Intense Group Behavior and Brand Negativity

Comparing Rivalry in Politics, Religion, and Sport

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

Preface

This is my third book on the topic of rivalry and group behavior published with Palgrave Macmillan. In 2020, the book focused on the definition and examples of rivalry in sport. In 2021, my purpose of writing a new text was to discuss group behavior and rivalry in and out of the sport context. Specifically, the text described comparisons of rivalry and group member behavior of sport fans and fans of non-sport settings. It introduced the Group Behavior Composite (GBC), an instrument that combines the four facets of the Rivalry Perception Scale (RPS) and Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORFing) to provide an overall view of negativity toward out-groups and out-group members. Using the GBC, the Hierarchy of Out-group Derogation (HOD) and Out-group Derogation Spectrum (ODS) were introduced to provide readers with visual representation of group member behavior and out-group derogation and negativity.

The current text expands upon the previous books, in particular the last, by including additional comparisons of out-group negativity among members of various settings. Specifically, religion is included in this text along with a description of the comparison study between fans of sport and politics in the United States. In this text, the HOD and ODS are updated to include a total of 12 settings, which are (1) sport, (2) online gaming, (3) athletic footwear, (4) politics, (5) comics, (6) theme parks, (7) streaming, (8) religion, (9) mobile phones, (10) science fiction, (11) athletic footwear, and (12) Disney Parks.

A major focus of this text is also the discussion of ideas for future research, practices, and programs that can be developed to help learn more about rivalry and group behavior, and attempt to decrease out-group derogation. To that end, this text introduces a program that will work to better understand group behavior and such practices, along with the site www.SharedPerspectives.org to provide visitors with relevant information. It is the hope that readers find the information in this text helpful in designing future research, planning future practices, and working toward building more understanding and compassion among individuals and groups.

It is with gratitude that I thank you for reading this and invite you to join our journey.

Memphis, USA   Cody T. Havard

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Abbreviations

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
GBC	Group Behavior Composite
GORFing	Glory Out of Reflected Failure
HOD	Hierarchy of Out-group Derogation
MANCOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Covariance
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
MTurk	Amazon Mechanical Turk
ODS	Out-group Derogation Spectrum
OIC	Out-group Indirect Competition
OP	Out-group Prestige
OS	Out-group Sportsmanship
RPS	Rivalry Perception Scale
SIT	Social Identity Theory
SoS	Sense of Satisfaction
SSIS-R	Sport Spectator Identification Scale-Revised

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Group Behavior and Negativity: Why Comparisons Are Needed

Cody T. Havard

Abstract This introductory chapter provides a glimpse at the information that will be covered in the text, along with a brief review of relevant literature. The chapter proceeds to provide readers with descriptions of each subsequent chapter and chapter topics. Further, information to help researchers, practitioners, and students read the text to receive the greatest benefit is offered. The chapter concludes with a welcome to readers and encourages engagement with the material and important topic of inquiry.

Keywords Rivalry · Group membership · Group behavior · Group negativity · Out-group derogation

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There exists a common refrain that if one wants to maintain peace in a public setting, whether a family reunion or holiday gathering, an event at a local community center, or a meeting among colleagues, friends, business associates, or acquaintances, one should avoid speaking about religion, politics, and sport. This type of refrain, stated in various forms, has also led to another popular observation that we all need to learn to have difficult conversations with each other in a respectful manner rather than avoid certain topics. Well, this book does not avoid such topics, and instead focuses on religion, politics, and sport. In particular, this text includes investigations detailing how the three settings, and others, may influence the way individuals view others they see as members of in-groups and out-groups.

Competition, rivalry, group membership, and in-group bias/out-group derogation are topics commonly discussed by academics, practitioners, and individuals every day, often without people even realizing. Group membership begins with Social Identity Theory (Tajfel, 1978), which states that people seek membership in groups they believe will afford them some form of benefit. Such associations allow individuals to feel a sense of belonging (Festinger, 1954; Wann, 2006), uniqueness from those that don't share similar characteristics (Berendt & Uhrich, 2016; Berendt et al., 2018; Delia, 2015; Smith & Schwartz, 2003), while also providing people with vicarious achievement when an associated group is successful (Cialdini et al., 1976).

Competition and rivalry can influence the way individuals view each other (Havard, Gray, et al., 2013), support each other (Havard, 2014), and interact in a myriad of ways (Havard, 2020c). The information in this text provides further insight regarding rivalry, competition, and group membership is impacted by various group and consumer settings. This text is also a follow-up to previous writings on the topic of rivalry and group behavior (see Havard, 2020b, 2021b), and provides readers with important findings about how the groups in which we seek membership can influence the way we view others we see as similar and different. I also take a little different approach than in the past, as I focus more on the findings in the text and existing literature relevant to the specific investigations and ideas in the text. Being the third text on this topic, it seems appropriate to take such an approach. To that end, this chapter will briefly discuss the importance of comparison studies of group behavior and out-group derogation among fans of sport and non-sport settings,

before introducing the chapters of the text, and discussing how different readers can use the text to further their understanding and engagement with group membership.

Need for Comparison Studies

Rivalry exists when individuals view others or another group as a threat to their in-group, and their self-identity (Havard, 2014; Kilduff et al., 2010; Tyler & Cobbs, 2015). Therefore, the study of rivalry is the investigation of a phenomenon that influences the ways in which individuals view the self, other in-group members, and people belonging to competing out-groups. Rivalry can exist among various groups (Wann et al., 2016), and on different levels of intensity (Converse & Reinhard, 2016; Havard & Reams, 2018; Tyler & Cobbs, 2017). Feelings of rivalry can be influenced by team identification (Wann, Havard, et al., 2016), gender (Havard, Eddy, et al., 2016), league affiliation (Cobbs et al., 2017; Havard, 2016; Havard & Eddy, 2013; Havard & Reams, 2016; Havard, Wann, et al., 2013, 2017; Havard, Wann, Ryan, et al., 2017), regional location (Cobbs et al., 2019), promotional messaging (Nichols & Raska, 2016; Havard, Wann, et al., 2018), and mediated headlines and stories (Havard & Eddy, 2019; Havard, Ferrucci, et al., 2021). In turn, rivalry can influence attendance (Havard, Shapiro, et al., 2016), willingness to pay premium prices (Sanford & Scott, 2016), and consumption via television (Mahony & Moorman, 1999).

Of all the positive outcomes of rivalry, it can also carry very negative consequences such as increased out-group derogation and negativity (Havard, Reams et al., 2013), perceptions of violence at events (Raney & Kinally, 2009), celebration of rival failure (Cikara & Fiske, 2012; Ciakara et al., 2011; Havard, 2014), and willingness to consider instrumental (Wann, Carlson, et al., 1999; Wann, Waddill, et al., 2017) and anonymous physical aggression (Havard, Wann et al., 2013, 2017; Wann & Waddill, 2013; Wann, Haynes, et al., 2003; Wann, Peterson, et al., 1999). Further, the study of rivalry has enhanced fields such as management (Havard, 2018a; Kilduff, 2016), popular culture (Havard, 2018b), consumer behavior (Ewing et al., 2013; Phillips-Melancon & Dalakas, 2014), entertainment (Havard, 2020a, 2021a), politics (Hibbing et al., 2008; Karnacki, 2018; Miller & Conover, 2015), and themed entertainment (Havard, Baker, et al., 2023; Havard, Wann, Grieve, et al., 2021b; Havard, Wann, Grieve, et al., 2021). Because the phenomenon can carry

strong negativity among groups and group members, it is important that researchers and practitioners work to better understand such behavior and stimuli that can influence individuals and groups to behave in various ways. One way to help learn more about rivalry and behavior is to investigate how the groups we are members of can influence our views of relevant out-groups and out-group members.

For the last several years, we have engaged in research meant to help increase understanding of how group membership can influence rivalry and negativity toward others. In particular, at the time of writing we have compared feelings of rivalry and views of out-groups among fans of sport with fans of Disney Parks (Havard, Wann, Grieve, et al., 2021a), streaming (Havard, Ryan, et al., 2021), mobile phones (Havard, Hutchinson, et al., 2021), comics (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2020), science fiction (Havard, Wann, et al., 2021), theme parks (Havard, Baker, Wann, Grieve, et al., 2023), athletic footwear (Havard, Reams, et al., 2022), and online and console gaming (Havard, Fuller, et al., 2021; Havard, White, et al., 2021). Further, in the previous text (see Havard, 2021b), we compared overall feelings of negativity toward relevant out-groups using the Group Behavior Composite (GBC) to provide readers with information regarding which group setting influences the most negativity (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2021) through the use of the Hierarchy of Out-group Derogation (HOD) and Out-group Derogation Spectrum (ODS).

It is important to establish a comparison of group settings that influence group negativity to varying degrees so future researchers and practitioners can better understand how feelings of rivalry can be impacted by fandom and group setting. For a myriad of reasons discussed previously and covered in the following chapters, having such information can help shape future study along with strategies meant to decrease animosity and derogation toward the out-group. This text extends comparisons of group settings by including religion and a discussion of political party competition in the United States. Further, the current text updates the HOD and ODS to provide interested stakeholders with important information about group behavior moving forward. The rest of this chapter includes brief introductions of each chapter, followed by how the text can be used by readers.

Chapter Introductions

Following this introductory passage, Chapter 2 describes a comparison of fan behavior and out-group derogation among fans of sport and fans of political parties in the United States. Specifically, main effects regarding perceptions of out-groups between fans of sport and political parties are analyzed. Next, investigation of the common in-group (Gaertner CITE) follows by comparing how being a member of one group (either sport or politics) differs from being a fan of both groups (sport and politics) in terms of out-group derogation. Finally, rival perceptions of individuals identifying as Republicans and Democrats are analyzed.

Chapter 3 conducts another comparison of fandom/group settings that influence strong negativity toward the out-group. Fans of sport perceptions of out-groups are compared to fans/members of religious groups to determine where differences exist. The common in-group (Gaertner et al., 1993) is also investigated in Chapter 3 to determine if membership in multiple groups is correlated with more positive perceptions of the out-group than those engaging in identity foreclosure (i.e., being a member of only one group; Beamon, 2012).

Chapter 4 provides an update to the HOD and ODS by comparing Group Behavior Composite (GBC; Havard, Grieve et al., 2021) scores among 12 different settings. In particular, the chapter compares overall out-group negativity among fans of sport, politics, online gaming, religion, athletic footwear, gaming consoles, streaming, theme parks, comics, science fiction, Disney Parks, and mobile phones. Chapter 4 concludes with future avenues of research to better understand the HOD and ODS.

Chapter 5 offers a different approach to an academic chapter by discussing ideas for future research and practice projects with the overall goal of better understanding of group member behavior and decreasing animosity among out-groups. Further, the chapter introduces a proposed website, www.SharedPerspectives.org, that will act as a resource for interested visitors wanting to understand more about rivalry, competition, group behavior, and how fandom/group setting may influence the ways individuals view others. The chapter concludes with a brief discussion of a project to better help grow understanding of group member behavior and out-group derogation. Chapter 6 offers conclusionary remarks on the text, and also encourages interested parties to engage in active research and learning about group behavior and derogation of relevant out-groups.

How to Use This Text

Readers may find different uses for the information in the text based on the position in which they consume the material. For example, as a text that describes multiple comparison studies, researchers may find value in not only the findings of the chapters, but also the study methodology and project design described in the text. As such, while encouraging people to read all entries of this text, Chapters 2 through 5 provide information on research design and project planning researchers may find helpful. Practitioners are also provided with implications for working with individuals and group members in Chapters 2, 3, and 4, along with a call to coordinate with researchers in the creation of programming to help decrease out-group derogation in Chapter 5. Students studying the impact of rivalry and competition on group behavior will also find the information in the subsequent chapters helpful, potentially for different reasons depending on if their focus is research- or practitioner-based. Finally, all readers are strongly encouraged to consume Chapter 6 as it calls for engagement in future learning about rivalry and finding ways to better exist with others from relevant in-groups and out-groups.

Thank You and Welcome to the Journey

First, I would like to conclude this chapter by thanking visitors on reading the information in this text and being open to learning more about group membership, group behavior, and out-group derogation. I would also like to encourage all readers to engage in active thought while consuming this text in an effort to identify new avenues and methods that can be used to learn more about the phenomena of rivalry and group behavior. Finally, I want to welcome everyone to this journey and express my sincere hope that the information in the text, regardless of scope in which it is being consumed, helps move us as individuals, groups, and member of society toward a more harmonious existence with ourselves and each other.

To end with the same sentiment as my previous text on this topic, thank you for joining me on this journey and enjoy!

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Investigating Perceptions of Out-groups in Sport and United States Politics

Cody T. Havard and Elizabeth Theiss-Morse

Abstract The current study investigated how fans and supporters of sport teams and political parties in the United States viewed relevant out-groups and out-group members. Specifically, perceptions of rival sport teams and political parties were compared to determine how fans and supporters differed in their views and likely behaviors toward out-groups. Findings showed that sport fans reported more positive attitudes toward their favorite teams and more negative attitudes of the rival team than in

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politics. However, political supporters reported more negative perceptions and likely behaviors toward the out-group than fans of sport. Additional analysis revealed that the common in-group influenced perceptions. Finally, political affiliation also influenced the way participants view and their likely behaviors. Research and practical implications are discussed, and additional research avenues are introduced.

Keywords Rivalry · Fan behavior · Politics · Sport · Political party · Group behavior · Out-group derogation

Within society, there are settings in which people find meaning and membership which helps individuals explain and make sense of their surroundings (Crotty, 1998; Robertson, 1970). People engage in such activity because it can carry many benefits, including the feeling of belonging (Festinger, 1954), camaraderie and meeting others (Wann, Melnick, et al., 2001, Wann, Brame, et al., 2008), and being a part of something larger than the individual (Mullin et al., 2014). Two such settings that carry great significance in contemporary society, especially the United States, are the sport and political settings. In both settings, individuals can identify with groups and personalities in which they can experience vicarious success (Bandura, 1977) and explore their self/public image through group identity (Campbell et al., 2010; Crocker & Park, 2004).

Social Identity Theory (SIT, Tajfel, 1978) is what helps explain why people engage in activities and join groups in an effort to derive associate positive outcomes. Typically, people participate in activities in which they can succeed in order to enhance their self-esteem (Deci, 1975). Additionally, people join groups which will reflect positively on their self and public identities (Cameron, 1999; Heider, 1958). This occurs because the types of activities, people, and groups we associate with provide indications to the world regarding an individual's characteristics, abilities, and beliefs (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). For example, someone who believes they are hardworking may choose to identify with a sport team that exhibits the same public image, and/or a political party they view as standing up for the working class (Aden, 2008; Huddy & Bankert, 2017). Further, because being a fan or following sport and politics allow someone to compare to others they see as opponents, people can also use the two

settings as a meaningful way to receive favorable comparisons to others (Cialdini & De Nicholas, 1989).

It is the comparisons to other groups that is of interest in the current study. In particular, we compared how the relationship someone shares with his/her favorite political party and/or sport team influences the ways they perceive favorite and rival brands, and likely behaviors they exhibit toward the out-group. Because politics and sport place groups and group members in situations where they can directly vicariously compare (Bandura, 1977), the settings provide a good environment for such comparisons. First, the findings from the current study are important because they provide more information to help researchers better understand group identity, group behavior, and how the two influence our greater society.

Second, the current study also provides professionals working with individuals and groups engaged in competition better understand and prepare for the influence such dynamics have on relationships and society. The current study adds to a growing body of research comparing group behavior across different competitive settings. For example, previous research has compared out-group perceptions and behaviors in the sport setting with such fandom as theme parks (Havard, Wann, et al., 2021a), the comic genre (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2020), and electronic gaming or esport (Havard, Fuller, et al., 2021; Havard, White, et al., 2021). Adding to this body of literature will better allow academics and practitioners better understand how group identity and group relations influence behavior within contemporary society and consumer culture. The current study therefore assists in this effort by comparing two settings in which fans often report strong support for favorite brands, and derogation of opposing or rival brands.

Background

Social Identity Theory in Politics and Sport

Social identity theory (SIT) influences almost all aspects of an individual's life (Tajfel, 1978), as it dictates how someone views himself/herself based on the groups in which he/she belongs. SIT is so important to a person that the individual will search out groups that illustrate their strengths, both real and desired (Campbell et al., 2010). For example, if someone

sees themselves as honest or hardworking—desirable traits in contemporary society—he/she will seek out membership in groups that believed to exhibit those same qualities. Additionally, individuals can seek membership in groups that exhibit traits the individual desires to be associated with in an attempt to shape and protect a favorable public image, which also positively impacts the self (Dietz-Uhler & Murrell, 1999). Finally, once a member of such a group, individuals can begin to take on the characteristics of the group as their own (Ashmore et al., 2004; Crocker & Luhtanen, 1990).

Two places where SIT and group affiliation is very important to an individual is the settings of politics and sport. First, someone will seek out membership in a political party (or distance from an established political party) based on the attributes of their personality and public image they believe puts them in the most positive light (Chua, 2018). Likewise, an individual will typically try to identify with a sport team that either is consistently successful (Cialdini et al., 1976), or in which they share a common bond such as place of birth or residency (Funk, 2008). In both settings, the group a person identifies with hopefully influences the type of positive self and public image a person desires (Madrigal, 1995; Vohs & Heatherton, 2001).

When an in-group experiences success, members are satisfied and will display their affiliation publicly (Bolce et al., 1996; Cialdini et al., 1976; Dean, 2017; Kimble & Cooper, 1992). However, when a group experiences perceived failure (e.g., loss of a game or election), some members may choose to distance from the failure in an attempt to protect their image (Kimble & Cooper, 1992; Snyder & Fromkin, 1980; Snyder et al., 1986). This protective behavior may be more difficult for someone that is highly identified with an in-group over time (Bizman & Yinon, 2002; Wann & Branscombe, 1990). For such individuals, they are provided with the option of *blasting* an out-group or in attempt to make themselves feel better and explain away the perceived failure (Cialdini & Richardson, 1980). In sport, this is commonly seen when a fan explains a loss by the favorite team by explaining that the team was cheated in some way by the officials or rival team. Additionally, such group members can also point to attributes in which the in-group compares favorably to the out-group. This outcome can also be seen in politics when supporters of a party that lost an election claim their candidate lost because of inappropriate behavior by the opponent. There is also evidence that periphery members may display negative behavior toward an out-group in an attempt to

affirm their position in an in-group (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Noel et al., 1995).

People engage in such behavior when faced with perceived in-group failure in an attempt to protect their self and public image (Madrigal, 1995; Vohs & Heatherton, 2001). Research into the common in-group asserts that individuals whom identify with multiple in-groups can be somewhat guarded from such negative outcomes as someone that only identifies with one group (Gaertner et al., 1993). This exists because for someone that identifies with multiple groups, when one is considered to experience a failure, they have other foci in which they can find solace and happiness. Someone that only identifies with one group or interest is engaged in identity foreclosure (Beamon, 2012). They often find their self-image closely tied to the success of the group, and therefore any perceived failure may influence them more than others engaged in multiple interests or group membership. Therefore, someone that experiences identity foreclosure may be more likely to engage in behaviors such as *blasting* than someone in the common in-group category.

Also, in both settings, an individual will engage in actions that help highlight or manufacture a positive image of himself/herself and their in-group, (Bandura, 1977; Feather & Simon, 1971; Mischel, 1958; Ungar, 1981). This is commonly on display with someone that is a fan of a consistently under-performing sports team (Campbell et al., 2004). Derogation of an out-group is one way to highlight the positive attributes of an in-group, regardless of performance (Brewer, 1979).[1] In sport, this could resemble someone blasting a competitor or rival for what they believe is cheating or 'cutting corners' (e.g., at least we don't have to cheat to win). In politics, someone can ascribe to policies, whether social and economic among many others, that allow him/her to point to when asked about to defend his/her group affiliation (e.g., I just cannot support the policies of the out-group because they are reprehensible in my view).

It is these relationships with the in-group and out-group which is the focus of the current study. Specifically, we compared participant identification with an in-group along with views and likely behaviors toward an out-group in the political and sport settings. It is important to better

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[1] The Robber's Cave Experiment, in which middle-school boys in a summer camp setting competed against each other and found ways to derogate the relevant out-group is an early empirical example (Sherif et al., 1961).

understand how affiliation influences views of relevant in-groups and out-groups in an attempt to find ways in which people and society can interact in positive ways. The current study adds to existing literature regarding rivalry in sport and non-sport settings attempting to address such an issue.

Rivalry in Sport and Politics

Where group affiliation does not adequately provide the positive outcomes an individual desires (e.g., a favorite team's loss or supporting a political candidate/party that did not win an election), he/she can begin to focus on ways in which the in-group can appear favorably to an out-group (Tajfel, 1978). Rivalry can exist at multiple levels, from fans (Havard, 2018b) to corporations (Havard, 2018a; Havard, 2020a; Havard, 2021), and groups can identify multiple rivals (Havard & Reams, 2018; Tyler & Cobbs, 2017; Wann et al., 2016). Taking an extra step beyond SIT (Tajfel, 1978), someone can engage in in-group bias and out-group derogation (Rubin & Hewstone, 1998; Turner, 1978). Because groups—and members of those groups—can be confronted with competing or rival groups and supporters (Sherif, 1966), it is typical that in-group members identify competitors, and elevate some competitions to rivals (Ledgerwood & Chaiken, 2007; Wann et al., 2016). A rival competition has been defined as "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" (Converse & Reinhard, 2016, p. 193). A rival group is 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 group and the out-group" (Tyler & Cobbs, 2015, p. 230). When rival groups interact, people in each tend to show favoritism and empathy toward their preferred group members and derogation toward the out-group (Turner, 1978; Vanman, 2016).[2]

Within group comparison, a rivalry is a "subjective competitive relationship that an actor has with another actor that entails increased

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[2] Research shows that characteristics such as an individual's self-esteem (Golec de Zavala et al., 2019), desires of feeling successful (Crocker & Park, 2004; Deci, 1975), and perceived deservedness of misfortune influence out-group derogation (Berndsen et al., 2017; Brambilla & Riva, 2017).

psychological stakes for the focal actor, independent of the objective characteristics of the situation" (Kilduff et al., 2010, p. 945). Further, rivalry in sport has been defined as a "fluctuating adversarial relationship 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). The presence of a rival can influence effort output (Kilduff, 2014; Kilduff et al., 2010), goal setting (Converse & Reinhard, 2016), decision-making (Spinda & Havard, 2016), and spending/use of resources (Hutchinson et al., 2015), but it can also influence people to be less accepting of feedback (Hobson & Inzlicht, 2016), and consider unethical behavior in order to best the opponent (Kilduff et al., 2016). Antecedents and characteristics of rivalry include proximity of teams, shared history and parity, perceived similarities and differences among fan bases, and competition over personnel (Converse & Reinhard, 2016; Havard, Gray et al., 2013; Kilduff et al., 2010; Tyler & Cobbs, 2015).[3]

For in-group members, rivalry can influence consumption of the product (Havard, Eddy, et al., 2016; Kwak et al., 2015; Tyler et al., 2017), willingness to pay premium prices (Sanford & Scott, 2016), likelihood of wearing team or group affiliated clothing (Havard, Shapiro, et al., 2016; Kwak et al., 2015), and television viewership (Mahony & Moorman, 1999). Rivalry can also make people feel unique from an out-group (Berendt & Uhrich, 2016; Berendt et al., 2018), which is something that certainly applies to group members in the sport and political settings. Additionally, when confronted with an out-group that is considered a rival, people can feel closer to each other as a way of forming a stronger in-group identity (Delia, 2015; Leach et al., 2008; Smith & Schwartz, 2003). Again, this type of behavior is on display with fans of sports teams and supporters of political parties. For example, during the previous Presidential administration, some Republicans may have felt the need to show

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[3] The phenomenon of rivalry can be influenced by competition outcomes (Havard, Reams, et al., 2013), change or reclassification of competition (Havard & Eddy, 2013; Havard, Wann, et al., 2013, 2017; Havard, Wann, Ryan, et al., 2017), promotional messaging and advertisements (Havard, Wann, et al., 2018; Nichols, & Raska, 2016), news stories and headlines (Havard & Eddy, 2019; Havard, Ferrucci, et al., 2019), league or conference affiliation (Cobbs et al., 2017; Havard, 2016; Havard & Reams, 2016), location or geography (Cobbs et al., 2019), prior attendance (Havard, Wann, Grieve, and Ryan, 2021), and years attending a university or college (Havard, Achen, et al., 2020).

solid support for their party and policies in an attempt to protect against critics.

Although rivalry can influence in-group members in positive ways, it also has the ability to foster negativity and derogation toward out-group members (Lee, 1985). For example, fans of a sports team that lost a rivalry game were less likely than others to display their affiliation with the in-group (Kimble & Cooper, 1992). Feelings of rivalry can influence people to rate actions of an out-group more negatively (Havard & Eddy, 2019; Miller & Conover, 2015), engage in explicit and implicit bias (Bruneau & Saxe, 2010), stereotype behavior of out-group members (Maass et al., 1989; Partridge & Wann, 2015; Wenger & Brown, 2014; Westen et al., 2006), question loyalty of in-group members (Hildreth & Anderson, 2018), and engage in negative commentary regarding rival sport teams and political opponents (Havard, Dwyer, et al., 2021). Rivalry in sport can influence the way people view out-group members or fans (Wann & Dolan, 1994; Wann & Grieve, 2005), performance of players (Wann et al., 2006), and perceptions of violence in games (Raney & Kinally, 2009).[4]

Perhaps most alarming, the presence of an out-group can influence people's likelihood of considering committing anonymous acts of aggression (Havard, Wann, et al., 2013, 2017; Wann & Waddill, 2013; Wann, Haynes, et al., 1999, Wann & Waddill, 2003). Further, over multiple studies, one to two percent of respondents consistently reported they would definitely be willing to consider committing the most heinous act of aggression (e.g., either physical harm or murder) against out-group members they consider to be rivals (Havard, 2020b). These findings are important for future researchers and professionals working with groups alike, as the willingness of small groups of people to consider heinous acts of aggression against out-group members put individuals, organizations, and society in dangerous situations.

Perceptions and Likely Behaviors Toward Out-Group Members in Sport and Politics

Perceptions of in-group and out-group members can be influenced by the rivalry phenomenon as previously mentioned. For example, sport fans rate out-group members or rival supporters more negatively than other

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[4] People reported a game between rival teams to be more violent in nature than games between non-rival teams.

fans (Wann & Dolan, 1994; Wann & Grieve, 2005). When gauging how people perceive a rival team, studies in the sport and non-sport context have utilized the Rivalry Perception Scale (RPS, Havard, Gray, et al. 2013). The RPS measures four facets of a rivalry that occur both during competition and outside of competition to determine how someone perceives a relevant out-group. The facets can be broken into (a) competition and (b) comparative, with two falling into each category. First, the two competition facets are (1) a person's willingness to support an out-group in indirect competition (e.g., a sport rival competing against another team, a political rival and their policies that would be overall beneficial for constituents), and (2) the amount of satisfaction someone receives when their in-group compares favorably to the out-group through direct competition (e.g., a sport team beating a rival, a political candidate or party winning an election) (Havard, Gray, et al. 2013). These two facets have been tested in various settings and have been influenced by variables such as competition affiliation (Havard, 2016; Havard & Reams, 2016), and level of competition (Havard, Wann, et al., 2018; Havard, Ryan, et al., 2019).

The next two facets of the RPS (Havard, Gray, et al., 2013) address areas that do not occur during direct or indirect competition, however still provide a way for someone to compare against an out-group, sometimes using derogation as the method. The comparative facets are (3) a person's perception of the out-group's prestige (e.g., either prestige of the brand/image of the city of a rival sport team, the prestige of a rival political parties' brand/image), and (4) perceptions of out-group member behavior. It is common that people will report more positive attributes of their in-group than our-group (Cialdini & Richardson, 1980), and perceive in-group members to behave more positively and appropriately than out-group members (Maass et al., 1986; Wann & Dolan, 1994; Wann & Grieve, 2005). Further, the comparative facets have also been tested in various settings and have been influenced by promotional messaging (Havard, Wann et al., 2018), perceived importance of rival (Havard & Hutchinson, 2017; Havard & Reams, 2018; Havard, Ryan, et al., 2018), and competition affiliation (Havard, Wann et al., 2017).

Celebrating Out-group Failure in Sport and Politics

Just as rivalry can influence fan outcomes such as consumption and perceptions of out-group members, it can also influence the likelihood that someone will celebrate the failure by another group (Cikara et al., 2012; Zillmann & Cantor, 1976). For example, opponents of the National Rifle Association (NRA) tended to cheer perceived failures by the organization and looked for news stories that described controversies or criticisms about the NRA (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001). This behavior is also seen in the sports setting where some fans tended to express joy online upon learning negative news about the Cleveland Browns football organization (Dalakas et al., 2015). Schadenfreude (Heider, 1958) describes the behavior of someone celebrating or taking pleasure in the demise of another person. This person could be someone that people view as an opponent along with someone believed to be at the top of an industry or genre.

Previous research on schadenfreude has found that this behavior and these out this outcome is present in many different situations and settings. For example, sports fans can consider experience schadenfreude (Cikara et al., 2012; Cikara & Fiske, 2012), as well as participants on a losing team (Lalonde, 1992; Leach et al., 2003). Likewise, supporters of consumer brands have shown schadenfreude online on message boards and the way that they discuss and celebrate new products from favorite and rival brands (Ewing et al., 2013; Phillips-Melancon et al., 2014; Tucker, 2017). Within the political realm, anecdotally schadenfreude is on display on an almost daily basis through social media. This behavior exists because the perceived divide between the two main political parties in the United States is fast prompting supporters to choose one side or the other, and in most cases inhibits people from sharing ideas found in both parties (Leetaru, 2018). For example, even the use of red and blue colors to signify the Democrat and Republican parties in the United States influences the way people view others, especially candidates and supporters of their opposing party (Rutchick et al., 2009).

Whereas *schadenfreude* (Heider, 1958) can activate when rival groups are present, the phenomenon can also be targeted at groups not considered to be rivals. Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORFing) on the other hand, is the likelihood of someone experiencing joy and celebrating the perceived indirect failure of a rival (Havard, 2014). An important note about GORFing is that the rivalry phenomenon needs to be present in order for the outcome to be activated (Havard, Ryan, et al., 2020),

and can be experienced regardless of the success or failure of an in-group (Havard, Inoue, et al., 2018). Additionally, the perceived failure by a rival group must, in an individual's eyes, reflect positively on their in-group, and therefore on their personal image (Havard, 2020c). In sport, GORFing is most commonly activated when a rival team loses a competition to another team, however can activate when the rival team or affiliated group/individual experiences perceived failure. In the political realm, GORFing would activate when a rival political candidate or party experiences some form of perceived failure such as controversy or criticism of policy.[5] The current study utilized the quantitative measure of GORFing (Havard & Hutchinson, 2017), which has been tested in several sport and non-sport settings (Havard, Fuller, et al., 2021; Havard, Grieve, et al., 2020; Havard, Wann, Grieve, et al., 2021a, 2021b; Havard, White, et al., 2021). Specifically, the four questions measure how likely a person is to celebrate and/or experience positive outcomes from the indirect failure of a rival out-group (not involving the in-group).

The Current Study

The current study builds on previous investigations and comparisons of perceptions and likely behaviors focused on favorite and rival brands/out-groups in the sport and non-sport settings (Havard, Fuller, et al., 2021; Havard, Grieve, et al., 2020; Havard, Wann, et al., 2021a; Havard, White, et al., 2021). Further, the current study extends qualitative findings that suggest fandom in sport and politics influence different perceptions of in-groups and out-groups (Havard, Dwyer, et al., 2021). Therefore, the first hypothesis was developed:

H1: Significant differences in perceptions and likely behaviors toward the relevant rival out-group will exist between fans of politics and fans of sport.

Previous research also suggests that people that identify with a sport team and hold another non-sport interest (i.e., engaged in a common in-group) can report more positive perceptions and likely behaviors toward relevant rivals and out-groups than someone who ascribes to identify foreclosure

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[5] The use of social media to allow people to disseminate criticism of party policy and/or representatives allow many to experience GORFing.

(Havard, Grieve, et al., 2020; Havard, Wann, et al., 2021a). Therefore, the following hypotheses address the influence of the common in-group on fans of sport teams and supporters of political parties.

H2: Significant differences in perceptions and likely behaviors toward the relevant rival out-group will exist between people that identify with only a political party (i.e., identity foreclosure) and those that identify with both a sport team and a political party (i.e., common in-group).

H3: Significant differences in perceptions and likely behaviors toward the relevant rival out-group will exist between people that identify with only a sport team (i.e., identity foreclosure) and those that identify with both a sport team and a political party (i.e., common in-group).

Finally, the current study also examined whether people would differ in their perceptions and likely behaviors toward the rival political out-group based on party affiliation. Specifically, the hypothesis investigated whether self-identified Democrats and Republicans would differ in their percep-tions of their relevant in-groups and out-groups. The qualitative findings regarding online commentary during the 2016 Presidential Debates also helped shape the following hypothesis (Havard, Dwyer et al., 2021).

H4: Significant differences in perceptions and likely behaviors toward the relevant rival out-group will exist among self-identified Democrats and Republicans.

Method

Participants

A total of 876 participants provided useable data in the study. Partici-pants ranged in age from 18 to 83 ($M = 37.24$, $SD = 12.34$), with 63.8% identifying as male and 35.8% identifying as female (0.3% did not disclose). Regarding ethnicity, 62.3% reported as Caucasian, followed in percentage by Asian (16.7%), African American (9.7%), Hispanic (7.8%), and Pacific Islander (0.5%) (3.0% did not disclose). The largest percentage of respondents reported being a fan of both sport and politics (44.4%),

while 36.8% reported being a fan of only politics and 18.8% being a fan of only sport. Finally, among the fans of politics (i.e., only politics or both politics and sport), 59.5% reported identifying as a Democrat and 40.5% as a Republican.

Instrument

In order to investigate how perceptions and behaviors toward out-groups are influenced by sport fandom and political affiliation, participants responded to a survey built using Qualtrics software that were recruited using the online platform Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). The instrument contained a total of five sections, with participants completing between three and five sections. After reporting if they were a fan of only politics, only sport, or both politics and sport, participants completed a section about their relevant favorite brand (section 1 or 3), one about their relevant rival brand (section 2 or 4), and a demographics section (section 5).[6]

Sections 1 and 3 regarding relevant favorite brands asked participants to report which political party or sport team they most identified with. They then reported their level of identification with their favorite brand using the Sport Spectator Identification Scale-Revised (SSIS-R; James et al., 2019). A modified version of the SSIS-R was utilized for participants that reported being a fan of a political party. The SSIS-R is a seven-item scale that measures group identification on an eight-point Likert scale (1—*Little Identification* to 8—*High Identification*). Items used in the current study can be found in the appendix.

For data comparison purposes, it was important to utilize similar scales with modifications. To do this, we utilized items from political science research that measures party identification as checks to gauge the effectiveness of the SSIS-R in the current study, which was appropriate upon review (Miller, 1991). Specifically, we employed a number of questions from the American National Election Studies (ANES) that are widely

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[6] Participants that reported being a fan of both politics and sport completed two sections about their relevant favorite brands (e.g., in politics and sport) and two sections about their relevant rival brands (e.g., in politics and sport).

used throughout the political science discipline.[7] Participants also indicated their attitudes toward their relevant favorite and rival brands using a five-point semantic differential scale (Spears & Singh, 2004). For this measure, higher scores indicate more positive attitudes toward the brand. Participants also reported consumption habits toward their favorite brands in sections 1 and 3.

Sections 2 and 4 addressing relevant rival brands first asked participants that identified as fans of sport to first identify a team they consider their biggest rival. For participants that reported being fans of politics, the option not chosen as their favorite party served as the rival party (e.g., someone who identified as a Democrat responded to rival questions using the Republican Party and vice versa). Perceptions of rival brands were measured using the Rivalry Perceptions Scale (RPS: Havard, Gray, et al., 2013). The twelve-item, four-facet scale measures (1) how likely someone is to support their rival in indirect competition,[8] (2) how much satisfaction they receive when their favorite brand directly defeats the rival brand,[9] (3) their perceptions of the rival brand's prestige, and (4) their perceptions of rival supporters (i.e., out-group members). A seven-point Likert scale is used in the RPS, with higher scores indicated stronger negative perceptions of out-groups with the exception of the indirect competition subscale.[10]

Participants were also asked to report their likelihood to experience GORFing (Havard, 2014), or the excitement they gain when their rival experiences indirect failure. In sport, GORFing is most commonly activated when a rival team loses to someone other than the favorite team. In politics, GORFing would be activated when someone from the rival party experiences controversy. Participant likelihood of GORFing was measured using a four-item seven-point Likert scale (Havard & Hutchinson, 2017). Finally, participants responded to demographic questions in section 5 (Appendix Tables 2.6 and 2.7).

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[7] Information on the ANES, along with analysis and commentary about elections and political affiliation in the United States is available at www.electionstudies.org.

[8] Sport—support rival team when playing someone other than the favorite team. Politicssupport the rival political party if they would help the country.

[9] Sport—defeating the rival in head-to-head competition. Politicsfavorite party defeating rival party in an election.

[10] Higher scores indicate more likelihood of supporting the rival brand in indirect competition.

Data Collection

Data in the current study were collected at two intervals to determine how timing could influence findings. First, data were collected in May 2020, when the Republican Party controlled the White House and Senate, and the Democratic Party held a majority in the House of Representatives. Because data was collected only five months prior to the 2020 General Election, it was decided that data would be collected a second time if the outcome of the General Election changed leadership in the federal government.

With the victory of Democrat Presidential and Vice Presidential candidates, we decided to collect data in March 2021 in order to first test if timing and longevity influenced participant perceptions. Second, because the Executive branch of the federal government would be switching controlling party, collecting data in March 2021 also allowed comparison of pre- and post-election data to determine if the outcome of the General Election influenced participant responses. In sport, the outcome of the most recent rivalry game influences perceptions of the out-group (Havard, Reams et al., 2013), so the outcome of the 2020 General Election afforded us with the same opportunity in the current study.

Results

Participant responses for items used in the current study were averaged together so that one score represented a participant response for each measure. All scales used in the current study displayed reliability, with α ranging from 0.746 to 0.969 (Table 2.1). Overall, sport fans reported high levels of identification and positive attitudes with their favorite brands, and were likely to experience satisfaction when their favorite team defeated the rival team. They reported low likelihood to support their rival in indirect competition, did not believe their rival was not prestigious, but did report rival fans behaved somewhat poorly and were likely to celebrate a rival indirect failure. Participants that reported being fans of politics were highly identified with their respective parties, likewise held positive attitudes toward their party, reported they were somewhat likely to support their rival party if it were good for the country, and experienced satisfaction when their party was victorious in direct competition (e.g., an election or election cycle). They reported negativity toward the rival party regarding attitude, perceived prestige, out-group member behavior, and were likely to celebrate an indirect failure by the rival party (e.g., rival candidate or representative controversy).

Table 2.1   Measures used in current study

Item	M	SD	A
Sport ID	6.23	1.26	0.898
Sport Attitude toward Favorite Brand*	6.27	0.85	0.920
Sport Attitude toward Rival Brand*	3.41	1.71	0.960
Sport Rival Support*	3.14	1.74	0.884
Sport Rival Prestige	3.52	1.76	0.887
Sport Rival Behavior	4.17	1.61	0.891
Sport Sense of Satisfaction	5.62	1.30	0.873
Sport Glory Out of Reflected Failure	4.43	1.53	0.863
Politics ID	5.65	1.25	0.810
Politics Attitude toward Favorite Brand*	5.74	1.01	0.913
Politics Attitude toward Rival Brand*	3.03	1.75	0.969
Politics Rival Support*	4.13	1.57	0.810
Politics Rival Prestige	4.70	1.37	0.746
Politics Rival Behavior	4.99	1.45	0.856
Politics Sense of Satisfaction	5.00	1.32	0.811
Politics Glory Out of Reflected Failure	4.94	1.38	0.855

*Higher scores indicate more positive views of target brand. All other scales, higher scores indicate more negative views of target brand

Testing the Hypotheses

Before we investigated H1 through H4, we first wanted to analyze the influence of gender and ethnicity on the findings, both of which impact perceptions of rival teams and groups in the sport context (Havard, Achen et al., 2020; Havard, Eddy, et al., 2016; Havard, Fuller, & Silkes, 2020). Therefore, we analyzed gender and ethnicity as separate Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVAs) for each hypothesis (i.e., a total of six pre-test analyses).[11] In each instance, gender and ethnicity influenced participant perceptions of the respective favorite and rival brands. Because the primary purpose of the current study was to investigate how out-group perceptions compare in the political and sport settings, the variables of gender and ethnicity were used as covariates in each analysis. Additionally, data was analyzed using MANOVA to test the influence of

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[11] Six separate MANOVAs were appropriate because to examine the influence of gender and ethnicity on each hypothesis (e.g., H1—Sport Only vs. Politics Only, also H4 same analysis for Politics Only; H2—Politics Only vs. Politics and Sport; H3—Sport Only vs. Sport and Politics).

time of data collection (i.e., 2020 vs. 2021), and no significant differences were present. This being the case, time of data collection was not included as a potential covariate in the full analysis. Therefore, H1 through H4 were analyzed using Mutlivariate Covariance of Analysis (MANCOVA) to control for gender and ethnicity.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 stated that differences in perceptions of out-groups would exist between the political and sport settings. A significant MANCOVA revealed differences were present (Wilk's Lambda 0.682 (8, 471) = 27.49, $p < 0.001$). Univariate analysis revealed that perceptions of out-groups existed for (1) attitudes toward the favorite brand ($F(1, 478) = 38.33$, $p < 0.001$), (2) attitudes toward the rival brand ($F(1, 478) = 5.08$, $p = 0.025$), (3) prestige of the out-group ($F(1, 478) = 12.17$, $p = 0.001$), (4) willingness to support the out-group in indirect competition ($F(1, 478) = 13.82$, $p < 0.001$), and (5) willingness to celebrate indirect failure by the out-group ($F(1, 478) = 61.31$, $p < 0.001$). Being a fan of Sport was correlated with more positive attitude toward the favorite brand, and more negative attitude toward the rival brand. Being a fan of Politics was correlated with more negativity regarding out-group prestige, less willingness to support out-group in indirect competition, and higher likelihood of celebrating an out-group failure. Statistics area available in Table 2.2. Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Hypothesis 2

Next, to test the influence of common in-groups, hypothesis 2 stated that differences in perceptions of out-groups would exist between people who were fans of politics *only* and those that reported being fans of *both* politics and sport. A significant Wilk's Lambda found differences were present in the MANCOVA (0.781 (8, 698) = 24.46, $p < 0.001$). Univariate analysis revealed group differences were present regarding (1) identification with the favorite brand ($F(1, 700) = 7.26$, $p = 0.007$), (2) attitude toward the favorite brand ($F(1, 700) = 14.72$, $p < 0.001$), (3) attitude toward the rival brand ($F(1, 700) = 116.19$, $p < 0.001$), (4) prestige of the out-group ($F(1, 700) = 12.40$, $p < 0.001$), and (5) willingness to support the out-group in indirect competition (e.g., when it is good for the country) ($F(1, 700) = 11.44$, $p = 0.001$). Being a fan of *only* politics was correlated with higher identification, lower attitude toward the

Table 2.2 Fan identification, attitude, RPS, and GORFing by sport vs. politics

	Sport		Politics	
Item	M	SD	M	SD
Brand Identification	6.00	1.35	5.78	1.16
Attitude toward Favorite Brand	6.14^	0.98	5.57^	1.01
Attitude toward Rival Brand	3.41#	1.66	3.80#	1.86
Out-Group Indirect Competition	4.86#	0.75	4.40#	1.55
Out-Group Prestige	4.50^	0.92	4.91^	1.28
Out-Group Behavior	5.18	0.68	5.05	1.32
Sense of Satisfaction	4.91	0.76	5.03	1.26
Glory Out of Reflected Failure	4.02^	1.57	5.05^	1.26

*Significant at 0.05 level
#Significant at 0.01 level
^Significant at 0.001 level

Table 2.3 Fan identification, attitude, RPS, and GORFing by politics only vs. sport and politics

	Politics		Sport and Politics	
Item	M	SD	M	SD
Brand Identification	5.78#	1.16	5.53#	1.31
Attitude toward Favorite Brand	5.57^	1.01	5.88^	1.00
Attitude toward Rival Brand	3.80^	1.87	2.84^	1.34
Out-Group Indirect Competition	4.40#	1.55	3.90#	1.56
Out-Group Prestige	4.91#	1.28	4.52#	1.43
Out-Group Behavior	5.05	1.32	4.95	1.54
Sense of Satisfaction	5.03	1.26	4.97	1.37
Glory Out of Reflected Failure	5.05	1.26	4.85	1.46

*Significant at 0.05 level
#Significant at 0.01 level
^Significant at 0.001 level

favorite brand, more willingness to support out-group in indirect competition, and more negativity regarding out-group prestige. Being a fan of *both* politics and sport was correlated to lower attitude toward the rival (Table 2.3). Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Hypothesis 3

To further test the influence of common in-groups, hypothesis 3 stated that differences would be present regarding perceptions of out-groups between fans of *only* sport and fans of *both* sport and politics. The MANCOVA was significant, revealing significant differences were present. Specifically, univariate analysis revealed significant differences regarding (1) identification with the favorite team ($F(1, 546) = 11.31$, $p = 0.001$), (2) attitude toward the favorite team ($F(1, 546) = 4.34$, $p = 0.038$), (3) the satisfaction experienced when the favorite team defeats the rival team ($F(1, 546) = 6.97$, $p = 0.009$), and (4) willingness to celebrate a rival's indirect failure ($F(1, 546) = 18.45$, $p < 0.001$). Being a fan of *both* sport and politics was correlated with higher identification and attitude toward the favorite brand. Regarding the rival team, it was also correlated with more satisfaction from defeating the rival in indirect competition and more willingness to celebrate rival indirect failure. Hypothesis 3 was supported (Table 2.4).

Hypothesis 4

To focus on how group identity specifically influenced fans and supporters of political parties, hypothesis 4 stated that differences in perceptions and

Table 2.4 Fan identification, attitude, RPS, and GORFing by sport only vs. sport and politics

Item	Sport		Sport and Politics	
	M	SD	M	SD
Brand Identification	6.00#	1.34	6.34#	1.21
Attitude toward Favorite Brand	6.14*	0.98	6.33*	0.79
Attitude toward Rival Brand	3.41	1.66	3.41	1.74
Out-Group Indirect Competition	2.97	1.71	3.21	1.74
Out-Group Prestige	3.24	1.79	3.35	1.74
Out-Group Behavior	4.16	1.50	4.16	1.66
Sense of Satisfaction	5.38#	1.48	5.72#	1.21
Glory Out of Reflected Failure	4.02^	1.57	4.59^	1.49

*Significant at 0.05 level
#Significant at 0.01 level
^Significant at 0.001 level

Table 2.5 Fan identification, attitude, RPS, and GORFing by party affiliation

Item	Democrat		Republican	
	M	SD	M	SD
Brand Identification	5.56^	1.15	6.05^	1.12
Attitude toward Favorite Brand	5.49	1.08	5.68	0.91
Attitude toward Rival Brand	3.43^	1.84	4.25^	1.80
Out-Group Indirect Competition	4.16#	1.52	4.70#	1.52
Out-Group Prestige	4.80	1.27	5.05	1.28
Out-Group Behavior	4.90*	1.37	5.23*	1.25
Sense of Satisfaction	4.91	1.28	5.18	1.23
Glory Out of Reflected Failure	4.82#	1.35	5.35^	1.08

*Significant at 0.05 level
#Significant at 0.01 level
^Significant at 0.001 level

behaviors toward the out-group would differ between participants that identified as a Democrat and Republican.[12] Because also being a fan of a sport team influences out-group perceptions and likely behaviors, we decided to utilize data from participants that identified *only* as a fan of politics in an attempt to gain better understanding of the influence of the two political parties. The MANCOVA was significant (Wilk's Lambda 0.909 (8, 307) = 3.86, $p < 0.001$), indicating that significant differences were present, and univariate analysis revealed those existed regarding (1) group identification ($F(1, 314) = 14.35$, $p < 0.001$), (2) attitude toward the rival brand ($F(1, 314) = 15.71$, $p < 0.001$), (3) perceptions of out-group member behavior ($F(1, 314) = 4.86$, $p = 0.028$), willingness to support the out-group in indirect competition (e.g., if their policies would benefit the country) ($F(1, 314) = 9.75$, $p = 0.002$), and (5) likelihood to celebrate a failure by the out-group ($F(1, 314) = 14.07$, $p < 0.001$). Statistics are available in Table 2.5, and revealed that political affiliation is complicated. Participants that identified as Republicans reported higher identification, higher attitude toward the Democratic brand, and more willingness to support Democrats, but also stronger negative perceptions of out-group behavior and more willingness to celebrate a failure by Democrats.

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[12] Participants were given the opportunity to identify as an Independent, however, no such useable responses in the current study were returned.

Discussion

The current study investigated how people view out-group members and rivals in the political and sport settings. In particular, perceptions and likely behaviors toward sport and political rivals were compared to determine where significant differences existed. Next, participant data were analyzed to determine how being a fan of both a political party and a sport team influenced perceptions and likely behaviors. Finally, data from participants whom reported being a fan of *only* a political party were compared to determine how party affiliation influenced views of the out-group. It is appropriate at this point to point out potential limitations to the current study. First, the use of MTurk as a means to collect data is a great way to ensure that a large number of people can participate that may otherwise not be able to do so. However, using a different collection method may influence participant responses.

Political and Sport Out-group Perceptions and Likely Behaviors

Findings from the current study showed that fans of political parties and sport teams differ in their views and likely behaviors toward their relevant out-group. First, fans of a sport team reported more positive attitudes toward their favorite team and more negative attitudes toward their relevant rival. These two findings are consistent with previous research into group member perceptions and behaviors toward an out-group in sport and non-sport settings (Havard, Fuller et al., 2021; Havard, Grieve, et al., 2020; Havard, Wann, et al., 2021a; Havard, White, et al., 2021).

In previous investigations into perceptions of out-groups in sport and non-sport settings, fans of sport teams reported more negativity toward a rival in all instances. In the current study however, being a fan of a political party was correlated with more negative perceptions of out-group prestige, less likelihood to support the out-group in indirect competition (e.g., sport: against another team; politics: policies that would benefit the country), and greater likelihood to celebrate when the out-group experiences indirect failure (e.g., sport: loss against another team; politics: politician from rival party embroiled in controversy). While these three findings are contrary to previous research in sport and non-sport out-group research, there is qualitative data that suggests people who participate in political chatrooms engage in more negative commentary

than sport fans (Havard, Dwyer, et al., 2021). Further, it was the expectation that supporters of political parties would report greater negativity toward their relevant out-group than sport fans toward their rival teams.

The five significant findings taken together indicate that fandom and group affiliation and sport and politics is somewhat comparable in the way people treat out-group members. Whereas sport fans reported more negativity toward their relevant out-groups than those in theme park fandom (Havard, Wann et al., 2020a), comics (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2020), and electronic gaming or esport (Havard, Fuller, et al., 2021; Havard, White, et al., 2021), group affiliation in the political setting illicit similar strong feelings toward the in-group and out-group as sport does.

There are a few potential reasons for such findings. First, the competition in sport and politics tend to put groups in direct competition and comparison with each other (Festinger, 1954). For example, when two sport teams compete, supporters of each team are able to directly compare against the out-group. This also typically occurs in United States politics, since two major parties regularly compete for coveted local, state, and federal offices. In this regard, the two competition settings seem to be very similar. Second, the competition in both settings also carry strong implications for the future. In sport, a winner of a rivalry game has a calendar year to brag about the outcome. Similarly, supporters of a victorious political party have two to four years that they are able to brag about the outcome, granted that election campaigns begin earlier each cycle.

So, regarding attitudes, sport fans reported stronger support for their favorite team and more negativity toward their relevant rival. However, regarding perceptions and likely behaviors aimed specifically at out-groups, supporters of political parties reported more negativity. The polarity in contemporary United States politics could play a role in this even as data suggest that people are less divided on major issues (Blakely et al., 2019; Rivenburgh, 1997), as online commentary, political commentators, and politicians focus on the positive attributes of the in-group and negative attributes of the out-group (Karnacki, 2018; Wojciesszak & Mutz, 2009). This is consistent with LIB (Maass et al., 1989) in that supporters of political parties tend to show strong support for their favored candidates and very negative perceptions toward opposing and rival candidates. It also allows people to discuss opinions and views only with those that share their ideology, making it less likely that meaningful and important conversations outside of a designated in-group occur (Leetaru, 2018). Additionally, the outcomes of a political

election carry more perceived—and actual—weight than sporting events, with elected leaders typically enacting laws that have the potential to influence people's lives for extended periods of time.

It is also worth noting that the polarity in United States politics during data collection was heightened as a result of the Executive Branch. It would be inappropriate not to note that the administration of the 45th President elicited very strong feelings for supporters of both political parties. For that reason, supporters of the Democratic Party may have reported perceptions and likely behaviors differently than they may have under other Republican administrations. Likewise, supporters of the Republican Party could have found themselves in situations where they felt they had to either defend decisions and/or derogate Democrats in an effort to protect the in-group. The behavior of supporters on both sides of the political aisle support previous research about protecting the in-group. Specifically, group members can engage in LIB (Maass et al., 1989) in an effort to protect their in-group or find ways to derogate the out-group in an attempt to find favorable comparisons (Cialdini & Richardson, 1980). Further, strongly identified group members typically find it difficult to be overly critical of or distance from their in-group (Bizman & Yinon, 2002; Wann & Branscombe, 1990). That behavior is commonly on display when supporters of a political party in power find themselves touting or defending policies, only to find any way they can to derogate policies when their party is no longer in power.

Common In-Group Influence on Out-Group Perceptions and Likely Behaviors

Hypotheses two and three tested how identifying with two in-groups influenced perceptions and likely behaviors toward a relevant out-group. The common in-group theory again states that individuals that belong to multiple groups are less likely to hold the types of negative views of out-groups than those that identify with *only* one group (Beamon, 2012). The current study found that while those whom identified as *only* fans of a political party reported higher brand identification with their preferred party, more willingness to support the rival party if beneficial to the country, and less negative attitude toward the rival party[13] when

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[13] The working 'less negative' was used because participants still reported scores below the 4.0 mid-point on the scale.

compared with participants that reported being a fan of *both* politics and sport. They also reported lower attitudes toward their favorite party and more negativity regarding the rival party's prestige.

These findings are combined with the comparisons of those participants that reported being fans of *only* sport and *both* sport and politics. In this instance, being a fan of *both* a political party and sport team was correlated with greater identification and attitude toward the favorite sport team, and more negativity toward the rival team (e.g., greater satisfaction when defeating the rival in direct competition and more willingness to celebrate a rival's indirect failure). Taken together, the findings from hypotheses two and three indicate that the presence of politics influences more negative perceptions and behaviors toward out-groups. This assertion is presented because it appears that the presence of political affiliation played an impactful role in influencing the perceptions and behaviors of sport fans, whereas sport fandom did not influence political affiliation to the same extent. This is somewhat contradictory to other investigations of group behavior in other investigations of sport and non-sport settings. In previous investigations, being a fan of *both* foci groups was correlated with either more positive perceptions and behaviors or no significant differences.[14]

As previously mentioned, previous qualitative data support the current findings that political affiliation may influence more negativity toward out-groups than in the sport setting (Havard, Dwyer, et al., 2021). Again, the climate of contemporary politics in the United States could play a role in these findings. To this end, it seems that the common in-group (Gaertner et al., 1993) helps decrease negativity among group members in most situations, but the presence of politics potentially works to decrease such outcomes. Additional research, both qualitative and quantitative, is needed to better understand the influence political party affiliation plays in the perceptions and likely behaviors people reserve for their relevant out-groups.

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[14] Sport and Disney Theme Park Fandom; Sport and Comics Genre Fandom—being a fan of *both* groups influenced more positivity toward both relevant out-groups. Sport and Console esport Fandom; Sport and Online/Console esport Fandom—being a fan of *both* groups influenced more positivity toward relevant esport out-groups and no significant differences regarding rival sport teams.

Out-Group Perceptions and Likely Behaviors
Among Democrats and Republicans

Finally, the current study utilized data from participants that reported being fans of *only* politics to compare perceptions and likely behaviors toward out-group members of self-identified Democrats and Republicans. To recap, those who identified as Republicans reported higher identification with their party, higher attitudes toward the Democratic Party, and more willingness to support a Democrat if their policies were good for the country than those who identified as Democrats toward the Republican Party. However, self-identified Republicans were also more negative regarding the behavior of Democrats and reported higher likelihood of celebrating the indirect failure of a Democrat (e.g., scandal or controversy) than did self-identified Democrats toward Republicans. These findings are interesting in that they suggest party affiliation influences group member behavior in several ways.

First, as previously stated, it would be inappropriate not to address the potential influence the previous Republican administration could have played on participant responses. For example, some participants that self-identified as Democrats could have felt like they had to report greater negativity toward the Republican Party because of the policies and actions of the previous administration. This is equivalent to hesitancy in showing support of any policies in fear that it may show support for the administration overall. Likewise, self-identified Republicans could have experienced a *circling the wagons* effect in that they felt they needed to show greater support for the party. Further, some self-identified Republicans could have felt the need to show greater derogation, especially regarding the behavior of Democrats, in an effort to *blast* the out-group and take away negative attention from their in-group (Cialdini & Richardson, 1980).

It is also interesting that participants identifying with both parties reported somewhat contradictory responses regarding willingness to support the rival political party if it were good for the country and likelihood of celebrating a political rival's indirect failure such as a controversy. Specifically, self-identified Democrats reported lower likelihood of supporting a Republican if policy were good for the country but less likelihood of celebrating a Republican indirect failure. This could again be an outcome of the most recent Republican administration and self-identified Democrats either not supporting any policies or not wanting to show support. However, when faced with a controversy that reflects

negatively on the Republican Party, self-identified Democrats were less likely than their counterparts to celebrate.[15] The opposite was true of self-identified Republicans, as they reported higher likelihood of supporting a Democrat's policies is good for the country but were more likely to celebrate a failure by a Democrat.

While this could be the true representation of how people identifying with the two parties feel, it is also possible that people belonging to a group considered to be in control or victorious—such as a political party after winning an election—feel the need to defend the in-group against any threats from outside. In politics, we commonly see pundits, outlets, and people criticize the policies and actions of the controlling party. When this happens, an outcome can be a triggered response of in-group members to fervently defend their affiliated groups. As previously discussed, one way to do this is to *blast* or derogate the comparable out-group (e.g., political party) (Cialdini & Richardson, 1980).

In summary, the way people experience social identity (Tajfel, 1978), and in-group bias and out-group derogation (Rubin & Hewstone, 1998; Turner, 1978) are complicated in sport and political fandom/affiliation. Specifically, regarding brand attitudes, sport fans reported more negativity toward the out-group than supporters of political parties. However, supporters of political parties reported more negative perceptions and likely behavior toward their relevant out-group than did sport fans. Additionally, while being a fan of a sport team influenced political in-group membership in positive ways, the same could not be said of political party support influencing sport fandom. Finally, interesting and somewhat contradictory outcomes were present for self-identified Democrats and Republicans regarding their perceptions and likely behaviors toward each other.

Implications and Future Investigation

Theoretically, the current study carries important implications that can help researchers learn more about the social condition and assist in future investigations. First, the current study indicates that supporting a political party elicits similar feelings of in-group bias and out-group derogation

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[15] It is important to note that both Democrat and Republican participants reported above the mid-point of four for the support and GORFing measures.

toward rivals as present in sport fandom. This is important as it deviates from previous research regarding rivalry in sport and theme park fandom (Havard, Wann, et al., 2021a), comic fandom (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2020), and electronic gaming (Havard, Fuller, et al., 2021; Havard, White, et al., 2021). Future research should focus on the sport and political contexts to help better understand why political affiliation elicits such outcomes.

Second, the current study extends previous research in its use of the SSIS-R (James et al., 2019), RPS (Havard, Gray, et al., 2013), and GORFing (Havard & Hutchinson, 2017) measures in non-sport settings. Specifically, the performance of the measures indicate that they can all be used to reliably investigate in-group identification and group rivalry in the political setting. Future researchers are encouraged to utilize such measures in future study of political group behavior. Third, the current study partially supports previous research about sport and non-sport rivalry regarding the common in-group (Gaertner et al., 1993) and identity foreclosure (Beamon, 2012). Specifically, being a fan or supporter of a political party was correlated with more negativity focused toward the sport rival. Future study should investigate this phenomenon to provide better understanding as to why and how the phenomenon is activated.

The current study joins other investigations regarding rivalry in sport and non-sport settings, and there are many areas where replication could add to a growing body of literature addressing group member behavior and negativity in various settings (e.g., consumer and entertainment brands, religion). Future research should address additional group settings, and contribute to the introduction of a hierarchy of group member behavior.[16] Finally, future research could also focus on group member behavior between political party supporters in an attempt to understand variables that influence negativity between and among groups. For example, geography and ideology within political parties is an area for future investigation (Longo, 2018).

Professionals working with groups and group members in the sport and political contexts can also take away important lessons from the current study. First, such professionals have reliable empirical proof that sport and political fandom influence negativity toward the out-group and members. Again, this contradicts findings from other settings, and points

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[16] Similar to a proposed hierarchy of rivalry in college athletics (Havard & Lomenick, 2019).

to the fact that professionals need to be aware that group affiliation in sport and politics influences such behavioral outcomes. To this end, future research could focus on ways to decrease derogation and negativity toward out-groups through qualitative, quantitative, and experimental design. For example, the use of the extended contact hypothesis—the idea that repeated and consistent exposure to out-group members fosters empathy toward such individuals (Zhou et al., 2018)—is a potential future experiment. Doing so may also allow people from different political backgrounds and ideologies to better understand each other, potentially leading to more civil interactions (Hibbing et al., 2008).

The current study can also help professionals working with such groups navigate group differences and attempt to help diminish group member negativity and bullying (Beran, 2019). For example, if two people strongly identify with opposing political parties, they may be less able to discuss similarities and find a common group. However, if both people are also fans of the same sport team, they may at least be able to communicate about the team of focus and find some commonalities. Throughout history, sport has been used by various leaders and professionals to bring together people from diverse backgrounds and ideologies. The current study suggests this may be an appropriate practice when political affiliation is considered. Future research should investigate this outcome to determine if the common in-group influences more positivity toward the political rival or supporter. Qualitative, along with experimental methodology can help investigate this question.

Rivalry and group member behavior are important to gain a better understanding of the human condition and its influence on contemporary society. The current study found that fans of sport teams and political parties differ in the way they treat out-group members, feelings of rivalry are influenced by identifying with one or multiple groups, and political party support is correlated with complicated perceptions and likely behaviors toward the out-group. As we strive to understand more about group member behavior, the current study provides implications for doing so.

APPENDIX

Table 2.6 Scale items used in the current study to measure rivalry in sport

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Brand Identification
Sport Spectator Identification Scale—Revised (James et al., 2019)

Do you identify yourself as a fan of the (Favorite Team), even if just a bit?
(Yes or No)
    1. How important is it to you that the (Favorite Team) wins?
    (*1 = A Little Important* to *8 = Very Important*)
    2. How strongly do you see yourself as a fan or supporter of the (Favorite Team)?
    (*1 = Slightly a Fan* to *8 = Very Much a Fan*)
    3. How strongly do your friends see you as a fan or supporter of the (Favorite Team)?
    (*1 = Slightly a Fan* to *8 = Very Much a Fan*)
    4. How closely do you follow the (Favorite Team) via ANY of the following: in person or on television, the radio, the Internet, or televised news or newspaper?
    (*1 = A Little* to *8 = Very Frequently*)
    5. How important is being a fan or supporter of the (Favorite Team) to you?
    (*1 = A Little Important* to *8 = Very Important*)
    6. How much do you dislike the (Rival Team)?
    (*1 = Dislike a Little* to *8 = Dislike Very Much*)
    7. How often do you display (Favorite Team) name or insignia at your place of work, where you live, or on your clothing?
    (*1 = Occasionally* to *8 = Always*)

Attitude toward Brand (Spears & Singh, 2004)—*this scale was used for (1) Favorite Team and (2) Rival Team*

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    1. In your opinion, the (Sprot Team) are...
    (*1 = Unappealing* to *7 = Appealing*)
    2. In your opinion, the (Sport Team) are...
    (*1 = Bad* to *7 = Good*)
    3. In your opinion, the (Sport Team) are...
    (*1 = Unpleasant* to *7 = Pleasant*)
    4. In your opinion, the (Sport Team) are...
    (*1 = Unfavorable* to *7 = Favorable*)
    5. In your opinion, the (Sport Team) are...
    (*1 = Umnlikable* to *7 = Likable*)

(continued)

Table 2.6 (continued)

Rival Perceptions
Rivalry Perception Scale (Havard, Gray, et al., 2013)
All items use a 7-point likert scale (*1 = Strongly Disagree* to *7 = Strongly Agree*)

Out-Group Indirect Support
1. I would support the (Rival Team) in a championship game.
2. I would support the (Rival Team) in out-of-conference/out-fo-division play.
3. I want the (Rival Team) to win all games except when they play the (Favorite Team).
Out-Group Fan Behavior
1. Fans of the (Rival Team) demonstrate poor sportsmanship at games.
2. Fans of the (Rival Team) are not well behaved at games.
3. Fans of the (Rival Team) do not show respect for others.
Out-Group Prestige
1. The prestige of the (Rival Team) is poor.
2. I feel people who live where the (Rival Team) play missed out on a good life.
3. I feel the city where the (Rival Team) play is not very prestigious.
Out-Group Direct Competition Satisfaction
1. I feel a sense of belonging when the (Favorite Team) beat the (Rival Team).
2. I feel a sense of accomplishment when the (Favorite Team) beat the (Rival Team).
3. I feel I have bragging rights when the (Favorite Team) beat the (Rival Team).
Out-Group Indirect Failure
Glory Out of Reflected Failure (Havard & Hutchinson, 2017)
All items use a 7-point likert scale (*1 = Strongly Disagree* to *7 = Strongly Agree*)
If the (Rival Team) lose to the (Comparable Team), how likely are you to:
1. Celebrate with others.
2. Feel better about myself.
3. Feel the (Favorite Team) is superior to the (Rival Team).
4. Feel a closer bond to the (Favorite Team).

Table 2.7 Modified scale items used in the current study to measure rivalry in politics

Brand Identification
Modified Sport Spectator Identification Scale—Revised (James et al., 2019)

Do you identify yourself as a fan of the (chosen Political Party), even if just a bit? (Yes or No)
   8. How strongly do you see yourself as a fan or supporter of the (chosen Political Party)?
   (*1 = Slightly a Fan* to *8 = Very Much a Fan*)

Table 2.7 (continued)

9. How strongly do your friends see you as a fan or supporter of the (chosen Political Party)?
(*1 = Slightly a Fan* to *8 = Very Much a Fan*)
10. How closely do you follow the (chosen Political Party) via ANY of the following: in person or on television, the radio, the Internet, or televised news or newspaper?
(*1 = A Little* to *8 = Very Frequently*)
11. How important is being a fan or supporter of the (chosen Political Party) to you?
(*1 = A Little Important* to *8 = Very Important*)
12. How much do you dislike the (Rival Political Party)?
(*1 = Dislike a Little* to *8 = Dislike Very Much*)
13. How often do you display (chosen Political Party) name or insignia at your place of work, where you live, or on your clothing?
(*1 = Occasionally* to *8 = Always*)

Attitude toward Brand (Spears & Singh, 2004)—*this scale was used for (1) chosen Political Party and (2) Rival Political Party*

6. In your opinion, (Political Party) is/are...
(*1 = Unappealing* to *7 = Appealing*)
7. In your opinion, (Political Party) is/are...
(*1 = Bad* to *7 = Good*)
8. In your opinion, (Political Party) is/are...
(*1 = Unpleasant* to *7 = Pleasant*)
9. In your opinion, (Political Party) is/are...
(*1 = Unfavorable* to *7 = Favorable*)
10. In your opinion, (Political Party) is/are...
(*1 = Umnlikable* to *7 = Likable*)

Rival Perceptions
Modified Rivalry Perception Scale (Havard, Gray, et al., 2013)
All items use a 7-point likert scale (*1 = Strongly Disagree* to *7 = Strongly Agree*)

Out-Group Indirect Support
4. I support the (Rival Political Party) to be successful if it is for the good of the country.
5. I want the (Rival Political Party) to be successful if it is good for the country.
6. I want the (Rival Political Party) to be well received domestically and abroad.
Out-Group Fan Behavior
4. Fans or supporters of the (Rival Political Party) demonstrate poor behavior.
5. Fans or supporters of the (Rival Political Party) are not well behaved.
6. Fans or supporters of the (Rival Political Party) do not show respect for others.
Out-Group Prestige
4. The prestige of the (Rival Political Party) is poor.
5. I feel people who like the (Rival Political Party) missed out on a good life.
6. I feel the (Rival Political Party) is not very prestigious.

Table 2.7   (continued)

Out-Group Direct Competition Satisfaction

   4. I feel a sense of belonging when the (Rival Political Party) defeats or compares favorably to the (Favorite Political Party).

   5. I feel a sense of accomplishment when the (Favorite Political Party) beats or compares favorably to the (Rival Political Party).

   6. I feel I have bragging rights when the (Favorite Political Party) beats or compares favorably to the (Rival Political Party).

Out-Group Indirect Failure

Modified Glory Out of Reflected Failure (Havard & Hutchinson, 2017)

All items use a 7-point likert scale (*1 = Strongly Disagree* to *7 = Strongly Agree*)

If the (Rival Political Party) were to experience failure via election, scandal, or policy, how likely are you to:

   5. Celebrate with others.

   6. Feel better about myself.

   7. Feel the (Favorite Political Party) is superior to the (Rival Political Party).

   8. Feel a closer bond to the (Favorite Political Party).

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Rivalry and Group Behavior in Sport and Religious Brands

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Abstract The study investigated how fans of sport teams and fans/members of religious groups differed in the ways they view relevant rival groups. Using items to measure group identification, brand attitude, rival perceptions, and likely behaviors toward rival groups, analysis found that fans/members of religious groups reported more negativity toward their rival religious group in a variety of areas than did fans of sport teams toward their rival. Additional analysis showed that being a fan of both a sport team and religious group and sport team did not influence differences in perceptions among sport fans, but did among fans/members of

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religious groups. Implications and future areas of research are addressed at the conclusion of the chapter.

As we continue our investigation of rivalry and out-group negativity among different fan and member settings, our comparison of focus in this chapter is the relationship people share with their favorite and rival sport teams and religious groups. It is well-documented that rivalries can become intense in the sport setting (Havard, 2020a), but we have also seen rivalry and out-group negativity reach, and even surpass, sport in politics and online gaming (Havard, 2021). The present study investigates how another setting in which intense out-group negativity can be found—that of major religions compared to that of sport.

Social Identity Theory (SIT) helps explain how individuals view self-perception and it also discusses the groups people choose to join (Tajfel, 1978). In short, humans join groups that are believed to reflect positively on the self and public image. With SIT influencing which groups individuals join, it further influences how people view groups in which they are not members. For example, if someone identifies as hardworking, they may choose to follow a team like the Nebraska Cornhuskers (Aden, 2008). In choosing to identify with Nebraska athletics teams, the individual will typically be exposed to schools and teams that are competitors and/or rivals to the Cornhuskers. Through such exposure, and their identification with the Cornhuskers, the individual may choose to display some form of negativity toward the school's and athletics teams' competitors (Turner, 1975).

This phenomenon occurs outside of the sport setting as well. Chapter 2 illustrates the ways in which supporters of political parties in the United States view each other, and several other comparisons show how fans in sport differ in their views of out-groups from fans in settings such as comics (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2020), mobile phones (Havard, Hutchinson, et al., 2021), science fiction (Havard, Wann, Fuller, et al., 2021) and streaming services (Havard, Ryan, et al., 2021), among others. As the current study compares group member behavior among fans of

sport and fans/members of religious groups, the findings are important to researchers, practitioners, and other interested parties. Through the continued investigation and comparison of group member behavior among various settings, we are better able to understand the influence membership, rivalry, and SIT play on individual and group behavior.

Background

An extension of understanding SIT (Tajfel, 1978), the study of rivalry and competition is possible. Further, the study of the rivalry phenomenon can help individuals learn more about how humans interact one-on-one and in group settings. Rivalry, broadly speaking, occurs when groups interact by which members of those groups see some form of competition and threat from the opponent (Havard, Gray, et al., 2013; Kilduff et al., 2010; Tyler & Cobbs, 2015). Looking at the many definitions of rivalry, it can manifest for many reasons, from close competitions and proximity, to cultural similarities and differences (Havard, Ryan, et al., 2020). Further, the phenomenon can be influenced by team and organization categories (Havard, Reams, et al., 2013; Tyler & Cobbs, 2017), level of competition (Havard & Reams, 2016), gender (Havard, Eddy, et al., 2016), and outcomes of competition (Leach & Spears, 2009), and can fluctuate in intensity throughout the history of competition (Converse & Reinhard, 2016). It is also common in the sport setting that individuals identify multiple teams and groups as rivals (Wann et al., 2016), and feelings toward those groups differ depending on the importance placed on the competitions (Havard & Reams, 2018; Tyler & Cobbs, 2017). Additionally, league and conference affiliation (Cobbs et al., 2017; Havard & Reams, 2016) and loss of competition because of some form of realignment can influence the way people view out-groups (Havard & Eddy, 2013; Havard, Wann, et al., 2013, 2017; Havard, Wann, Ryan, et al., 2017).

Rivalry can positively influence the amount of excitement surrounding an event or competition (Havard, 2020b), the willingness of people to consume a favorite brand via attendance (Havard, Eddy, et al., 2016), merchandise (Kwak et al., 2015), and television (Havard, Shapiro, et al., 2016; Mahony & Moorman, 1999). The phenomenon also influences the price people are willing to pay for consumption (Sanford & Scott, 2016). All of these outcomes can be positive for organizers and group members; however, rivalry can also elicit feelings of negativity toward the

out-group, whether conscious or unconscious (Wenger & Brown, 2014). The bias toward favored groups (Tajfel, 1978) and the derogation toward out-groups (Rubin & Hewstone, 1998) can lead to negative outcomes such as willingness to engage in unethical behavior (Kilduff et al., 2016) for decision-makers.

For group members, feelings of competition and rivalry can influence behavior in various negative ways. For example, people will celebrate when they see the failure of another person or group they view in an adversarial role, otherwise known as schadenfreude (Cikara & Fiske, 2012; Cikara et al., 2011; Elsbach & Bhattachrya, 2001; Heider, 1958; Zillmann & Cantor, 1976). These feelings can be fueled by that of envy (Hareli & Weiner, 2002) and inferiority (Leach & Spears, 2009; Leach et al., 2003) because individuals often use group membership in order to project and protect self-image (Madrigal, 1995; Vohs & Heatherton, 2001). An example of schadenfreude would be fans of the Pittsburgh Pirates celebrating when teams such as the New York Yankees or Houston Astros lose. Pirates fans may feel like they want to see the two teams experience perceived failure because they have experienced success in the past, or feel the teams do not win *the correct way*. It is common that group members stereotype positive behaviors to in-groups and negative behaviors to out-groups (Maass et al., 1989), often taking their feelings of rivalry online, using message boards to derogate out-groups (Ewing et al., 2013; Phillips-Melancon & Dalakas, 2014; Tucker, 2017).

When someone specifically views an out-group as a rival or threat to their identity or self-definition, they experience Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORFing) at the indirect failure of said group (Havard, 2014; Havard & Hutchinson, 2017; Havard, Ryan, et al., 2020). In order for GORFing to be activated, and be separate from schadenfreude, (1) a rival must be present and (2) the perceived failure by the rival must reflect positively on the individual via their favorite team. Previous investigation has found that fans experience feelings of GORFing separate from favorite team success (Havard, Inoue, et al., 2018). Most striking is the influence rivalry has on group members' willingness to consider anonymous aggression toward rivals (Havard, Wann, et al., 2013, 2017; Wann, Haynes, et al., 2003; Wann, Peterson, et al., 1999, Wann & Waddill, 2003). In fact, in the serval studies investigating the phenomenon and anonymous aggression, 1% to 2% of respondents indicated they would definitely be willing to consider physical harm or murder against a member of a rival group.

For the negative outcomes listed above, it is important that researchers and practitioners better understand an organization's influence on rivalry and group negativity. For example, out-group negativity can be influenced by advertisements (Nichols & Raska, 2016; Havard, Wann, et al., 2018) and mediated stories (Havard & Eddy, 2019; Havard, Ferrucci, et al., 2021). Because of this, organizations and group member leaders have to be careful in the way they promote the favorite and rival groups. For instance, if people are exposed to overly negative language regarding a rival group, they may increase their level of out-group derogation and negativity to alarming levels. Further, the inclusion of religious groups and ideology into the promotion of a favorite group or rival relationship can increase the intensity for group members. To illustrate, the rivalry between Brigham Young University and the University of Utah is known as the Holy War due to the influence of religion in the region.

The Current Study

The intensity of in-group bias and out-group negativity in sport and religion makes it important to comparatively investigate group member perceptions and likely behaviors among the two settings. To this point, comparisons of group member negativity have been conducted regarding sport with online gaming (Havard, Fuller, et al., 2021; Havard, White, et al., 2021), theme parks (Havard, Baker, et al., 2022), streaming (Havard, Ryan, et al., 2021), mobile phones (Havard, Hutchinson, et al., 2021), comics (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2020), science fiction (Havard, Wann, Fuller, et al., 2021), and athletic footwear (Havard, Hutchinson, et al., 2022), along with politics as described in Chapter 2 of this text. The current study adds to the understanding of group member behavior and negativity among various settings.

First, based on previous comparisons, it was expected that fans of sport teams and fans/members of religious groups would differ in their perceptions of relative rival groups. Therefore, the following hypothesis is offered:

H1: Fans of sport will differ in the perceptions and likely behaviors of their rival team than will fans/members of religious groups will of a perceived rival group.

The current study also followed previous studies by investigating the influence of the common in-group (Gaertner et al., 1993), which states

that being a member of numerous groups impacts the way individuals react to perceived failure and treatment of others. To examine this, the current study compared the perceptions and likely behaviors among participants that identified as a member of one group versus those whom identified as members of multiple groups. Therefore, the following hypotheses drove the analysis:

H2: Fans/members of both sport and religious groups will differ in their perceptions and likely behaviors toward rival brands than will fans of only sport.

H3: Fans/members of both religious groups and sport will differ in their perceptions and likely behaviors toward rival brands than will fans/members of only religious groups.

Method

Participants in the current study were recruited using Amazon MTurk to complete an online survey built using the Qualtrics platform. In order to compare fan perceptions and behavior, participants were first asked whether they identified as a fan of (1) a sport team, (2) a fan or member of a religious group, or (3) both. Based on the way a participant answered this question, they either responded to the survey regarding their sport fandom, their religious fandom/membership, or both their fandom and membership of sport and religious groups.

Instrument and Participants

After answering the introductory question, participants completed three to five sections based on their fandom.[1] Identification with the favorite brand was measured using the Sport Spectator Identification Scale-Revised (SSIS-R; James et al., 2019).[2] The SSIS was the first measure

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[1] A participant that identified as a fan of sport completed a section regarding their favorite team, a section about their rival team, and a demographic section. A fan/member of a religious group completed the sections regarding their favorite religious group, their rival religious group, and a demographic section. Someone that identified as a fan/member of both sport and a religious group completed sections regarding their favorite brands in each setting, rival brand in each setting, and the common demographic section.

[2] A modified version of the SSIS-R was used to measure identification in the religious setting.

developed to investigate individuals' attachment to a brand (Wann & Branscombe, 1993), and has reliably been used in previous comparative studies to investigate rivalry among non-sport settings. Next, participants were asked to evaluate their favorite brand using a five-item semantic differential scale (Spears & Singh, 2004). Specifically, the scale provided participants with a five-point spectrum that includes a positive word associated with 5 and a negative word associated with 1 on the spectrum.

The section evaluating perceptions and likely behaviors of rival brands was made up of the semantic differential scale described above, along with the Rivalry Perception Scale (RPS). The RPS measures four facets of rivalry and provides a rounded view of how individuals perceive respective rival groups. In particular, the scale measures an individual's (1) willingness to support a rival group in indirect competition,[3] (2) satisfaction received when a favorite brand compares favorably to a rival brand,[4] (3) prestige of the rival brand,[5] and (4) perceptions of rival group members' behavior (Havard, Gray, et al., 2013).[6] It is important to note that for each of these facets, fans can use evaluations as a way to derogate a rival group's identity, performance, or ideology. Likely behavior toward rival groups was measured using the Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORFing) scale (Havard & Hutchinson, 2017).[7] The RPS and GORFing scales have repeatedly and successfully been used in all the previous comparisons of rivalry in and out of the sport setting. Finally, participants completed a demographic section. Participants completed the survey in an average of 15 minutes.

A total of 121 participants provided usable responses. Of the participants, the majority identified as male (62.8%), with 37.2% identifying as female. Further, participants ranged in age from 22 to 61 ($M = 36.68$,

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[3] In sport, this is a competition that does not involve the favorite team. In the religious setting, this would entail individuals supporting either what the religion means to others or the positive attributes of the religion.

[4] In sport, this means when a favorite team beats a rival team. In the religious setting, this occurs when the chosen religion compares favorably, either personally or in public, to a rival religious group.

[5] Such as prestige of the city or academics of a sport team and relative prestige or importance placed on a rival religion in society.

[6] In sport, the behavior of rival fans at games and surrounding the rivalry. In sport, the behavior of supporters/members of the rival religious group.

[7] Modified versions of the RPS and GORFing scales were used to measure perceptions of rival religious groups.

$SD = 10.82$). Regarding fandom, 38.0% indicated they were a fan of only sport, 29.8% identified as fans/members of only a religious group, and 32.2% identified as both fans/members of a sport team and religious group. Overwhelmingly, religious participants identified Christianity as their preferred religion (80.0%), while 5.3% identified as Islam, and 2.5% as Hindu, among other groups. Islam was the most identified rival religious group (29.3%), while participants also identified Hindu (12.0%) and Christianity (10.7%).

Results

For analysis, all items in the current study were averaged so that one score represented a participant response for each scale used. For all participants, the favorite and rival sport and religious brands they reported were piped through the rest of the survey for consistency in questions and prompts. All scales used in the current study displayed reliability, with α ranging from 0.714 to 0.966. Overall, participants highly identified with their favorite brands and reported positive attitudes toward their favorite brands. Further, while differences exist, participants ranged in somewhat positive to negative perceptions and likely behaviors regarding their respective rival brands. Descriptive data and reliability for scales used in the current study are available in Table 3.1.

Testing the Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 tested whether fans of sport teams and fans/members of religious groups differed in perceptions and likely behaviors regarding their relevant rival. For this analysis, responses from participants that identified as a fan of either a sport team or fan/member of a religious group were included. First, a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was run to determine if gender influenced favorite brand identification and perception, and perceptions and likely behaviors regarding the relevant rival. No significant differences were found, so gender was not included in the main analysis.

When testing for significant differences among fans/members of sport teams and religious groups, a MANOVA with a significant Wilks's Lambda ($0.728(8, 73) = 3.412$, $p = 0.002$) revealed differences were present. Follow-up analysis revealed that significant differences regarding the overall Group Behavior Composite (GBC) $F(1, 80) = 10.28$, $p =$

Table 3.1 Descriptives and reliability of scales used in study

Item	M	SD	α
Sport Favorite Team Identification (SSIS-R)	6.22	1.11	0.909
Sport Favorite Team Attitude	5.86	0.73	0.846
Sport Rival Team Attitude	4.50	1.51	0.966
Sport Rival Team Support (OIC)	4.54	1.53	0.916
Sport Rival Team Fan Behavior (OB)	4.69	1.18	0.755
Sport Rival Team Prestige (OP)	4.38	1.46	0.858
Sport Rival Team Sense of Satisfaction (SoS)	5.27	1.07	0.776
Sport Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORF)	5.07	1.07	0.860
Sport Group Behavior Composite (GBC)	4.61	0.72	0.805
Religion Identification (SSIS-R)	6.36	0.79	0.755
Religion Favorite Attitude	5.82	0.69	0.746
Religion Rival Attitude	4.84	1.44	0.948
Religion Rival Support (OIC)	4.94	1.29	0.855
Religion Rival Fan Behavior (OB)	5.03	1.17	0.807
Religion Rival Prestige (OP)	5.12	1.07	0.747
Religion Sense of Satisfaction (SoS)	5.22	0.94	0.714
Religion Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORF)	5.36	1.08	0.846
Religion Group Behavior Composite (GBC)	4.79	0.65	0.806

0.002, willingness to support the rival in indirect competition $F(1,80) = 7.87$, $p = 0.006$, perceptions of out-group member behavior $F(1, 80) = 15.47$, $p < 0.001$, perceptions of prestige $F(1, 80) = 20.65$, $p < 0.001$, GORFing $F(1, 80) = 8.97$, $p = 0.004$, and attitude toward the rival $F(1, 80) = 10.43$, $p = 0.002$. In all instances, with the exception of attitude toward the rival, fans/members of religious groups reported more negativity toward their rival than did fans of sport teams. Hypothesis 1 was supported (Table 3.2).

Hypotheses 2 and 3 investigated the presence and influence of the common in-group theory (Gaertner et al., 1993). Specifically, Hypothesis 2 tested whether being a fan of *both* a sport team and fan/member of a religious group influenced the ways people viewed their relevant sport rival. In this instance, a non-significant MANOVA (Wilk's Lambda $0.857(8, 76) = 1.579$, $p = 0.145$ revealed no differences were present. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not supported (Table 3.3).

Hypothesis 3 investigated differences between fans/members of religious groups and participants that identified as *both* a fan of a sport team and fan/member of a religious group. In this instance, a significant

Table 3.2 Fan identification, attitude, RPS, and GORFing by sport vs. religion

	Sport		Religion	
Item	M	SD	M	SD
Brand Identification (SSIS-R)	6.08	1.21	6.38	0.91
Attitude toward Favorite Brand	5.74	0.73	5.61	0.68
Attitude toward Rival Brand	4.50*	1.59	5.49*	1.07
Rival Support (OIC)	4.60*	1.63	5.46*	0.96
Rival Prestige (OP)	4.30*	1.63	5.61*	0.64
Rival Behavior (OB)	4.52*	1.32	5.52*	0.85
Sense of Satisfaction	5.41	1.14	5.50	0.71
Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORF)	5.00*	1.28	5.74*	0.85
Group Behavior Composite (GBC)	4.56*	0.80	5.03*	0.41

*Significant at 0.01 level

Table 3.3 Fan identification, attitude, RPS, and GORFing by sport vs. sport/religion

	Sport		Both	
Item	M	SD	M	SD
Brand Identification (SSIS-R)	6.08	1.21	6.39	0.96
Attitude toward Favorite Brand	5.75	0.73	5.98	0.70
Attitude toward Rival Brand	4.50	1.59	4.50	1.45
Rival Support (OIC)	4.60	1.63	4.47	1.43
Rival Prestige (OP)	4.30	1.63	4.47	1.24
Rival Behavior (OB)	4.52	1.32	4.88	0.96
Sense of Satisfaction (SoS)	5.41	1.14	5.11	0.97
Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORF)	5.01	1.28	5.15	0.93
Group Behavior Composite (GBC)	4.56	0.80	4.66	0.60

MANOVA (Wilk's Lambda $0.648(8, 66) = 4.496$, $p < 0.001$) revealed significant differences were present. Specifically, differences were present regarding attitude toward the favorite religious brand $F(1, 73) = 6.84$, $p = 0.011$, attitude toward the rival religious brand $F(1, 73) = 17.24$, $p < 0.001$, out-group behavior $F(1, 73) = 14.18$, $p < 0.001$, out-group prestige $F(1, 73) = 18.31$, $p < 0.001$, willingness to support the rival $F(1, 73) = 6.49$, $p = 0.013$, sense of satisfaction when the preferred brand compares favorably to the rival brand $F(1, 73) = 6.49$, $p = 0.013$,

Table 3.4 Fan identification, attitude, RPS, and GORFing by religion vs. religion/sport

Item	Religion		Both	
	M	SD	M	SD
Brand Identification (SSIS-R)	6.38	0.91	6.34	0.68
Attitude toward Favorite Brand	5.61*	0.73	5.98	0.70
Attitude toward Rival Brand	5.49&	1.07	4.25&	1.48
Rival Support (OIC)	5.46&	0.96	4.46&	1.37
Rival Prestige (OP)	5.61&	0.64	4.66&	1.37
Rival Behavior (OB)	5.52&	0.85	4.58&	1.25
Sense of Satisfaction (SoS)	5.50*	0.71	4.97*	1.06
Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORF)	5.74#	0.85	5.00#	1.15
Group Behavior Composite (GBC)	5.03#	0.41	4.58#	0.75

*Significant at 0.05 level
#Significant at 0.01 level
&Significant at 0.001 level

GORFing $F(1, 73) = 10.00$, $p = 0.002$, and overall negativity toward the rival (GBC; $F(1, 73) = 10.24$, $p = 0.002$). In all instances, with the exception of sense of satisfaction, being a fan/member of both a sport team and a religious group was correlated with more positive perceptions and likely behaviors regarding the rival brand than being a fan/member of *only* a religious group. Hypothesis 3 was supported (Table 3.4).

Discussion

The current study investigated whether significant differences regarding favorite and rival brands existed among fans of sport teams and fans/members of religious groups. Before discussing the results, it is appropriate to point out a possible limitation to the study. The use of MTurk allows a wide range of people to participate in the study. However, its use could also influence the findings, and for this reason future researchers could possibly benefit from recruiting participants using different methods. Despite this possible limitation, the findings of the current study are very important to the study of rivalry and group member behavior.

Results indicated that fans/members of rival teams reported more negativity toward their relevant rival than did fans of sport teams. This

is the third comparison that has found a non-sport setting correlated to more negativity than the sport setting, the previous two being online gaming fans (Havard, Fuller et al., 2021) and fans/members of political parties in the United States (Chapter 2 of this book). Although this outcome was expected, it is still interesting to see that fans/members of religious groups view rivals more negatively than do sport fans. This, however, should be of little surprise given the vast history of stories of war revolving around religion and ideology in our society.

Hypotheses 2 and 3 together revealed that the common in-group (Gaertner et al., 1993) influenced out-group perceptions and behavior among fans/members of religious groups but not fans of sport teams. This finding supports previous comparisons into sport and streaming (Havard, Ryan et al., 2021), sport and theme parks (Havard, Wann et al., 2022; Havard, Baker et al., 2022), and sport and athletic footwear brands (Havard, Hutchinson et al., 2022), among others. The current study taken with previous investigations illustrates the power of sport fandom to influence individual behaviors in other settings.

It is also worth noting that, while not overall significantly different from other comparisons, fans of sport teams tended to report stronger negative perceptions of rival teams in the current study than in others. This potentially means that not only the group setting influences group member perceptions and likely behaviors, but so does the investigative setting or method. In other words, it is possible that participants completing a survey about rival perceptions in a study involving a highly volatile setting such as religion influenced more negative feelings toward rival sport teams than in other comparisons. This could be the focus of future study to determine validity and correlation, but nonetheless it is an interesting observation.

Implications and Future Research

The current study carries important implications for researchers, practitioners, and interested readers/stakeholders. First, the current study confirms that the religious setting is correlated with greater negativity toward a relevant out-group than does the sport setting. This is important for researchers as it allows for future study and also nuanced discussion of the role sport and religion play in our society. Future study could entail more quantitative data to examine the current findings, along with

qualitative methods to better understand individual experiences involving religious fandom/membership.

Further, these findings are important specifically to practitioners in the religious sector. Most modern religions promote their group's willingness to support and accept others through their teachings and ideology; however, the current study suggests that religion potentially influences greater negativity toward out-groups. This data runs contradictory to how religious groups publicly promote their brands and practitioners working in the religious sector would be wise to use the current study data as a way to search for answers to such troubling outcomes. It is also important to note that the overwhelming participants that identified with a religious group did so with the Christian faith. Therefore, the findings of the current study should carry extra weight for practitioners working in Christian sects.

The current study also illustrates that sport potentially has the ability to influence more positive perceptions and likely behaviors toward religious rival groups. This is important to researchers for the reasons provided above, but it is also important for practitioners working in the sport and religious settings. For example, practitioners in sport should consider this when designing theme nights focused toward specific religious groups.[8] Additionally, many religious groups incorporate sport and physical activity into their teachings and outreach, and the current study indicates that such an approach may be appropriate. Further, many sport fans show support of athletes that hold religious beliefs different from their own (e.g., watching players, purchasing player apparel). Future inquiry, particularly using qualitative means, could provide more insight to this phenomenon.

The current study investigated how out-group perceptions and likely behaviors can be influenced by fandom in sport and fandom/membership in religious groups. In addition to adding to the growing literature regarding group member behavior in various settings, the current study should be treated as an important step in the academic and practitioner approach to learning more about group behavior and ultimately teaching people to see past surface differences and look for commonalities.

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[8] It seems common that theme nights focused on religion are referred to as *Faith Nights* to give the appearance that members of various religious groups are welcome.

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Revisiting the Hierarchy of Out-group Derogation and the Out-group Derogation Spectrum

Cody T. Havard, Frederick G. Grieve, and Ted B. Peetz

Abstract The chapter updates the Hierarchy of Out-group Derogation (HOD) and Out-group Derogation Spectrum (ODS) by including three additional fandom and group settings. Using the Group Behavior Composite (GBC), an overall measure of out-group negativity was identified for each participant and each setting. Comparative analysis found that group setting influences the greatest amount of negativity in order

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from (1) religion, (2) online gaming, (3) politics, (4) sport, (5) athletic footwear, (6) mobile phones, (7) streaming, (8) theme parks, (9) gaming console, (10) Disney Parks, (11) science fiction, and (12) comics. Implications of the findings along with future research are discussed.

Keywords Rivalry · Group membership · Hierarchy of Out-group Derogation · Out-group Derogation Spectrum · Out-group Derogation · Group member negativity

In 2021, a central theme of the book (see Havard, 2021a) was to examine group member behavior in various settings and potentially introduce a form of hierarchy to help explain out-group negativity. We accomplished this task with the development of the Hierarchy of Out-group Derogation (HOD), in which nine fandom settings were compared and included (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2021). Additionally, the Out-group Derogation Spectrum (ODS) was included to provide researchers and practitioners with a visual representation of out-group negativity. The current chapter describes a follow-up analysis with the addition of three more fandom settings. In particular, this short chapter will briefly describe the findings from the first HOD study and describe the most-recent comparison study.

Background

The study of rivalry begins with the understanding of why people join groups and how their identity is tied into such membership. As previously discussed, Social Identity Theory (Tajfel, 1978) addresses the phenomenon present when people join groups in order to derive positive outcomes. Extending from the need to feel like one belongs (Festinger, 1954), people tend to separate the self and others into different groups to help make sense of society and their surroundings (Coakley, 2009; Tajfel, 1974), SIT provides individuals the opportunity to meet others that share similar characteristics and ideology.

When someone joins a group, they derive many positive outcomes such as feeling of belonging (Wann, 2006), decreased feelings of loneliness (Branscombe & Wann, 1991), acclimation to one's surroundings (Wann, Brame, et al., 2008), among others. Further, when an in-group is successful, members can experience the vicarious success of the latest

contest or outcome (Bandura, 1977; Cialdini et al., 1976), and also suffer vicariously the defeat of an in-group (Snyder & Fromkin, 1980; Snyder et al., 1986). To account for this, individuals will bask in success and cut off failure in an attempt to protect their self and public image (Madrigal, 1995; Vohs & Heatherton, 2001). Further, through the association and membership with groups, individuals can begin to adopt the overall characteristics of the group (Ashmore et al., 2004), even adapting to those share group characteristics. For this reason, it is important to better understand how membership influences individual and group behavior.

Group Competition and Rivalry

When someone joins a group, they are able to identify with the characteristics of said group, but they also tend to identify an out-group which represents some level of threat to their personal and group membership and/or identity (Turner, 1975). In other words, when people join groups, they tend to be confronted with the presence of competing out-groups—or rivals (Sherif, 1966). In general, rivalry is the study of the competitive aspect of membership and relationships among individuals and groups (Havard, 2014; Kilduff et al., 2010; Tyler & Cobbs, 2015) as previously discussed in more depth in this text. In fact, just the presence of a competing group or individual can increase feelings of threat (Schlueter & Scheepers, 2010), which can influence things like people perceiving observer feedback (Hobson & Inzlicht, 2016), evaluation of group member behavior (Havard & Eddy, 2019; Maass et al., 1989; Wann & Dolan, 1994; Wann & Grieve, 2005), and reaction to competitive outcomes (Mahony & Howard, 1998).

There are positive outcomes derived from rivalry for the individual such as feelings of group cohesion (Delia, 2015; Smith & Schwartz, 2003) and uniqueness of other groups (Berendt & Uhrich, 2016; Berendt et al., 2018). Further, for an organization, feelings of rivalry can influence the willingness to attend events (Havard, Eddy, et al., 2016), pay price premiums (Sanford & Scott, 2016), and wear merchandise (Havard, Shapiro et al., 2016) among others. However, there are several negative outcomes for both individuals and groups, such as increased perception of violence during contests (Raney & Kinally, 2009), feelings of animosity toward out-group members (Havard, Reams, et al., 2013), and even willingness to consider in the form of verbal and instrumental (Wann,

Carlson, et al., 1999; Wann, Waddill, Bono, et al., 2017) as well as anonymous physical (Havard, Wann, et al., 2013, 2017; Wann & Waddill, 2013; Wann, Haynes, et al., 2003; Wann, Peterson, et al., 1999). For these reasons, it is very important that we continue to study and better understand the influence competition, rivalry, and group membership play in out-group negativity.

Negative Group Behavior

When faced with a rival, individuals and groups have another mass in which to focus their negativity (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001), rooting against and cheering failure of the out-group (Cikara et al., 2011; Cikara & Fiske, 2012, Leach et al., 2003; Zillmann et al., 1989; Zillmann & Cantor, 1976), in an attempt to find another way that the in-group compares favorably to the out-group (Havard, 2020b). Reacting to rival failure allows someone to feel better about himself/herself via their association with a group that compares favorably (Havard, 2014; Havard, Inoue, et al., 2018). Because of this, people may be influenced by the presence of the rivalry phenomenon to treat out-group members negatively for their in-groups' gain. This means that organizations and managers have to be careful in the ways they promote group comparisons and competitions so they do not further foster negativity and out-group derogation. For instance, group member feelings of rivalry in sport can be influenced by the types of promotional messages from teams (Havard, Wann, et al., 2018) and leagues (Cobbs et al., 2017; Havard, 2016; Havard & Reams, 2016), and also from mediated headlines (Havard, Ferrucci, et al., 2021).[1]

While most of the investigation into group behavior exists within the sport context, rivalry and competition among consumer brands has received attention in the literature as well, including in politics (Hibbing et al., 2008), automobiles (Ewing et al., 2013), cell phones (Phillips-Melancon & Dalakas, 2014), entertainment (Havard, 2020a), management (Havard, 2018), direct-to-consumer streaming (Havard, 2021b), Disney theme parks (Havard, Baker, et al., 2023; Havard et al., 2021b; Havard, Wann, Grieve, et al., 2021), and comics (Tucker, 2017). In

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[1] Fans that read a headline about two rival teams fans fighting reported more negativity regarding the out-groups behavior than did those that read a story about rival teams coordinating a shared community outreach activity or program.

our previous comparisons of group behavior and out-group negativity among sport and non-sport settings, we consistently found that the type of fandom or consumer setting influenced negativity toward the out-group (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2021). To date, our investigations include comparing out-group negativity in sport with fandoms around Disney Parks (Havard et al., 2021a), Marvel and DC comics (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2020), Star Wars and Star Trek (Havard, Wann, Fuller, et al., 2021), gamers using PlayStation and Xbox consoles (Havard, White, Irwin, & Ryan, 2021), gamers using personal computers and consoles (Havard, Fuller & Padhye, 2021), theme parks (Havard, Baker, et al., 2022), direct-to-consumer streaming services (Havard, Ryan, et al., 2021), Apple and Samsung mobile phones (Havard, Hutchinson, et al., 2021), athletic footwear (Havard, Reams, et al., 2022), along with religion (Chapter 3) and politics (Chapter 2) detailed in this text.

The Current Study

In the last book (Havard, 2021a), we compared the settings to each other in order to identify a ranking of out-group negativity. Specifically, we combined the four sub scales of the Rivalry Perception Scale (RPS; Havard, Gray, et al., 2013) and the Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORFing; Havard & Hutchinson, 2017) to create the Group Behavior (GBC). The GBC is a 16-item scale that therefore represents an overall measure of negativity toward a relevant out-group (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2021). In the text, we described how the measure works, and its applicability. Further, we presented the Hierarchy of Out-group Derogation (HOD) and Out-group Derogation Spectrum (ODS) to provide readers with a table and figure representation of out-group negativity. In that comparison, we identified online gaming between people using personal computers and gaming consoles as influencing the most negativity, followed by United States politics (Republican vs. Democrat) sport, mobile phone (Apple vs. Samsung), streaming services, theme parks, gaming console (Xbox vs. PlayStation), Disney Parks (toward Universal), science fiction (Star Wars vs. Star Trek), and comics (Marvel vs. DC).

The current study provides an update to the original HOD and ODS by including religion, athletic footwear, theme parks, and the comparison

of sport and politics.[2] As a follow-up study, we included the research question to help drive the analysis:

> RQ1: How does fandom setting influence the negativity group members report toward their relevant out-group?

METHOD

Items

The methodology followed that of the original study (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2021), in that participant scores for the four RPS (Havard, Gray et al., 2013) sub scales (Out-group Indirect Competition-OIC; Sense of Satisfaction-SoS; Out-group Prestige-OP, Out-group Behavior-OB) were combined with the GORFing scale (Havard & Hutchinson, 2017) to form the GBC. It is important to note that all scales and sub scales of the RPS and GORFing are scored on a 1 to 7 scale so that that higher scores represent more negativity toward the out-group with the exception of the OIC items. For this reason, the three OIC items were reverse-coded to conform with the rest of the GBC.

For a recap, the RPS (Havard, Gray et al., 2013) provides a rounded view of how someone views their rival out-group by measuring their (1) likelihood to support the rival in indirect competition-OIC, (2) the sense of satisfaction they experience when their in-group beats or compares favorably to the out-group in direct competition-SoS, (3) their perception of the out-group's prestige-OP, and (4) their perception of out-group members' behavior (OB). The GORFing scale is a four-item measure of the willingness of someone to celebrate their perceived indirect failure of a rival group (Havard & Hutchinson, 2017). When combined to form the GBC, it is an overall view of negativity toward rival groups.[3]

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[2] Politics was included as a setting in the original HOD and ODS chapter, but the comparison to sport was not described until Chapter 2 of this text.

[3] With OIC items reverse-coded so that higher numbers represent greater amounts of negativity.

Data

Over 11 comparison studies and 12 group settings, a total of 1,613 participant responses were included in the analysis. For inclusion in the GBC, participants that indicated they were a fan of only one setting in each comparison study were used.[4] Overall, the sample was made of mostly male (62.0%), followed by female (37.8%), with 3 people choosing not to indicate, and one person not answering the question. Sport fans made up 38.0% of the sample, followed by politics (20.0%), gaming console (7.5%), science fiction (7.2%), online gaming (5.9%), mobile phones (5.5%), Disney Parks (5.0%), comics (3.4%), streaming (2.3%), religion (2.2%), theme parks (1.7%), and athletic footwear (1.2%).

Results

In the original comparisons, all scales displayed reliability, making it appropriate to use all in the current study. Before testing for group differences, we first ran two Analysis of Variance (ANOVAs) to determine if gender and group identity (James et al., 2019) influenced negativity toward the out-group. Both were significant as they were in the original study (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2021), and they were both included as covariates.

Research Question 1

Main analysis used a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) to control for correlation among items, and a significant Wilk's Lambda $0.393(66, 8,535) = 24.63$, $p < 0.001$ revealed differences were present. Further analysis revealed that significant differences were present for the GBC ($F(11, 1,599) = 36.00$, $p < 0.001$ and all RPS and GORFing measures. For clarity, this chapter focuses on the reporting of GBC scores as that represents the overall negativity toward a relevant out-group in each setting when controlling for gender and group identification. Post hoc analysis using Bonferroni adjustment was used to determine differences in GBC scores among group settings. Significant differences are presented in Table 4.1. Specifically, religion ($M = 5.03$, $SD = 0.41$) was

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[4] Participants that indicated being a fan or member of *both* groups were not included in the GBC data.

Table 4.1 Significant differences among settings

	Religion		Online Gaming		Politics		Sport		Footwear		Mobile Phones		Streaming		Theme Parks		Gaming Console		Disney Parks		Science Fiction		Comics	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
	5.03	0.41	4.78	0.60	4.75	0.84	4.51	0.87	4.29	0.86	4.23	0.96	4.10	1.25	4.10	1.18	4.02	1.04	4.01	1.24	3.73	1.19	3.53	1.09

Religion: Online Gaming **More**; Gaming Console **More**; Disney Parks **More**; Science Fiction **More**; Comics **More**

Online Gaming: Religion **Less**; Politics **More**; Sport **More**; Footwear **More**; Mobile Phones **More**; Streaming **More**

Politics: Sport **More**; Streaming **More**; Gaming Console **More**; Disney Parks **More**; Science Fiction **More**; Comics **More**

Sport: Online Gaming **Less**; Politics **Less**; Mobile Phones **More**; Disney Parks **More**; Science Fiction **More**; Comics **More**

Footwear: Online Gaming **Less**

Mobile Phones: Online Gaming **Less**; Sport **Less**; Streaming **More**; Theme Parks **More**; Gaming Console **More**; Disney Parks **More**

Streaming: Online Gaming **Less**; Politics **Less**; Mobile Phones **Less**

Theme Parks: Online Gaming **Less**; Mobile Phones **Less**

Gaming Console: Religion **Less**; Online Gaming **Less**; Politics **Less**; Mobile Phones **Less**; Science Fiction **More**

Disney Parks: Religion **Less**; Online Gaming **Less**; Politics **Less**; Sport **Less**; Mobile Phones **Less**

Science Fiction: Religion **Less**; Online Gaming **Less**; Politics **Less**; Sport **Less**; Mobile Phones **Less**; Gaming Console **Less**

Comics: Religion **Less**; Online Gaming **Less**; Politics **Less**; Sport **Less**; Mobile Phones **Less**

	Religion		Online Gaming		Politics		Sport		Footwear		Mobile Phones		Streaming		Theme Parks		Gaming Console		Disney Parks		Science Fiction		Comics	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
	5.03	0.41	4.78	0.60	4.75	0.84	4.51	0.87	4.29	0.86	4.23	0.96	4.10	1.25	4.10	1.18	4.02	1.04	4.01	1.24	3.73	1.19	3.53	1.09

Online Gaming:
Theme Parks
More
Gaming Console
More
Disney Parks
More
Science Fiction
More
Comics
More

Mobile Phones:
Science Fiction
More
Comics
More

significantly more negative than online gaming, gaming console, Disney Parks, science fiction, and comics. Online gaming ($M = 4.78$, $SD = 0.60$) was significantly less negative than religion, but more negative than all other settings. Politics ($M = 4.75$, $SD = 0.84$) was significantly more negative than sport, streaming, gaming console, Disney Parks, science fiction, and comics. Sport ($M = 4.51$, $SD = 0.86$) was significantly less negative than online gaming and politics, but more negative than mobile phones, Disney Parks, science fiction, and comics.

Athletic footwear ($M = 4.29$, $SD = 0.86$) was significantly less negative than online gaming. Mobile phones ($M = 4.23$, $SD = 0.96$) was significantly less negative than online gaming and sport, and more negative than streaming, theme parks, gaming console, Disney Parks, science fiction, and comics. Streaming ($M = 4.10$, $SD = 1.25$) was significantly less negative than online gaming, politics, and sport. Theme parks ($M = 4.10$, $SD = 1.18$) was significantly less negative than online gaming and mobile phones. Gaming console ($M = 4.02$, $SD = 1.04$) was significantly less negative than religion, online gaming, politics, and mobile phones, but more negative than science fiction. Disney Parks ($M = 4.01$, $SD = 1.24$) was significantly less negative than religion, online gaming, politics, sport, and mobile phones. Science fiction ($M = 3.73$, $SD = 1.19$) was significantly less negative than religion, online gaming, politics, sport, mobile phones, and gaming console. Finally, comics ($M = 3.53$, $SD = 1.09$) was significantly less negative than religion, online gaming, politics, sport, and mobile phones.

Discussion

The current study followed up the original comparison of group settings (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2021) by including religion, athletic footwear, and theme parks in GBC scores. As with the original study, the main purpose of the current investigation is to update the Hierarchy of Out-group Derogation (HOD) and the Out-group Derogation Spectrum (ODS).

Hierarchy of Out-Group Derogation

As previously discussed, the HOD exists to provide a table representation of the relative amount of negativity reported in each group setting. Originally, we separated the table into four categories based on amount or degree of negativity (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2021). With the inclusion

High Negativity
1) Religion
2) Online Gaming
3) Politics
4) Sport
Medium/High Negativity
5) Athletic Footwear
6) Mobile Phones
Medium Negativity
7) Streaming
8) Theme Parks
Low Negativity
9) Gaming Console
10) Disney Parks
11) Science Fiction
12) Comics

Fig. 4.1 Hierarchy of Out-group Derogation

of additional group settings, the four categories are (1) high negativity, (2) medium/high negativity, (3) medium negativity, and (4) low negativity. The high negativity settings in order are: (1) religion, (2) online gaming, (3) politics, and (4) sport. The medium/high negativity settings are (5) athletic footwear and (6) mobile phones, followed by the medium negativity settings of (7) streaming and (8) theme parks. Finally, the low negativity settings are (9) gaming console, (10) Disney Parks, (11) science fiction, and (12) comics (Fig. 4.1).

Out-Group Derogation Spectrum

In addition to the HOD, we also wanted to include a spectrum that would acts as a visual representation of group negativity on sliding scale. Thus, the updated ODS is included in Fig. 4.2. The spectrum runs from 1—Positive to 7—Negative, and the pictured ODS focuses on the 3.5 to 5.0 range as that is where scores fell for the included settings. The most negative setting is religion ($M = 5.03$, $SD = 0.41$) and the most positive group setting is comics ($M = 3.53$, $SD = 1.09$).
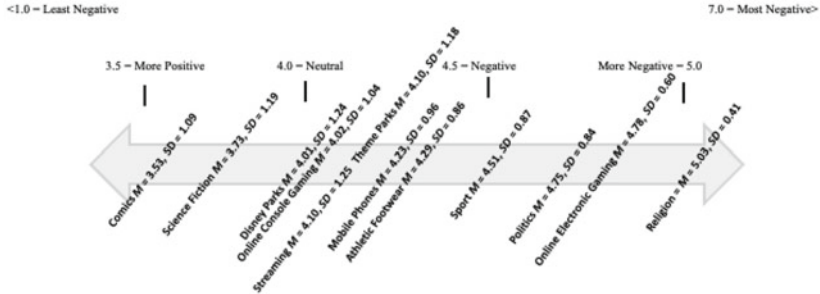
Fig. 4.2   Out-group Derogation Spectrum

General Discussion

Chapter 6 of this text will focus on specific ideas and initiatives to lead future researchers and practitioners working in group settings or with individuals. Therefore, this brief discussion will focus on the GBC scores along with the implications of such findings, focusing primarily on the updates. The inclusion of religion, athletic footwear, and theme parks into the HOD and ODS make conceptual sense regarding their placement among other group settings. It is not surprising that the religion setting influenced the most negativity toward relevant out-group members. However, the mean score for the religion setting was above a 5.0, which indicates a high level of negativity toward relevant out-groups. This setting is so far the only one in which participants scored higher than a 5.0 on the GBC. For this reason, practitioners working in this setting should show caution in the way they discuss relevant out-groups and other religious ideologies.

It also is not altogether surprising that athletic footwear elicited the level of negative responses on the GBC given the influence of sport teams on athletic footwear brands and vice versa. For fans of sport teams, they tend to show an increased preference for brands that are used by their favorite teams (Dalakas & Levin, 2005), and therefore the intense ways in which footwear brands are promoted may play a factor in their negativity focused toward the out-group. Additionally, it was not unexpected that fans of theme parks reported lower levels of out-group negativity than several others on the HOD and ODS based on what we know about fans of Disney Parks (Havard, Baker et al., 2021; Havard, Baker et al., 2023). Further, people attend theme parks in order to find enjoyment

and escapement while engaging in active play, which may influence the way people view in-groups and out-groups, and their respective members.

Future Study

As we continue to study how group settings influence perceptions of relevant out-groups and behaviors toward such groups, it is prudent that we continue to design similar comparison studies. Such settings include alcoholic drink brands, hotel brands, and car brands among others. Further, within each setting examined thus far, additional investigation using both quantitative and especially qualitative means can help further guide future understanding of brand preferences and group differences. For example, qualitatively investigating why people choose preferred direct-to-consumer streaming services is a worthwhile endeavor that can help both researchers and practitioners as we move toward a more streaming-focused consumer experience.

Additionally, many differences in preferences and out-group perceptions exist within the settings included in the HOD and ODS. For example, within the political setting, many differences can exist between members of the same party based on the ideology, strategy, and the like. This too is a study that is likely to uncover very interesting and important findings. It is also important to continue investigating the influence of the common in-group (Gaertner et al., 1993) on member and individual perceptions and behavior. This will be one focus of Chapter 6 in this text, and the continued study of the phenomenon can lead us in interesting directions regarding the influence of group setting, and potential for decreasing animosity and derogation toward the out-group. Chapter 6 will also further detail the use of the VooDoo Doll task (DeWall et al., 2013) to further illuminate ways to better understand and potentially decrease out-group animosity and derogation.

The current study updated the HOD and ODS by including the theme parks, athletic footwear, and religious settings. The development of the GBC (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2021) allowed for the comparison of group settings to understand its influence on perceptions and behavior. The addition of the three settings provided more guidance on group behavior and out-group negativity as we move forward in society seeking to better understand others in society. With the overall goal of decreasing negativity and animosity toward out-groups, the current study helps us pass further down this path and also provides additional areas of inquiry for researchers, practitioners, and interested parties.

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Shared Perspectives: Can Common Interests Help Decrease Out-Group Derogation?

Cody T. Havard, Daniel L. Wann, Frederick G. Grieve, Michael Hutchinson, and Timothy D. Ryan

Abstract The chapter takes a different approach by focusing primarily on the implications of the comparative investigations conducted in this text and beyond. Specifically, implications for future research and for practice are discussed. Additionally, the planned resource www.SharedPerspectives.org is introduced and details are provided regarding its proposed contents. Finally, researchers, practitioners, and interested readers are given a call to action to continue the journey and help in researching and learning more about rivalry, group member behavior, and group member negativity.

Keywords Rivalry · Out-group derogation · Future research · Practice · Shared perspectives

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So far in this text, we have detailed how rivalry and member behavior can be influenced by group setting. As a follow-up to the first book on rivalry in and out of the sport setting (Havard, 2021), in this text we set out to include descriptions of additional comparisons of group member behavior by setting. Chapter 2 of this text detailed the differences in out-group derogation among sport fans and fans/members of political parties in the United States. Chapter 3 provided a comparison of derogation among sport fans and fans/members of religious groups. These comparisons among setting joined those of mobile phones (Havard, Hutchinson et al., 2021), streaming (Havard, Ryan, et al., 2021), theme parks (Havard, Baker, Wann, Grieve, & Ryan, 2023), comics (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2020), gaming using consoles (Havard, White, et al., 2021) and PC vs. consoles (Havard, Fuller, et al., 2021), science fiction (Havard, Wann, Fuller, et al., 2021), Disney Parks (Havard, Wann, et al., 2021), and athletic footwear (Havard, Reams, et al., 2022).

Chapter 4 of this text provided an update to the Hierarchy of Out-group Derogation (HOD) and Out-group Derogation Spectrum (ODS) from the original nine settings (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2021) to include a total of 12 group settings. The main focus of this chapter is to discuss ideas for further understanding group member behavior and out-group derogation, along with potential paths toward decreasing negativity and derogation among and between groups and group members. As such, this chapter very much resembles an extended implications and future directions discussion for the text. To that end, the traditional review of literature will be saved and relevant information covered when discussing ideas for future study and potential ideas for decreasing out-group negativity. The chapter will conclude with an idea meant to encompass many facets of existing and future research on group member behavior. All of

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the comparison studies conducted, and settings included in the original and updated HOD and ODS, provide important findings for researchers and practitioners.

Implications

Implications for Research

As each comparative study concludes, we discuss implications for research and practice. As a chapter meant to point interested stakeholders in directions for new research, this section will detail some ideas previously mentioned and some not before discussed. Further, additional details on potential research projects may be offered for those interested in furthering investigation in this important area.

First, interested researchers may find it fruitful to extend some of the existing comparison studies in an attempt to increase sample sizes and add robustness to findings while also potentially gleaning additional implications from the data. To that end, we welcome anyone interested in doing so to reach out and work with us on such endeavors. This topic of research is vast and very important, and therefore it is imperative that more researchers take up the topic to help us all gain more information on how group setting can influence behavior toward out-groups and out-group members. As previously written, great work in rivalry has been conducted by very talented researchers and any attentional attention to the phenomenon of rivalry and group behavior is welcomed for the purpose of better understanding.[1]

Second, new ideas for comparison studies are important. For example, we have discussed comparison studies among fans of sport teams and (1) United States Higher Education Greek Society organizations, (2) beer and alcohol brands, (3) soft drink brands, (4) hotel and resort brands, (5) clothing brands, (6) designer shoe brands, and (7) shopping brands in categories such as (a) grocery, (b) general, (c) department, (d) high-end, and (e) convenience. Each of these studies could be conducted using sport as one category to better understand the influence of group setting

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[1] David Tyler (dtyler@isenberg.umass.edu) and Joe Cobbs (cobbsj1@nku.edu) do great work on the study of rivalry, and share their work on the resource www.KnowRivalry.com.

by using a similar methodology to previous investigations. Additionally, including sport as a setting also helps researchers and practitioners to better understand the influence of sport fandom, which ranks as a *highly negative* setting on other fandoms by investigating the role of the common in-group (Gaertner et al., 1993) and identity foreclosure (Beamon, 2012) in group member behavior.

It is also important to point out that while using sport as a setting is interesting-and we think important to an initial study for consistency and reliability, other existing settings can be compared in individual studies as well. While we provide such comparison of the Group Behavior Composite (GBC) in the last book and Chapter 4 of this one, future research focusing on group settings, especially highly negative ones, could help further enlighten the field regarding out-group behavior. Among potential implications of comparing settings beyond that of sport could highlight specific areas where group differences exist within the framework of the GBC such as the Rivalry Perception Scale (RPS; Havard, Gray, Gould, Sharp, & Schaffer, 2013) and Glory Out of Reflected Failure (GORFing; Havard & Hutchinson, 2017), or even describe differences among group settings in identity (James et al., 2019; Wann & Branscombe, 1993) and reported attitude toward brands (Spears & Singh, 2004).

Third, the comparative studies described in the book and others primarily used quantitative means. This is useful when trying to analyze and generalize findings to a group, and therefore met our overall goal of gaining initial understanding of behavior toward others. Qualitative means can also be used to glean further rich data regarding how people view in-group and out-group members. To date, qualitative analysis has helped us understand how mobile phone users view each other (Phillips-Melancon & Dalakas, 2014), how Disney fans view Disney and Universal (Havard, Baker, et al., 2023), how people dealt with the closures of the Disney Parks and Resorts amid the early days of the COVID-19 pandemic (Havard, Baker, Wann, Grieve, & Ryan, 2022), views of sport fans (Havard, 2014), and how conference realignment and loss of competition influence views of the out-group (Havard & Eddy, 2013). The use of qualitative methods could greatly enhance our understanding of how behavior is influenced by group membership, and is a ripe area for future investigation.

A fourth area of interest is extending what we know from the existing studies and literature and examining influence on planned and actual

behaviors. For instance, when creating the *Sport Rivalry Man* and Adventures *of Sport Rivalry Man* comics, we experimentally tested the influence of students using the comics to learn about rivalry and group behavior on their reported likelihood to help others in various situations of need; similar to the study of football fans conducted by Levine, Prosser, Evans, & Reicher, 2005). In our experiment, students taking classes on marketing and rivalry were asked to report their likelihood to help others in various situations ranging from small to high need. Before they answered questions, some students were exposed to the comics while others were not. In our analysis, we found that students exposed to the comics reported higher likelihood of requesting someone stop verbally derogating an out-group member than students that did not read the comics (Havard & Workman, 2018).

Studies in this area could use similar methodology in analyzing group members' willingness to help out-group members in various situations. For example, asking members of religious groups, members of political parties, and fans of theme parks, phones, or athletic footwear, their willingness to help others in various situations could uncover interesting perspectives. Additionally, using means in which we can place participants in an experimental setting may also help further our understanding. One idea includes participants being exposed to simulated situations in which their help is requested, which would act to place people in more real-world environments.

Along with investigating the influence of group settings on willingness to help, it is also important to examine willingness to commit some form of negative act upon out-group members. We experimentally found that exposure to various types of promotional material (Havard, Wann, et al., 2018), media stories (Havard, Ferruci, et al., 2021), and negative news regarding rival indiscretions (Havard & Eddy, 2019) influenced the way people viewed the out-group. Further, researchers could use similar methodology design to measure the influence of external variables on group members in various sport and non-sport settings. Further, a portion of sport fans have repeatedly reported they would definitely be willing to consider heinous acts of anonymous aggression (Havard, Wann, et al., 2013, 2017; Wann & Waddill, 2013; Wann, Wann, et al., 2003; Wann, Peterson, et al., 1999a, 1999b) and instrumental aggression (Wann, Carlson, et al., 1999; Wann, Waddill, et al., 2017) toward rival groups and participants. With care as not to entice

negative behavior among participants, future research focusing on willingness to consider anonymous physical and instrumental aggression among group members would help further educate researchers, practitioners, and interested readers on group behavior. Using simulated methods as described above would also assist researchers in this area and potentially measure participant responses in simulated versus paper-and-pencil or online response design.

Another way to experimentally examine willingness to consider physical aggression is to utilize the Voodoo Doll Task (VDT; DeWall et al., 2013). The VDT was developed to allow respondents to indicate where they would inflict physical pain on others. Using this or a similar design would again place participants in a more real-world setting when indicating their responses to prompts. Currently, such a study is being designed in the sport setting using a virtual doll in order to measure willingness to inflict pain—and location of pain—by sport fans against in-group members, and various out-group members by assigned level of importance to the in-group. A next step on this path of inquiry would be to use physical dolls, either created or purchased,[2] to measure participant willingness to engage in such acts. Further, adding time-specific experimental design to this and other studies could help determine how time of response (either during a contest or conflict or at another time) influences group member behavior and negativity. Comparison and individual setting design would help educate readers in each of these investigations. In other words, researchers could focus on a single fandom or group setting or compare participant responses and behavior in numerous settings.

An important note to make for researchers engaging in the study of rivalry and group member behavior is that we must show great care when designing and conducting studies as to keep from encouraging or enticing negative behavior among members of out-groups. It is very unfortunate when fans and members of various groups engage in negative and somewhat violent behavior toward each other, and media is unfortunately well-documented with such examples of this behavior. Previously, reasons why organizations must be aware of their promotion of competition and the consequences that can arise from negative group member behavior were as discussed (Havard 2020a, 2020b, Ch. 2, Ch. 5). It would be most unfortunate in our design of studies to further understand group behavior

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[2] One example would be the popular *Damnit Dolls* previously sold that featured players from various sport teams.

and negativity if we inadvertently encouraged such actions, which is why we as researchers have to take great care in our design and implementation of data collection as well as discussion of findings.

Implications for Practice

Along with the various avenues of future research that can be pursued to better understand group behavior, it is also vital that researchers and practitioners work together in an attempt to not only learn more but decrease negative behavior among out-group members. Currently in our society, we are in dire need of finding ways for people to exist together and learn ways to decrease animosity. One way of doing that may be by listening to each other and trying to understand background information explaining why people hold various ideas and exhibit types of behavior (Hibbing et al., 2008). This section will highlight some ideas that have been discussed among myself and colleagues on future paths to hopefully help decrease out-group animosity. While discussing potential ideas to decrease group member animosity and negativity, this section may also mention future study to accompany such ideas.

For practitioners working with individuals and group members, it is very important they continue to work with researchers in an attempt to better understand behavior and motivations. Several of the studies discussed above would benefit from the inclusion of practitioners' views and ideas for design and implementation. This is by no means a task for either researchers or practitioners; rather, they must work together if the goal is effective understanding of behavior and decrease of out-group animosity and negativity.

Among the ideas above, designing and conducting experiments regarding willingness to help others in various situations would be very beneficial to researchers and practitioners. Further, they may provide potential avenues for more ideas that could be implemented to better understand and influence group behavior to become more positive. This is where comparison studies could be of particular interest and importance, as they may help highlight which settings elicit the strongest negative and positive interactions among group members.

A very important endeavor of practitioners and researchers should be to coordinate efforts in the development of a program in which group behavior can be further studied, and potential ideas meant to decrease group member negativity be implemented. Ideally, a program

that engages with members of various groups that asks their perceptions of in-groups and out-groups would be very helpful to all involved. Further, through such a program, participants could also weigh in on ideas and strategies that could potentially alleviate or decrease out-group negativity. Engaging group members in various tasks is a strategy that has been used with success and doing so in the study of rivalry and group behavior could also yield encouraging results.

On this path, throughout the text, the common in-group (Gaertner et al., 1993) has been discussed and examined. This theory states that the more groups an individual is a member of influences the views of himself/herself, in-group members, and possible out-group members. We know that people tend to stereotype positive behavior to the in-group and negative behavior to the out-group (Maass et al., 1989), and therefore finding ways in which people are similar is important for future researchers and practitioners. In other words, if someone belongs to multiple groups, they may be less likely to react negativity toward others if an in-group experiences some form of perceived failure, which may be opposite of someone engaging in identity foreclosure (Beamon, 2012). Therefore, finding commonalities among people could provide useful paths toward more understanding and acceptance of out-groups. It is important to note that not all ideas and views of people we may consider members of an out-group are ones that potentially should be understood, as we have seen throughout history with some of the more heinous beliefs and views held by some. Rather, this idea extends to people that may hold different beliefs and ideology that do not rise to a general understanding of heinous and unacceptable ideas and/or behavior in our society.

A program that asks participants to indicate various interests and discuss such interests could help introduce people from various groups and possibly allow them to engage with each other in a less-animus manner. This is the overall goal of the GBC, HOD, and ODS, as they may be used to help researchers and practitioners accomplish such means. For example, one person indicates that he/she identifies as a Christian, Republican, and fan of the New York Yankees who is also a fan of Disney Theme Parks, comics, and science fiction. A second individual identifies as a Non-Christian, Democrat, and fan of the Boston Red Sox who is also a fan of Disney Theme Parks, comics, and science fiction. Within the relationship of these two individuals, perhaps religion, politics, and sport are not topics which they should begin their conversations; rather,

focusing on their shared interest of Disney Theme Parks, comics, and science fiction may produce more productive dialogue.[3]

Further, the extended contact hypothesis (Zhou et al., 2018) states that the more people engage with each other, the more likelihood they may have trying to understand or even coexist with each other even considering their differences. This is not a suggestion that individuals should ignore differences in views and perceptions, rather that initial focus on commonalities may help to increase the likelihood of group members finding positive interactions with each other. Through repeated positive interactions, perhaps then the individuals could broach the topics in which they disagree with a series of rules and/or understanding to guide more difficult conversations.

For implementation of such a program, we are including again the HOD and ODS as figures in this chapter (also available in Chapter 4). To recap the HOD and ODS, the four settings that fall into *High Negativity* are (1) religion ($M = 5.03$, $SD = 0.41$), (2) online gaming ($M = 4.78$, $SD = 0.60$), (3) politics ($M = 4.75$, $SD = 0.84$), and (4) sport ($M = 4.51$, $SD = 0.87$). The settings labeled *High/Medium Negativity* are (5) athletic footwear ($M = 4.29$, $SD = 0.86$) and (6) mobile phones ($M = 4.23$, $SD = 0.96$), while (7) streaming ($M = 4.10$, $SD = 1.25$) and (8) theme parks ($M = 4.10$, SD 1.18) are labeled *Medium Negativity*. The more-positive settings labeled *Low Negativity* are (9) gaming console ($M = 4.02$, $SD = 1.04$), (10) Disney Parks ($M = 4.01$, $SDS = 1.24$), (11) science fiction ($M = 3.73$, $SD = 1.19$), and (12) comics ($M = 3.53$, $SD = 1.09$). Therefore, when developing such a program, researchers and practitioners should focus on item and instrument development that would allow them to gather important information regarding interests. After experimental examination, they should also perhaps focus on highlighting participant commonalities in interests lower on the HOD or at the more positive end of the ODS and not immediately engage in discussions on settings at the higher or more negative end of the figures (Figs. 5.1 and 5.2).

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[3] In the case that two individuals share interest in comics, but one likes Marvel while the other likes DC, or one likes Star Wars science fiction while the other prefers Star Trek, these two settings rank near the bottom of the HOD and positive end of the ODS, which may mean these topics are less animus for the individuals to engage.

High Negativity	
1)	Religion
2)	Online Gaming
3)	Politics
4)	Sport
Medium/High Negativity	
5)	Athletic Footwear
6)	Mobile Phones
Medium Negativity	
7)	Streaming
8)	Theme Parks
Low Negativity	
9)	Gaming Console
10)	Disney Parks
11)	Science Fiction
12)	Comics

Fig. 5.1 Hierarchy of Out-group Derogation
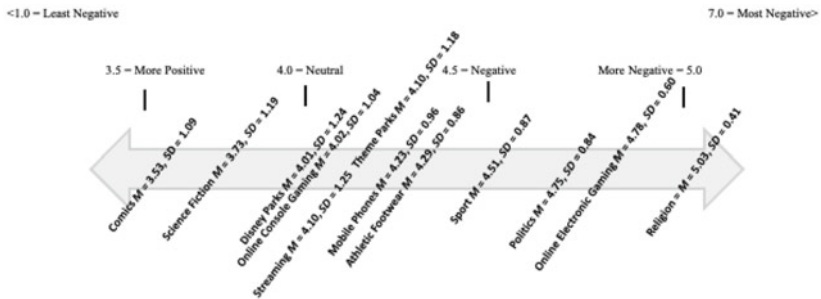
Fig. 5.2 Out-group Derogation Spectrum

Shared Perspectives

We will conclude the chapter, and discussion of finding implications, by introducing a long-time idea that encompasses the research and practical applications discussed in this and the previous book. For more than

10 years, www.SportRivalry.com has provided visitors with a qualitative review of rivalry using comics, lesson plans, videos, and podcasts to teach people more about the phenomenon of rivalry in the sport setting. With the inclusion of non-sport settings, along with work on projects revolving around fandom in general entertainment, themed entertainment, and consumer brands, the breadth of work extends well beyond the sport setting. For this reason, www.SharedPerspectives.org is being introduced as a new resource for those interested to learn more about group behavior and how external variables such as setting influence such behavior.

The site will feature different facets of fandom, group membership, and the influences of setting on in-group and out-group relations. Currently, the proposed site will be made up of seven sections, including (1) information found on www.SportRivalry.com, (2) data and information on existing and future group setting comparison studies, (3) information on working with individuals and groups while attempting to find commonalities, (4) a section on research and information surrounding fandom of the Walt Disney Company, (5) consulting and research opportunities, (6) information on the books available about rivalry, competition, and fandom, and (7) an about us section.

The first section on www.SportRivalry.com will highlight the beginning of the current research on group behavior and the importance of learning more about rivalry and competition using the sport setting. This section will include the comics and videos regarding the history of various rivalries in sport, videos, and podcast of the *This Week in Rivalry* series, along with the podcast *Rivalry Ranked*, the *Adventures with Sport Rivalry Man* comics and videos, and the Sport Rivalry Man Curriculum. Research into sport rivalry began this endeavor into understanding group behavior, so it is appropriate that it be the first section included on the site.

Second, a section devoted to the current and future studies of rivalry, competition, and fan behavior in and out of the sport setting will be included. In particular, the section will provide details regarding the projects already conducted along with planned and potential research design. Information on the GBC, HOD, and ODS will be found in the section to help visitors learn more about the phenomenon. Ideally, a team of students and creative personnel would also be able to create comic representations of the information regarding group behavior in various fandom settings.

In a third section, information meant to help those researching and working with group membership would be available. Specifically, the

information previously discussed about tactics to working with different groups would be available to visitors, along with the planned program based on investigating individual interests and ways to find commonalities among groups and group members. Again, the use of comics, videos, and audio podcasts would assist in dissemination of this information.

Fourth, as a way to highlight a fandom that elicits less negative-or more positive views among fans and group members, information about work regarding fandom of the Walt Disney Company would be provided in a section. This information includes studies, projects, and writings on the company, its fans, and company competitors, along with access to the *Being a Fan of Disney* Podcast and a planned book on the topic of fandom. As Disney acts as a topic that potentially provides many visitors with common interests, information on the influence of positive group settings will be provided in the proposed section.

A fifth section would provide information on the consulting and research opportunities that can be provided by individuals working with the site and research group. This includes research services, current and planned research projects, and potential grant writing opportunities for site personnel. The sixth section will include information about the various texts that have produced in an attempt to teach readers about rivalry and group behavior. Finally, an about us section will be provided to help visitors learn more about the vision of the site, and individuals working on projects on the topic of competition, rivalry, and group membership/behavior.

The website will be part of a larger effort to better understand group membership, group member behavior, and the decrease of animosity among individuals and groups. To this, the foundation of a proposed research group/center/consortium will be explored. Purposes of the research group/center/consortium include conducting new research on the topic, the production of informational comics, videos, and curriculum about group membership and group member behavior, the production of books and audio podcasts on the topic, as well as establishing and seeking funding for graduate and faculty research through internal and external means.

This chapter provides a glimpse behind the curtain at some of the ideas that have been discussed, planned, and/or explored regarding future research and implications for practice. The study of group membership and group member behavior is vital to the future of society as we strive

for a more inclusive environment. It is our hope that this chapter, along with the proceeding ones, provide useful information, spark interest, and encourage engagement with the information, researchers, and practitioners.

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CHAPTER 6

Continuing the Journey

Cody T. Havard

Abstract This conclusion recaps the chapters and topics covered in the text, and provides a call to action for individuals to continue researching and learning more about rivalry and group behavior. In particular, the chapter details future steps that can be taken by interested parties to continue the study of rivalry and group negativity. The chapter and text concludes with thoughts about the future of group behavior and attempts for people to engage in finding commonalities and paths toward increased understanding and compassion of out-group members.

Keywords Rivalry · Out-group derogation · Group member derogation

We are at the conclusion of our latest look at how group setting influences individual and group behavior. Throughout this text, we have discussed the phenomenon of rivalry, and how it influences the ways in which individuals view in-groups and out-groups, and member of each.

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The current text builds from over a decade of research and inquiry into the phenomenon of rivalry and group behavior, and in particular builds from the previous two books on this topic (see Havard, 2020, 2021) to provide additional views into this important topic. In particular, this text focused on politics and religion, two settings that elicit strong emotions, perceptions, and out-group derogation among members. Starting with the discussion of Social Identity (Tajfel, 1978), to in-group bias and out-group derogation (Turner, 1975), the study of competition and rivalry continues to yield fascinating and important findings from the identification of rival groups (Havard, Gray, et al., 2013) to the willingness to celebrate a rival group's indirect failure (Havard, 2014). This chapter concludes the current book, but also reiterates the need for more inquiry on the topic and invites interested readers to join the continual journey of learning more about the phenomenon and its influence on individual and group behavior.

Following the introductory chapter of this text (Chapter 1), we first visited a description of the comparison in out-group perceptions and behaviors among fans of sport teams and fans/members of political parties in the United States (Chapter 2). In this discussion, we learned that fans/members of political parties in the United States reported stronger negative perceptions of their rival political party than did sport fans of their rival team. In particular, fans of political parties reported less likelihood to support the rival group, more negative perceptions of the rival group's prestige, and greater willingness to celebrate an indirect failure of the rival group than did fans of sport teams. Additionally, being a fan of both a sport team and a political party influenced the way participants viewed out-groups in various ways, and differences in perceptions and likely behaviors were present based on political affiliation. For example, those identifying as Republicans reported a higher identification with their favorite brand (i.e., Republican Party), and higher attitudes of the rival party than did participants identifying as Democrats. Republicans also reported likelihood of supporting Democratic policies if they were considered good for the country, however reported more negativity regarding prestige of the rival party, and greater likelihood to celebrate an indirect failure of the rival party than did people identifying as Democrats.

Chapter 3 featured another setting that elicits strong in-group bias and out-group derogation when perceptions and likely behaviors of sport fans were compared with fans/members of religious groups. Analysis found that fans/members of religious groups, while reporting higher attitudes

of rival religious groups and more willingness to support rival groups in indirect competition than did fans of sport teams toward their rival team, they also reported stronger negativity in their views and likely behaviors toward rival groups than fans of sport did in a variety of areas. In particular, fans/members of religious groups reported more negativity regarding prestige and behavior of the rival group, greater willingness to celebrate rival indirect failure, and a higher overall negativity (e.g., Group Behavior Composite, GBC) than did fans of sport teams toward their identified rival. Further, being a fan of both religion and sport influences more positive views of the rival religious group than did being a fan/member of only a religious group.

Chapter 4 updated the Hierarchy of Out-group Derogation (HOD) and Out-group Derogation Spectrum (ODS) (Havard, Grieve, et al., 2021) with the inclusion of three additional settings. After the inclusion of religion, athletic footwear, the theme park settings, the updated HOD and ODS revealed new findings regarding overall derogation of the out-group. In particular, the religious setting was correlated with the most negativity toward the out-group, followed by online gaming, politics, sport, athletic footwear, mobile phones, streaming, theme parks, gaming console, Disney Parks, science fiction, and comics. The update of the HOD and ODS was of paramount importance in this text, as it further helps educate all on the influence that group setting and group membership plays on the way people view out-group members and the negativity displayed toward those individuals.

Chapter 5 of this text used a different approach from our previous work in providing a narrative completely dedicated to the discussion of ideas for future research, practices, and coordinated projects to better understand group behavior and out-group derogation. In particular, it introduced a number of future paths of investigation that researchers can take to continue the study of rivalry and group behavior. It also provided ideas for practitioners working with group members and potential plans for researchers and practitioners to coordinate efforts to work with individuals with the overall goal of decreasing out-group derogation and animosity.

It is important at this point in the conclusion of this text to note that in all the settings we have investigated, not all members of each group and each setting behave in a homogeneous way. This is to say that even though settings like religion, online gaming, politics, and sport rank among the high negativity group, not all fans/members of religions,

online gamers, political parties, or sport teams behave negatively toward out-groups. These investigations provide an overview of how the setting may influence out-group derogation, but that does not mean that every member of a religious group you meet will view other religions in an overly negative light, not all gamers will display overt high negativity toward competitors, not all Republicans will derogate Democrats—and vice versa—and not all sport fans will cheer for the failure of their rival team.

As with all things, intricacies exist, and that is also the case in these comparisons. By the same token, in the group settings that are correlated with low negativity, people may still experience examples of derogation when engaging with a member of an out-group. I write this to make sure that we all understand we cannot paint the world and people with a broad brush. Individual differences exist, and it is important to fully understand that. After all, the purpose of this text and these projects is to find ways in which people can relate, and perhaps exist in more harmony with one another.

At the conclusion of this text, I would like to thank readers and also offer encouragement regarding efforts to better relate with those that may be members of out-groups. As previously stated, there are times when people display behavior and/or hold ideologies that are not acceptable as exhibited at various points throughout history. I am not speaking about those individuals or groups. Rather, I am encouraging people to seek commonalities with others in an effort to find ways in which group members can exist with less animosity. I am also inviting interested readers to engage in active research and learning—whether through academic means or others—about how competition and rivalry can influence human emotions and views of out-group members. Through the continued study of group membership and group behavior, we can hopefully find avenues toward more understanding, less negativity, and more compassion toward others. It is the hope that this text, along with the numerous investigations described in it can help us along this path.

Thank you for reading, and please continue the journey!

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