculum by (1) introducing Sport Rivalry Man, (2) discussing the *Adventures with Sport Rivalry Man* stories, and (3) explaining how the curriculum should be used in educational settings to teach learners about group member behavior and appropriate out-group member treatment. The commentary ends with a discussion of the stated purpose, goals, and desired outcomes of the online curriculum.

SPORT RIVALRY MAN

The superhero character, Sport Rivalry Man, began with a college class about the rivalry phenomenon and its influence on group members (Havard, 2019). Specifically, the first author offers an online graduate-level course in which students learn about how the rivalry phenomenon influences fans and organizations. A major aspect of the course centers

around a discussion of what managers and organizations can do to better promote the sport or entertainment product in a responsible way. As part of the course, the characters Jeff and Jeffrey are used to illustrate that members of different groups or opposing fans share similar characteristics. In fact, Jeff and Jeffrey are intentionally the same cartoon character to illustrate that their only difference is the groups in which they claim membership.¹

During one of the final discussions of a previous semester, the idea was presented about creating a superhero to teach children and readers about rivalry and group member behavior. At this time in the online video content, Jeff grows large muscles and dons a superhero costume complete with cape and states, “Fear not, for I am Sport Rivalry Man.” From this beginning image, the character went through several drafts and iterations until the current Sport Rivalry Man was developed.

Sport Rivalry Man was first used in comics and cartoons detailing historical rivalries in college and professional sport.² He was featured in these stories in an attempt to grow awareness of the character and interest in the stories. The next goal for Sport Rivalry Man was to make him the main source of a fan’s conscience in stories about fan behavior. Thus, the *Adventures with Sport Rivalry Man* stories were created. Serving as the protagonist’s main compass or conscience guide, Sport Rivalry Man follows the path of similar characters meant to teach moral stories like Jiminy Cricket.

ADVENTURES WITH SPORT RIVALRY MAN STORIES

The *Adventures with Sport Rivalry Man* stories are meant to expose students and readers to current issues facing our society’s youth. Therefore, the eleven stories currently available³ put the main protagonists in situations where they have to make appropriate decisions regarding treatment of an out-group member. For example, two stories address bullying tendencies, both in-person and online (based on group membership), two stories feature helping rival fans, two feature welcoming

¹For more information on Sport Rivalry Man, see Havard, C. T. (2019). Introducing Sport Rivalry Man, protector of positive fan behavior. *Transformative Works and Cultures* 2019.

²Historical rivalry comics and cartoons are available at www.sportrivalry.com.

³See <http://www.sportrivalry.com/comicstripsandpodcasts/comic-strips/>.

out-group members, three address ceasing derogation of the out-group, and two discuss proper reactions to rival competition.

Premises and ideas for the *Adventures with Sport Rivalry Man* stories often come from established research or personal experience. For example, the story about someone helping a rival fan changes a flat tire originated from a study which showed people were less likely to help rival fans in emergency situations (Levine, Prosser, Evans, & Reicher, 2005). Additionally, the story *James at the Big Game*, about a fan that begins to cheer for the injury of a rival player, comes from both research suggesting that fans view rival games to be more violent than non-rival games (Raney & Kinnally, 2009), and a personal experience of the first author. Further, the inspiration for new stories comes from creators viewing negative lessons being taught to children through sport or popular culture that could influence young viewers to emulate the undesirable behavior. For this reason, new storylines and comics are added as needed.

Recently, the *Adventures with Sport Rivalry Man* stories have started to place the children protagonists at the center of the appropriate decision-making process. For example, whereas early stories had Sport Rivalry Man instructing and reminding the protagonists how to treat out-group members appropriately, newer narratives feature children making the correct decision on their own, with the help of their conscience guide, and then educating adults on appropriate group member behavior. This type of storytelling is used to illustrate to young readers that their behavior could positively influence that of others, regardless of their age or stature. For instance, in two stories, the children protagonists decide to either talk to their parents about negative behavior surrounding a rivalry game or have the family leave so that they are not exposed to the negative situation. In another story about acceptance of out-group members, it is the daughter of a diner owner that persuades her father to treat rival fans in his establishment the same as those supporting the preferred team. Finally, it is a young fan that teaches a high-profile football coach not to mock a player on the rival team during the heat of competition. These stories, in particular, highlight the ability of children to influence the behavior of adults and role models.

SPORT RIVALRY MAN CURRICULUM

To accompany the *Adventures with Sport Rivalry Man* stories, and following evidence that using the stories to learn about rivalry positively

influenced views and behavior toward out-groups (Havard & Workman, 2018), a curriculum was developed to be used in the grade school setting. This curriculum currently features five lesson plans that revolve around important topics facing youth. Specifically, lesson plans addressing online bullying, school or in-person bullying, decision making, showing kindness and compassion, and teamwork are available to educators.⁴

Each topic is accompanied by a lesson plan, at least one *Adventures with Sport Rivalry Man* story, and activities meant to engage students in the learning process. Each lesson plan identifies grades to which the topic is appropriate, the expected amount of time required to cover the information, related ASCA Mindsets and Behaviors, Learning Objectives, accompanying materials, and suggested procedures. The lessons were produced by and in cooperation with training and professional school counselors, who followed the American School Counseling Association Mindset and Behaviors for Student Success: K-12 College- and Career-Readiness Standards for Every Student. These mind-sets and behaviors are broken down into the domains of academic development, career development, and social/emotional development.

The lesson plans are discussion-based and typically open up with questions that gauge existent student knowledge on the topic. Students are then exposed to the story, either via comic book or animated fashion, and the topic is explained by the educator. To end the learning session, students are asked to participate in an activity to reinforce the lesson and then discuss and recap what they learned. The supportive materials and activities include a word find featuring words like rivalry, kindness, and friendship, and a maze for students to trace and find the exit. A coloring page of Sport Rivalry Man can be used to have students color in favorite or rival team colors, or a mixture of the two. Finally, a cutout template can be found which resembles the popular Flat Stanley activity, and allows educators to cut out and laminate Sport Rivalry Man for students to take with them and take pictures at different locations, games, or in competitive situations.

⁴Curriculum available at <http://www.sportrivalry.com/sport-rivalry-man-curriculum/>.

Using the Curriculum

The curriculum was designed for educators to use in various group settings; however, because of the discussion aspect, it will probably serve a small group more effectively. The curriculum can be used by school counselors, classroom teachers, or instructional aids during school functions. Additionally, the online stories and curriculum can be used in any educational setting, such as community centers, community libraries, and child care or pre-school centers. Great care was taken to ensure that educators electing to use the online teaching tool had easy access to the lesson plans, activities, and stories. Further, educators are not required to have an expansive existing knowledge of rivalry, sport, comics, or superheroes to make use of the curriculum. Along with being available on www.SportRivalry.com, the curriculum has also been posted on the popular site www.TeachersPayTeachers.com to increase exposure to the tool. Finally, the rapid access to an online platform greatly increases the usability of the lessons and stories.

Future of the Curriculum

As children are exposed to more examples of negative behavior, it has become more important that educators, parents, and other influential adults are provided with materials that can be used to teach appropriate interaction between group members. This curriculum is one of many tools available to educators, and it is the goal of the developers to further refine lessons, develop new lessons, and increase distribution of the lesson plans and materials to better equip educators with relevant tools needed in the work of informing children of rivalry and modeling appropriate group behavior.

For this reason, the developers have started to design programs and lesson plans for different audiences as well. For example, developers have entertained initial discussions on teaching older populations and fan groups, whether sport or not sport, about the phenomenon and group member behavior. Additionally, more *Adventures with Sport Rivalry Man* stories are being planned, similar to popular comic storylines, to provide a backstory for Sport Rivalry Man and possibly document his struggle to maintain his high standards of appropriate fandom and group member behavior. Potential stories may even have Sport Rivalry Man travel out of the sport setting to address contemporary and historical issues. Further,

to provide additional support for youth, children would serve as the conscience for Sport Rivalry Man in situations of strife for the superhero to again communicate that young readers and learners can positively influence the behavior of others, regardless of age or perceived importance. This commentary will end with a discussion of the stated purpose, goals, and desired outcomes of the Sport Rivalry Man Curriculum.

The developers are also discussing the possibility of Sport Rivalry Man visits and presentations made to young readers in a further attempt to increase interest and teach about rivalry and group member behavior. Further, using online and interactive elements is being discussed to reach a broader audience of readers, along with possible curriculum focused on older readers and learners. Finally, a call to action is also being made to all educators to utilize the tool, analyze and critique its components and usefulness, and work with the developers to refine the product in an attempt to better offer the information. One such idea would be to create a younger conscience character or team of characters. Another idea is to have children again take the lead and develop their own version of Sport Rivalry Person or a comic character of themselves to interact with Sport Rivalry Man in existing and new stories. Stories for advanced youth readers along with the development of interactive games about rivalry featuring Sport Rivalry Man and other characters have been discussed. With the importance placed on better understanding group member relations and behavior, it is imperative that new ideas be discussed and pursued.

PURPOSE, GOALS, AND OUTCOMES OF THE CURRICULUM

Purpose

The Sport Rivalry Man curriculum was created with the purpose of teaching learners about the rivalry phenomenon, group member behavior, and how to appropriately treat out-group members. Further, we believe the three storytelling mediums and genres used in the *Adventures with Sport Rivalry Man* stories and accompanying curriculum could strike interest in children and readers, and therefore help reach stated goals and outcomes. In particular, we hope the popularity of sport (Coakely, 2015), comics (Batchelor, 2017), and the superhero genre (Tucker,

2017) could combine to increase interest in the storylines and accompanying lessons. In this way, the stories and curriculum could assist in sport playing a positive role in society.

Goals

The Sport Rivalry Man curriculum carries two main goals. First, the curriculum was created to teach readers and learners about the rivalry phenomenon and what causes people to view others in distinct and often derogatory ways. For example, rivalry occurs because people identify with groups they want to reflect positively on them (Tajfel, 1981), internalize characteristics of the group (Ashmore, Deaux, & McLaughlin-Volpe, 2004), and when confronted with another group (Sherif, 1966) evaluate those groups differently depending on membership (Turner, 1978). Therefore, rivalry causes people to view in-group members positively (Delia, 2015; Smith & Schwartz, 2003) and out-group members negatively (Havard, 2014; Havard, Gray, Gould, Sharp, & Schaffer, 2013). Further, rivalry carries other negative outcomes such as increased likelihood to consider unethical behavior (Kilduff, Galinsky, Gallo, & Reade, 2016), decreased likelihood to help others in emergency situations (Levine et al., 2005), and increased willingness to consider anonymous acts of aggression toward out-groups (Havard, Wann, & Ryan, 2013, 2017; Wann, Haynes, McLean, & Pullen, 2003; Wann, Peterson, Cothran, & Dykes, 1999; Wann & Waddill, 2013).

Second, the *Adventures with Sport Rivalry Man* stories and accompanying curriculum were created to provide examples of appropriate out-group member treatment. With the countless examples of negative behavior and interactions from adults and high-profile personalities, it is important that another set of tools be created to help educators teach appropriate ways to interact with out-group members.

Outcomes

Three desired outcomes are associated with the Sport Rivalry Man curriculum. First, it is desired that children learn about the rivalry phenomenon, what causes group members to treat others in different ways, and present examples regarding the appropriate treatment of out-groups. A second desired outcome is that the comics influence behavior toward out-group members. For example, we hope that learning using

the comics and curriculum alters the way learners view and treat out-group members. This is a task that obviously takes small steps; however, evidence at the college level indicates that learning about rivalry using the stories increases the likelihood of helping an out-group member by stopping someone trying to steal their belongings (Havard & Workman, 2018). Further, we hope that learners will take the lessons from the stories and apply them to other areas of their lives outside of the sport setting. Finally, a third desired outcome is that *the student becomes the teacher*, and children learners not only alter their behavior toward out-group members, but also begin to teach family members and other adults how to appropriately treat people that may be different.

CONCLUSION

The current chapter provides a new tool for educators to teach about the phenomenon of rivalry and group member behavior. As previously stated, the presented curriculum is one of many available to help educate people on the topic. It is the hope that through the intersection of sport, comics, and superheroes, young readers may become interested in the product and learn by consuming it. Additionally, it is the hope that such an intersection would excite students when this material is presented, thus helping educators. Finally, it is the hope that this commentary introduces people with the tools and background in early childhood education to the curriculum, and leads to future collaborative and learning opportunities. As our society encounters negativity in various forms of media, products and services, and interpersonal or intergroup relationships, the time is at hand for educators to play a higher important role in teaching appropriate group member behavior, and the online curriculum introduced in this commentary provides another tool that can be used toward that aim.

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Conclusion

Cody T. Havard

Abstract This final chapter discusses some of the instruments that have been used to measure rivalry, two websites where people can find information about the phenomenon, and work currently underway or planned to advance our understanding of fan and group member behavior. This chapter serves as a final call to action for researchers, practitioners, and students seeking to better understand the phenomenon. In that, this chapter and book seek to play a role in encouraging future directions of inquiry and provide a road map to do so.

Keywords Rivalry · Rivalry in and out of sport · Fandom · Group member behavior · Research · Practice

This book was written with the purpose of introducing scholars, practitioners, and students to the study of rivalry, provide literature and empirical study of rivalry and its influence on sport fans, and encourage future study and engagement leading to better understanding and responsible promotion of the sport product. Throughout the text, we have discussed what constitutes rivalry and an organization's role in responsibly promoting the phenomenon, discussed both the Sport Rivalry Fan Perception Scale (SRFPS; Havard, Gray, Gould, Sharp, & Schaffer, 2013) and the items used to measure Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORFing;

Havard, 2014), proposed a call to action to both researchers and practitioners to work together in trying to decrease deviance and violence surrounding rivalry, and introduced a curriculum used to teach audiences about rivalry and appropriate group member behavior. This final chapter discusses additional methods that have been used to measure rivalry, websites dedicated to the study of rivalry, and future directions in understanding the phenomenon.

MEASURES

In addition to the SRFPS (Havard et al., 2013), rivalry has also been measured using a 100-point Rivalry Scale (Tyler & Cobbs, 2017), a single-item asking participants how they rated the intensity of a rivalry (Berendt & Uhrich, 2016), and as a variable in several investigations. In particular, Berendt and Uhrich (2016) discussed rivalry and the desire of German football fans to cheer against their rival but not want their rival to fail to point they were relegated to a lower league. The benefits of identifying and competing against a rival outweigh the satisfaction of seeing a rival fail.

Tyler and Cobbs (2017)'s 100-point Rivalry Scale asks respondents to identify as many teams they feel are a rival of their favorite team. Upon choosing the rival teams, respondents are then asked to assign points, from one to one hundred, to rivals in their order of perceived importance. For example, a fan of the Oregon Ducks may identify the Oregon State Beavers, Washington Huskies, and Stanford Cardinal as rivals. When asked to assign points, they may assign 45 to Washington, 40 to Oregon State, and 15 to Stanford. This would mean that the respondent believed their most significant rival was the Washington Huskies, followed by the Oregon State Beavers and Stanford Cardinal. This measure has been used to identify rivalry and its influence in various settings (Cobbs, Sparks, & Tyler, 2017; Nichols, Cobbs, & Raska, 2016; Tyler & Cobbs, 2017; Tyler, Morehead, Cobbs, & DeSchriver, 2017).

As with all measures, these contain both strengths and weaknesses. In empirical research, researchers strive to use measures with multiple items so as to properly measure the phenomenon being investigated; however, single-items measures can be appropriate in situations (Kwon & Trail, 2005). The 100-point Rivalry Scale is a good way to identify which teams someone considers to be a rival and show the relative strength of a rivalry. Likewise, the SRFPS, while having also been used to show rival intensity,

is a good instrument to provide a rounded view of how someone perceives or views a rival team or group. Both have been used to show rival and strength of a competitive relationship.

RESOURCES FOR INFORMATION

Two main resources exist to provide researchers, practitioners, and the general public about the rivalry phenomenon and group member behavior. KnowRivalry.com is a site based on the 100-point Rivalry Scale and provides a plethora of information about rivalries, and their relative relationships in various collegiate and professional leagues, both within the United States and abroad, along with responding to questions and instruments posted on the site. The interactive function of the website provides visitors with a useful tool in viewing and comparing rivalries and competitive relationships between teams and supporters. Further, the ease with which findings are presented makes the complex empirical results consumable to visitors.

SportRivalry.com was initially started as a resource where people could learn about the history of competitive relationships and rivalries within US collegiate and professional sport. Since its inception, the website has changed to focus on presenting stories about historical and current rivalries. The site contains comic strips and animated shorts about historical rivalries, podcasts about college and professional rivalries, and summaries of research on the phenomenon. The site also is home to Sport Rivalry Man, the comic superhero and his accompanying *Adventures with Sport Rivalry Man* stories and Sport Rivalry Man Curriculum discussed in Chapter 6 of this book. Both sites provide great content to people wishing to learn more about rivalry and better understand the phenomenon.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS OF RESEARCH ON RIVALRY

Throughout this text, several chapters have discussed and presented avenues for future research into rivalry and group behavior. In this final section of the chapter, and of the book, I want to detail some ideas currently underway to allow researchers, practitioners, and the general public to gain more information about the rivalry phenomenon and better understand how it influences competing groups and group member behavior.

Over the last decade, much of the work and literature related specifically to rivalry in sport has been published. Prior to this time, rivalry was primarily treated as a variable in studies, with little work in the sport setting dedicated to better understanding the phenomenon itself. As we approach a decade of research dedicated to better understanding the phenomenon in the sport setting, it is appropriate to try and compare rivalry within sport with other settings. Doing so will allow readers, researchers, and practitioners to form a more complete view of how rivalry influences groups and group member behavior.

To this point, work has been completed on investigating and comparing rivalry and fan perceptions of out-groups in sport with the comic genre, online gaming setting, and Disney Theme Parks. Findings from all three settings indicate that fans of sport report stronger negative perceptions of rival brands and supporters than fans of comics (Havard, Grieve, & Lomenick, 2020), gaming (Havard, White, & Irwin, 2020), or theme parks (Havard, Wann, Grieve, & Collins, 2020a). Further, findings in the comic genre (Havard, Grieve et al., 2020) and Disney (Havard, Wann et al., 2020a) indicate that people who identify as fans of both sport and comics or theme parks report more positive perceptions of out-groups than someone who identifies as a fan of only one genre. More research comparing rivalry with sport is planned for politics, religion, and consumer brands.

The study of rivalry in sport has also been used to offer lessons to researchers and practitioners in fandom and group scholarship (Havard, 2018a) and management (Havard, 2018b). Further, rivalry literature has been used to discuss the corporate rivalry between the Walt Disney Company and Comcast Corporation (Havard, 2020), and fans of Disney's Theme Parks perceptions of the Universal Theme Parks (Havard, Wann, Grieve, & Collins, 2020b). Finally, comparisons of online comments in sport and politics suggest that those left in chat rooms about politics are more negative than in sport (Havard, Dwyer, & Gellock, 2020). As we move toward a better understanding of rivalry and group member behavior, more research is needed both in and out of the sport setting.

The information covered in the book provides researchers, students, and practitioners with more knowledge and empirical findings regarding rivalry. These findings serve to help lead researchers down new paths of inquiry into the phenomenon, help practitioners better plan for rival competitions and responsibly promote relationships, and teach students about how competition and feelings of rivalry influence fan and group

member behavior. As stated in the preface, this book was written in the spirit of sharing information in an effort to advance knowledge about rivalry and group member behavior. Thank you for following along this journey and good luck to all seeking to learn, manage and promote, and investigate the rivalry phenomenon.

I hope you enjoyed and thank you for playing along!

Cody T. Havard, Ph.D.

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