Ph.D. Dissertation of Global Sport Management

The Influence of Competence and Warmth Perceptions on the Attitudes and Behavioral Intentions Towards a Collegiate Sport Team
− The Moderating Effects of Individualistic and Collectivistic Cultural Orientations −

August 2021

Graduate School of Physical Education
Seoul National University
Global Sport Management Major

Jisuk Chang

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Choong Hoon Lim

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Seoul National University Graduate Board

August 2021

Global Sport Management Major
Graduate School of Physical Education
Seoul National University

Jisuk Chang

The Committee hereby confirms this
Ph.D. Dissertation is written by
Jisuk Chang
August 2021

Chair	권 순 용	
Vice Chair	김 기 한	
Examiner	한 승 진	
Examiner	김 대 환	
Examiner	임 충 훈	

Abstract

Korean intercollegiate athletic programs are facing existential threats where 95 athletic teams from 72 universities have been terminated between the years 2012 and 2016 (Lim, 2016), and athlete recruitment has dropped nearly 20% from 2016 to 2021 (KUSF, 2021). Yet revitalization efforts often focus on improving the performance of teams involved in intercollegiate sport leagues, and often try to mimic the United States. Although the NCAA of the United States enjoys an unparalleled fan－base compared to other nations' intercollegiate sport leagues, merely benchmarking their athletic programs may not be the most effective course of action.

Therefore, the current study focused on three aspects of the Korean intercollegiate sports market. First, the Korean intercollegiate sport teams do not have an established fan－base, where a typical university soccer team attracts less than 100 spectators (Park, 2018). The first step in attracting new fans is to instill positive impressions and elicit beneficial behaviors amongst non－fans. However, past studies have mainly recruited current spectators and fans of Korean intercollegiate sports and, thus, do not provide insights as to what aspects of the team are viewed favorably by the non－fan population. Therefore, the current study employed the Stereotype Content Model, which provides a useful framework for understanding the fundamental dimensions (i.e., competence and warmth) used to form an initial impression about a minimal exposure entity (Cuddy, Fiske, Glick, 2008).

Second, sports are often consumed and played differently across nations (Kelly, 2007). However, cross－cultural consumer psychology research about sport consumers has been scant (Han, Mahony, & Greenwell, 2016). Thus, the current study applied the individualism－collectivism cultural distinction, which is the most

commonly used cultural variable, to compare how reactions to the same information about a university sport team differ according to cultural orientation.

Finally, collegiate sport teams operate within a superordinate identity (i.e., the university identity). Therefore, students of the university and the sport team share this superordinate identity. Furthermore, in a highly competitive higher education market such as Korea, students are constantly reminded of their universities (and as a result their own) position in the overall hierarchy. Past studies have repeatedly displayed that the status of a social identity often influences individual members' reactions toward other individuals and groups that share the social identity (e.g., Tajfel & Turner, 1979; White, Argo, & Sengupta, 2012). Thus, the current study investigated how the status of the university influences the attitudes and behavioral intentions toward a collegiate sport team.

Upon this background, the purpose of the current study was to investigate the differing influence of competence and warmth perceptions about a collegiate sport team on the attitudes and behavioral intentions of non-fans, according to cultural orientation (i.e., individualism vs. collectivism). Specifically, study 1 investigated how competence and warmth information about a university sport team differentially influenced the attitudes and behavioral intentions of the university students (non-fans) within individualistic (United States) and collectivistic (Korea) countries. Study 2 further explored how the attitudes and behavioral intentions changed when the students' superordinate university identity was threatened. Finally, study 3 investigated how team-related and fan community related competence and warmth perceptions influenced the attitudes and behavioral intentions of non-students, and how these influences differed according to cultural orientation.

Study 1 employed a 2 [US (Individualistic Culture) vs. Korea (Collectivistic Culture)] X 2 (Competent Team vs. Warm Team)

between-subjects design (N=477). Results indicated that individualists (i.e., US students) had higher attitudes and behavioral intentions toward the sport team when it was portrayed as competent, while collectivists (i.e., Korean students) preferred the warm team. Study 2 utilized a 2 (Self-construal: Independent vs. Interdependent) X 2 (University Status: High Ranking vs. Low Ranking) X 2 (Competent Team vs. Warm Team) between-subjects design. Results of study 2 indicated that when the university was portrayed as having a low ranking, individualists displayed more collectivistic tendencies, while collectivists displayed more individualistic tendencies.

Finally, study 3 employed a survey design and data was analyzed using PLS-SEM techniques. Results indicated that team competence and team morality had significant positive influences across all outcome variables, while team sociability only influenced attitude toward the team. Meanwhile, fan community competence, sociability, and morality had differing influences on different outcome variables. As for the moderating effects of cultural orientation, individualism (i.e., independent self-construal) moderated the relationship between team competence and spectating intention. Collectivism (i.e., interdependent self-construal) moderated the relationship between fan community competence and positive word of mouth intention, fan community competence and spectating intention, as well as fan community sociability and spectating intention.

Theoretically, the current study suggests that cultural orientation significantly influences how individuals react to the same information (i.e., competence vs. warmth) and situations (i.e., superordinate identity status) concerning a collegiate sport team. Furthermore, the current study suggests conditions in which individualists may display more collectivistic tendencies while collectivists may display more individualistic tendencies. Practically,

the current study provides important insights for university sport teams operating in various cultural contexts. Teams operating in a individualistic society may continue to promote a high standard of performance, while those operating in a collectivistic society may promote activities that benefit the community. Additionally, even those teams that operate within individualistic societies should consider the status of the university itself, and if the school does not excel academically, it may be more beneficial for the sport team to promote high warmth (i.e., sociability and morality).

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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1. Study Background

South Korean collegiate athletics have played a pivotal role in fostering the development of elite sports and has contributed greatly to achieving athletic excellence in international competitions (Yeun, 2010). For example, three out of a total of 28 medals (9.3%) at the 2012 London Olympics and all six gold medals at the 2010 Vancouver Winter Olympics were won by collegiate athletes. Also, South Korea recently hosted the 2015 Summer Universiade in Kwangju, and their student-athletes demonstrated exceptional athletic performances as the host nation, finishing in first place ahead of sport powerhouses such as Russia and China (Korea Sports and Olympic Committee, 2015).

Despite the success that collegiate athletics has achieved in terms of cultivating performance at international events, many intercollegiate athletic programs are facing threats to their continuance. For example, between the years 2012 and 2016, ninety-five athletic teams from seventy-two universities have been terminated (Lim, 2016). Even universities that are academically prestigious or are known for their university teams have considered terminating some of their athletic programs. Esteemed universities such as Sungkyunkwan University, Konkuk University, and Hanyang University have terminated athletic programs citing performance, financial, or ethical reasons (Seo, 2012; Choi, 2020).

Yet, sport managers and academia have continuously advocated the importance of collegiate athletics in terms of its role in the

overall elite sport landscape (Chun, Lee, & Hong, 2012; Nam, Kwon, Park, Kim & Park, 2012), educational value (Hong & Kim, 2017), psychological benefits to the students and athletes (Spinda, Wann, & Harden, 2015; Kim & Kim, 2017), and market potential as an industry (Nam, Kwon, Park, Kim, & Park, 2012; Tak, 2018). Practitioners and academia often look to the National Collegiate Athletics Association (NCAA) of the United States as an indicator for the potential value that intercollegiate athletics programs can offer to the athletes, university community, and national sports industry (e.g., Kwon & Kim, 2012; Cho, 2006; Jeon, Kim, & Lee, 2009). Indeed, the United States has undoubtedly the most vibrant intercollegiate sports market in the world where NCAA Division I college athletics generated about $18.9 billion in revenue (NCAA, 2019) and football alone drew 47 million fans in 2019 (National Football Foundation, 2020).

For these benefits to be realized, a fan-base must first be established. According to NCAA financial reports, about 77% of the total revenue was from ticket sales, broadcasting deals, and contributions (Hobson & Rich, 2015), all of which are not possible without fans who are willing to purchase tickets, view broadcasts, and make donations. Furthermore, the non-monetary benefits such as a sense of camaraderie and community (Hanson, Bryant, & Lyman, 2019), promotional value (Cox & Roden, 2010; Tucker & Amato, 1993), and increased academic motivation and performance (Sung, Koo, Kim, & Dittmore, 2015) all rely on the students and the general public to be interested in collegiate sports and, perhaps more importantly, identify as being part of the collegiate sport community.

Not only are the positive benefits contingent upon having an

established fan-base, but the ability to justify the existence of collegiate athletic teams also lies in its fan-base. To illustrate, universities in Korea operate in a highly stratified and competitive environment where common notions such as SKY universities and in-Seoul and outside-of-Seoul university distinctions as well as annual rankings influence the desirability of the university to potential students. Furthermore, governmental financial support is often tied to university rankings and evaluations all of which are advantageous to top universities (Jun & Lee, 2018). Meanwhile, collegiate athletic teams carry the risk of receiving negative media attention when ethical scandals arise (e.g., illegal admissions, abuse, transgressions, etc.) while positive coverage for good performance is minimal (Kwon & Nam, 2014). Therefore, collegiate athletic programs have risen to the top of the list when implementing university restructuring or considering budget cuts (Nam et al., 2012), with no fan-base to advocate or justify the allocation of university budgets to the teams.

The first step in creating a fan-base is to instill positive attitudes towards the teams to spur interest amongst non-spectators (Jacobs, Pallav, & Surana, 2014; Visentin, Scarpi, & Pizzi, 2016). In the perspective of non-spectators, information regarding a collegiate sports team is likely to be similar to a first-encounter situation. However, past studies about the motivations to view sports or the appeal of sports have been conducted predominantly on fans and spectators. Although these studies offer valuable insights as to the motivations that current fans and viewers regard as important, they do not explain what aspects of the team or sport caused them to form their initial impressions (i.e., attitudes) that led to their behavior (i.e., spectating). Therefore, scholars have

noted that the study of sports' appeal to the general public remains an important, yet, often neglected aspect in the sports management literature (Logsdon, 2018; Woratschek, Horbel, & Popp, 2013). The current study intends to fill this gap in the literature by explicitly investigating the non-fan population as well as the perceived traits of the team that lead to increased attitudes and behavioral intentions towards the team.

Efforts to revitalize the Korean intercollegiate sports industry have emphasized individual team performance and the administrative aspects of collegiate athletic programs. For example, the Korea University Sports Federation (KUSF), the official collegiate sport authority of Korea, annually rates each university's athletic departments where an individual athletic program can receive anywhere from ₩18,000,000 up to ₩250,000,000 Korean won, depending on their evaluation score. The evaluation allocates 60.5 points out of a total of 121.5 points to the performance of the teams and competency of the athletic department. Meanwhile, only 6 points account for areas that may directly attract new fans (i.e., CSR activities, national and international exchange programs, supporters and marketing activities, and open facilities and community programs). The remainder of points are awarded for administrative activities. Furthermore, universities as well as the collegiate teams themselves do not officially engage in marketing activities that may foster the development of a large fan-base and market. The only notable activities are conducted by small groups of voluntary supporters consisting of the students of the university (Kim & Kim, 2017).

The continued lack of interest from the student bodies as well

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as the general public indicate that cultivating performance may not be an effective method to attract new fans. Anecdotal evidence and academic studies acknowledge that performance is not the only appeal of sports, nor is it the most influential. Successful sports teams at times show poor attendance figures, while perennially poor performing teams still attract large and loyal crowds. Die-hard Chicago Cubs fans have gained a reputation for unwavering loyalty, despite the team's reputation for futility. In academia, Chalip (2006) emphasized the social value of sporting events over and above economic and performance aspects. The conceptualization of spectator motivation and points of attachment also include measurements of non-performance-related factors such as social motives (e.g., family bonding, group affiliation, and community pride), and attachment to the community. In fact, a longitudinal study by Yoshida, Heere, and Gordon (2015) found that fan community attachment was the only construct that significantly predicted attendance frequency over the course of a season. Thus, relational reasons may be equally, if not more important than the success and performance of the team.

Furthermore, although Korea often turns to the United States as a role model for developing collegiate sports, simply emulating the NCAA may not be the most effective course of action when establishing a market in Korea. Marketers have long accepted that corporations should tailor their brands' global marketing efforts to the individual countries when initially presenting a brand or product (Shavitt, Cho, & Barnes, 2017). Marketers and academia alike stress that promotional and branding strategies that are effective in one cultural context often fail in others (Shavitt & Barnes, 2019). Similarly, in the case of professional sports, they are often

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promoted, played, and consumed differently across nations. For example, Japan is famous for its unique playing style, which Kelly (2007) refers to as 'samurai baseball' because of its emphases on team spirit, caution, self-sacrifice, deep deference, and intense loyalty. In terms of consumption, Korean baseball is known for their personalized cheers and choreography for each and every player of the team, usually led by full-time cheerleaders that perform on a stage placed in the stands. Academia and practitioners attribute these differences to the different histories of the sport in each nation and cultural differences (Kelly, 2007).

However, cross-cultural consumer psychology research regarding sport consumers has been limited (Han, Mahony, & Greenwell, 2016). The few extant studies have investigated cultural influences on sport tourism (Funk & Bruun, 2007), spectator motivation (Han, Mahony, & Greenwell, 2016), responses to other fans' dysfunctional behaviors (Kim, Byon, & Pedersen, 2019), meaningful sport consumption (Jang, Wu, & Wen, in press), and fans' choice of coping strategies following an athlete's transgression (Lee, Kwak, & Bagozzi, in press). Although these studies contribute to our understanding of cultural influences on current fans' evaluations of various sports spectating contexts and game outcome, they do not provide insight on the generation of interest toward the sport. Knowledge about what aspects of a team different cultures prioritize may be crucial in successfully converting non-fans into fans.

Upon this background, the current study intends to fill this gap in the literature by applying *individualism-collectivism* cultural distinction to the collegiate sport context. Given that the United States is classified as an individualistic nation, and Korea as a

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collectivistic nation, this cultural distinction was deemed suitable for the current study. In sum, the current study will the joint influence of cultural orientation and collegiate sport team traits on the attitudes and behavioral intentions of non-fans.

1.2. Conceptual Framework

The Stereotype Content Model (SCM) and related Brands and Intentional Agents Framework (BIAF) are useful frameworks for understanding how individuals create stereotypes about individuals, social groups, brands and brand users, in low encounter or low-involvement situations (Fiske, Cuddy, & Glick, 2007), making it suitable to be applied to non-fan contexts. According to the Stereotype Content Model (and Brands and Intentional Agents Framework, in new relationships, people use a limited number of cues to form stereotypes about particular entities and social groups (Kim, Ferrin, Cooper, & Dirks, 2004). These evaluations based on various cues (e.g., behavior, information, descriptions, color etc.) tend to fall into three dimensions about the group's competence, sociability, and morality (Leach, Ellemers, & Barreto, 2007), all of which are considered important aspects of sports.

Although the competence, sociability, and morality dimensions may all exert positive influences on the attitudes and behavioral intentions towards a collegiate sport team, the current study contends that individualistic and collectivistic cultural orientation influences the importance individuals place on each dimension. People in individualistic cultures are characterized as having an independent self-construal where they view themselves as independent of others and tend to prioritize personal goals over in-

group goals (Hofstede, 1980). In contrast, people in collectivistic cultures are characterized as having an interdependent self-construal where they view themselves as socially embedded with others and tend to prioritize in-group goals over personal goals (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). These differences in cultural orientation (and self-construal) have been shown to have profound influences on consumers' perceptions, preferences, goals and behavior in various ways and in a wide range of consumption contexts (see Riemer, Shavitt, Koo, & Markus, 2014, for a review).

As it relates to the SCM dimensions (i.e., competence, sociability, and morality), past cross-cultural studies have found that individualistic cultures tend to prefer brands with personal brand characteristics such as being reliable, smart, simple and elegant (Li, Li, Chiu, & Peng, 2019; Zhang & Gelb, 1996). Meanwhile, collectivistic cultures prefer brands with relations characteristics such as being socially responsible, environmentally friendly, helpful, and benevolent (Li et al., 2019; Zhang & Gelb, 1996). Therefore, in a sport consumption context, it is hypothesized that individualistic cultures will prefer competence cues, while collectivistic cultures will prefer sociability and morality cues.

Meanwhile, two often cited functions of a collegiate sport team is its ability to foster a sense of community and pride with students (Covell, 2004), and its function as a marketing tool to reach the general public, where the team and fan community act as representatives of the university (Ehrman & Marber, 2008; Murphy & Trandel, 1994). Therefore, the target audience for collegiate sports can be divided into two categories according to group membership: (1) internal members (i.e., current students who are

university in-groups), and (2) external individuals (i.e., general public who are university out-groups).

For internal members, the social identity theory and cross-cultural literature indicates that negative information about a social identity is perceived as a threat to the self-concept for in-group members (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and the reactions to such identity threats differ for individualists and collectivists (Heine, Kitayama, & Lehman, 2001). The Korean higher education system is highly stratified and students are constantly reminded of their university's position in the hierarchy through university rankings and common notions such as the in-Seoul and out-Seoul distinctions (Jung & Lee, 2016). In the face of such social identity threats, individualists tend to dissociate from the threatened social identity, while collectivists actively seek to compensate by affirming other dimensions that are superior (Wang, Lisjak, & Mandel, 2018) or to strengthen their association with the threatened identity (White, Argo, & Sengupta, 2012). Thus, in the face of a threat to the university identity, independents' and interdependents' reactions to their university's sport team may differ as well. On the other hand, external individuals do not share the university social identity. Therefore, negative information about the university is not perceived as a threat to the self. Instead, positive and negative information is likely to be perceived in a less self-relevant manner (Cadinu & Cerchioni, 2001).

In the case of the general public (i.e., external individuals), we contend that the attitudes about the sport team can be formed based on not only the perceptions about the team itself, but also perceptions about the fan community. The marketing literature indicates that the personality traits attributed to a brand are also

applied to its users (Fennis & Pruyn, 2007; Govers & Schoormans, 2005). Thus, in the view of non-users, perceptions of the brand and its users overlap to some extent. This notion is supported by endorsement effectiveness studies where non-users of a brand are drawn to the brand because they aspire to be comparable to the celebrity or athlete endorser who supposedly uses the brand (e.g., Schouten, Janssen, & Verspaget, 2020). Furthermore, past studies about tourist destinations indicate that perceptions about the residents of a destination significantly influence the attractiveness of the destination itself (Braun et al., 2013; Freire, 2009; Vanolo, 2008). More relatedly, Antonetti and Maklan (2016) utilized the SCM dimensions to show that stereotypes about environmentally friendly consumers influenced the degree to which study participants desired to imitate their consumption patterns. Therefore, the current study contends that the perceived competence, sociability, and morality of the team as well as the fan community will influence the general public's attitudes and behavioral intentions toward the collegiate sport team.

Furthermore, depending on cultural orientation, the degree to which an individual is influenced by team-related and community-related cues can differ (Wang, Masuda, Ito, & Rashid, 2012). Past studies have shown that individualists tend to focus on the core attributes of the product itself (Friedmann & Lowengart, 2019), place more importance on concrete attributes (Chiu, 1972) and prefer information about the functional superiority of products (Han & Shavitt, 1994; Kim & Markus, 1999). Meanwhile, collectivists are more susceptible to norms and others' attitudes and behaviors (Yang & Mattila, 2020) and are more aversive of competitive situations (Cross & Vick, 2001). Also, individualists tend to view

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individual entities as discrete and discontinuous while collectivists focus on the field and pay attention to relationships between entities (Monga & Williams, 2016). Therefore, individualists and collectivists may differ in the degree that they view information regarding the team and the fan community as relevant to the evaluation of the team as well as the overall experience of spectating.

In summary, for university students (i.e., internal target audience of a collegiate sport team) the current study intends to investigate the joint influence of team-related SCM cue type (competence, sociability, and morality), cultural orientation (individualist vs. collectivist), and social identity threat (university threat) on the attitudes and behaviors toward a collegiate sport team. For the general public (i.e., external target audience), this study explores the influence of the perceptions about the team and the fan community on the attitudes and behavioral intentions toward a collegiate sport team, as moderated by cultural orientation.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

In the university's perspective, externally collegiate sports teams are often regarded as an effective marketing tool for promoting the university, while internally, they act as a medium for enhancing a sense of community and pride amongst students and faculty (Hanson, Bryant, & Lyman, 2019). However, for a collegiate team to be able to fulfill these functions, both internal and external targets (i.e., general public, prospective students, and current students) must have favorable attitudes towards the team. Despite the importance of recruiting new fans, non-fans have seldom been

the target of research in the sports management literature. Furthermore, very few studies have investigated cultural variables within a sport consumption context. This is surprising given that sports organizations are continuously striving to expand their global reach.

To address this gap in the literature, the purpose of the current study is to investigate the influence of competence and warmth cues about a collegiate sports team and the fan community on the attitudes and behavioral intentions of non-fans (i.e., students of the university and general public) by building on the impression formation, stereotype content, social psychology, and sports management literature. Specifically, the current study intends to explore whether the competence and warmth domains differentially appeal to individuals with independent (i.e., individualists) and interdependent (i.e., collectivists) self-construals, and whether this relationship is moderated by the status of the university (i.e., academic ranking). Additionally, the current study intends to differentiate between team-related cues and fan community-related cues to explore the extent to which the perceived competence and warmth of each type of cue influences the attitudes and behavioral intentions towards the collegiate team as moderated by cultural orientation.

In pursuit of the aforementioned purposes, two studies will be conducted. Study 1 will be designed to investigate whether university students respond differently to competence and warmth cues depending on their cultural orientations. Specifically, a cross-national sample comparison will be conducted to test whether university students of an individualistic (vs. collectivist) culture display more favorable attitudes and behavioral intentions when

their collegiate sports team is portrayed as competent (warm) than when portrayed as warm (competent). Samples will be collected from the United States to represent an individualist culture and Korea to represent a collectivist culture.

Although Study 1 establishes external validity through cross－national comparisons, it is difficult to conclude that cultural orientation absolutely and definitively affected students' reactions to the team's competence and warmth cues. In other words, other confounding factors such as familiarity with collegiate sports may influence the results of Study 1. Thus, in Study 2, cultural orientation will be operationalized through self－construal manipulation (i.e., independent vs. interdependent self－construal). This is in accordance with recommendations that cross－cultural studies should utilize both cultural group comparisons and temporary activation of cultural values to account for possible confounding variables (Zhang, Feick, & Price, 2006).

Furthermore, Study 2 will attempt to investigate if the influence of culture on cue preference is particularly pronounced for students that experience a university identity threat. University identity threat will be manipulated using stimulus material from prior research.

Next, study 3 distinguishes between team－related cues and fan community－related cues and investigate how preferences differ according to cultural orientation. While studies 1 and 2 investigate the differing reactions of individualists and collectivists to cues related to the team itself (i.e., team competence and team warmth), past studies have indicated that motivations for following sports is not limited to team－related factors (e.g., Han, Mahony, & Greenwell, 2016; Doyle, Filo, Lock, Funk, & McDonald, 2016; Wann, 1995).

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Additionally, given that it has been suggested that the warmth dimension may be comprised of the two sub-dimensions of sociability and morality, Study 3 will also distinguish between sociability and morality perceptions. Thus, Study 3distinguishes between team-related and fan community-related competence, sociability, and morality cues. Furthermore, to investigate its effects on the general public (i.e., community members and prospective students), a fictional university is presented in the stimulus material.

1.4. Significance of the Study

In fulfilment of the study's purpose, the current study attempts to make several academic and practical contributions to the extant literature and sports industry. First, this study adds to the limited literature regarding cultural orientation's influence on sport consumption behavior (Han, Mahony, Greenwell, 2016). While the general marketing literature indicates that consumers' responses to various products and brands differ according to their cultural orientation (see Shavitt & Barnes, 2018 for a review), research on this subject has largely been neglected within the sports management literature. Given the rising importance that professional leagues place on establishing global markets, it is surprising that not many studies with cross-national designs have been conducted. Furthermore, sports' inherent unique qualities (e.g., competition, uncertainty of outcome, ability to gather and unite communities, etc.) make it reasonable to compare how different aspects of sport are valued by different cultures.

Second, past studies have concentrated solely on how different

characteristics of the sports team (e.g., performance, history) or fans (e.g., identification) can influence collegiate sports consumption (e.g., Boyle & Magnusson, 2007; Ha & Han, 2010; Spinda, Wann, & Hardin, 2015) and various attitudes and behaviors beneficial to the university (e.g., McCormick & Tinsley, 1987; Mulholland, Tomic, & Sholander, 2014; Segura & Willner, 2018). Although these studies provide valuable insights about the value of collegiate sports team to the university and its constituents, they do not take into consideration how different universities may be placed in different situations. Additionally, due to the different situations that each university is placed in, collegiate sports teams may be perceived differently by the university community. Thus, the current study extends the current literature by moving beyond the exploration of how a collegiate sports team can benefit the university (which has already been quite exhaustively researched), and attempts to provide empirical evidence of how universities in different situations (i.e., academic status, individualistic vs. collectivistic culture) may spur the collegiate sports fan-base. This is an important issue especially for collegiate sports markets that recognize the importance and value of collegiate sports teams, but have long failed to establish a fan community.

1.5. Definition of Terms

Culture

Culture is defined as "a shared cognitive, emotional, and behavioral tendency within a definable group" (Shavitt & Barnes, 2019).

Individualism and Collectivism

The individualism-collectivism distinction is defined as the degree to which an individual defines the self as distinct from or interconnected with others (Schwartz, 1994), which manifests at the individual level as differences in the way individuals' self-construal.

Individualism is defined as a social pattern that consists of individuals who see themselves as autonomous and independent (Triandis, 2001) or having an independent self-construal (Singelis, 1994).

Collectivism is defined as a social pattern that consists of individuals who see themselves as a part of collectives such as family, community, and social groups (Triandis, 2001) or having an interdependent self-construal (Singelis, 1994).

Stereotype

The current study adopts the definition of a stereotype commonly used in the group perception literature where stereotypes are defined as category-based generalizations that attribute category members with certain traits (Correll, Judd, Park, & Wittenbrink, 2010).

Competence

Competence is one of the two fundamental dimensions of stereotypes and refers to the capacity to achieve goals, largely relevant to intrapersonal traits and abilities such as skill, intelligence, and efficiency (Brambilla et al., 2012).

Warmth (Sociability and Morality)

Warmth is the second of the two fundamental dimensions of stereotypes and refers to the interpersonal intentions of an entity and is largely relevant to its ability to build and maintain harmonious relationships (Brambilla et al., 2012). Furthermore, the warmth dimension can be further divided into the sociability and morality dimensions.

Sociability pertains to an entity's ability to form social connections and cooperate with others, involving traits such as friendliness and likeability (Leach et al., 2007).

Morality refers to the perceived correctness of the entity, involving traits such as honesty, sincerity and trustworthiness (Leach et al., 2007).

Chapter 2. Literature Review

2.1. Culture, Self-Construal, and Consumer Behavior

Culture is a word that is commonly used, and its influence is known to be quite pervasive. Yet, it is also a construct that is difficult to define (Triandis et al., 1986; De Mooij, 1997). Hofstede (1984) defines culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or society from those of another" (p. 82). Triandis (2012) further specifies culture as "a shared meaning system found among those who speak a particular language dialect, during a specific historical period, and in a definable geographical region" (p. 35). Torelli et al., (2020) define culture as a "network of discrete, specific knowledge structures shared by individuals within some definable population" including shared beliefs, attitudes, norms, experiences, self-views, social structures, and values. All of these definitions emphasize a shared cognitive, emotional, and behavioral tendency within a definable group (Shavitt & Barnes, 2019). Since different groups (e.g., nations, organizations, social groups, etc.) have different histories, compositions, operating environments, and situations, each group displays variations in such knowledge structures which are manifested in the form of a unique culture.

Although, theoretically, each and every group would have a different and unique culture, resulting in infinite possible variations, past studies have suggested a number of different cultural frameworks that can be used to understand the differences between cultures and its influence on consumer behavior. Examples include cultural complexity (Triandis, 1989), uncertainty avoidance

(Hofstede, 1980), structural tightness-looseness (Torelli & Rodas, 2017), power distance (Hofstede, 1980), masculinity (Hofstede, 1980), and individualism-collectivism (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), where each framework attempts to distinguish between cultures on a particular dimension.

The common notion of these differing frameworks is that each culture has a distinct set of values that are pursued. In other words, each of the cultural distinctions depend on which set of human values are prioritized over another. For example, Schwartz (1992) proposed a model in which values represent basic requirements of human existence in the pursuit of individualistic needs (i.e., needs of individuals as biological organisms, such as independence and enjoyment in life) or collective needs of groups (i.e., requisites of coordinated social interactions or survival, and welfare needs of groups, such as honesty and social justice). Schwartz's model proposes 11 conceptually distinct human value domains, each associated with a particular abstract goal. This motivational continuum can be arranged according to a circular structure (see Figure 0), whereby compatible values are adjacent to one another (i.e., can be pursued concurrently) and incompatible values are opposite to one another (i.e., cannot be pursued concurrently) (Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004). Consequently, relationships between adjacent values can be further summarized in terms of four higher-order value types that form two basic, bipolar, conceptual dimensions (Schwartz, 1992).

Figure 1

Schwartz's Basic Human Values Model (Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004)
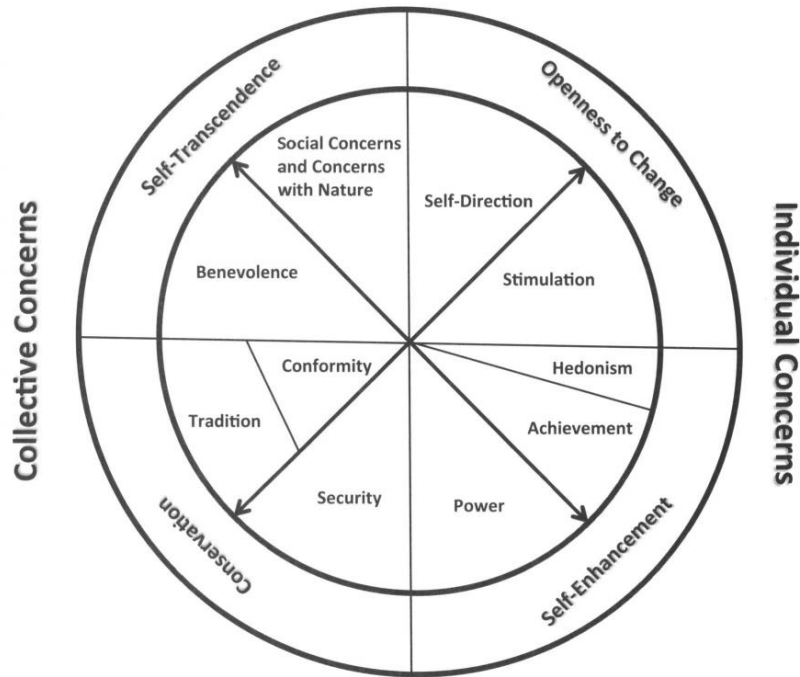
As Shwartz (1992) suggested, individualistic and collective goals are the two fundamental components of a variety of human values. Therefore, naturally, of the many different cultural dimensions, the constructs of *individualism* and *collectivism* are the most commonly used cultural classifications in cross−cultural studies and consumer research (Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002; Maheswaran & Shavitt, 2000). Hofstede (1980) describes the individualism−collectivism distinction as the relationship between the individual and the collectivity that prevails in a given society. In other words, this classification distinguishes cultural groups according to how people view themselves in relation to

others. The key distinction between the two cultural categories involves the degree to which an individual defines the self as distinct from or interconnected with others. Individualistic cultures tend to view themselves as independent of others and is associated to values such as autonomy, self-direction, and achievement (e.g., Grimm et al., 1999; Schwartz, 1994). An individualistic culture tends to be one in which a person is more concerned with one's self. This culture orders its priorities based on individual achievement and initiative for self-gain and personal satisfaction (Jung & Avolio, 1999) and emphasize agency. Individualists also feel free from their in-groups and are more likely to set their own goals above the ones of their in-groups. As a result, they typically allow their attitudes rather than the norms of the in-group to direct their social behavior (Triandis, 2001). Triandis (2001) stated that "people in individualist cultures see the self as stable and the social environment as changeable, so they tend to shape the social environment to fit their personalities" (p. 920). The individualist's perspective is focused on independence and self-fulfillment (Oyserman et al., 2002), on personal goals over group goals (Wagner, 1995), and on personal attitudes over group norms (Triandis, 2001).

Meanwhile, collectivistic cultures tend to view themselves as socially embedded with others and is associated to values such as group harmony, tradition, and conformity (Schwartz, 1994). They are known for sustaining longer connections with their organizations, they tend to view those relationships as far more critical than capability or job performance, and they typically maintain the values and standard practices within an organization (Jung & Avolio, 1999). Collectivist cultures also rely more on their in-groups (family, tribe,

etc.) compared to individualist cultures. Since the goals of the in-group take precedence and the norms of the in-group shape their behavior (Mills & Clark, 1982), help from in-group members is expected to be received, just as much as it is expected to be given. In general, relationships have a great significance in collectivist cultures. In fact, the collectivist is more likely to suppress their own personal goals for the greater good of the whole and to preserve relationships with the group and its members. These cultural patterns give collectivists a stable social environment and adaptable personalities, but unfortunately, their own personal traits are often not transparent (Triandis, 2001). Carpenter (2000) suggests that areas where tight (i.e., close relationships) cultures exist show high levels of collectivism.

However, notions of collectivistic and individualistic cultures may give the false impression that they are dichotomous concepts that cannot coexist. On the contrary, past studies suggest that individualist and collectivistic tendencies can coexist within an individual (Agrawal & Maheswaran, 2005; Aaker & Lee, 2011; Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Singelis, 1994). Although the self-concept is constructed within a social context (i.e., within a particular culture) where it is created, maintained, and altered through interactions and practices within a particular cultural context (Kitayama & Uskul, 2011; Yamagishi, 2010), it is still a dynamic construct. Conceptualizations of culture, including the individualism-collectivism classification, specify that culture is a learned phenomenon (Martin & Nakayama, 2015), but at the same time is dynamic, accumulative, and emergent (Samovar, Porter, & McDaniel, 2008; Neuliep, 2012; Miller, 2015). In other words, there can be intergroup variations in culture as well as

intragroup variations where each individual in a group varies in the extent that they adopt a particular cultural norm.

Therefore, while the individualism-collectivism construct may be used as a group level variable, it also manifests at the individual-level. This individual-level distinction has been termed *self-construal* with *independent self-construal* referring to individualistic values and *interdependent self-construal* referring to collectivistic values. Prior research has constantly displayed that, on average, individualistic cultures (e.g., Western cultures such as the United States and UK) tend to have higher chronic levels of *independent* self-construals while collectivistic cultures (e.g., Asian cultures such as Korea and Japan) tend to have higher chronic levels of *interdependent* self-construals (Aaker & Schmitt, 2001; Lee, Aaker & Gardner, 2000; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1989). However, individuals can actually hold both types of self-construals simultaneously, and perceptions, judgments, and behavior are influenced by which self-construal happens to be activated at any given time (Trafimow et al. 1991). Thus, people in collectivistic (individualistic) societies hold both self-construals, but the interdependent (independent) self-construal is the one that tends to be chronically accessible, activated most often, and thus most likely to guide behavior.

Moreover, self-construals can easily be manipulated so that even those with generally independent or interdependent self-construals can be induced to take the opposite perspective. By activating the self-construal of individuals within a culture through priming, researchers have obtained many cross-cultural differences that had previously been witnessed only in between-nation comparisons (Aaker & Lee 2001; Gardner, Gabriel, & Lee

2 3

1999; for a review, see Oyserman & Lee 2008). This phenomenon is important because, while people may have a chronic independent (interdependent) self-construal, circumstances may temporarily make their interdependent (independent) self-construal more salient. For example, although people in the United States are characterized by a chronic independent self-construal (i.e., individualistic culture), certain groups to which they belong to, such as non-profit organizations, may promote collectivistic values (i.e., interdependent self-construal). Therefore, when studying the influence of self-construal, it is important to utilize both the chronic (e.g., cross-cultural) and temporary induced (priming and temporary activation) self-construals.

Meanwhile, organizations and brands embody rich symbolic meanings and promote different values and beliefs (Aaker, Benet-Martinez, & Garolera, 2001; Richins, 1994). Thus, cross-cultural consumer psychology and consumer behavior have been extensively studied over the past 30 years, especially regarding the individualism-collectivism distinction. The current study will concentrate on how individualism-collectivism influence people's perceptions, attitudes, and behavior towards other entities (e.g., brands, organizations, social groups, objects, products and other individuals).

First, cultural orientation dictates the style of thinking that individuals engage in. This is because social differences between cultures promote certain cognitive processes more than others, thus, altering how people view social bonds and relationships (Williams, Han, & Qualls, 1998). Collectivistic cultures have beliefs about focusing on the field and paying attention to relationships between objects (Monga & Williams, 2016). In contrast, individualistic

societies have beliefs that the world is discrete and discontinuous and that an object's behavior can be predicted using rules and properties (Monga & Williams, 2016). These differences are closely related to the notions of *holistic thinking* and *analytic thinking.* In fact, a considerable body of research supports the notion that individualistic cultures (e.g., Western countries) tend to promote and display analytic thinking while collectivistic cultures (e.g., East Asian countries) tend to promote and display holistic thinking (e.g., Nisbett et al., 2001; Monga & John, 2007)

Holistic thinking is defined as "involving an orientation to the context or field as a whole, including attention to relationships between a focal object and the field, and a preference for explaining and predicting events on the basis of such relationships" (Nisbett, Peng, Choi, & Norenzayan, 2001). Meanwhile, *analytic thinking* "involves a detachment of the object from its context, a tendency to focus on attributes of the object to assign it to categories, and a preference for using rules about the categories to explain and predict the object's behavior (Nisbett, Peng, Choi, & Norenzayan, 2001).

These differences in thinking styles have been shown to influence the selective tendencies in the information used for categorization and evaluation of objects and products. The literature tends to indicate that analytic thinkers (i.e., individualist cultures) tend to view objects in terms of their purpose or functionality, while holistic thinkers (i.e., collectivistic cultures) view objects in terms of their context and relationship with other objects. In other words, while analytic thinkers tend to clearly differentiate between focal content and peripheral contextual information, holistic thinkers embrace the idea that focal and peripheral information are equally

important and embedded in the whole context (Wang, Masuda, Ito, & Rashid, 2012). For example, in one study by Chiu (1972), U.S. children (i.e., individualistic culture) tended to group objects based on category membership or attributes (e.g., a jeep and boat grouped together because both have motors and are used for transportation), while Chinese children (i.e., collectivistic culture) grouped them based on thematic relationships (e.g., table and chair grouped together because you sit on the chair to eat at a table). Other studies support these findings and similarly suggest that collectivistic individuals are more likely than their individualistic counterparts to emphasize relationships rather than shared properties (Wang, Masuda, Ito, Rashid, 2012; Unsworth, Sears, & Pexman, 2005), and to categorize objects according to relevance or similarity (Ji et al., 2000), and take into account more pieces of information when making a judgment (Koo & Choi, 2005). Based on the differing categorization tendencies, the current study proposes for analytical thinkers, attitudes toward a collegiate sport team will be affected more by its core attributes (i.e., information regarding performance), while holistic thinkers will be affected more by attributes that signal it relationship within a larger community (i.e., friendliness, fan base, community relations, etc.).

This difference in categorization tendency according to cultural orientation extends to domains of self-expression as well. To illustrate, in the U.S. where independence is celebrated, children are encouraged to be unique and self-determining (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton, 1985). Infants are given their own beds and rooms to foster autonomy (Aaker & Schmitt, 2001). When American children are asked to describe themselves by listing their characteristics, they focus on attributes and behavior that

differentiate them from their classmates (McGuire, 1984). In other words, individualist cultures promote objective positive distinction in specific realms (e.g., intelligence, athleticism, fashionability). In contrast, socialization processes adopted in East Asian cultures tend to encourage a different set of values. One of the most frequent descriptions of a good child by Chinese parents is for the child to be group-oriented and cooperative (Wu, 1996). To attain such an ideal, Chinese children are encouraged to pursue collective goals and elaborate on their own inadequacies relative to other children in an effort to assimilate with other children (Wu, 1996). Thus, collective cultures are more likely to be influenced by cues that an object, product, or behavior is normatively preferred. In other words, they may be more susceptible to the bandwagon effect. Indeed, past studies have shown that individuals with interdependent self-construals were influenced more by others' opinions (e.g., Yang & Mattila, 2020). Similarly, Triandis (1989) argued that as a result of these socialization processes Western societies, "to be distinct and different are highly valued, and people find innumerable ways to show themselves to other as different (in dress, possessions, and speech patterns). By contrast, in Eastern cultures, conformity to the other in public settings is valued" (p. 530). Thus, information about the pervasiveness of an activity (e.g., collegiate sports spectating) among in-group members will affect collectivistic individuals more than individualists due to their heightened assimilative tendency.

This premise of cultural differences in differentiation and assimilation tendencies hold relevance to the current study especially in the context of upward comparisons (Cheng & Lam, 2007; Iacoviello & Lorenzi-Cioldi, 2014) and self- or social-

identity threats (White, Argo, & Sengupta, 2012). As mentioned above, the higher education system is highly stratified and students are constantly exposed to information about their positions in the (university) status hierarchy, as well as risks of the university being evaluated negatively. In the face of such threats, cultural orientation activates different responses due to the cultural differences in the chronic pursuit of conformity (collectivists) or autonomy (individualists). For example, past studies have shown that when a social identity is portrayed as inferior, independents distance themselves from the threatened identity, while interdependents strengthen their display of group membership (e.g., Aaker & Schmitt, 2001; White, Stackhouse, & Argo, 2018; White, Argo, & Sengupta, 2012). How these differences relate to the differing attitudes towards collegiate sports team when the superordinate identity (i.e., university student) is threatened, will be further explored in the social identity, status, and identity threats section of the literature review.

The second aspect of differential cultural tendencies relevant to the current study is that, according to studies regarding marketing communications and advertisement appeals, there is a value congruency effect in which individuals tend to place a priority on culturally value-congruent cues of various stimuli. In other words, individuals' attitudinal responses towards stimuli differ depending on the extent that the values portrayed by the stimulus are congruent with the values of the individual (Shavitt & Barnes, 2019). For example, Li Li, Chiu, and Peng (2019) found that U.S. participants (i.e., individualistic/independent) rated brands as stronger to the extent that it was associated with personal brand characteristics such as being *reliable, smart, simple, elegant, honest,*

and *sincere.* On the other hand, they found that Chinese participants (i.e., collectivistic/interdependent) rated brands as stronger to the extent that it was associated with relational brand characteristics such as, *being socially responsible, environmentally friendly, helpful to the economy, benevolent,* and *signaling social status.* In a related vein, cultural differences are reflected in the commercial or informational environments that surround consumers (Miracle, 1987), which further strengthen these cultural orientations. Numerous studies have systematically analyzed the contents of advertisements in different cultures. Primarily focusing on the individualism−collectivism distinction (i.e., independent vs. interdependent self−construal), these studies documented the prevalence of various types of appeals according to the type of culture. In general, these studies suggested that the prevalence of marketing communication appeals match the cultural value profile of the societies in which they appear (e.g., Han & Shavitt, 1994; Kim & Markus, 1999). Specifically, advertisement appeals to uniqueness, personal benefits, and hedonism are more prevalent in individualistic societies, whereas appeals to harmony, group benefits, and conformity are more prevalent in collectivistic societies. For example, Han and Shavitt (1994) showed that magazine advertisements in South Korea (a collectivistic society) were generally more focused on interdependence, family well−being, harmony, and in−group goals than were magazine advertisements in the United States (an individualistic society). Meanwhile, U.S. advertisements focused more on independence, individuality, self−improvement, achievement, and personal goals than did advertisements in South Korea. Similarly, Kim and Markus (1999) found that South Korean advertisements were most likely to

use conformity themes and less likely to use uniqueness themes compared to U.S. advertisements.

Not only do advertisements follow cultural value orientations, but the persuasiveness of these types of appeals also display a similar pattern, especially for publically consumed products. In a cross-national experiment, Han and Shavitt (1994) showed that appeals with individualistic themes ("Solo detergent cleans with a softness that you will love") were more persuasive in the United States than in South Korea, and appeals with collectivistic themes ("Solo detergent cleans with a softness that your family will love") were more persuasive in South Korea than in the United States. Another study by Zhang & Gelb (1996) conducted a similar study using samples from the United States and China. Both sets of studies showed that the cultural differences were larger for products that were socially shared or visible to others, presumably because choices for such products are more subject to a culture's normative constraints. Thus, culturally congruent advertisements are more prevalent most likely because they are more persuasive.

Past studies have also investigated the interactive effects of marketing communications' appeal type and self-construal on positive persuasive outcomes such as attitudes towards advertisement and brand (e.g., Agrawal & Maheswaran, 2005; Choi, Liu & Li, 2018), purchase intentions (Sarkar, Sarkar, & Yadav, 2019), and endorsement intentions (Bernritter, Loermans, Verlegh, & Smit, 2017). Generally, past studies have indicated that advertisements and marketing communications that align with both chronic self-construal (i.e., individualistic-collectivistic culture) and temporary self-construal (i.e., independent vs. interdependent self-construal) are more effective.

Although these studies provide important insights on how culture and value-congruence affect consumer perceptions and behavior, they are not without their limitations. Past studies regarding appeal type and self-construal have mostly utilized brands that manufacture physical products in their investigations. While almost all physical products can be conceptualized as a type of *exchange relationship* in which consumers assume that benefits are given (e.g., money) with the expectation of receiving a benefit (e.g., quality product) in return, rather than as a *communal relationship* where each person has a concern for the welfare of the other (Mills & Clark, 1982). Examples of communal relationships include friendships, romantic relationships, and family (Mills & Clark, 1982). Thus, different qualities are expected from exchange relationship partners and communal relationship partners (e.g., equity-based expectation vs. need-based expectation).

Yet, collegiate sports, especially in Korea, are more ambiguous in nature. First, practically all collegiate sports events in Korea are free of charge and the athletes are usually not publicly recognized stars. Therefore, for the students there is no actual monetary payment (i.e., no concrete benefit given to the team, athlete, or university) other than tuition and the time invested to spectate the game. A similar example had been presented by Mills and Clark (1982) in which school teachers who take care of young students at school do not expect a direct payment from the students or family, but receive a salary for these services from the school administration. In other words, in Korean collegiate sports, there is no *quid pro quo* exchange principle that governs the giving and receiving of benefits that is essential for exchange relationships. However, the relationship is not necessarily communal because the

sports team is not directly involved in the welfare of the spectators, neither are the spectators directly involved in the welfare of the team.

In such ambiguous relationships, people search for cues to interpret it in either communal or exchange terms (Batson, 1993). In the current study, it is expected that self-construal (cultural orientation) will affect the responses of students following various cues about a collegiate sports team (and their subsequent attitudes and behavioral intentions) due to the difference in their perceptions about the type of relationship that collegiate sports offer (i.e., exchange vs. communal relationship). As mentioned before, independents are motivated by self-oriented goals as is the definition of an exchange relationship. Thus, aspects that are perceived to benefit the self (e.g., hedonic enjoyment such as good performance and social atmosphere) should take precedence. Meanwhile, interdependents are motivated by benevolent and other-focused goals as is the case of communal relationships. Thus, aspects that benefit the in-group (e.g., social responsibility) should be more appealing to interdependents.

Regarding the specific content of these cues, the current study utilizes the Stereotype Content Model (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002) and Brands as Intentional Agents Framework (Kervyn, Fiske, & Malone, 2012) as the guiding theories for informing the evaluative domains upon which impressions towards a sport team or event are formed. Given that the current study intends to investigate factors that influence the perceptions towards a collegiate sport team in initial or low exposure situations, the stereotype content model is especially relevant because it is theoretically based on impression management (i.e., first exposure)

and has been studied extensively in first exposure situations (Fiske et al., 2002). In other words, because collegiate sports in Korea is unpopular, people are likely to have little information regarding specific teams, making the application of the Stereotype Content Model and Brands as Intentional Agents Framework ideal.

2.2. Competence, Sociability, and Morality

2.2.1) The Stereotype Content Model

In new consumer-brand relationships, consumers are likely to emphasize more stereotypical information that helps them characterize the brand, thus enabling the evaluation of its congruence with one's own motivations and the formation of brand attitude (Karjaluoto, Munnukka, & Salmi, 2014). In these occasions, consumers' perceptions of and attitudes toward a brand are formed from the available or provided information about the brand and its users' characteristics, because actual behavior-based and experience-based information is not available (Meyerson et al., 1996). Thus, individuals use cognitive cues available to them and attribute stereotypical traits relating to the target's mental category (Kim et al., 2004). This mental process is necessary to efficiently function in a world where individuals are constantly bombarded with complicated stimuli. The formation and utilization of stereotypes is necessary to make sense of the complicated world.

As meaning-makers, people categorize others into social groups based on a myriad of cues in order to understand the social world and plan behavior (Bodenhausen, Kang, & Peery, 2012). As

such, over the past 80 years, theories of person perception, attitude/impression formation, and stereotype content have aimed to identify the fundamental dimensions that structure the impressions that people form of individuals, social groups, and brands. Studies of impression formation started with the impressions made about other individuals. One of the earliest relevant studies was conducted by Asch (1946) in which he investigated how impressions about a person change depending on the combination of traits presented. His study suggested that people regard some traits to be more central in the formation of an impression while others were peripheral. In his studies, he found that social warmth (vs. coldness) was central in forming impressions in most cases. Many subsequent studies built upon Asch's (1946) studies and various models about the contents of impressions had been suggested. For example, Nelson and Vivekananthan (1968) used the trait descriptions provided about individuals that participants knew and found that trait descriptions fell into a two-dimensional model consisting of social desirability (i.e., social good-bad) and intellectual desirability (i.e., intellectual good-bad). During this era, a number of models were suggested, such as the dominance-submission and affection-hostility model (Leary, 1958), agency and communion model (Bakan, 1966), good-bad according to self- and other-profitability (Peeters, 2002), and competence and morality (Wojciszke, 1994) with differing degrees of overlap within and across the studied constructs.

Evident from the prior studies on impression formation and person perception, evaluations about other individuals tend to fall into the two dimensions of *warmth* and *competence.* As such, the warmth and competence domains have become the two primary

content dimensions used in social psychology research (Wojciszke & Bialobrzeska, 2014). As for the content of the warmth and competence dimensions, warmth judgments relate to the perceived intentions of the person/object being perceived and include evaluations of traits such as warm, generous, kind, sincere, and friendly. Meanwhile, competence judgments reflect the perceived ability of the focal person/object and include traits such as efficient, effective, competent, intelligent, and skilled (Aaker et al., 2010; Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002). These dimensions of social perception are rooted in concerns involving competition and status, as well as reproduction and survival (Aaker, et al., 2010). The relevance of these two dimensions stems from two basic questions necessary for survival in the social world (Fiske, Cuddy, Click, & Xu, 2002). First, individuals want to know the person's intent towards them and their groups (i.e., warmth). This reflects the need for individuals to discern whether the target is a friend or foe or intends good or harm. Second, they want to know whether the other person can enact their intents (i.e., competence) (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002). This reflects the need for individuals to discern if the person has the ability to enact their intentions of good or harm.

The two dimensions of *warmth* and *competence* holds great significance in low-exposure or first-encounter situations because they are the fundamental and automatic dimensions used for the evaluation of others, evaluation occurs within seconds upon exposure (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2008), and explain "almost entirely for how people characterize others" (Fiske et al., 2007, p. 77). In a study by Fiske and colleagues (2007), the warmth and competence dimensions accounted for 82% of the variance in the

perceptions of individuals in everyday social behaviors. Relatedly, Abele and Wojciszke's (2007) study examined three-hundred personality traits to test whether they can be classified into the two dimensions and found that warmth and competence explained almost 90% of the variance. This means that evaluations based on these two dimensions are both frequent and far-reaching (Fiske et al., 2007).

In addition to the person or individual perception domain, Fiske, Cuddy, Click and Xu (2002) extended the warmth and competence dimensions from evaluations about individuals to perceptions about social groups by proposing the Stereotype Content Model (SCM). In their study, the authors used twenty-three groups based on age, gender, religion, race, wealth, occupation, location, and disability. Their results showed that participants' social perceptions clustered around the two dimensions of warmth and competence, just as it did in prior research about person perceptions. Through the use of cluster analysis, the authors created four categories of social groups based on differing levels of perceived competence and warmth: (1) Paternalistic Stereotype for the low competence and high warmth groups (e.g., elderly, disabled), (2) Admiration for the high competence and high warmth groups (e.g., middle class and Christians), (3) Envious Stereotype for the high competence and low warmth groups (e.g., Asians, Jews, the wealthy), and (4) Contemptuous Stereotype for the low competence and low warmth groups (e.g., welfare recipients, homeless). Furthermore, most of the social groups fell into the mixed categories of high competence (low competence) and low warmth (high warmth), indicating a tendency for ambivalent stereotyping. The authors further explained that the higher the social group was perceived to be in

competition with the participant's in-group, the lower they were rated on warmth, indicating the possibility of a bias effect when competition is fierce.

Cuddy, Fiske, and Glick (2008) extended their findings of the Stereotype Content Model to the behavioral outcomes of competence and warmth perceptions. They suggested that competence elicits passive behaviors such that high perceived competence of a social group was correlated to passive facilitation (e.g., obligatory association), while low competence elicited passive harm (e.g., ignoring). Meanwhile, high perceived warmth led to active facilitation (e.g., helping), while low perceived warmth led to active harm (i.e., attacking and harassing). The authors explained that these results were due to the fact that the combination of evaluations about the warmth and competence dimensions generate distinct emotions of admiration (high warmth and competence), contempt (low warmth, and competence), envy (high competence and low warmth), and pity (low competence and high warmth). The results of these studies indicate that the different combinations of warmth and competence have differential effects of the perceiver's emotional responses and, more importantly, the behavior towards the target.

Meanwhile, brands are often anthropomorphized by both the brand managers and consumers (Aaker, 1997), and the attribution of human-like traits to brands and products can be widely observed in the real-world. As such, academia has also investigated the traits people attribute to brands. For example, Aaker (1997) suggested that brands possess personalities just like humans and developed the brand personality scale from the Big Five personality traits measure. Other marketing concepts such as brand loyalty,

brand reputation, and relational marketing all connote a living organism (Kim & McGill, 2011; Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerich, & Iacobucci, 2010) and support the notion that people form relationships with brands and products in a similar way to how they form relationships with other people (Fournier, 1998). For example, past research has shown that brands can assume the social role of a relationship partner (Fournier, 1998), a fling or friendship (Aaker, Fournier, & Brasel, 2004) and a community (Aggarwal, 2004). Furthermore, depending on the type and quality of the relationship, these perceptions of the human-like characteristics of the brand lead to different behavioral outcomes (Esch, Langner, Schmitt, & Geus, 2006).

Given that brands are often judged using human-like traits, it can be assumed that the warmth and competence dimensions can be applied to brands and brand communities. In line with such theorizing, Aaker, Vohs, and Mogilner (2010) suggested that the warmth and competence dimensions also apply to brands because consumers and potential consumers tend to perceive brands as a personified entity. Kervyn, Fiske, and Malone (2012) theoretically broadened the reach of the warmth and competence dimensions of the Stereotype Content Model to the evaluation of brands. The authors focused on the consumer-brand relationship aspect and proposed the Brands as Intentional Agents Framework (BIAF). They suggested that the manner in which consumers perceive brands is comparable to the manner in which they perceive other people. Consistent with the SCM, in their study, Kervyn et al., (2012) found that consumers perceive brands as fitting the four categories based on warmth and competence evaluations: (1) high competence and high warmth (e.g., Coca-Cola, Johnson & Johnson),

(2) low competence and low warmth (e.g., British Petroleum, Marlboro), (3) high competence but low warmth (e.g., Mercedes, Rolex), and (4) low competence but high warmth (e.g., Amtrak, United States Postal Service). Similar to studies regarding person warmth and competence evaluations, a study by Kirmani and colleagues (2017) indicates that over 88% of Yelp reviews rely on the warmth and/or competence dimensions to evaluate service providers.

Figure 2

Brands as Intentional Agents Framework (Kervyn, Fiske, & Malone, 2012)
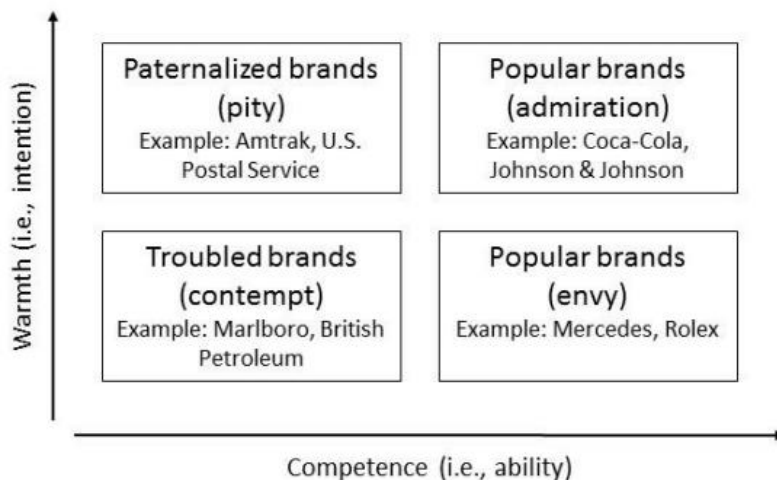
The BIAF has been used to predict both the attitudes and the behavior of consumers towards brands (Ivens, Leischnig, Muller, & Valta, 2015). Malone and Fiske (2013) reported that the perceptions regarding a company's intentions and its ability to achieve them (i.e. perceptions of company's warmth and competence) explain "nearly 50% of all purchase intent, loyalty,

and likelihood to recommend a brand or company." To this end, Kervyn, Bergsieker and Fiske's (2012) and Kervyn, Fiske and Malone's (2012) research and, more recently, Ivens et al.'s (2015) study provide some preliminary findings suggesting that the dimensions of warmth and competence can effectively predict consumer responses to brands as well.

Although past studies in social psychology have established that the *warmth* dimension takes priority in forming attitudes and shaping behavior towards other people (Fiske et al., 2007; Wocjciszke, 2005), studies regarding social groups and brands/organizations have returned mixed results. For example, Aaker and colleagues (2010) found that consumers' willingness to buy products from for-profit organizations were higher than they were for non-profit organizations due to competence perceptions. Furthermore, when cues about the competence of the non-profit organization was provided (i.e., through a credible source and implicit priming), the results were reversed where participants indicated a higher willingness to buy the non-profit organization's product. These results indicate that perceptions of competence take priority when making purchase decisions, while warmth may come into effect only after competence has been established. Aaker, Garbinsky, and Vohs (2012) found similar results in their study where the main effect of competence on purchase intentions for four different product categories (i.e., fast food, gasoline, orange juice, and pain relievers) were found, while warmth revealed no main effects. Kirmani, Hamilton, Thompson and Lantzy (2017) also found similar influences of evaluations about the warmth and competence of service-providers where participants were more likely to choose a highly competent but less moral service provider

over a highly moral but less competent one. Marinova, Singh, and Singh (2018) also found similar results in a service-provider context by comparing the influence of competence and sociability perceptions on customer satisfaction.

Meanwhile some studies indicate that promoting the warmth of a company may be more effective in eliciting consumer behavior. A study by Kolbl, Diamantopoulos, Kalajdzic, and Zabkar (2020) showed that brand warmth consistently and positively influenced consumers' perceptions about the functional and emotional value of products, while brand competence only influenced their perceptions about the functional value of products using a variety of different brands. Furthermore, the authors found that while the overall effect of brand warmth on purchase intentions and brand ownership were significantly positive, brand competence's total effects were not. Also, Infanger and Sczesny (2015) investigated the influence of warmth and competence perceptions on attitudes towards advertisements about a unisex perfume (study 1) and comparisons between a communal product (i.e., baby food; comparable to the warmth dimension) and agentic product (i.e., financial service; comparable to the competence dimension) and found that communal (comparable to warmth) advertisements were rated more favorably than agentic (comparable to competence) advertisements.

The disagreement regarding the importance of the warmth and competence dimensions may be a result of the contexts in which the studies were conducted. First, the target of evaluation may affect the hierarchy of importance placed on the warmth and competence dimensions. When purchasing a physical product, consumers are likely to expect a certain level of quality in the product before

requiring high levels of warmth. For example, in Aaker et al.' s (2010) study the authors measured participants' purchase intentions for notebook bags designed by either a for-profit (high competence) organization or a non-profit (low competence) organization. In the perspective of the consumer, to be willing to purchase a bag, they must be willing to use it, and if they are unsure of the quality of the bag, both in terms of functionality and aesthetics, the warmth of the company would not be reason enough to make a purchase decision, unless it was considered a type of donation. This reasoning is supported by past studies on utilitarian and hedonic benefits which show that utilitarian benefits take priority in functional products while hedonic benefits take priority in experiential products (e.g., Hirshman & Holbrook, 1982; Holbrook, 1986; Mano & Oliver, 1993). In other words, the differential priority placed by consumers on warmth and competence depends on the inherent purpose or reason the product or person exists. For example, in the context of Kirmani et al.' s (2017) study regarding service-providers, the purpose of the service-provider is to help the consumer and make their experience with the brand as smooth as possible. Therefore, the competence of the service-provider is likely to take priority before their perceived warmth.

On the other hand, studies that emphasized the importance of the warmth dimension either used existing brands, or brand advertisements as the stimulus material. For existing brands, it is likely that consumers perceived or expected a certain level of competence. After all, it is highly unlikely that incompetent brands would survive long in the marketplace and familiar brands have proven their competence through their performance. Similarly, for advertisements, incompetent brands are unlikely to have the budget

to create advertisements.

Another aspect that may have blurred the lines in assessing the importance of warmth over competence or vice versa, is the failure to distinguish between morality and sociability perceptions within the warmth dimension. Recent theorizing, as well as a limited number of experimental studies, have suggested that although morality and sociability traits are all prosocial traits (Fiske et al., 2002) and can be seen as falling along the same general warmth dimension, they are conceptually distinct characteristics and play different roles in evaluating individuals and groups (Brambilla, Rusconi, Sacchi, & Cherubini, 2011; Leach, Ellemers, & Barreto, 2007). Whereas sociability pertains to cooperation and to forming connections with others (e.g., friendliness, likeability), morality refers to perceived correctness of social targets (e.g., honesty, sincerity, and trustworthiness). Past empirical studies have also shown morality as a distinct concept from sociability where the three dimensional model of stereotype content was shown to be a better fit than the bi-dimensional one (Lopez-Rodriguez, Cuadrado, & Navas, 2013).

However, past studies regarding the joint or differential influence of all three dimensions is lacking, especially in the consumption context. Some studies have found morality, compared to sociability and competence, to be of primary importance when evaluating individuals (Landy, Piazza, & Goodwin, 2016), in-groups (Leach et al., 2007), and out-groups (Brambilla, Sacchi, Rusconi, Cherubini, & Yzerbyt, 2012). Furthermore, studies that distinguish between sociability and morality have only been conducted regarding the perceptions about social groups and individuals, and not in brand perception contexts. Thus, the current study intends to

apply the three-dimension model (i.e., competence, sociability, morality) to a collegiate sport spectating context.

2.2.2) SCM in Sports and Self-Construal's Moderating Role

Meanwhile, sport inherently embodies and promotes the three dimensions of the Stereotype Content Model. As such, numerous studies in the sport management literature have dealt with the competence of the sports team (e.g., BIRGing and CORFing literature), social aspects of sport consumption (e.g., sense of community), as well as the morality of teams and athletes (e.g., CSR activities, athlete transgressions).

First, of the three dimensions, the competence dimension has been most extensively studied in the sport management field. This is presumably due to the fact that sports, almost by definition, holds the characteristic of competition. Past studies regarding the phenomenon of Basking in Reflected Glory (BIRGing) and Cutting Off from Reflected Failure (CORFing), where individuals tend to distance themselves from losing teams (i.e., CORFing) and more readily display their affiliation with winning teams (i.e., BIRGing; e.g., Cialdini et al., 1976; Wann & Branscombe, 1990; Trail, Kim, Kwon, Harrolle, Braunstein-Minkove, & Dick, 2012; Gladden & Funk, 2002), are quintessential examples of sport studies that deal with the influence of a team's competence. These studies uniformly show that the success and/or failure of a sports team influences the tendency for spectators to display their affiliation with the team, or to hide it.

Secondly, it is also well accepted that sports, and particularly

sports events, inherently have high social value. For example, several researchers in the sports management field have argued for greater attention to the social value that events provide (e.g., Fredline & Faulkner, 2001; Roche, 2000; Chalip, 2006). Also, several studies have reported findings that event organizers (Kim & Uysal, 2003), spectators (Jones, Byon, Williams, & Pedersen, 2020), and residents of host and neighboring communities (Andersson et al., 2004; Deccio & Baloglu, 2002; Kim et al., 2006) all refer to the social impacts of sporting events as a core source of value. In a live sport event spectating context, customer-related value propositions primarily relate to co-created customer contributions where fellow spectators contribute to the overall event atmosphere (Uhrich & Benkenstein, 2012) have been studied. Also, regarding the leveraging of sporting events, Chalip (2006) emphasized the importance of social factors (e.g., liminality and a sense of *communitas*) over economic and spectacle-related (i.e., performance and skill) factors.

In their investigation of physical and social atmospheric effects on the affective responses of sport spectators, Uhrich and Benkenstein (2012) postulated that there are three specific spectator social factors that can directly influence the event atmosphere and impact the pleasure experienced by event spectators: (1) customer density (i.e. how full the stands are during an event), (2) customer appearance (i.e. the wearing of team-related apparel by spectators), and (3) customer behavior (i.e. how loud and supportive spectators are during the live event). As their findings suggest, customers frequently contribute value in the live event setting, often serving as co-producers of the service atmosphere and sometimes functioning as environmental motivators

who positively impact the experience of event spectators. Furthermore, studies regarding the perceived value, spectator motivations, and spectator satisfaction literature all indicate the central role of social aspects, such as social atmosphere and social interaction (e.g., Kim et al., 2013; Uhrich & Benkenstein, 2012).

Finally, the importance of the morality dimension in sports is evidenced by studies regarding corporate social responsibility and athlete/team transgressions. Today, it is well documented that major professional sport leagues and clubs face on- and off-the-field athlete scandals on an ongoing basis, ranging from atrocious crimes (e.g., murder, rape) to violations of basic rules (e.g., traffic lights). These incidents can have a considerable impact on the public image of the sport, league, team, and athlete leading to detrimental consequences for affiliated sponsors, participants, and other stakeholders (Chien et al., 2016; Kwak, Lee, & Chan-Olmsted, 2018). Study results uniformly indicate that scandals usually lead to a negative change in attitude towards the perpetrator (e.g., athlete, coach, organization) and other stakeholders. In terms of moral excellence, corporate social responsibility studies in a sports team/athlete context indicate that CSR usually positively influences the attitudes and behaviors of fans as well as non-fans.

These lines of research point to the importance and prevalence of the competence, sociability, and morality dimensions in the formation and maintenance of fan attitudes towards sports teams. However, very few studies to date have explicitly investigated the influence that individualism-collectivism may have on the differential priorities placed on each dimension, especially in the sports realm. Drawing from the literature on cross-cultural differences in social psychology, consumer behavior, and sports

management that indicate self-construal may moderate the reactions to information regarding each dimension, this study aims to propose that self-construal plays an important role in determining how each dimension differentially influence independents and interdependents.

Several studies support the connection between the importance placed on morality and self-construal. Cojuharenco, Shteynberg, Gelfand, and Schminke (2011) conducted a series of studies about the relationship between self-construal and morality. They argued and found that individuals with interdependent self-construals place more weight on morality because it brings with it a higher sensitivity to social rules. Interdependence was found to be positively correlated to morality more than independence. Gollwitzer and Bucklein (2007) examined self-construal's influence on participants' reactions to justice-related concerns and found that interdependents displayed stronger moral reactions to injustice compared to independents. The authors explain that this is because interdependents are more likely to view norm violations as more harmful to society and more morally wrong.

Studies have compared morality with competence in the sports management field. A recent study by Lee, Kwak and Bagozzi (in press) compared sports fans' choice of coping strategies in reaction to an athlete's transgression. They found that individuals from collectivist cultures chose moral coupling the most, where the individual integrates morality and performance judgements, while individualistic cultures chose moral decoupling strategies the most, where they condemn the wrongdoing, but continue to support the athlete and see the dimensions of morality and performance as separate. Relatedly, Jang, Wu, and Wen (in press) examined how

"meaningful sports consumption (MSC)" could be conceptualized differently based on self-construal. They found that after watching moral-based meaningful sports consumption, sports consumers with an interdependent self-construal exhibited greater intentions to devote their time and money to prosocial activities compared to those with an independent self-construal. However, contrary to their predictions, after watching a skills based MSC, sports consumers with an independent self-construal did not display higher intentions to devote their time and money to self-improvement activities. These studies highlight the importance of considering cultural domains (i.e., self-constural) in sports consumption context because, depending on cultural orientation, the preferences for, experience of, and behavior of sports consumers may differ according to them.

Regarding the social aspects of sports, the act of spectating takes place in the context of social interaction. That is, live sporting events offer a platform for substantial spectator-to-spectator interactions whereby one's actions (e.g., cheering, chanting, hooliganism) directly or indirectly influences others' emotions (Kim & Byon, 2020; Kim, Byon, Baek, & Williams, 2019) and perceived value of the sporting events (Kim, Byeon, & Baek, 2020). Here, spectators might differ in their sensitivity and vulnerability to others' behaviors. Given that self-construal is concerned with individuals' perceived separation or connectedness between themselves and others (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Wang, Ma, & Li, 2015), it is likely that interdependents will react more sensitively to information indicating that other members of the in-group value a particular activity. Indeed, past studies have noted that interdependents (vs. independents) are more motivated to present

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themselves as being normatively appropriate and benevolent towards others, and thus, they tend to engage in more *impression management* by denying normative transgressions (Paulhus & Reid, 1991). Moreover, people raised in collectivistic cultures are better able to engage in impression management automatically than are people raised in individualistic cultures (Riemer & Shavitt, 2011). Similarly, self−construal differences in choice can be attributed to consumers' reliance on different inputs in their decision making. Therefore, consumers with a salient independent self−construal tend to think decisions are a personal matter, and more likely to view their feelings and personal preferences as legitimate inputs to their autonomous decisions, whereas those with a salient interdependent self−construal are more likely to be concerned about fitting in with others' views and normative expectations (Reimer, Shavitt, Koo, & Markus, 2014). Thus, the sociability, or rather the opportunity to be a part of a social event that many other in−group members participate in, should be more attractive to those with interdependent self−construals compared to those with independent self−construals.

The sports management literature also provides some insight on comparing the importance of social aspects and performance aspects of sports. Han, Mahony, and Greenwell (2015) compared the spectator motivations of fans from an individualistic country (i.e., the United States) and fans from a collectivistic country (i.e., South Korea). In their study, the authors divided the motivations into individualistic motives (aesthetics, entertainment, escape, self−esteem, and eustress) and collectivistic motives (community pride, family bonding, team attachment, player attachment, and group affiliation). The results showed that collectivists rated some

collectivistic motives higher than individualists, including community pride, family bonding, and group affiliation, while there were no significant differences in team attachment and player attachment motives. An explanation for that may explain these results is that community pride, family bonding, and group affiliation are relationship-based motives that pertain to fellow spectators, while team and player attachment pertain to the core product (i.e., athletes and team). Thus, it may be reasonable to conject that collectivists value the social relationships over the connection with the team or athletes. Furthermore, as the authors have noted, the non-significant difference in individualistic motives may have been due to the fact that they are common motives for sports fans regardless of their cultural value orientations (Han, Mahony, & Greenwell, 2015), as it is closely connected to hedonic values (Choi et al., 2011), causing most fans to be equivalently motivated by these factors. Koch and Wann (2016) investigated gender differences in the antecedents of sport fandom and team identification. They found that women were significantly more likely to become fans of their favorite team for relationship-based reasons than men, and there were no gender differences in recognition-based reasons. Given that past studies have identified women as being more collectivistic and men more individualistic (e.g., Guimond, Chatard, Martinot, Crisp, & Redersdorff, 2006), these results may have been driven by self-construal differences. The non-significant difference in recognition-based reasons suggests that the importance of being recognized as a fan of a sport or team is equally important for men and women. An alternate explanation may be that recognition of being a fan may represent different things for independents and interdependents. For example,

for independents, recognition may be about others recognizing the individual's affiliation with the team itself, while interdependents may strive to be recognized as a member of the fan community.

The literature review about self-construal and the competence, sociability and morality dimensions suggest that, first, independents tend to place a higher priority on the competence domain compared to interdependents. Meanwhile, interdependents place a higher priority on warmth (i.e., sociability and morality) compared to independents. Thus, the current study suggests the following hypotheses.

H1. University students with an individualistic cultural orientation (i.e., independent self-construal) will display higher attitudes and behavioral intentions when the collegiate sport team is portrayed as competent, compared to when it is portrayed as warm.

H2. University students with a collectivistic cultural orientation (i.e., interdependent self-construal), will display higher attitudes and behavioral intentions when the collegiate sport team is portrayed as warm, compared to when it is portrayed as competent.

In the context of collegiate sports, another important aspect to consider is that competence, sociability and morality of a member of the in-group are all dimensions from which a student of the university may derive a sense of pride, even if they are not directly involved with the sport team. This notion is based in Social Categorization Theory, where the mere cognitive act of categorizing

a group as an in-group promotes in-group bias. Furthermore, unique to the collegiate sports context is that students are placed within a superordinate group (i.e., the university) based on their academic abilities, especially in nations where the higher education system is highly stratified, like Korea. This creates a metric through which students can readily gauge their position in the status hierarchy. These notions of hierarchy and social group are closely related to Social Identity Theory and work regarding the influence of status comparisons and identity threats. Thus, the following section will review the literature on social identity, identity threats and the effects of status on the consumer.

2.3. Social Identity Theory and Identity Threat

Social identity theory was pioneered by Tajfel (1978) as a theory of intergroup relations dealing with the cooperation and conflict between groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), by integrating work on categorization and social perception. Subsequent developments in the theory broadened its scope to become a social psychological theory about general group phenomena and the role the self and identity plays (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). The theory describes how individuals create self-concepts based on their social-identity and their self-identity. Social identity refers to an "individual's knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him of this group membership" (Tajfel, 1972, p. 292). Thus, the self-concept is derived from their knowledge of, and emotional significance attached to the various groups that the individual is associated with. Social identity theory further proposes

that people strive to achieve or maintain a positive social identity, thus boosting their self-esteem, and that this positive identity derives largely from favorable comparisons made between the in-group and out-groups (Tajfel & Turner, 2004). In-groups typically represent the groups that the individuals are members of, identifies with, or at least affiliates with (Turner, 2010), whereas out-groups are all other groups.

The two important processes involved in social identity formation and maintenance are self-categorization and social comparison, with each process resulting in different consequences (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). Self-categorization's consequence is the heightened distinction between the in-group and out-group. Individuals accentuate the perceived similarities between the self and the in-group members on traits such as attitudes, beliefs, values, styles of speech, norms, and any other trait that the individual perceives to be relevant to the categorization. Meanwhile, they also accentuate the differences between the self and out-group members' traits (Stets & Burke, 2000). The consequence of social comparison processes is the selective application of the accentuation effect, primarily to those dimensions that the individual perceives to result in self-enhancing outcomes for the self. For example, one's self-esteem is enhanced by evaluating the in-group and the out-group on dimensions that lead the in-group to be judged positively and the out-group to be judged negatively. Thus, due to the processes of self-categorization and social comparison, the fundamental assumption of social identity theory is that individuals strive to achieve positive social identity, typically by either evaluating the in-group more favorably than the out-group or joining superior out-groups.

However, individuals often face situations in which comparison of groups results in the in-group being negatively perceived either by the individual her/himself, or by some other source (e.g., other in-group members or out-groups). In other words, individuals are constantly exposed to the risk of facing social-identity threats. According to social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), members of negatively distinctive in-groups achieve positive social identity by using three basic strategies. First, individuals may attempt to leave or dissociate themselves form the in-group, referred to as *social mobility* strategies. This type of strategy is in line with the CORFing literature where sport spectators tend to distance themselves from losing or poorly performing teams (Cialdini et al., 1976). Second, individuals may attempt to change the elements of the comparative situation so as to result in more favorable comparison for the in-group, referred to as *social creativity* strategies. For example, social creativity strategies include changing the valence of a negatively distinguishing dimension to make it less disparaging to the in-group, enhancing perceptions of the in-group on dimensions other than the distinguishing dimension, or changing other elements of the comparative situation so as to favor the in-group, such engaging in downward comparisons rather than upward comparisons (Jackson, Sullivan, Harnish, & Hodge, 1996). Example in the sport management literature may include behaviors such as denigration of the superior team on dimensions not related to success (e.g., blasting behavior; Lalonde, 1992), or accentuating the importance of other dimensions related to their fanship or fan communities such as superior loyalty (e.g., BIRFing; Campbell, Aiken, & Kent, 2004). Third, individuals may compete directly with the out-group to

produce real changes in the relative status of the two groups, referred to as *social change* strategies. Social change strategies typically involve mobilizing members of the in-group to confront out-group members to change the status quo, which is not common in a sport spectator context because as spectators, they have no direct means of improving the performance of the team.

Tajfel and Turner (1979) suggested that social mobility (i.e., individual strategies) is the dominant strategy for achieving positive social identity (van Knippenberg, 1978, 1984). Similarly, Taylor and McKirnan's (1984) five-stage model of intergroup relations suggest that individuals will engage in social mobility strategies first, then in collective strategies if attempts at mobility are unsuccessful or impossible. Research has generally supported the view that social mobility strategies are prepotent (Taylor, Moghaddam, Gamble, & Zellerer, 1987; Wright, Taylor, & Moghaddam, 1990), although both theory and research suggest that individual and collective strategies may be used simultaneously.

The key determining factor that influences the choice between an individual strategy (i.e., social mobility) and collective strategies (i.e., social creativity and social change) is suggested to be the perceived *permeability* of group boundaries (i.e., the possibility of individual mobility to another group; Ellemers et al., 1988). According to Ellemers et al. (1988), social creativity should be preferred when boundaries are impermeable (i.e., changing group membership is not a realistic possibility), whereas social mobility should be preferred when boundaries are permeable (i.e., changing group membership is possible). In support of Ellemers et al. (1988) past studies have generally found this to be true (Ellemers, Wilke, & van Knippenberg, 1993; Ellemers, van Knippenberg, de Vries, &

Wilke, 1988). In the context of the current study, once university students enroll to a university, there is relatively little realistic possibility to transfer to a higher status university. This would require time for preparation and would result in prolonging their undergraduate studies. Furthermore, the university from which an individual has graduated tends to follow them throughout their career and lifespan as a sort of label or achievement (depending on the status of the university). Thus, current students are embedded into the university social group with relatively little permeability between groups, and are constantly reminded of their position in the hierarchy of schools.

As mentioned before, individualistic and collectivistic tendencies are subject to contextual influences. Notably, the literature indicates that group status influences the degree to which individuals display individualistic or collectivistic tendencies. Sociologists (e.g., Bourdieu, 1984), and social psychologists (e.g., Grossmann & Varnum, 2011; Johnson, Richeson, & Finkel, 2011) have reported social class differences in the propensity to emphasize one's uniqueness and independence from others in the environment. People from lower social classes exhibit less personal uniqueness than people from higher social classes. For example, prior studies have noted that ethnic identity is more salient and meaningful for members of minority groups (e.g., Grier & Deshpande, 2001; Tajfel, 1982; Gaines et al., 1997; Phinney, 1996), while the pursuit of uniqueness and self-enhancement is more prominent among majority groups compared to minority groups (Sekaquaptewa, Waldman, & Thompson, 2007).

Research on gender highlights similar differences between men and women, in terms of their self-construals. Men's self-

construals emphasize independence, autonomy, and self-reliance, whereas women's self-construals stress interdependence and connectedness with others (Cross & Madson, 1997; Guimond, Chatard, Martinot, Crisp, & Redersdorff, 2006; Walsh & Smith, 2007). Most accounts of social class, ethnic, and gender effects on propensities to stress individual distinctiveness are based on socialization histories. In other words, people from lower social classes are educated to value interdependence, while people form higher strata are educated to value independence (e.g., Kraus, Piff, Mendoza-Denton, Rheinschmidt, & Keltner, 2012; Kusserow, 1999; Stephens, Markus, & Fryberg, 2012). Similarly, men are typically overrepresented in power and decision-making roles, and such roles demand agency, thus, men are expected to express independence and uniqueness, while women are expected to express communion and conformity (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Prentice & Carranza, 2002). Not only do these differences in self-construal occur in objective status measures (e.g., ethnic majority vs. minority, educational attainment, income, occupational status) but also occur in subjective perceptions of status (e.g., upward and downward social comparisons: Kraus et al., 2009), and minimal groups (e.g., participants' assigned to low- and high-status groups through random assignment; Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1998), indicating that such changes in tendencies may be a type of defense mechanism.

The motivation to protect and pursue a sense of positive self-worth has often been used to interpret these individualistic and collectivistic difference that occur as a function of status (e.g., Iacoviello, Lorenzi-Cioldi, & Chipeaux, 2018). Indeed, dismissal of uniqueness for the benefit of in-group assimilation can buffer

against identity threat (Simon, 1998). As a consequence, members of disadvantaged groups tend to derive their self−conceptions from features that apply to their group as a whole, while those at the top of the hierarchy emphasize their personal and idiosyncratic characteristics (Lorenzi−Cioldi, 2006; Postmes, Haslam, & Swaab, 2005). Meanwhile high−status individuals promoting uniqueness, agency, and individual ability implies self−merit and that they are the makers of their own fate (Kraus, Piff, & Keltner, 2009).

As it relates to the current study, the prior literature on group status indicates that self−construal plays an important role in determining the reactions individuals have to information regarding the superiority (high status) or inferiority (low status) of their social identity. In other words, interdependent and interdependent individuals may cope with negative information about their social identities in a different manner. For example, Argo, White, and Sengupta (2012) found that those with more independent self−construals tended to avoid identity−linked products when that identity was threatened, while those with more interdependent self−construals demonstrated more positive preferences for the threatened identity−linked products. The authors explained that social−identity threats activate different needs for independents and interdependents. While a threat to the social identity activates self−worth needs for independents, for interdependents it activates a need for belongingness.

Yet, past studies suggesting the dissociative responses of independents and associative responses of interdependents simply provided participants with a dichotomous choice between identity−linked or non−identity linked products. However, the symbolic nature of the product may influence how independents and

interdependents differentially react to the same identity-linked product (Bernritter, Loermans, Verlegh, & Smit, 2015; Lalwani & Shavitt, 2013; Shavitt, 1990). As mentioned before, the self-construal literature indicates that independents have chronic self-enhancement motives (Tsai, Chiang, & Lau, 2015), prioritizes opportunities for self-gain (Jung & Avolio, 1999), and self-fulfillment (Oyserman et al., 2002), causing them to continuously affirm their relative strengths (Tsai, Chiang, & Lau, 2015). Furthermore, independents' analytical thinking styles cause them to search for relative strengths within the confines of a particularly salient context. For example, when exposed to a social group threat, independents displayed more in-group favoritism than interdependents, by bolstering their opinion of domains other than the threatened domain (Nakashima, Isobe, & Ura, 2008). Furthermore, as mentioned in the Stereotype Content Model section of the literature review, individuals perceive the warmth of an individual member of a social group to be more representative of the social group as a whole than the competence of the individual (Brambilla et al., 2012).

Applied to the current study, individualistic university students that are faced with a university ranking threat, should activate their self-enhancement motives and seek other domains within the confines of their university identity through which they can affirm superiority. When exposed to information about their university's competent soccer team, it does not necessarily represent the competence of the entire university, but merely the competence of the soccer team itself. Meanwhile, when exposed to information about the warmth of their soccer team, it should be perceived as being more representative of the university body as a whole. Thus,

it is hypothesized that in the low university ranking condition, individualists will display heightened preferences for the warm sport team, and lower preferences for the competent team, compared to the high university ranking condition. Formally, the following hypothesis was suggested:

H3: For university students with a relatively independent self-construal, there will be an interaction effect between university status (high vs. low university ranking) and sport team stimulus type (competence vs. warmth) on their attitudes and behavioral intentions toward the sport team. Specifically, the effect of sport team competence cues will be attenuated in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition, while the effects of sport team warmth cues will be accentuated in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition.

On the other hand, interdependents define their self-concepts in terms of their group membership (Trafimow et al., 1991), have higher belongingness needs (White, Argo, & Sengupta, 2012), and value group harmony and conformity to group norms or the group average (Schwartz, 1994; Jung & Avolio, 1999). Therefore, while independents seek to maximize their self-worth by emphasizing relative strengths (i.e., positive distinctiveness), interdependents are more keen on their relative weaknesses. This is due to interdependents' tendency to use self-criticism in an adaptive nature because their awareness of their shortcomings aids self-improvement efforts that are needed to function harmoniously with others (e.g., Heine, 2003; Heine et al., 2001; Kitayama et al., 1997).

In other words, ability threats should lead to a heightened importance placed on the value of competence amongst interdependents. In the context of the current study, according to the value−congruence effect of stimuli, it is expected that interdependents faced with a university ranking threat (i.e., ability threat), interdependents should place a heightened importance on competence.

In the case of warmth information, interdependents activate belongingness needs in the face of social identity threats and seek to associate more with social groups they more strongly identify with and distance themselves from groups that they do not identify with (White, Argo, & Sengupta, 2012; Nakashima, Isobe, & Ura, 2008). Thus, in the context of the current study, interdependents' favorability of the warmth of a sport team to which they have no real social connection would decrease in the face of a university ranking threat. Upon this background, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H4: For university students with a relatively interdependent self− construal, there will be an interaction effect between university status (high vs. low university ranking) and sport team stimulus type (competence vs. warmth) on their attitudes and behavioral intentions toward the sport team. Specifically, the effect of sport team competence cues will be accentuated in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition, while the effects of sport team warmth cues will be attenuated in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition.

2.4. Team vs. Fan Community-Related Cues

As mentioned in the introduction, one often cited function of collegiate sports teams is its usefulness as a marketing tool, also known as the "Flutie Effect." Indeed, past studies have found that successful collegiate teams can influence prospective students, alumni, and local communities. The success of collegiate sports teams has been found to be related to increased quality (Cox & Roden, 2010; Tucker & Amato, 1993) and quantity (Murphy & Trandel, 1994; Ehrman & Marber, 2008) of applicants, increased alumni donations (Holmes, 2009), enhanced school spirit (Roy, Graeff & Harmon, 2008), and increased community spirit (Grieve & Sherry, 2012). These studies indicate that the reputation or image of a collegiate team influences the attitudes and behaviors of not only current students, but also people that are not directly involved in the university, such as the local community and prospective students. However, most past studies in the sports field have investigated only the success of the team (i.e., competence) on student and non-student samples. As evidenced in the literature review of the Stereotype Content Model, impressions about the personality, culture, and image of an entity are not solely based on competence judgements.

The focus on only the competence of the sports team (e.g., championships or win-loss records) fails to take into account the role of the fan community. The past literature on concepts such as satisfaction (Matsuoka, Chelladurai, & Harada, 2003; Trail, Anderson, & Fink, 2005; Yoshida & James, 2010), psychological commitment (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Mahony, Madrigal, & Howard, 2000), attachment (Funk & James, 2006; Laverie & Arnett, 2000),

and team identification (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Heere & James, 2007; Trail & James, 2001; Wann & Branscombe, 1993) indicates that the process of consuming sports is not solely based on attachment to one particular entity (e.g., the team). Past studies indicate that many points of attachment exist such as the sport itself, athletes, coaches (Kwon, Trail, & Anderson, 2005), local city (Mahoney et al., 2002), athletic level (Kwon et al., 2005), the university (Kwon et al., 2005; Trail et al., 2003), and the fan community (Katz & Heere, 2013).

An understanding of the fan community is an important, but often neglected, aspect of sport consumption. The brand community literature suggests that consumers become attached not only to the brand itself, but also to the other consumers, thereby forming a particular kind of community in which the consumer interacts on a regular basis (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001; Schouten & McAlexander, 1995). In their investigation of the mechanisms that influence consumer loyalty, Hung (2014) found that both brand attachment and community identification significantly contributed to consumer loyalty. Furthermore, comparison of regression coefficients indicated that brand community identification exerted a larger effect on consumer loyalty than brand attachment.

Research regarding sport fans have also highlighted similar phenomena. For example, camaraderie (Kahle, Kambra, & Rose, 1996) and sense of peer-group affiliation (Swanson, Gwinner, Larson, & Janda, 2003) were found to be predictive of attending college football games. Katz and Heere (2013) found that many of the fans at the home games of a college football team did not necessarily identify with the team itself, yet they attended the games because they had developed an attachment to the other fans.

Finally, Yoshida, Heere, and Gordon (2015) conducted a longitudinal study through which they found that fan community attachment was more predictive of attendance frequency than other constructs that are frequently used to predict attendance, such as team identification and satisfaction. These results are in line with the notion that fans are co-creators of value and the entertainment experience (Holt, 1995). Fans often share communal experiences such as clapping, booing, talking, singing in unison, and doing group chants (Melnick, 1993) which all add to the overall atmosphere.

Thus, the fans also represent a highly visible and prominent aspect of sport consumption. Given that people form attitudes and stereotypes not only about brands, but about groups of people as well, it is surprising that the sport management literature has not investigated how the image or perceptions about a fan community can influence the general public.

The marketing literature indicates that personality traits attributed to a brand are also applied to its users (Fennis & Pruyn, 2007; Govers & Schoormans, 2005). For example, if Mercedes is perceived as a brand high in competence but relatively low in warmth (see Kervyn et al., 2012), users of this brand will also be socially stereotyped as competent but not warm (Fennis & Pruyn, 2007). Research on brand symbolism concurs with this view. The products individuals adopt often reflect their social roles (Chaplin & Lowrey, 2010; Englis & Solomon, 1996) and allows them to show that they belong to cherished groups (White & Dahl, 2006). Brand symbolism influences the process of social categorization (Chaplin & Lowrey, 2010) and identifies different consumer groups (Englis & Solomon, 1996; Lowrey, Englis, Shavitt, & Solomon, 2001). Cognitive inferences also define aspirational groups (Englis &

Solomon, 1996) and these prejudices are learned from childhood onwards (Chaplin & Lowrey, 2010). All these processes rest on the idea that the image of a brand affects the social perception of its users.

According to the aforementioned studies, perceptions about a fan community may also be a powerful driver of positive attitudes and sport consumption. Yet not all communities are alike. For example, Philadelphia is famous for housing some of the most notorious sports fans. Duke basketball fans are famous for their creative group chants, on top of being a prestigious school, Penn State University is famous for their "white out" where fans coordinate to all wear white to the stadium, and other numerous examples can be found. As mentioned in the section about the Stereotype Content Model, impressions of social groups have an impact on the attitudes and behavior of individuals. Thus, it is likely that the different perceptions about a fan community is likely to influence the attitudes of outsiders, in this case, the general public (i.e., non-students).

Work on tourism and destination image further support this notion that a community of people can be the basis of evaluation for an industry in which they are a part of. In the case of tourism, the residents of the area can be the basis for evaluating the tourist destination, while for collegiate sports, the fan community can be the basis for evaluation of the collegiate sporting experience. For examples, studies on tourism using the Stereotype Content Model indicate stereotypes about the destination (i.e., perceived warmth and competence) influence consumers' positive evaluations of products, brands, and services provided by a particular country (Motsi & Park, 2019; Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2013) and intentions

to visit (Shen, Lu, Lin, & Li, 2019; Micevski, Diamantopoulos, & Erdbrugger, 2020). Given that the Stereotype Content Model was created on the basis of impressions about people, these perceptions were likely to be about the residents of the destination, or at least the anthropomorphized nation. More relatedly, scholars have noted that residents' characteristics, behavior, and reputation could make a city more attractive to visitors, new residents, investors, and companies (Braun et al., 2013). For instance, Freire (2009) reveals that the perceived degree of friendliness in local peoples' attitudes is a crucial element in destination evaluation. Also, Vanolo (2008) seeing the local people as one part of the creative image of the city of Turin. Similarly, Braun, Kavaratzis, and Zenker (2013) suggested that residents of a destination act as city ambassadors and the views of residents are significant for external target markets as they are naturally considered informal, authentic and insider sources of information about the place. This notion also implies that the images portrayed by the residents have a significant influence on external target markets.

Based on the aforementioned studies, the current study proposes that perceptions about the focal team and the fan community will differentially affect the attitudes and behavioral intentions of the general public depending on the individual’s dominant self-construal (i.e., independent versus interdependent). Furthermore, the warmth dimension will be further categorized into the sociability and morality dimensions. Specifically, based on the value-congruence effect of attitude formation and the tendency of independents to emphasize core attributes while interdependents place greater weight on communal cues, it is expected that interdependents will be affected more by fan community related

characteristics while independents will be affected more by team related cues. Formally, the following hypotheses and research questions will be pursued.

H5. Perceived team traits (i.e., team competence, team sociability, and team morality) will positively influence individuals' attitudes and behavioral intentions towards a collegiate sport team.

H6. Perceived fan community traits (i.e., fan community competence, fan community sociability, and fan community morality) will positively influence individuals' attitudes and behavioral intentions towards a collegiate sport team.

H7. Self-construal will moderate the positive relationship between perceived team traits (competence sociability, morality) and attitude and behavioral intentions towards a collegiate sport team.

H8. Self-construal will moderate the positive relationship between perceived fan community traits (competence, sociability, and morality) and attitude and behavioral intentions towards a collegiate sport team.

Chapter 3. Study 1

3.1. Purpose and Hypotheses

Study 1 was designed to investigate the influence of university status, cultural orientation (individualism vs. collectivism) and cue type (competence vs. warmth) on the attitudes towards the university sport team, future spectating intentions, positive word of mouth intentions, university sport team merchandise purchase intentions, and university pride of current students.

Past studies investigating the Stereotype Content Model dimensions in a consumption context have focused mainly on brands and organizations as the target of evaluation. The relationship between a consumer and a brand is likely to be defined as an exchange relationship which is evaluated based on the *quid pro quo* exchange principle (Clark & Mills, 1979). Yet, sport teams are more ambiguous in nature, and in these ambiguous relationships, people actively search for cues to interpret is as communal or exchange terms (Batson, 1993). The review of literature allows us to theorize that individualists will more likely view the university sport team more in exchange relationship terms where personal benefits (such as superiority in the team's core function (i.e., competence) and social benefits to the self (i.e., sociability) are prioritized. While collectivists will view sport teams in communal relationship terms, where social benefits (i.e., sociability) and higher sensitivity to social rules (i.e., morality) are more important than winning and losing. Thus, it is expected that the superior warmth will be preferred over competence for collectivists, and superior competence will be preferred over warmth for individualists.

Furthermore, individualists (i.e., independents) are more susceptible to cues that relate to the core functionality of a product (Friedmann & Lowengart, 2016) and show less regard for relationships and opinions of others (Reimer, Shavitt, Koo, & Markus, 2015), due to their analytical style of thinking (Chiu, 1972; Lee, Youn, & Nayakankuppam, 2015). Given that the main functionality of a sport team is to win and display high physical ability and skill, it is predicted that cues regarding the competence of a university sport team will be viewed more positively by individualists compared to cues regarding the warmth of the team.

H1. University students with an individualistic cultural orientation (i.e., independent self-construal) will display higher attitudes and behavioral intentions when the collegiate sport team is portrayed as competent, compared to when it is portrayed as warm.

Meanwhile, past studies have indicated that collectivists tend to value the *warmth* dimension above the *competence* dimension (Abele, Hauke, Peters, Louvet, Szymkow, & Duan, 2016). However, most studies have not distinguished between the sociability and morality dimensions within the warmth dimension. The few extant studies that have distinguished between sociability and warmth have been done in a person or social group context, but not in a consumption context, nevertheless an experiential consumption context. With regards to the sociability dimension, past studies that suggest collectivists are more motivated by relational reasons (Han, Mahony, & Greenwell, 2015; Koch & Wann, 2016), find advertisements highlighting social relationships more persuasive

(Choi, Liu, & Li, 2018), are more susceptible to norms and peer attitudes (Yang & Mattila, 2020), tend to be less forgiving of moral violations (Gollwitzer & Bucklein, 2007) even when an athlete or brand is highly competent (Lee, Kwak, & Bagozzi, 2020), and are more aversive to competitive situations (Cross & Vick, 2001). Thus, the current study proposes that cues regarding the warmth of a university sport team will be viewed more positively by collectivists compared to cues regarding the competence of the team.

H2. University students with a collectivistic cultural orientation (i.e., interdependent self-construal), will display higher attitudes and behavioral intentions when the collegiate sport team is portrayed as warm, compared to when it is portrayed as competent.

3.2. Methodology

3.2.1) Stimulus Development and Pretests

Two pretests were conducted to develop stimulus material that adequately manipulates the competence and warmth dimensions. Pretest 1 was conducted with the purpose of selecting individual descriptors that are perceived as high in their respective intended dimensions and relatively neutral in the other (i.e., high in competence and neutral in warmth for competence descriptors, and high in warmth and neutral in competence for warmth descriptors). Soccer was selected as the sport team of interest for the stimulus material. The rationale behind selecting soccer is in

consideration of the fact that in the United States, American Football or basketball are by far the most popular sports in terms of viewership and exposure. Thus, students of the university are likely to have a general idea (or detailed knowledge) about the team's performance and history. These preconceptions are likely to influence participants' reactions to the stimulus articles and, therefore, it was deemed necessary to select a sport that has limited exposure and/or popularity, but at the same time a sport that people are somewhat interested in. Although, soccer at the professional and international level does have a significant fan base in both the United States and Korea, viewership at the collegiate level is limited. Therefore, it was deemed that collegiate soccer would be comparable between the nations and, thus, appropriate for the sport team of interest in this study.

Prior to conducting pretest 1, first, a list of potential descriptors about a collegiate sport team that relate to the team's competence and warmth were generated by referencing past social perception and sport literature, as well as various sport websites, news articles, and discussion boards. An initial list consisting of 20 competence descriptors and 20 warmth descriptors were compiled (40 descriptors in total). After discussions with sport management professors and doctorial students, 11 competence and 12 warmth descriptors were selected to be pretested.

Participants for Pretest 1 were gathered through convenience sampling from both the United States and Korea. The choice to recruit participants from the two countries was to check for national differences in competence and warmth perceptions about the same descriptors. The back translation method was used to translate descriptors where the descriptors were first constructed in English

and then translated to Korean and then back to English. The differences were reconciled and translated back to Korean to create the final versions of the descriptors. Back translations were carried out by four bilingual Korean Americans.

After obtaining approval from the Seoul National University Internal Review Board (IRB# 2016/001−018), a total of 250 participants were recruited, of which 125 were collected from the United States and 125 were collected from Korea. After removing insincere responses, the final sample consisted of 233 participants (US participants: n=118, Korean participants: n=115). Participants were randomly presented with 10 descriptors from the list of 23 potential descriptors. In an attempt to minimize the accumulative effects of each subsequent descriptor, the participants were told that each descriptor refers to a different soccer team. After each descriptor, participants were asked to rate the perceived competence and warmth of the team described with five items each on a 7−point bipolar scale (e.g., −3=cold, +3=warm). The competence and warmth scales were also presented in a randomized order.

A series of paired sample t−tests were conducted to compare competence and warmth ratings for each descriptor. Results indicated that all competence descriptors were rated significantly higher in perceived competence compared to perceived warmth and all but one warmth descriptor were rated higher in perceived warmth compared to perceived competence (Table 1). A simple comparison of means was used to select seven competence and seven warmth descriptors where the mean differences were greatest, while the non−primary dimension was as close to neutral as possible (i.e., near 0). The final list of selected descriptors can

be seen in Table 2.

Once the list of seven competence and seven warmth descriptors were established, pretest 2 was conducted to verify the perceived competence and warmth stimulus material. In other words, to test that the perceived competence exceeds the perceived warmth for the competence stimulus and that the perceived warmth exceeds the perceived competence for warmth stimulus. Also, pretest 2 verified that the perceived competence of the competence stimulus was significantly greater than the perceived competence of the warmth stimulus, and the perceived warmth of the warmth stimulus was significantly greater than the perceived warmth of the competence stimulus.

A total of 250 participants were gathered for Pretest 2 through convenience sampling and after removing insincere responses, the final sample consisted of 243 participants. Participants were recruited from both the United States ($n = 116$) and Korea ($n = 128$) to check for national differences in competence and warmth perceptions. Participants were told that they would be presented with a list of descriptions about a collegiate soccer team that has been gathered from various news articles. They were then presented with either the seven competence (i.e., competence condition) or seven warmth (i.e., warmth condition) descriptors in randomized order. Next, the participants were asked to report their perceived competence and warmth of the collegiate soccer team on a 7-point Likert-type scale. The perceived competence and perceived warmth scales were presented in randomized order.

Table 1.

Pretest 1 Paired-samples t-test Results

Descriptor	Mean Difference (Competence – Warmth)	SD	t-value
Competence 1	**1.49**	**1.11**	**13.55*****
Competence 2	1.16	1.05	11.20***
Competence 3	1.13	1.12	9.98***
Competence 4	1.41	1.08	13.05***
Competence 5	**1.44**	**1.15**	**12.45*****
Competence 6	**1.52**	**1.12**	**13.71*****
Competence 7	**1.76**	**1.22**	**14.59*****
Competence 8	**1.61**	**1.17**	**13.97*****
Competence 9	**1.57**	**1.35**	**11.71*****
Competence 10	**1.72**	**1.20**	**14.40*****
Competence 11	1.41	1.03	13.85***
Warmth 1	**-1.46**	**-1.10**	**13.33*****
Warmth 2	-0.80	1.07	-7.57***
Warmth 3	**-1.50**	**1.03**	**-14.75*****
Warmth 4	-1.04	1.08	-9.61***
Warmth 5	**-1.29**	**1.03**	**-12.69*****
Warmth 6	**-1.37**	**1.04**	**-13.13*****
Warmth 7	-0.13	1.44	-0.91
Warmth 8	**-1.78**	**1.35**	**-13.18*****
Warmth 9	**-1.59**	**1.16**	**-13.80*****
Warmth 10	**-1.53**	**1.12**	**-13.76*****
Warmth 11	-0.91	0.90	-10.14***
Warmth 12	-0.95	1.05	-9.07***

Note. *** $p < .001$. Bolded items indicate the descriptors that were selected to be used in the stimulus material.

Table 2

Selected Descriptors for Final Stimulus Material

	Descriptor	Perceived Competence	Perceived Warmth
C1	Of the 20 games played last season, they won 16 games, lost 3, and 1 draw (Winning rate 80.0%).	2.14	0.65
C5	Offensively, the team ranked 2nd in the nation in goals-per-game (2.50).	2.15	0.72
C6	Offensively, the team ranked 2nd in total goals (50 total goals).	2.16	0.64
C7	Offensively, the team ranked 1st in total assists (51) and points (167) and 2nd in corners per game (9.11).	2.38	0.61
C8	Defensively, the team's defense ranks 2nd in the nation in goals-against average (0.384).	2.23	0.62
C9	Defensively, the team's defense ranks 1st in shutouts with 15 shutouts in 20 games (75.0%).	2.15	0.58
C10	Defensively, the team has allowed only 11 goals last season.	2.25	0.52
W1	The team organizes the most number of fan-friendly programs such as the annual "Meet the Team Night" during the season.	0.66	2.12
W3	The team has the most number of starting members (3) that have been awarded the 2020 Community Service Award.	0.71	2.21
W5	The team is known for their unique pre-game ritual where all team members take selfies with the fans	0.74	2.03
W6	The team was voted the most well-mannered team by league referees.	0.70	2.07
W8	The team has the most frequent voluntary community service participation in the league.	0.46	2.24
W9	The team ranked 1st in total amount donated to charity.	0.60	2.19
W10	Team has the most voluntary community service hours by any team in the league.	0.68	2.22

An independent samples t-test analysis was conducted to verify that the perceived competence of the team was greater for the competence stimulus compared to the warmth stimulus, and that the perceived warmth was greater for the warmth stimulus compared to the competence stimulus. Analysis of the perceived competence ratings indicated that people perceived the team as more competent when presented with the competence stimulus (M = 6.21) than when presented with the warmth stimulus (M = 4.13; $t(241)$ = 19.392, $p < .05$). Similarly, participants rated the team's warmth as higher when presented with the warmth stimulus (M = 6.41) than when presented with the competence stimulus (M = 4.23; $t(241)$ = 23.89, $p < .05$). Furthermore, a series of paired samples t-test analyses verified that the perceived competence (M = 6.21) significantly exceeded the perceived warmth (M = 4.13; $t(122)$ = 18.56, $p < .05$) for the competence stimulus. Similarly, the perceived warmth (M = 6.41) significantly exceeded the perceived competence (M = 4.13; $t(119)$ = 26.04, $p < .05$) for the warmth stimulus.

A final set of independent samples t-tests were conducted to check for national differences in competence and warmth perceptions. Results indicated that there were no statistically significant national differences between perceived competence (M_{US} = 6.12, M_{KOR} = 6.29, $p > .05$) and perceived warmth (M_{US} = 4.33, M_{KOR} = 4.15, $p > .05$) for the competence stimulus. Similarly, there were no statistically significant national differences between perceived competence (M_{US} = 4.24, M_{KOR} = 4.02, $p > .05$) and perceived warmth (M_{US} = 6.50, M_{KOR} = 6.31, $p > .05$) for the warmth stimulus as well.

3.2.2) Study 1 Participants

Following procedural recommendations from previous studies (e.g., Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006; Tung, 2008), Study 1 was designed as a cross-national study that assumes cultural differences between nations (i.e., individualism vs. collectivism). The United States sample was used to represent the individualistic culture condition and the South Korean sample was used to represent the collectivistic culture condition, based on Hofstede's Individualism-Collectivism Index, and relevant past studies (e.g., Lee, Kwak, & Bagozzi, 2020; Han, Mahony, & Greenwell, 2015; Sung & Tinkham, 2005).

Participants were recruited through convenience sampling from 14 universities across Korea and 7 universities in the United States all of which have an active intercollegiate soccer team. Participation was open to all students of the targeted universities as long as they were over the age of 18 (due to IRB restrictions). Data collection was achieved via online survey created using the Qualtrics online survey tool. A total of 490 current university students in the United States (n = 245) and South Korea (n = 245) participated in Study 1. After removing 13 insincere responses, the final sample consisted of 477 participants (n_{US} = 240, n_{KOR} = 237). This sample size exceeds the minimum required sample size of 256 participants (medium effect size [f = 0.25], α = .05, 1 − β = 0.80), according to a-priori sample size calculations conducted using the G*Power statistical software (Heinrich Heine University Düsseldorf, Düsseldorf, Germany; Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). Participants were mostly male (65.0%). Ages ranged from 18 to 31 years (M = 22.0, SD = 2.29),

and 22.6% were freshmen, 18.9% were sophomores, 26.2% were juniors and 32.3% were seniors. A summary of participant compositions per group can be found in Table 3.

3.2.3) Study 1 Procedure

Participants were first presented with an information sheet explaining the terms and conditions of participating in the current study, followed by a consent form in accordance with Seoul National University's IRB guidelines.

Upon consent, participants were informed that they would be presented with information about their university's intercollegiate soccer team that had been gathered from various news articles. They were randomly presented with either the competence stimulus or the warmth stimulus that had been developed through the pretests.

Participants were required to read the stimulus material for a minimum of 15 seconds (i.e., they were restricted from continuing to the next page) before continuing to answer questions regarding the participants' attitude toward the team, behavioral intentions (intention to attend future games, merchandise purchase intentions, and positive word-of-mouth intentions), and university pride. Next, data about each participant's self-construal (i.e., cultural orientation) and perceived competence and warmth of the team were collected as manipulation check items. Finally, demographic information on their current university, grade level, age, gender, and ethnicity (only for US participants) were collected.

Table 3

Study 1 Demographic Characteristics

Variable	Overall						US Sample						Korea Sample					
	Total		Comp		Warmth		**Total**		Comp		Warmth		**Total**		Comp		Warmth	
	n	**%**	n	%	n	%	**n**	**%**	n	%	n	%	**n**	**%**	n	%	n	%
Age																		
18-20	**136**	**28.5**	78	32.2	58	24.7	**78**	**32.5**	46	37.1	32	27.6	**58**	**24.5**	32	27.1	26	21.8
21-23	**232**	**48.6**	107	44.2	125	53.2	**112**	**46.7**	51	41.1	61	52.6	**120**	**50.6**	56	47.5	64	53.8
24-26	**88**	**18.4**	45	18.6	43	18.3	**36**	**15.0**	19	15.3	17	14.7	**52**	**21.9**	26	22.0	26	21.8
27-29	**20**	**4.2**	12	5.0	8	3.4	**13**	**5.4**	8	6.5	5	4.3	**7**	**3.0**	4	3.4	3	2.5
30 and over	**1**	**0.2**	0	0	1	0.4	**1**	**0.4**	0	0.0	1	0.9	**0**	**0**	0	0.0	0	0.0
Gender																		
Male	**310**	**65.0**	157	64.9	153	65.1	**157**	**65.4**	77	62.1	80	69.0	**153**	**64.6**	80	67.8	73	61.3
Female	**164**	**34.4**	85	35.1	79	33.6	**80**	**33.3**	47	37.9	33	28.4	**84**	**35.4**	38	32.2	46	38.7
Other	**3**	**0.6**	0	0	3	1.3	**3**	**1.3**	0	0	3	2.6	**0**	**0**	0	0	0	0
Grade																		
Freshman	**108**	**22.6**	58	24.0	50	21.3	**43**	**17.9**	22	17.7	21	18.1	**65**	**27.4**	36	30.5	29	24.4
Sophomore	**90**	**18.9**	46	19.0	44	18.7	**37**	**15.4**	20	16.1	17	14.7	**53**	**22.4**	26	22.0	27	22.7
Junior	**125**	**26.2**	65	26.9	60	25.5	**58**	**24.2**	32	25.8	26	22.4	**67**	**28.3**	33	28.0	34	28.6
Senior	**154**	**32.3**	73	30.2	81	34.5	**102**	**42.5**	50	40.3	52	44.8	**52**	**21.9**	23	19.5	29	24.4

3.2.4) Study 1 Instrumentation

Competence and *Warmth* was measured through ten-items (5 items each) used by Halkias and Diamantopoulos (2020), adapted from Aaker et al. (2010). Participants were asked to "indicate the degree to which you feel the (XYZ) University Team is…" followed by competence and warmth items. Competence and warmth items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale. Competence items include competent, capable, skillful, efficient, and talented. Warmth items include warm, likable, approachable, kind, friendly.

Attitude toward the Team was measured using a five-item 7-point semantic-differential scale adapted from Mackenzie and Lutz (1989) and Jun and Holland (2012). Items include "Good-Bad," "Favorable-Unfavorable," "Positive-Negative," "Like very much-Dislike very much," and "Interesting-Uninteresting."

Behavioral Intentions consisted of the following four behaviors of interest: (1) intention to spectate future games, (2) team merchandise purchase intention, and (3) positive word of mouth intention.

Intention to Attend Future Games was measured using the five-item scale by Cunningham and Kwon (2003). Items include "I intend to attend a [team] game during the season," "Attending a [team] game this season is something I plan to do," and "I will try to attend a [team] game during the season. Scale items will be measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree)

Team Merchandise Purchase Intentions was measured using a three-item scale adopted from Kim & James (2016). Items include "I intend to purchase [team] merchandise," "I will purchase

[team] merchandise in the future," and "I would like to purchase [team] merchandise." Scale items will be measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree)

Positive Word of Mouth Intention captures the willingness to recommend the team to others and was measured by adapting the four-item scale of Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996). The original scale was designed for positive word-of-mouth about brands, thus the current study slightly modified the items to fit the current study. The four items include "I will spread positive word of mouth about my university soccer team", "I will recommend my university soccer team to those close to me", "I will spread positive information about my university soccer team", and "I will talk up my university soccer team." Scale items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree).

University Pride was measured using a five-item 7-point Likert-type scale borrowed from Gouthier and Rhein (2011). Items include "I proud to be a student of my university", "I am proud to tell others that I am a student of my university", "I have a feeling of joy to be a part of my university", "I am proud to be associated to my university", and "I have a feeling that my university is doing meaningful things." Scale items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree).

The validity and reliability of the measures were assessed by conducting a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) using the MPlus 7.3 software. The fit indices indicated that the model had an acceptable fit (χ^2/df = 2.19, RMSEA = 0.05, CFI = 0.949, SRMR = 0.038; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009). As Table 5 indicates, all items loaded onto their respective constructs with loadings

greater than .50 (Hair et al., 2009). The AVE values ranged from .54 to .86, and CR values ranged from .88 to .97. Thus, it was concluded that the convergent validity of measurement scales had been established (Kline, 2015). Finally, the discriminant validity of measures was confirmed by comparing the square root of AVE values with the construct correlations, where all AVEs exceeded inter-construct correlations (Table 4).

Table 4

Inter-construct Correlations Matrix and Square-root of AVE

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Attitude	**.87**								
2. Independence	.19	**.73**							
3. Interdependence	.29	.29	**.77**						
4. Positive Word of Mouth	.64	.21	.37	**.90**					
5. Merchandise Purchase Intentions	.45	.17	.28	.53	**.91**				
6. Spectating Intentions	.52	.24	.35	.64	.72	**.93**			
7. Team Competence	.35	.14	.26	.34	.14	.23	**.91**		
8. Team Warmth	.57	.16	.28	.51	.38	.40	.13	**.87**	
9. University Pride	.46	.23	.27	.49	.36	.37	.29	.34	**.89**

Note. Bold numbers in the diagonal show the square-root of AVE

Table 5

Study 1 Factor Analysis of Constructs

Latent Variable	Item	λ	CR	AVE
Team Competence	TCMP1	.88	.96	.82
	TCMP2	.92		
	TCMP3	.90		
	TCMP4	.93		
	TCMP5	.91		
Team Warmth	TWRM1	.90	.94	.76
	TWRM2	.95		
	TWRM3	.90		
	TWRM4	.84		
	TWRM5	.75		
Independent Self-Construal	INDEP1	.73	.88	.54
	INDEP2	.81		
	INDEP3	.70		
	INDEP4	.72		
	INDEP5	.74		
	INDEP6	.71		
Interdependent Self-Construal	INTER1	.82	.90	.60
	INTER2	.84		
	INTER3	.64		
	INTER4	.85		
	INTER5	.83		
	INTER6	.61		
Attitude Toward Team	ATT1	.86	.94	.75
	ATT2	.87		
	ATT3	.87		
	ATT4	.87		
	ATT5	.84		
Positive Word of Mouth Intention	PWOM1	.90	.95	.81
	PWOM2	.90		
	PWOM3	.92		
	PWOM4	.89		
Spectating Intention	SPEC1	.93	.97	.86
	SPEC2	.93		
	SPEC3	.94		
	SPEC4	.93		
	SPEC5	.91		
Merchandise Purchase Intention	MPUR1	.93	.96	.83
	MPUR2	.89		
	MPUR3	.95		
	MPUR4	.95		
	MPUR5	.83		
University Pride	UPRD1	.88	.95	.79
	UPRD2	.93		
	UPRD3	.91		
	UPRD4	.93		
	UPRD5	.79		

3.3. Results

3.3.1) Study 1 Manipulation Check

Manipulation checks were conducted to confirm that the US sample and Korean sample differed in independent and interdependent self-construals, and to also confirm that the competence and warmth manipulations were successful. An independent samples t-test revealed that the US sample ($M = 5.17$) reported significantly higher independent self-construals compared to the Korean sample ($M = 4.94$, $t(475) = 3.36$, $p < .05$). Also, the Korean sample ($M = 5.20$) reported higher interdependent self-construals compared to the US sample ($M = 4.82$, $t(475) = 6.18$, $p < .05$). Thus, it can be concluded that the two samples differ in terms of individualistic and collectivistic tendencies.

A comparison of the competence and warmth conditions revealed that the perceived competence ratings ($M = 5.73$) for the competence condition significantly exceeded perceived warmth ($M = 4.88$, $t(474) = 8.02$, $p < .05$). Finally, the perceived warmth ratings ($M = 5.40$) for the warmth condition significantly exceeded perceived competence ($M = 4.72$, $t(474) = 6.87$, $p < .05$). Thus, the competence and warmth manipulations were deemed successful.

3.3.2) Hypotheses Testing

To test the hypotheses, a series of 2 (Country: US vs. Korea) X 2 (Stimulus Type: Competence vs. Warmth) independent samples

ANOVAs were conducted with the five dependent variables (Attitude Towards Team, Positive Word of Mouth Intentions, Future Spectating Intentions, Team Merchandise Purchase Intentions, and University Pride).

First, for the Attitude Towards the Team, results indicated that the main effect of Nation was significant where the Korean (collectivistic culture) sample displayed higher attitudes towards their university soccer team compared to the US (individualistic) sample [M_{KOR} = 5.44 vs. M_{US} = 5.17; $F(1, 473)$ = 7.22, $p < .05$], while the main effect of stimulus type was not statistically significant ($p > .05$). Importantly, the two-way interaction returned significant results [$F(1, 473)$ = 13.33, $p < .05$]. The US (individualistic) sample displayed significantly higher attitudes towards the team when presented with competence information (M_{UScomp} = 5.35) compared to warmth information (M_{USwarm} = 4.98), while the Korean (collectivistic) sample displayed higher attitudes towards the team when presented with warmth ($M_{KORwarm}$ = 5.63) information compared to competence information ($M_{KORcomp}$ = 5.25). When analyzed from a different perspective, the US and Korean samples did not differ in attitudes when presented with competence information ($p > .05$), however the attitudes of the Korean sample were significantly higher than the US sample when presented with warmth information ($p < .05$).

Table 6

Influence of Country and Stimulus Type on Attitude Towards Team

Groups	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*sig.*	η^2
Intercept	1	13402.10	10606.21	< .05	.96
Country	1	9.12	7.22	< .05	.02
Stimulus Type	1	0.01	0.01	.92	< .00
Country x Stimulus Type	1	16.84	13.33	< .05	.03
Error	473				

Note. Country = United States vs. Korea; Stimulus Type = Competence vs. Warmth

Figure 3

Interaction Effect of Country and Stimulus Type on Attitude Towards Team
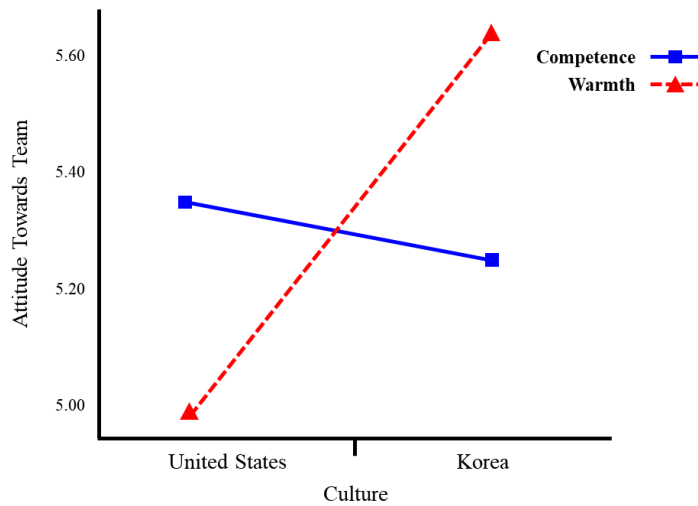
Secondly, results of the Positive Word of Mouth Intentions showed similar results. The main effect of Nation was significant where the Korean sample had higher positive word of mouth intentions about the team than the US sample [M_{KOR} = 5.39 vs. M_{US}

= 4.71; $F(1, 473) = 38.87$, $p < .05$]. The main effect of stimulus type was not significant ($p > .05$). The interaction effect was also significant [$F(1, 473) = 12.01$, $p < .05$], where US participants reported higher positive word of mouth intentions when presented with competence information ($M_{UScomp} = 4.94$) than when presented with warmth information ($M_{USwarm} = 4.47$). For the Korean participants, although the difference between the competence and warmth conditions were not quite significant, there was a trend towards significance ($M_{KORwarm} = 5.54$ vs. $M_{KORcomp} = 5.24$; $p = .06$). When looked at differently, the Korean sample displayed significantly higher positive word of mouth intentions than the US sample in both competence ($p < .05$) and warmth conditions ($p < .05$), yet the difference was greater for the warmth condition.

Table 7

Influence of Country and Stimulus Type on Positive Word of Mouth

Groups	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*sig.*	η^2
Intercept	1	12143.97	8340.98	< .05	.95
Country	1	56.60	38.87	< .05	.08
Stimulus Type	1	0.81	0.56	.46	< .01
Country x Stimulus Type	1	17.49	12.01	< .05	< .03
Error	473				

Note. Country = United States vs. Korea; Stimulus Type = Competence vs. Warmth

Figure 4

Interaction Effect of Country and Stimulus Type on Positive Word of Mouth
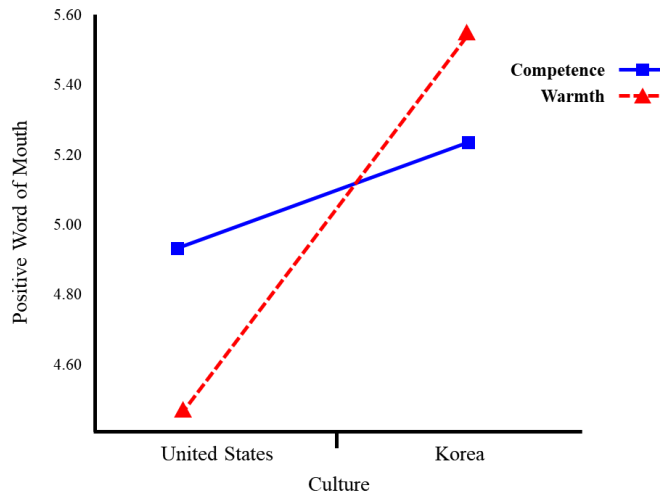
Next, results for the Future Spectating Intentions also returned a significant main effect of Nation where the Korean sample had higher spectating intentions than the US sample [M_{KOR} = 4.99 vs. M_{US} = 4.10; $F(1, 473)$ = 39.61, $p < .05$], while the main effect of stimulus type was not significant ($p > .05$). The interaction effect also returned significant results [$F(1, 473)$ = 14.74, $p < .05$] where the Korean sample reported higher spectating intentions when presented with warmth information ($M_{KORwarm}$ = 5.22) compared to the competence information condition ($M_{KORcomp}$ = 4.76). Meanwhile, the US sample displayed significantly higher spectating intentions when presented with competence information (M_{UScomp} = 4.40) compared to when presented with warmth information (M_{USwarm} = 3.77). When comparisons were made within each stimulus type, the US and Korean samples did not differ significantly in spectating intentions when presented with competence information ($p > .05$), however they differed significantly when presented with warmth information ($p < .05$).

Table 8

Influence of Country and Stimulus Type on Spectating Intention

Groups	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*sig.*	η^2
Intercept	1	9814.93	3987.21	< .05	.89
Country	1	97.50	39.61	< .05	.08
Stimulus Type	1	0.85	0.34	.56	< .01
Country x Stimulus Type	1	36.29	14.74	< .05	.03
Error	473				

Note. Country = United States vs. Korea; Stimulus Type = Competence vs. Warmth

Figure 5

Interaction Effect of Country and Stimulus Type on Spectating Intention
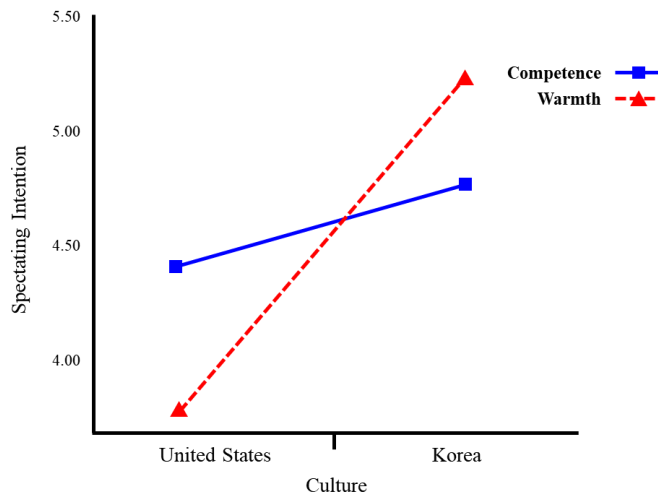
Team Merchandise Purchase Intentions also displayed a similar trend where the Korean sample displayed significantly higher purchase intentions than the US sample [M_{KOR} = 4.15 vs.

M_{US} = 3.31; $F(1, 473)$ = 33.47, $p < .05$], while the main effect of stimulus type was non−significant ($p > .05$). The interaction effect was also significant [$F(1, 473)$ = 6.22, $p < .05$]. Although the Korean sample displayed significantly higher purchase intentions in the warmth condition compared to the competence condition ($M_{KORwarm}$ = 4.36 vs. $M_{KORcomp}$ = 3.93, $p < .05$), the US sample did not differ between conditions (M_{UScomp} = 3.46 vs. M_{USwarm} = 3.16, $p > .05$). Although the Korean sample displayed higher purchase intentions than the US sample in both the competence ($p < .05$) and warmth conditions ($p < .05$), this difference was greater in the warmth condition.

Table 9

Influence of Country and Stimulus Type on Merchandise Purchase Intention

Groups	df	MS	F	sig.	η^2
Intercept	1	6619.34	2638.98	< .05	.85
Country	1	83.95	33.47	< .05	.06
Stimulus Type	1	0.46	0.18	.668	< .01
Country x Stimulus Type	1	15.60	6.22	< .05	.01
Error	473				

Note. Country = United States vs. Korea; Stimulus Type = Competence vs. Warmth

Figure 6

*Interaction Effect of Country and Stimulus Type on Merchandise Purchase
Intention*
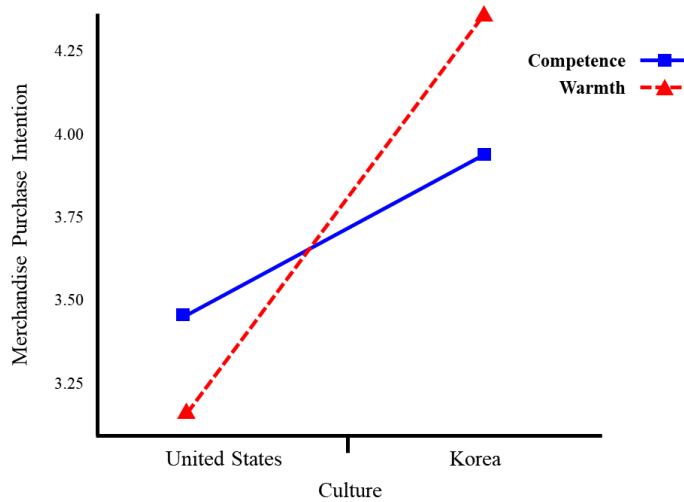
Finally, for University Pride, only the interaction effect
between Nation and Stimulus type was significant [$F(1, 473)$ =
10.71, p < .05]. The US sample displayed significantly higher
university pride in the competence condition compared to the
warmth condition (M_{UScomp} = 5.59 vs. M_{USwarm} =5.26, p < .05), while
the Korean sample displayed higher university pride in the warmth
condition than the competence condition ($M_{KORwarm}$ = 5.44 vs.
$M_{KORcomp}$ = 5.06, p < .05). From a different perspective, the US
sample displayed higher university pride than the Korean sample in
the competence condition (p < .05), while no significant differences
were present in the warmth condition (p > .05).

Table 10

Influence of Country and Stimulus Type on University Pride

Groups	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*sig.*	η^2
Intercept	1	13587.78	9530.78	< .05	.95
Country (US / Korea)	1	3.85	2.70	.10	.01
Stimulus Type (Comp. / Warmth)	1	0.10	0.07	.80	< .01
Country x Stimulus Type	1	15.27	10.71	< .05	.02
Error	473				

Note. Country = United States vs. Korea; Stimulus Type = Competence vs. Warmth

Figure 7

Interaction Effect of Country and Stimulus Type on University Pride
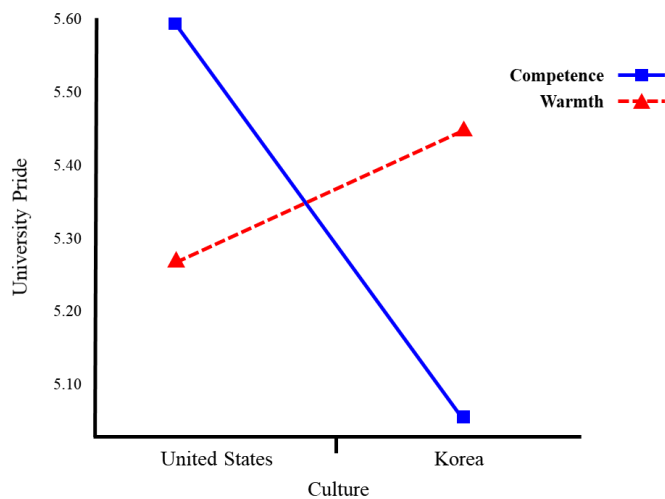
Overall, the results of Study 1 support H1 and H2 in that across all dependent variables, the US (individualistic) sample preferred the competence stimulus while the Korean (collectivistic) sample preferred the warmth stimulus.

3.4. Discussion

Study 1 investigated differing attitudes and behavioral intentions of university students in individualistic (US) and collectivistic (Korea) cultures in response to competence and warmth information about their university sport team. The results of the hypotheses testing are as follows.

First, across most outcome variables (attitude towards team, positive word of mouth intention, spectating intention, and merchandise purchase intention), the Korean (i.e., collectivistic) sample displayed more favorable responses toward their university sport team. As mentioned in the literature review, collectivists have a higher tendency to view themselves as socially embedded with others, while individualists tend to view themselves as separate and independent to others (Schwartz, 1994). Therefore, when provided with information about their university sport team, with which they have little pre-involvement with, collectivistic students most likely categorized them in terms of sharing the university identity, while individualistic students viewed them as a separate entity. This is in line with previous research indicating that collectivistic cultures are associated with higher in-group bias compared to individualistic cultures (Hinkle & Brown, 1990; Gomez, Kirkman, & Shapiro, 2000), as well as more prosocial behavior towards in-group members (Eisenberg, Fabes, & Spinrad, 2006) and cooperative behavior amongst team members (Eby & Dobbins, 1997; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001). Thus, in the current study, collectivistic students displayed higher attitudes (in-group bias), more supportive behavioral intentions (spectating intention), and higher intentions to display their association with a positively portrayed team

(merchandise purchase intentions and positive word of mouth).

The only outcome variable that did not yield significant differences between cultures is university pride. Since university pride is an evaluation not specific to the sport team, other factors such as the university's reputation or ranking may have been more influential to students' university pride, and the positive information about their university sport team was not incentive enough to change their pride about the university as a whole. Furthermore, individualists have been found to display the tendency to view an object and its context as separate and distinct compared to collectivists who tend to perceive objects as infused within its context (Riemer et al., 2014). In other words, collectivists tend to attend to the whole field and invoke situational factors when making judgments and are thus more context-dependent, whereas individualists tend to pay attention primarily to the focal object and invoke the inherent characteristics to make judgments, and thus more context-independent (Kühen, Hannover, & Schubert, 2001). Therefore, while collectivists viewed the university sport team as an entity that is embedded within the university itself and represents the university to a certain degree, individualists may have made judgments about the university sport team separately and without consideration of the superordinate university identity.

Secondly, the main effects of stimulus type were non-significant across all outcome variables. Although not directly hypothesized in the current study, this finding holds important implications particularly for collegiate sport teams. While the sport industry and sport management literature tend to emphasize the performance of sport teams, the results of Study 1 indicate that positive information about the competence of a team does not

necessarily induce more favorable outcomes than warmth information. In other words, the warmth of a team may be equally important as the performance of the team, at least for individuals especially in low involvement situations, or potential newcomers to the team. This notion is partially supported by previous first encounter person perception and group perception research where the warmth dimension and particularly the morality of a person/group is perceived as more important than their competence in first impression situations (López-Rodríguez & Zagefka, 2015; Leach, Ellemers & Barreto, 2007).

Finally, the two-way interaction effect between culture and stimulus type was significant across all outcome variables. These results support the value-congruence effect where cultures prefer stimuli that is culturally congruent (Shavitt & Barnes, 2019; Li, Li, Chiu, & Peng, 2019; Han & Shavitt, 1994; Kim & Markus, 1999). Results indicated that the individualistic group (US sample) showed significantly higher attitudes toward the team, positive word of mouth intentions, spectating intentions, and university pride for the competence condition than the warmth condition. The only outcome variable that failed to reach significance was merchandise purchase intentions. This may be due to the monetary investment required to purchase team merchandise and such monetary expenditures usually require more analytical thought processes before making a decision. Given that individualists are naturally more prone to analytical thinking (Shavitt & Barnes, 2019), the information about the team alone may have not been enough to cause a significant difference amongst individualists. They may have required more information about more central aspects of the products such as price and quality. However, such assertions require further

research.

Meanwhile, the collectivistic group (i.e., Korean sample) displayed significantly higher attitudes toward the team, spectating intentions, merchandise purchase intentions, and university pride in the warmth condition than in the competence condition. The only outcome variable of interest that failed to reach significance was positive word of mouth. However, positive word of mouth also showed a trend towards significance with a $p-value$ of .056. Taken together, it can be concluded that the results of Study 1 support Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2.

Chapter 4. Study 2

4.1. Purpose and Hypotheses

Study 2 was designed to overcome some of the limitations of Study 1 and to test the added effects of superordinate identity status on the tendencies of individuals with independent (i.e., individualists) and interdependent (i.e., collectivists) self-construals. First, Study 1 was conducted as a national comparison. Although this is in-line with previous research, there is criticism about only conducting either cross-national or intra-national comparisons (Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006). Specifically, in cross-national comparisons, other variables may have confounded the results, rather than cultural differences. For example, collegiate sports are already popular in the United States, while in Korea it is not. Participants from the United States may have had pre-existing attitudes and a higher level of awareness either their own collegiate team or intercollegiate athletics in general. Furthermore, there has also been criticism about East Asian and Western samples' tendencies in marking survey answers, where East Asian participants tend to mark answers more conservatively (i.e., less extreme responses) compared to Western participants. Therefore, Study 2 recruited participants from an intra-national sample (i.e., Korea).

The current study also aims to take into account the nested nature of collegiate sport teams (i.e., sport team within the shared university identity). Drawing from Social Identity Theory, the current study proposes that the academic status of the university

will differentially influence the attitudes and behavioral intentions of university students toward the collegiate sport team. Based on the notion that threats to a social identity activate self-enhancement motives and the tendency to focus on relative strengths for independents (Tsai, Chiang, & Lau, 2015), while activating self-worth motives and the tendency to focus of relative weaknesses for interdependents (Heine, 2003), study 2 proposes the following hypotheses:

H3: For university students with a relatively independent self-construal, there will be an interaction effect between university status (high vs. low university ranking) and sport team stimulus type (competence vs. warmth) on their attitudes and behavioral intentions toward the sport team. Specifically, the effect of sport team competence cues will be attenuated in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition, while the effects of sport team warmth cues will be accentuated in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition.

H4: For university students with a relatively interdependent self-construal, there will be an interaction effect between university status (high vs. low university ranking) and sport team stimulus type (competence vs. warmth) on their attitudes and behavioral intentions toward the sport team. Specifically, the effect of sport team competence cues will be accentuated in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition, while the effects of sport team warmth cues will be attenuated in the low university ranking

condition compared to the high university ranking condition.

4.2. Methodology

4.2.1) Study 2 Participants

Participants were recruited via convenience sampling from 15 universities across Korea. Participation was open to all students of the targeted universities as long as they were over the age of 18 (due to IRB restrictions). Data collection was achieved via online survey created using the Qualtrics online survey tool.

A total of 640 current university students from 15 different Universities in South Korea with an active soccer team, participated in Study 2. Furthermore, consistent with previous work utilizing the dimensions of self-construal (e.g., Gardner et al., 1999; Kitayama et al., 2014; Welker, Norman, Goetz, Moreau, Kitayama, & Carré, 2017; Na and Kitayama, 2011), the current study subtracted the independence scores from the interdependence scores, creating a single index of relative self-construal where high scores indicate a more interdependent self-construal, and low scores indicate a more independent self-construal. Thus, 23 participants with a score equal to 0 were excluded from the analysis, combined with 13 insincere responses, the final sample consisted of 604 participants.

This sample size exceeds the minimum required sample size of 512 participants (medium effect size [f = 0.25], α = .05, 1 - β = 0.80), according to a-priori sample size calculations conducted using the G*Power statistical software (Heinrich Heine University Düsseldorf, Düsseldorf, Germany; Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). Participants were mostly male (61.9%).

Ages ranged from 18 to 31 years (M = 22.53, SD = 2.45), and 14.4% were freshmen, 15.0% were sophomores, 21.2% were juniors and 49.4% were seniors.

4.2.2) Study 2 Procedure

Participants were first presented with an information sheet explaining the terms and conditions of participating in the current study, followed by a consent form in accordance with Seoul National University's Internal Review Board guidelines.

Upon consent, participants were randomly assigned to the interdependent (collectivistic cultural orientation) or independent (individualistic cultural orientation) self-construal conditions. Specifically, they were presented with the 'Sostoras Warrior Story' self-construal manipulation material. In the interdependent condition, Sostoras hires a warrior that is close to the family for reasons that benefit the entire family, while in the independent condition, Sostoras hires a warrior that is skilled for reasons that benefit Sostoras personally. After reading the material they were required to answer an attention check question. Upon completing the self-construal manipulation, participants answered the self-construal scale (Singelis, 1994) to be used as manipulation check items.

Next, participants were randomly presented with either the high university status article or the low university status article. In the high university status condition, the news article reported that the student's university was ranked higher than similar tier universities. In the low university status condition the article reported that the student's university was ranked lower than

similar tier universities. After reading the article, participants were asked to answer three manipulation check items.

The competence and warmth manipulations were the same as in Study 1. They then continued to answer questions regarding their attitudes toward the team, behavioral intentions (intention to attend future games, merchandise purchase intentions, and positive word-of-mouth intentions), and university pride was collected. Next, data about their perceived competence and warmth of the team were collected as manipulation check items. Finally, demographic information on their current university, grade level, age, and gender were collected.

4.2.3) Study 2 Instrumentation

Self-Construal Priming was conducted by utilizing the 'Sostoras Warrior Story' manipulation (Trafimow et al., 1991), translated and utilized by Cho et al. (2006) and Lee and Ahn (2010). All participants were instructed to read a story concerning a general named Sostoras who had to choose a warrior to send to the king. In the independent priming condition, the story ends with the general choosing the warrior on the basis of his individual merits. In the interdependent priming condition, however, the story ends with the general choosing the warrior on the basis of his family's well-being. Specifically, the story starts with all participants reading the following paragraph:

> "Sostoras, a warrior in ancient Sumer, was largely responsible for the success of Sargon I in conquering all of Mesopotamia. As a result, he was rewarded with a small

kingdom of his own to rule. About 10 years later, Sargon I was conscripting warriors for a new war. Sostoras was obligated to send a detachment of soldiers to aid Sargon I. He had to decide who to put in command of the detachment."

Then, the independent self-construal manipulation is as follows:

"After thinking about it for a long time, Sostoras eventually decided on Tiglath who was a talented general. This appointment had several advantages. Sostoras was able to make an excellent general indebted to him. This would solidify Sostoras's hold on his own dominion. In addition, the very fact of having a general such a Tiglath as his personal representative would greatly increase Sostoras's prestige. Finally, sending his best general would be likely to make Sargon I grateful. Consequently, there was the possibility of getting rewarded by Sargon I."

Meanwhile, the interdependent self-construal manipulation is as follows:

"After thinking about it for a long time, Sostoras eventually decided on Tiglath who was a member of his family. This appointment had several advantages. Sostoras was able to show his loyalty to his family. He was able to cement their loyalty to him. In addition, having Tiglath as the commander increased the power and prestige of the family. Finally, if Tiglath performed well, Sargon I would be indebted to the family."

University Status was manipulated following the method used by Iacoviello and Lorenzi-Cioldi (2015) where participants will be presented with an excerpt from a fictitious newspaper article describing the rank ordering of universities around the world. The article announced university rankings based on the quality of students and quality of teaching. Participants in the high-status condition (i.e., no threat) were informed that their university ranked higher than rival universities. Participants in the low-status (i.e., identity threat) condition were informed that their university ranked lower than rival universities. To check their understanding of the status manipulation, participants were asked to summarize the contents of the article in one sentence. To assess the credibility of the status manipulation, they will then answer a series of manipulation check items. First, participants' perceived positivity of the article will be asked with a single item: "Was the way in which the article described your university positive or negative?" (1=Very Negative, 7=Very Positive). In addition, felt emotion after learning about the in-group's status will be measured with a single item asking "What emotion did you feel after reading the article? (7-point scale ranging from 1 = Negative emotion, 7 = Positive emotion). Finally, they were asked to answer whether they thought the article was threatening or not (7-point scale ranging from 1 = Unthreatening to 7 = Threatening).

Independent and *Interdependent Self-Construal* was measured using Singelis's (1994) self-construal scale. The scale consists of two 12-item subscales, one for level of independence, and one for level of interdependence. Given that both self-construals can coexist within an individual, all participants were required to

complete both scales. Sample items for the independence scale include "my personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me" and "I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects." Sample items for the interdependence scale includes items such as "my happiness depends on the happiness of those around me" and "I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in."

Competence and *Warmth* were measured through ten-items (five items each) used by Halkias and Diamantopoulos (2020), adapted from Aaker et al. (2010). Participants were asked to "indicate the degree to which you feel the your University Team is…" followed by competence and warmth items. Competence and warmth items will be provided on a 7-point semantic-differential scale. Competence items include competent, capable, skillful, efficient, and talented. Warmth items include warm, likable, approachable, kind, friendly. In Study 1, competence and warmth items will be used primarily as a manipulation check.

Attitude toward the Team was be measured using a five-item 7-point semantic-differential scale adapted from Mackenzie and Lutz (1989) and Jun and Holland (2012).

Behavioral Intentions consisted of the following four behaviors of interest: (1) intention to attend future games, (2) team merchandise purchase intention, and (3) positive word of mouth intention.

Intention to Attend Future Games was measured using the five-item scale by Cunningham and Kwon (2003). Items include "I intend to attend a [team] game during the season," "Attending a [team] game this season is something I plan to do," and "I will try to attend a [team] game during the season. Scale items will be

measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree)

Team Merchandise Purchase Intentions was measured using a three-item scale adopted from Kim & James (2016). Items include "I intend to purchase [team] merchandise," "I will purchase [team] merchandise in the future," and "I would like to purchase [team] merchandise." Scale items will be measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree)

Positive Word of Mouth Intention captures the willingness to recommend the team to others and was measured by adapting the four-item scale of Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996). The original scale was designed for positive word-of-mouth about brands, thus the current study slightly modified the items to fit the current study. The four items include "I will spread positive word of mouth about my university soccer team", "I will recommend my university soccer team to those close to me", "I will spread positive information about my university soccer team", and "I will talk up my university soccer team." Scale items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree).

University Pride was measured using a five-item 7-point Likert-type scale borrowed from Gouthier and Rhein (2011). Items include "I proud to be a student of my university", "I am proud to tell others that I am a student of my university", "I have a feeling of joy to be a part of my university", "I am proud to be associated to my university", and "I have a feeling that my university is doing meaningful things." Scale items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree).

The validity and reliability of the measures were once again

assessed by conducting a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) using the MPlus 7.3 software. The fit indices indicated that the model had an acceptable fit (χ^2/df = 1.85, RMSEA = 0.037, CFI = 0.972, SRMR = 0.030; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009). As Table 12 indicates, all items loaded onto their respective constructs with loadings greater than .50 (Hair et al., 2009). The AVE values ranged from .54 to .86, and CR values ranged from .88 to .97. Thus, it was concluded that the convergent validity of measurement scales had been established (Kline, 2015). Finally, the discriminant validity of measures was confirmed by comparing the square root of AVE values with the construct correlations, where all AVEs exceeded inter−construct correlations (Table 11).

Table 11

Study 2 Inter-construct Correlations Matrix and Square-root of AVE

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Team Competence	**.92**								
2. Team Warmth	-.21	**.88**							
3. Independence	.10	.16	**.74**						
4. Interdependence	.13	.18	.14	**.77**					
5. Attitude	.19	.50	.13	.20	**.85**				
6. Word of Mouth	.19	.38	.22	.29	.61	**.88**			
7. Spectating Intention	.15	.25	.24	.27	.51	.69	**.94**		
8. Merchandise Purchase Intention	.06	.29	.25	.33	.43	.58	.70	**.92**	
9. University Pride	.12	.31	.23	.27	.38	.39	.30	.34	**.89**

Note. Bold numbers in the diagonal show the square root of AVE

Table 12

Study 2 Factor Analysis of Constructs

Latent Variable	Item	λ	CR	AVE
Team Competence	TCMP1	.93	.97	.85
	TCMP2	.93		
	TCMP3	.92		
	TCMP4	.91		
	TCMP5	.93		
Team Warmth	TWRM1	.92	.95	.78
	TWRM2	.93		
	TWRM3	.90		
	TWRM4	.81		
	TWRM5	.86		
Independent Self-Construal	INDEP1	.65	.88	.55
	INDEP2	.81		
	INDEP3	.80		
	INDEP4	.79		
	INDEP5	.76		
	INDEP6	.62		
Interdependent Self-Construal	INTER1	.75	.89	.59
	INTER2	.83		
	INTER3	.76		
	INTER4	.78		
	INTER5	.70		
	INTER6	.77		
Attitude Toward Team	ATT1	.85	.93	.72
	ATT2	.87		
	ATT3	.83		
	ATT4	.86		
	ATT5	.83		
Positive Word of Mouth Intention	PWOM1	.89	.93	.77
	PWOM2	.88		
	PWOM3	.88		
	PWOM4	.84		
Spectating Intention	SPEC1	.93	.97	.88
	SPEC2	.92		
	SPEC3	.94		
	SPEC4	.96		
	SPEC5	.95		
Merchandise Purchase Intention	MPUR1	.95	.97	.85
	MPUR2	.94		
	MPUR3	.96		
	MPUR4	.95		
	MPUR5	.81		
University Pride	UPRD1	.90	.95	.79
	UPRD2	.92		
	UPRD3	.90		
	UPRD4	.95		
	UPRD5	.78		

4.3. Results

4.3.1) Study 2 Manipulation Check

Manipulation checks were conducted to confirm that the self-construal priming, university threat, and competence and warmth stimulus had the intended effects.

First, to check for self-construal priming, independent samples t-tests were conducted to compare the independent and interdependent self-construals of each group. Results indicated that the two self-construal priming conditions did not differ significantly in independence (M_{INDgrp} = 4.85 vs. M_{INTgrp} = 4.81, p > .05) and interdependence (M_{INDgrp} = 4.79 vs. M_{INTgrp} = 4.85, p > .05). Thus, the self-construal priming was not successful.

Due to the failure of the self-construal priming procedure, the current study subtracted the independence scores for each participant with their interdependence scores, and removed the cases in which the results was equal to 0 (n=23). This procedure is in line with previous work that are interested in the relative individual tendency towards independence or interdependence rather than the coexistence of each type of self-construal, and is an often used method for parsimony of results (e.g., Kitayama et al., 2014; Nakashima et al., 2008).

Next, a series of independent samples t-tests were utilized to check the university threat manipulations. Participants in the low university ranking condition reported that the article was more negative ($M_{LowRank}$ = 2.12 vs. $M_{HighRank}$ = 6.49, $t(602)$ = 45.81, p < .05), felt more negative emotions ($M_{LowRank}$ = 2.70 vs. $M_{HighRank}$ = 5.86, $t(602)$ = 31.16, p < .05), and felt the information was more

threatening (M_{LowRank} = 4.04 vs. M_{HighRank} = 2.02, $t(602)$ = 15.72, p < .05). Thus, it was concluded that the threat manipulation was successful.

Finally, to ensure that the competence and warmth stimuli successfully manipulated the perceptions of participants, independent samples t-tests were conducted. Results indicated that the participants provided with the team's competence information indeed rated the team as more competent than those in the warmth condition (M_{ComptGrp} = 6.22 vs. M_{WarmGrp} = 4.69, $t(602)$ = 20.11, p < .05). Furthermore, participants in the warmth information group reported higher warmth scores than those in the competence information group (M_{ComptGrp} = 4.52 vs. M_{WarmGrp} = 6.13, $t(602)$ = 22.61, p < .05). Thus, the stimuli had their intended effects.

4.3.2) Hypotheses Testing

To test the hypotheses, a series of 2 (Self-construal: Independent vs. Interdependent) X 2 (University Status: High rank vs. Low rank) X 2 (Stimulus Type: Competence vs. Warmth) independent samples ANOVAs were conducted with the five dependent variables (Attitude Towards Team, Positive Word of Mouth Intentions, Future Spectating Intentions, Team Merchandise Purchase Intentions, and University Pride).

First, for the Attitude Towards the Team, results indicated that the main effect of Stimulus Type was statistically significant where the Warmth condition participants generally displayed higher attitudes towards the team than the Competence condition participants [M_{Warm} = 5.61 vs. $M_{\text{Competent}}$ = 5.24, $F(1, 596)$ = 18.18,

p < .05], while the main effects for self−construal and university status showed no significant differences. Also, the two−way interactions were all statistically non−significant (p > .05).

Importantly, the three−way interaction returned significant results [$F(1, 596) = 28.87$, p < .05]. Planned contrasts indicated that in the case of participants with a relative independent self−construal (i.e., individualists), university students displayed higher attitudes toward the competent team in the high university ranking condition compared to the low university ranking condition [$M_{HighRank} = 5.44$ vs. $M_{LowRank} = 4.98$; $F(1, 596) = 6.85$, p < .05]. However, when the sport team was portrayed as warm, students displayed higher attitudes toward the team in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition [$M_{LowRank} = 5.71$ vs. $M_{HighRank} = 5.28$; $F(1, 596) = 6.31$, p < .05].

Meanwhile, for participants with a relative interdependent self−construal (i.e., collectivists), university students displayed higher attitudes toward the competent team in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition [$M_{LowRank} = 5.47$ vs. $M_{HighRank} = 5.09$; $F(1, 596) = 6.08$, p < .05]. However, when the sport team was portrayed as warm, students displayed higher attitudes toward the team in the high university ranking condition compared to the low university ranking condition [$M_{HighRank} = 5.99$ vs. $M_{LowRank} = 5.44$; $F(1, 596) = 9.87$, p < .05].

Table 13

Influence of Self-construal, University Status, and Stimulus Type on Attitude Towards Team

Groups	*df*	*MS*	*F*	η^2
Intercept	1	17557.14	16396.67***	.97
Self-construal	1	3.19	2.98	.01
University Status	1	.36	.33	<.01
Stimulus Type	1	19.47	18.18***	.03
Self-construal x University Status	1	.16	.15	< .01
Self-construal x Stimulus Type	1	.73	.68	< .01
University Status x Stimulus Type	1	.01	.01	< .01
Self-construal x University Status x Stimulus type	1	30.91	28.87***	.05
Error	596	1.07		

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

Self-construal = Independent vs. Interdependent; University Status = High

Ranking vs. Low Ranking; Stimulus Type = Competence vs. Warmth

Figure 8

Three-way Interaction Effect of Self-construal, University Ranking, and Stimulus Type on Attitude Towards the Team
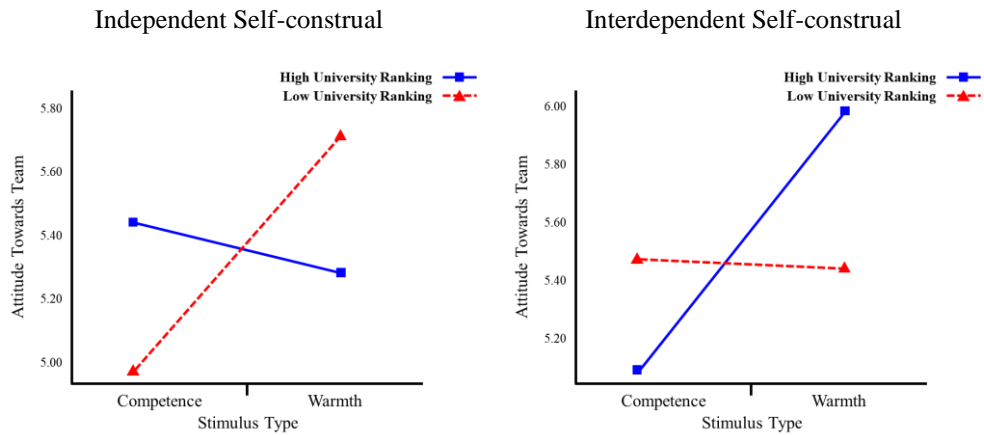
Second, for the Positive Word of Mouth Intention, results indicated that the main effect of Stimulus Type was statistically significant where the Warmth condition participants generally displayed higher word of mouth intentions than the Competence condition participants [M_{Warm} = 5.01 vs. $M_{Competent}$ = 4.77, $F(1, 596)$ = 5.69, p < .05], while the main effects for self-construal and university status showed no significant differences. Also, the two-way interactions were all statistically non-significant (p > .05).

Importantly, the three-way interaction returned significant results [$F(1, 596)$ = 19.18, p < .05]. Planned contrasts indicated that in the case of participants with a relative independent self-construal, university students displayed higher word of mouth intention for the competent team in the high university ranking condition compared to the low university ranking condition [$M_{HighRank}$ = 4.96 vs. $M_{LowRank}$ = 4.50; $F(1, 596)$ = 4.46, p < .05]. However, when the sport team was portrayed as warm, students displayed

higher word of mouth intentions for the team in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition $[M_{\text{LowRank}} = 5.26$ vs. $M_{\text{HighRank}} = 4.62; F(1, 596) = 9.18, p < .05]$.

Table 14

Influence of Self-construal, University Status, and Stimulus Type on Positive Word of Mouth

| Groups	df	MS	F	η^2
Intercept	1	14272.41	8945.95***	.94
Self-construal	1	1.80	1.13	< .01
University Status	1	2.21	1.39	< .01
Stimulus Type	1	9.08	5.69*	.01
Self-construal x University Status	1	.16	.10	< .01
Self-construal x Stimulus Type	1	.22	.14	< .01
University Status x Stimulus Type	1	1.26	.79	< .01
Self-construal x University Status x Stimulus type	1	30.59	19.18***	.03
Error	596	1.60		

*Note. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.*

Self-construal = Independent vs. Interdependent; University Status = High Ranking vs. Low Ranking; Stimulus Type = Competence vs. Warmth

Meanwhile, for participants with a relative interdependent self-construal (i.e., collectivists), university students displayed higher word of mouth intentions for the competent team in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking

condition [M_{LowRank} = 5.06 vs. M_{HighRank} = 4.55; $F(1, 596)$ = 7.42, p < .05]. However, when the sport team was portrayed as warm, there were no statistically significant differences between the high university ranking and low university ranking conditions [M_{HighRank} = 5.19 vs. M_{LowRank} = 4.99; $F(1, 596)$ = .95, p > .05].

Figure 9

Three-way Interaction Effect of Self-construal, University Ranking, and
Stimulus Type on Positive Word of Mouth
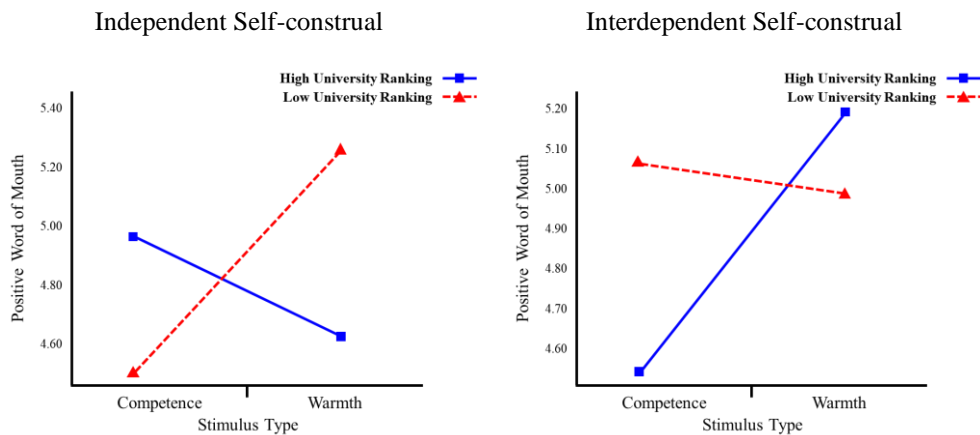
Third, for the Future Spectating Intention, results indicated that all main effects and two-way interaction effects were statistically non-significant (p > .05).

Importantly, the three-way interaction returned significant results [$F(1, 596)$ = 19.14, p < .05]. Planned contrasts indicated that in the case of participants with a relative independent self-construal (i.e., individualists), when presented with information about the competence of the sport team, the difference in spectating intentions did not significantly differ between the high university

and low university ranking conditions ($p > .05$). However, when the sport team was portrayed as warm, students displayed higher spectating intentions for the team in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition [$M_{\text{LowRank}} = 4.50$ vs. $M_{\text{HighRank}} = 3.93$; $F(1, 596) = 4.21$, $p < .05$].

Table 15

Influence of Self-construal, University Status, and Stimulus Type on Spectating Intention

Groups	df	MS	F	η^2
Intercept	1	10145.16	3602.64***	.86
Self-construal	1	1.40	.50	< .01
University Status	1	2.48	.88	< .01
Stimulus Type	1	8.62	3.06	.01
Self-construal x University Status	1	.01	.01	< .01
Self-construal x Stimulus Type	1	.20	.07	< .01
University Status x Stimulus Type	1	4.32	1.53	< .01
Self-construal x University Status x Stimulus type	1	53.91	19.14***	.03
Error	596	2.82		

*Note. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.*

Self-construal = Independent vs. Interdependent; University Status = High

Ranking vs. Low Ranking; Stimulus Type = Competence vs. Warmth

Meanwhile, for participants with a relative interdependent self−construal (i.e., collectivists), university students displayed

higher spectating intentions for the competent team in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition [M_{LowRank} = 4.52 vs. M_{HighRank} = 3.63; $F(1, 596)$ = 12.53, p < .05]. However, when the sport team was portrayed as warm, students displayed higher spectating intentions in the high university ranking condition compared to the low university ranking condition [M_{HighRank} = 4.60 vs. M_{LowRank} = 3.95; $F(1, 596)$ = 5.36, p < .05].

Figure 10

Three-way Interaction Effect of Self-construal, University Ranking, and Stimulus Type on Spectating Intention
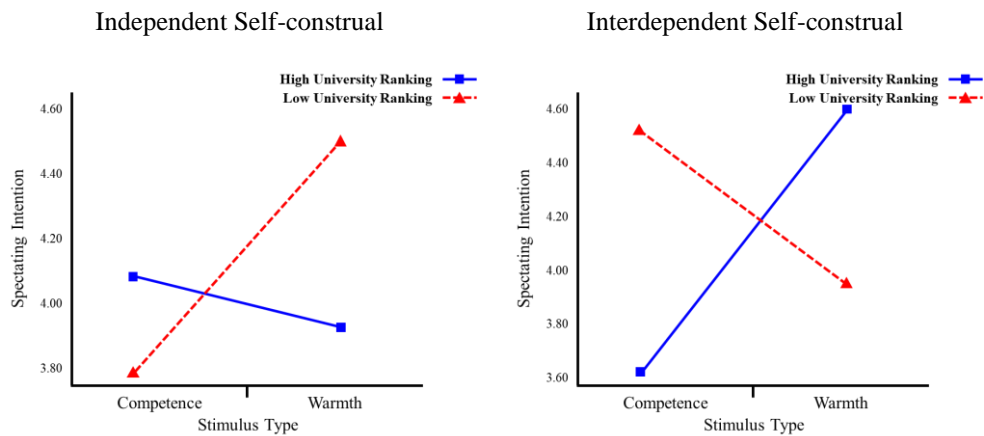
Fourth, for Merchandise Purchase Intention, results indicated that the main effect of Stimulus Type was statistically significant where the Warmth condition participants generally displayed higher team merchandise purchase intentions than the Competence condition participants [M_{Warm} = 3.49 vs. $M_{\text{Competent}}$ = 3.00, $F(1, 596)$ = 12.56, p < .05], while the main effects for self-construal and

university status showed no significant differences. Also, the two-way interactions were all statistically non-significant ($p > .05$).

Importantly, the three-way interaction returned significant results [$F(1, 596) = 11.82$, $p < .05$]. Planned contrasts indicated that in the case of participants with a relative independent self-construal (i.e., individualists), there were no statistically significant differences between the high university ranking and low university ranking conditions when the team was portrayed as competent [$M_{HighRank} = 3.06$ vs. $M_{LowRank} = 2.78$; $p > .05$]. However, when the sport team was portrayed as warm, students displayed higher merchandise purchase intentions in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition [$M_{LowRank} = 3.77$ vs. $M_{HighRank} = 3.07$; $F(1, 596) = 6.58$, $p < .05$].

Meanwhile, for participants with a relative interdependent self-construal (i.e., collectivists), university students displayed higher merchandise purchase intentions for the competent team in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition [$M_{LowRank} = 3.35$ vs. $M_{HighRank} = 2.83$; $F(1, 596) = 4.41$, $p < .05$]. However, when the sport team was portrayed as warm, there were no statistically significant differences between the high university and low university ranking conditions [$M_{HighRank} = 3.73$ vs. $M_{LowRank} = 3.37$; $p > .05$].

Table 16

Influence of Self-construal, University Status, and Stimulus Type on Merchandise Purchase Intention

Groups	*df*	*MS*	*F*	η^2
Intercept	1	6281.28	2285.20***	.79
Self-construal	1	3.20	1.16	< .01
University Status	1	3.19	1.16	< .01
Stimulus Type	1	34.52	12.56***	.02
Self-construal x University Status	1	.62	.22	< .01
Self-construal x Stimulus Type	1	.04	.02	< .01
University Status x Stimulus Type	1	.11	.04	< .01
Self-construal x University Status x Stimulus type	1	32.48	11.82***	.02
Error	596	2.75		

*Note. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.*

Self-construal = Independent vs. Interdependent; University Status = High

Ranking vs. Low Ranking; Stimulus Type = Competence vs. Warmth

Figure 11

Three-way Interaction Effect of Self-construal, University Ranking, and Stimulus Type on Merchandise Purchase Intention
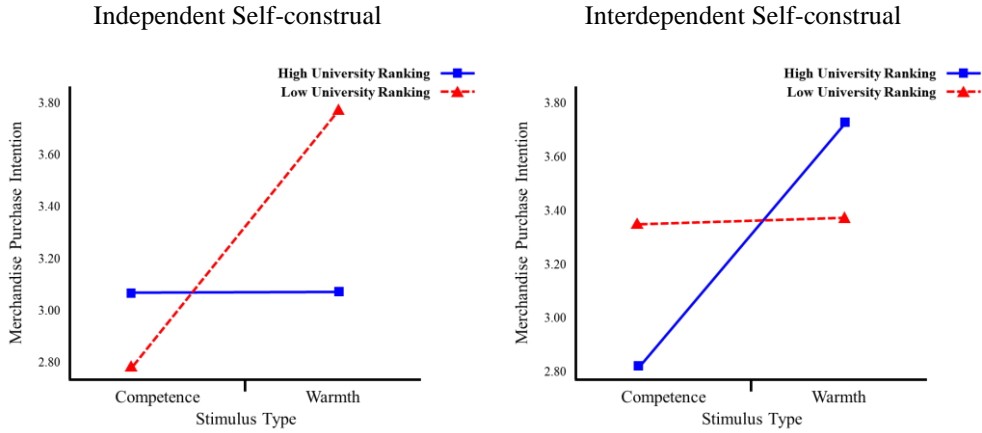
Finally, for University Pride, results indicated that the main effect of university status was statistically significant where participants displayed higher university pride in the high university ranking condition than the low university ranking condition [M_{HighRank} = 5.41 vs. M_{LowRank} = 5.00, $F(1, 596)$ = 15.10, $p < .05$]. Also, the main effect of Stimulus Type was statistically significant where the Warmth condition participants generally displayed higher team merchandise purchase intentions than the Competence condition participants [M_{Warm} = 5.33 vs. $M_{\text{Competent}}$ = 5.07, $F(1, 596)$ = 6.23, $p < .05$], while the main effect for self-construal showed no significant differences.

The two-way interaction between university status and stimulus type was statistically significant [$F(1, 596)$ = 4.36, $p < .05$]. Planned contrasts revealed that when university students were presented with information about the competence of their university sport team, they displayed significantly higher university

pride in the high university ranking condition than the low university ranking condition [M_{HighRank} = 5.38 vs. M_{LowRank} = 4.75; $F(1, 596)$ = 18.53, $p < .05$]. However, when presented with information about the warmth of their university sport team, there were no significant differences in university pride amongst the high university and low university ranking conditions (M_{HighRank} = 5.43 vs. M_{LowRank} = 5.24, $p > .05$).

The three-way interaction returned significant results [$F(1, 596)$ = 8.82, $p < .05$]. Planned contrasts indicated that in the case of participants with a relative independent self-construal (i.e., individualists), when presented with information about the competence of their university sport team, students displayed higher university pride in the high university ranking condition compared to the low university ranking condition [M_{HighRank} = 5.47 vs. M_{LowRank} = 4.70; $F(1, 596)$ = 12.03, $p < .05$]. However, when the sport team was portrayed as warm, independent self-construal students displayed no significant differences in university pride between the high and low university ranking conditions (M_{HighRank} = 5.15 vs. M_{LowRank} = 5.46; $p > .05$)

Meanwhile, participants with a relative interdependent self-construal (i.e., collectivists) displayed significantly higher university pride in the high university ranking condition regardless of whether the information was about the competence [M_{HighRank} = 4.30 vs. M_{LowRank} = 4.80; $p < .05$] or the warmth [M_{HighRank} = 5.70 vs. M_{LowRank} = 5.02; $p < .05$] of the sport team.

Table 17

Influence of Self-construal, University Status, and Stimulus Type on University Pride

Groups	*df*	*MS*	*F*	η^2
Intercept	1	16136.43	9686.25***	.94
Self-construal	1	.02	.01	< .01
University Status	1	25.16	15.10***	.03
Stimulus Type	1	10.37	6.23*	.01
Self-construal x University Status	1	4.84	2.91	< .01
Self-construal x Stimulus Type	1	.27	.16	< .01
University Status x Stimulus Type	1	7.27	4.36*	.01
Self-construal x University Status x Stimulus type	1	14.69	8.82**	.02
Error	596	1.67		

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.

Self-construal = Independent vs. Interdependent; University Status = High

Ranking vs. Low Ranking; Stimulus Type = Competence vs. Warmth

Figure 12

Interaction Effect of University Ranking and Stimulus Type on University Pride
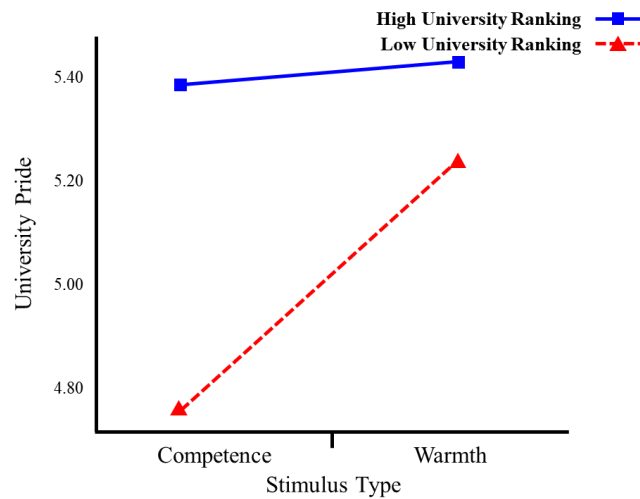
Figure 13

Three-way Interaction Effect of Self-construal, University Ranking, and Stimulus Type on University Pride
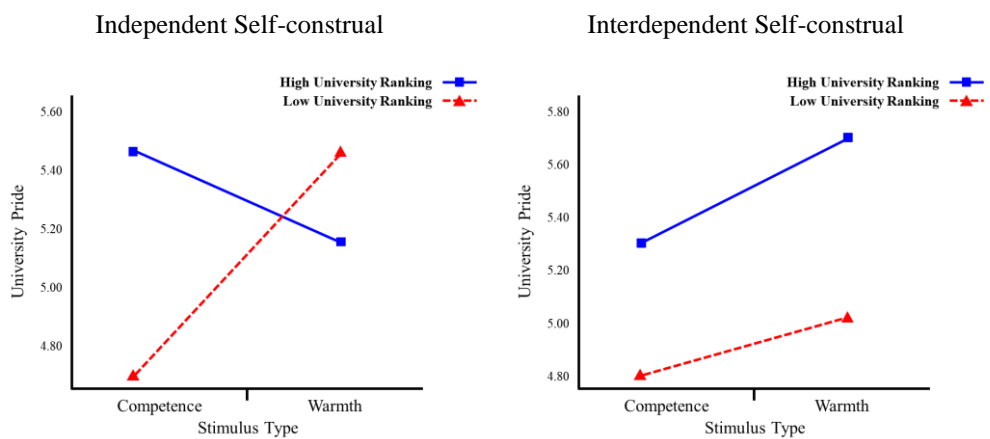
4.4. Discussion

Study 2 further investigated the differing attitudes and behavioral intentions of university student according to culture in response to competence and warmth information about their university sport team.

Data analysis results indicated that participants generally displayed more favorable attitudes and behavioral intentions towards their university sport team when provided with warmth information compared to when provided with competence information. Unlike Study 1, Study 2's sample was collected solely in Korea, and this may have caused the sample to be more chronically collectivistic in nature, leading to a heightened preference for the warm team.

Furthermore, it was hypothesized that for independents the effect of competence cues will be weaker in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition, while the effects of warmth cues will be stronger in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition. On the other hand, for interdependents, it was hypothesized that the effect of competence cues would be stronger in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition, while the effects of warmth cues would be weaker in the low university ranking condition compared to the high university ranking condition.

Analysis of the data indicated that for university students with a relative independent self-construal, there were no significant differences in all the outcome variables (i.e., attitude towards team, positive word of mouth intention, spectating intention, merchandise

purchase intention, and university pride) between the competent and warm team conditions when their university was portrayed as having a high academic ranking. However, when the university was portrayed as having a low academic ranking, university students displayed significantly higher attitudes and behavioral intentions for the warm team over the competent team. Furthermore, this difference was caused by significant drops in the outcome variables between the high-ranking and low-ranking condition for the competence cues, and significant increases in the outcome variables for the warmth cues.

Meanwhile, in the case of university students with a relative interdependent self-construal, when their university was portrayed as having a high university ranking, students displayed significantly higher attitudes and behavioral intentions toward their university sport team in the warm team condition compared to the competent team condition. However, when informed that their university had a low academic ranking, students displayed no significant differences in their attitudes and behavioral intentions toward their university sport team between the competent and warm conditions. Furthermore, this non-significant difference was driven by significant decreases in interdependent students' preferences for the warm team and significant increases in preferences for the competent team.

These results provide support for our hypothesized interaction effects between university status and stimulus type (H3 & H4). Independents have chronic self-enhancement motives (Tsai, Chiang, & Lau, 2015) causing a tendency to focus on their relative strengths. In the high university ranking condition independent self-construal students are not motivated to prioritize or diminish

the importance of a certain domain. However, under the low university ranking condition, independents are faced with a threat to the academic ability of their social group (i.e., the university identity) and by association their self-concepts in the domain of their academic abilities. This activates a need for independents to bolster an aspect of their self-concept that is unrelated to the threatened domain (i.e., competence), while downplaying the importance of the threatened domain.

On the other hand, collectivists (i.e., interdependents) use self-critical information in an adaptive nature (Fiske et al., 1998; Kitayama et al., 1997) and perceive it as an area that they should focus on improving (Heine, 2003) so that they can fulfill their duties within a social group or society. Thus, the threatened domain becomes more salient and its perceived importance increases (Tsai, Chiang, & Lau, 2015). Therefore, when interdependent university students were informed of their lacking academic abilities via information about their university's low ranking, their perception on the importance of being competent in society would have increased, thus increasing their favorable responses toward a competent sport team.

Meanwhile, when faced with a social identity threat a belongingness need is activated and they seek to associate more with social groups they more strongly identify with (White, Argo, & Sengupta, 2012; Nakashima, Isobe, & Ura, 2008). Thus, in the context of the current study, interdependents' favorability of the warmth of a sport team to which they have no real social connection decreased in the face of a university ranking threat.

Chapter 5. Study 3

5.1. Purpose and Hypotheses

Studies 1 and 2 investigated the differential preferences for competence and warmth related information according to cultural orientation and self-construal. However, recent developments in Stereotype Content research have indicated that the warmth dimension can be further divided into the sociability and morality dimensions. Furthermore, given that an important function of collegiate sports is its utility as a promotional tool for the university, it is important that it be perceived positively by not only current students, but the community surrounding the university. Finally, based on studies in marketing and general management, non-consumers' perceptions of the brand can stem from evaluations about the brand itself, but also from evaluations about the users of the brand.

Based on the literature about exchange-communal relationships, stereotypes, and brand communities, Study 3 attempts to distinguish between cues related directly to the collegiate sport team and cues related to the fan community. Past studies indicate that the individualists tend to view products and services in terms of exchange relationships while collectivists view them in terms of communal relationships and, thus, individualists value the core product more than peripheral benefits, while collectivists incorporate the peripheral benefits and situational context in their evaluations (Bresnahan, Chiu, & Levine, 2004; Cross, Bacon, & Morris, 2000; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). Thus, Study 3 intends to

jointly investigate the effects of the perceived competence, sociability and morality of the team as well as the perceived competence, sociability and morality of the fan community on the attitudes and behavioral intentions of the general public. The following research question will be explored:

H5. Perceived team traits (i.e., team competence, team sociability, and team morality) will positively influence individuals' attitudes and behavioral intentions towards a collegiate sport team.

H6. Perceived fan community traits (i.e., fan community competence, fan community sociability, and fan community morality) will positively influence individuals' attitudes and behavioral intentions towards a collegiate sport team.

H7. Self-construal will moderate the positive relationship between perceived fan community traits (competence, sociability, morality) and attitude towards the team, attitude towards the university, and behavioral intentions.

H8. Self-construal will moderate the positive relationship between perceived team traits (competence, sociability, morality) and attitude towards the team, attitude towards the university, and behavioral intentions.

5.2. Methodology

5.2.1) Stimulus Development and Pretest

Prior to the main study, a list of potential descriptors about the soccer team's competence, sociability, and morality, as well as the fan community's competence, sociability, and morality had to be established. Furthermore, three versions of each descriptor had to be created, corresponding to either a positive, relatively neutral, or negative valence. The list of descriptors was established by utilizing some of the descriptors used in studies 1 and 2, as well as other descriptors gathered from past social perception and sport literature, various sport websites, news articles, discussion boards, and discussions with sport management professors and doctorial students. A final list comprised of three valences per descriptor (i.e., positive, neutral, negative), three descriptors per dimension, six dimensions (i.e., Team Competence, Team Sociability, Team Morality, Fan Community Competence, Fan Community Sociability, and Fan Community Morality), resulting in 54 total descriptors to be pretested.

The pretest was conducted to ensure that each descriptor is accurately classified into its relative dimension and to confirm the perceived valence of each descriptor. Pretest participants were gathered via convenience sampling, and data was collected using the Qualtrics survey tool. A total of 108 individuals participated in the pretest and after removing 4 insincere responses, the final sample consisted of 104 individuals.

Pretest participants were presented with 18 descriptors where the order of descriptors was randomized, as well as the valence of

each descriptor. After each descriptor, participants were asked to rate the valence of the descriptor on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1=Negative to 7=Positive, and select the relevant category of the descriptor. The order of questions (i.e., valence and category) were randomized. Also, the order of category selections was also randomized.

To check for the categorization of each descriptor, a simple tabulation of responses was conducted. The percentage of correct categorizations ranged from 86.54% (Fan Community Sociability descriptor #2 and Fan Community Morality descriptor #1) being the lowest. It was deemed that accuracy above 86% was sufficient for the purposes of Study 2.

Next, a series of independent samples ANOVAs were conducted to assess the valence of descriptors. Overall, there were statistically significant differences amongst each valence group [$M_{Positive}$ = 6.11 vs. $M_{Neutral}$ = 4.32 vs. $M_{Negative}$ = 2.29, $F(2, 1869)$ = 1390.57, $p < .05$]. The Bonferroni post hoc test confirmed that all valence groups significantly differed with each other.

Next, the valences of each descriptor was compared separately to identify any descriptors that induced incorrect valence perceptions. Results indicated that all valences were correctly perceived. The means of the Positive valence descriptors ranged from 5.28 to 6.59, the Neutral valence descriptors ranged from 3.38 to 4.85, and the Negative valence descriptors ranged from 1.41 to 3.03. The individual Bonferroni post hoc tests indicated that all differences were significant at the $p < .05$ level. Thus, it was concluded that the valences of each descriptor was successfully manipulated and sufficient for use in the main study.

5.2.2) Study 3 Participants

Participants for Study 3 were recruited through convenience sampling. Participation was open to anybody who was 18 years of age and older and currently residing in Korea. Data collection was achieved via online survey created using the Qualtrics online survey tool.

A total of 430 individuals participated in the study, and after 15 insincere responses were removed, the final sample consisted of 415 participants. This sample size far exceeds the recommended sample size for Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS−SEM) which is 10 times the number of connections between latent variables. In this case, the recommended minimum number of participants was 200 at the .05 significance level and R^2 = 0.10 effect size (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). Participants were mostly male (66.7%). Ages ranged from 18 to 59 years (M = 28.67, SD = 8.56).

5.2.3) Study 3 Procedure

Participants were first presented with an information sheet explaining the terms and conditions of participating in the current study, followed by a consent form in accordance with Seoul National University's Internal Review Board guidelines.

Upon consent, participants were presented with six random descriptors (out of the possible 54) about a soccer team of a nearby university. After reading the six descriptors, participants answered questions about their perceived Team Competence, Team Sociability, Team Morality, Fan Community Competence, Fan

Community Sociability, and Fan Community Morality presented in random order. Next, participants answered questions about the outcome variables (Attitude Toward Team, Positive Word of Mouth Intentions, Spectating Intentions, Merchandise Purchase Intentions, Attitude Towards the University, and University Pride). Following the outcome variables, participants answered questions measuring their self-construal and demographic information.

5.2.4) Study 3 Instrumentation

Perceived Competence, Sociability and *Morality* was measured through fifteen-items used by Leach, Ellemers, and Barreto (2007). Participants were asked "To what extent do you believe that [university team / fan community] is..." followed by competence, sociability, and morality items on a 7-point Likert-type scale. Competence items included *competent, skilled, effective, talented* and *capable*. Sociability items include *sociable*, *likeable*, *approachable, welcoming* and *friendly*. Morality items include *moral, trustworthy, ethical, responsible* and *righteous*.

Independent and *Interdependent Self-Construal* was measured using Singelis's (1994) self-construal scale. The scale consists of two 12-item subscales, one for level of independence, and one for level of interdependence. Given that both self-construals can coexist within an individual, all participants were required to complete both scales. Sample items for the independence scale include "my personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me" and "I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects." Sample items for the interdependence

scale includes items such as "my happiness depends on the happiness of those around me" and "I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in."

Attitude toward the Team and University was measured using a five-item 7-point semantic-differential scale adapted from Mackenzie and Lutz (1989) and Jun and Holland (2012). Items include Bad-Good, Unfavorable-Favorable, Negative-Positive, Dislike very much-Like very much, and Uninteresting-Interesting.

Behavioral Intentions of interest consisted of the following four behaviors of interest: (1) intention to attend future games, (2) team merchandise purchase intention, and (3) positive word of mouth intention.

Intention to Attend Future Games was measured using the five-item scale by Cunningham and Kwon (2003). Items include "I intend to attend a [team] game during the season," "Attending a [team] game this season is something I plan to do," and "I will try to attend a [team] game during the season. Scale items will be measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree)

Team Merchandise Purchase Intentions was measured using a three-item scale adopted from Kim & James (2016). Items include "I intend to purchase [team] merchandise," "I will purchase [team] merchandise in the future," and "I would like to purchase [team] merchandise." Scale items will be measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree)

Positive Word of Mouth Intention captured the willingness to recommend the team to others and was measured by adapting the three-item scale of Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996). The original scale was designed for positive word-of-mouth about

brands, thus the current study slightly modified the items to fit the current study. The three items include "To what extent is it likely that you would say positive things about [team]?", "To what extent is it likely that you would recommend [team] to others/fellow students?", "To what extent would you spread positive word-of-mouth about [team]?" Scale items will be measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Not at All, 7 = Very Much)

University Pride was measured using a five-item 7-point Likert-type scale borrowed from Gouthier and Rhein (2011). Items include "I proud to be a community member of the university", "I am proud to tell others that I am a community member of the university", "I have a feeling of joy to be a community member of the university", "I am proud to be associated to the university", and "I have a feeling that the university is doing meaningful things." Scale items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree).

5.3. Results

The current study used Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) to test the proposed hypotheses. Data was analyzed using the SmartPLS 3.3.3 software. PLS-SEM is a second-generation statistical analysis method that utilizes a series of Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) and provides several advantages. First, unlike Covariance-Based Structural Equation Modeling, PLS-SEM places fewer demands on the measurement

scales (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017) and there are no assumptions made about the indicators' joint distributions (Chin & Newsted, 1999). Instead, PLS-SEM is more focused on the predictor specifications and how the model explains the variance of the dependent variables. In other words, CB-SEM is more suitable for models that are deeply rooted in an established theory, while PLS-SEM is suitable for studies with a more exploratory nature. Secondly, PLS-SEM allows for the analysis of multiple continuous moderator variables and can be directly included into the model (Hair et al., 2017).

5.3.1) PLS-SEM Outer Model

The SmartPLS 3.0 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted on all scale items to assess the measurement model's individual item reliability, convergent validity, internal consistency, and discriminant validity. A series of six SmartPLS CFAs were conducted (i.e., one CFA per endogenous variable).

Individual item reliability was confirmed through the examination of the outer loadings. Upon the initial review of the model, six items from each of the interdependence and independence scales did not meet the .7 cut-off point (Hair et al., 2017) and thus removed from the model. After removal of the items, all outer loading values exceeded the .707 threshold.

Internal consistency was evaluated using composite reliability values (CR; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Cronbach's α and CR values all exceeded the .70 threshold. To assess convergent validity, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for each construct

was reviewed. All AVE values surpassed the recommended cut-off point of .05. The results of the outer model analyses are summarized in Table 18. Furthermore, the squared AVE values of the constructs were greater than the intercorrelations of the construct with other constructs within the model, thus, the variables displayed discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Finally, the outer loadings for each construct loaded higher onto its respective construct than on any other latent variable, suggesting that discriminant and convergent validity has been established (Gefen, Straub, & Bourdreau, 2000). The squared AVE values and intercorrelations are displayed in Table 19.

Table 18

Study 3 Factor Analysis of Constructs

Latent Variable	Manifest Variable	Outer Loadings	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's α	AVE
Team Competence	TCMP1	.91 ~ .95	.97	.97	.85
	TCMP2	.93 ~ .96			
	TCMP3	.88 ~ .89			
	TCMP4	.90~ .92			
	TCMP5	.93 ~ .95			
Team Sociability	TSOC1	.75 ~ .77	.94	.94	.75
	TSOC2	.90 ~ .92			
	TSOC3	.85 ~ .86			
	TSOC4	.87 ~ .89			
	TSOC5	.93 ~ .94			
Team Morality	TMOR1	.83 ~ .83	.93	.93	.72
	TMOR2	.85 ~ .87			
	TMOR3	.83 ~ .84			
	TMOR4	.76 ~ .78			
	TMOR5	.94 ~ .96			
Fan Community Competence	FCMP1	.78 ~ .79	.92	.92	.69
	FCMP2	.85 ~ .86			
	FCMP3	.86 ~ .88			
	FCMP4	.80 ~ .81			
	FCMP5	.80 ~ .82			
Fan Community Sociability	FSOC1	.78 ~ .80	.94	.94	.76
	FSOC2	.89 ~ .92			
	FSOC3	.89 ~ .90			
	FSOC4	.88 ~ .90			
	FSOC5	.87 ~ .88			
Fan Community Morality	FMOR1	.85 ~ .86	.93	0.93	.71
	FMOR2	.82 ~ .84			
	FMOR3	.71 ~ .88			
	FMOR4	.81 ~ .83			
	FMOR5	.84 ~ .85			
Independent Self-Construal	INDEP1	.79 ~ .86	.89	.89	0.58
	INDEP2	.71 ~ .76			
	INDEP3	.70 ~ .72			
	INDEP7	.78 ~ .82			
	INDEP8	.73 ~ .79			
	INDEP10	.70 ~ .75			
Interdependent Self-Construal	INTER1	.73 ~ .79	.91	.91	.63
	INTER2	.74 ~ .80			
	INTER5	.70 ~ .76			
	INTER9	.77 ~ .81			
	INTER10	.88 ~ .93			
	INTER11	.80 ~ .84			

Note. Gaps in the sequencing are due to the elimination of items that did not meet the .7 loading cut-off criterion. Outer loadings ranges represent the minimum and maximum values of loadings for each CFA with changing endogenous variables (6 in total).

Table 18 (*continued*)

Latent Variable	Manifest Variable	Outer Loading	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's α	AVE
Attitude Toward Team	ATT1	.82	.93	.93	.72
	ATT2	.91			
	ATT3	.80			
	ATT4	.85			
	ATT5	.86			
Positive Word of Mouth Intention	PWOM1	.88	.94	.94	.78
	PWOM2	.92			
	PWOM3	.91			
	PWOM4	.82			
Spectating Intention	SPEC1	.91	.95	.95	.79
	SPEC2	.91			
	SPEC3	.87			
	SPEC4	.88			
	SPEC5	.86			
Merchandise Purchase Intention	MPI1	.89	.96	.96	.82
	MPI2	.92			
	MPI3	.91			
	MPI4	.81			
	MPI5	.99			
Attitude Toward University	UATT1	.91	.94	.94	.76
	UATT2	.96			
	UATT3	.85			
	UATT4	.83			
	UATT5	.81			
University Pride	UATT1	.92	.94	.94	.77
	UATT2	.90			
	UATT3	.84			
	UATT4	.92			
	UATT5	.79			

Table 19

Study 3 Inter-construct Correlations Matrix and Square-root of AVE

	1. AT	1. PW	1. SI	1. PI	1. UA	1. UP	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Dependent Variables	**0.85**	**0.89**	**0.89**	**0.90**	**0.87**	**0.88**								
2. Fan Competence	0.47	0.45	0.45	0.28	0.48	0.43	**0.83**							
3. Fan Morality	0.50	0.52	0.45	0.31	0.47	0.50	0.64	**0.84**						
4. Fan Sociability	0.47	0.47	0.40	0.25	0.42	0.44	0.61	0.71	**0.87**					
5. Independence	0.01	0.11	0.14	0.03	0.12	0.15	0.03	0.01	0.00	**0.76**				
6. Interdependence	0.08	0.24	0.31	0.13	0.17	0.18	0.07	0.14	0.11	0.28	**0.80**			
7. Team Competence	0.41	0.43	0.40	0.22	0.34	0.30	0.30	0.17	0.13	0.08	0.13	**0.92**		
8. Team Morality	0.66	0.59	0.44	0.36	0.50	0.46	0.34	0.48	0.36	0.04	0.08	0.35	**0.85**	
9. Team Sociability	0.62	0.51	0.40	0.27	0.49	0.39	0.41	0.42	0.44	0.01	0.10	0.27	0.75	**0.87**

Note. Bold numbers show the square root of AVE.

AT=Attitude toward team; PW=Positive Word of Mouth; SI=Spectating Intention; PI=Merchandise Purchase Intention; UA=Attitude Toward University; UP=University Pride.

5.3.2) Inner Model Analysis and Path Estimates

Unlike Covariance Based SEM, PLS-SEM does not have a standard goodness-of-fit statistic (Henseler & Sarstedt, 2013). Instead, PLS-SEM evaluates the inner model's ability to predict endogenous constructs using the exogenous constructs (Hair et al., 2017) based on the coefficient of determination (R^2), cross-validated redundancy (Q^2), and path coefficients (Hair et al., 2017).

For the Attitude Towards the Team, the R^2 values of the tested model demonstrated that 54.0% of the variance in attitude can be explained from the causal relationships with the other constructs. The Stone-Geisser's Q^2 for attitude toward the team was 0.394, indicating a large predictive relevance.

To test the hypotheses, analysis of the path coefficients was conducted using a bootstrapping method with 500 iterations of resampling (Davison & Hinkley, 1997). The estimated path coefficients for the endogenous latent variables and significance test results can be found in Table 20. Analysis of the path coefficients indicated that while Team Competence (β=0.171, p < .05), Team Sociability (β=0.216, p < .001), and Team Morality (β=0.290, p < .05) significantly influenced attitudes toward the team, out of the fan community related variables, only Fan Community Morality's (β=0.109, p < .05) influence was statistically significant. Furthermore, all interaction effects were non-significant, indicating that self-construal did not moderate the relationships between Team Related perceptions and Fan Community related perceptions on the attitude towards the team.

Table 20

Standardized Path Coefficients for Attitude Toward Team

Structural Path	Path Coefficient	SD	t	sig.
Team Competence -> Attitude	.17	.04	3.95	**< .05**
Team Sociability -> Attitude	.22	.06	3.58	**< .05**
Team Morality -> Attitude	.29	.06	4.60	**< .05**
Fan Community Competence -> Attitude	.08	.05	1.63	.10
Fan Community Sociability -> Attitude	.10	.05	1.78	.08
Fan Community Morality -> Attitude	.11	.05	2.04	**< .05**
Independence -> Attitude	.01	.05	.10	.92
Interdependence -> Attitude	-.01	.04	.32	.75
Team Comp X Independence -> Attitude	.04	.04	1.07	.29
Team Soc X Independence -> Attitude	.01	.07	.03	.98
Team Mor X Independence -> Attitude	< .00	.05	.01	.99
Fan Comp X Independence -> Attitude	-.17	.09	1.87	.06
Fan Soc. X Independence -> Attitude	.03	.07	.43	.67
Fan Mor X Independence -> Attitude	.06	.07	.77	.44
Team Comp X Interdependence -> Attitude	.10	.08	1.26	.21
Team Soc X Interdependence -> Attitude	.03	.07	.36	.72
Team Mor X Interdependence -> Attitude	-.04	.09	.47	.64
Fan Comp X Interdependence -> Attitude	.01	.08	.19	.85
Fan Soc. X Interdependence -> Attitude	-.01	.07	.20	.84
Fan Mor X Interdependence -> Attitude	-.02	.08	.25	.80

For Positive Word of Mouth Intentions about the Team, the R^2 values of the tested model demonstrated that 51.1% of the variance in attitude can be explained from the causal relationships with the other constructs. The Stone-Geisser's Q^2 for positive word of mouth about the team was 0.408 indicating a large predictive relevance.

To test the hypotheses, analysis of the path coefficients was conducted using a bootstrapping method with 500 iterations of resampling (Davison & Hinkley, 1997). The estimated path coefficients for the endogenous latent variables and significance

test results can be found in Table 21.

Table 21

Standardized Path Coefficients for Positive Word of Mouth

Structural Path	Path Coefficient	SD	t	sig.
Team Competence -> PWoM	.23	.04	5.26	**< .05**
Team Sociability -> PWoM	.06	.06	1.14	.26
Team Morality -> PWoM	.26	.06	4.44	**< .05**
Fan Community Competence -> PWoM	.05	.05	.89	.37
Fan Community Sociability -> PWoM	.12	.06	2.10	**< .05**
Fan Community Morality -> PWoM	.17	.06	3.01	**< .05**
Independence -> PWoM	.04	.04	1.09	.27
Interdependence -> PWoM	.12	.04	3.29	**< .05**
Team Comp X Independence -> PWoM	.02	.04	.57	.57
Team Soc X Independence -> PWoM	-.01	.06	.19	.85
Team Mor X Independence -> PWoM	.08	.05	1.64	.10
Fan Comp X Independence -> PWoM	.11	.12	.97	.34
Fan Soc. X Independence -> PWoM	-.04	.07	.55	.58
Fan Mor X Independence -> PWoM	-.05	.07	.80	.42
Team Comp X Interdependence -> PWoM	-.07	.08	.96	.34
Team Soc X Interdependence -> PWoM	-.01	.08	.11	.91
Team Mor X Interdependence -> PWoM	.01	.07	.07	.94
Fan Comp X Interdependence -> PWoM	.12	.05	2.49	**< .05**
Fan Soc. X Interdependence -> PWoM	.06	.05	1.20	.23
Fan Mor X Interdependence -> PWoM	-.04	.06	.63	.53

Analysis of the path coefficients indicated that for the team-related characteristics, Team Competence (β=0.227, p < .05) and Team Morality (β=0.264, p < .05) positively influenced word of mouth intentions. In the case of fan community-related characteristics, Fan Community Sociability (β=0.123, p < .05) and Fan Community Morality (β=0.166, p = .003) positively influenced word of mouth intentions. Also, interdependence positively influenced word of mouth intentions (β=0.121, p = .05),

where individuals with higher interdependence displayed higher intentions to spread positive word of mouth.

As for the moderating effects, interdependence moderated the relationship between Fan Community Competence and word of mouth intentions (β = 0.119, p < .05), where those with higher levels of interdependence were more strongly influenced by fan community competence perceptions. All other moderation effects were non-significant.

Figure 14

Simple Slopes for Fan Community Competence and Interdependence Interaction on Positive Word of Mouth
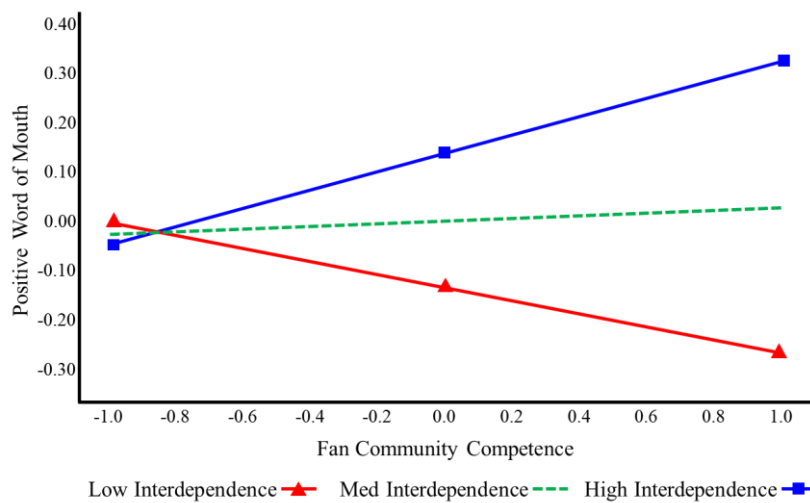
For Future Spectating Intention, the R^2 values of the tested model demonstrated that 41.0% of the variance in attitude can be explained from the causal relationships with the other constructs. The Stone-Geisser's Q^2 for Spectating Intention was 0. indicating a large predictive relevance.

To test the hypotheses, analysis of the path coefficients was conducted using a bootstrapping method with 500 iterations of resampling (Davison & Hinkley, 1997). The estimated path coefficients for the endogenous latent variables and significance test results can be found in Table 22. Analysis of the path coefficients indicated that for the team-related characteristics, Team Competence (β =0.245, p < .05) and Team Morality (β =0.142, p < .05) positively influenced spectating intentions. In the case of fan community-related characteristics, only Fan Community Competence (β =0.130, p < .05) positively influenced spectating intentions. Also, interdependence positively influenced spectating intentions (β =0.188, p < .05), where individuals with higher interdependence displayed higher spectating intentions.

As for the moderating effects of self-construal, for the Team-related characteristics, Individualism moderated the effects of Team Competence on Spectating Intentions (β =0.177, p < .05), where Team Competence had a stronger effect on Spectating Intentions for those higher in Independence. All other Team-related moderations were non-significant. For the Fan Community-related characteristics, Interdependence moderated the effects of Fan Community Competence (β =0.145, p < .05) and Fan Community Sociability (β =0.171, p < .05) on spectating intentions, where the relationship was stronger for those with higher levels of interdependence.

Table 22

Standardized path Coefficients for Spectating Intention

| Structural Path	Path Coefficient	SD	t	sig.
Team Competence -> Spectating Intent	.25	.04	5.68	**< .05**
Team Sociability -> Spectating Intent	.04	.06	.67	.51
Team Morality -> Spectating Intent	.14	.06	2.48	**< .05**
Fan Community Competence -> Spectating Intent	.13	.05	2.42	**< .05**
Fan Community Sociability -> Spectating Intent	.08	.06	1.24	.22
Fan Community Morality -> Spectating Intent	.10	.06	1.57	.12
Independence -> Spectating Intent	.06	.04	1.55	.12
Interdependence -> Spectating Intent	.19	.04	4.68	**< .05**
Team Comp X Independence -> Spectating Intent	.18	.04	4.01	**< .05**
Team Soc X Independence -> Spectating Intent	< .01	.09	.01	.99
Team Mor X Independence -> Spectating Intent	-.05	.06	.84	.40
Fan Comp X Independence -> Spectating Intent	-.04	.07	.61	.54
Fan Soc. X Independence -> Spectating Intent	.01	.09	.09	.93
Fan Mor X Independence -> Spectating Intent	-.03	.07	.40	.69
Team Comp X Interdependence -> Spectating Intent	-.17	.09	1.85	.06
Team Soc X Interdependence -> Spectating Intent	.01	.07	.11	.92
Team Mor X Interdependence -> Spectating Intent	-.02	.07	.35	.73
Fan Comp X Interdependence -> Spectating Intent	.15	.06	2.40	**< .05**
Fan Soc. X Interdependence -> Spectating Intent	.17	.06	2.91	**< .05**
Fan Mor X Interdependence -> Spectating Intent	.05	.07	.67	.50

Figure 15

Simple Slopes for Team Competence and Independence Interaction on Spectating Intention
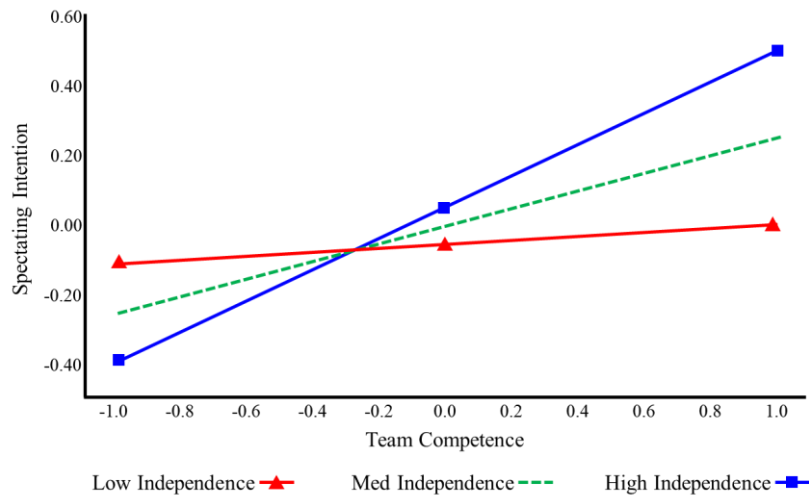
Figure 16

Simple Slopes for Fan Community Competence and Interdependence Interaction on Spectating Intention
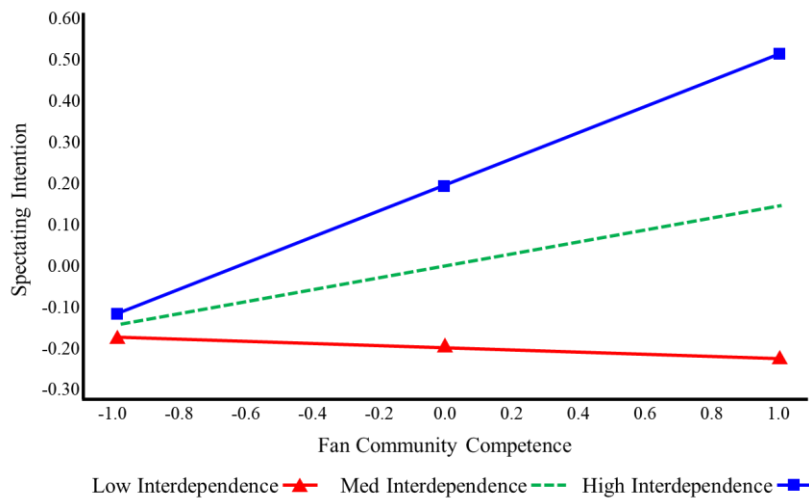
Figure 17

Simple Slopes for Fan Community Sociability and Interdependence Interaction on Spectating Intention
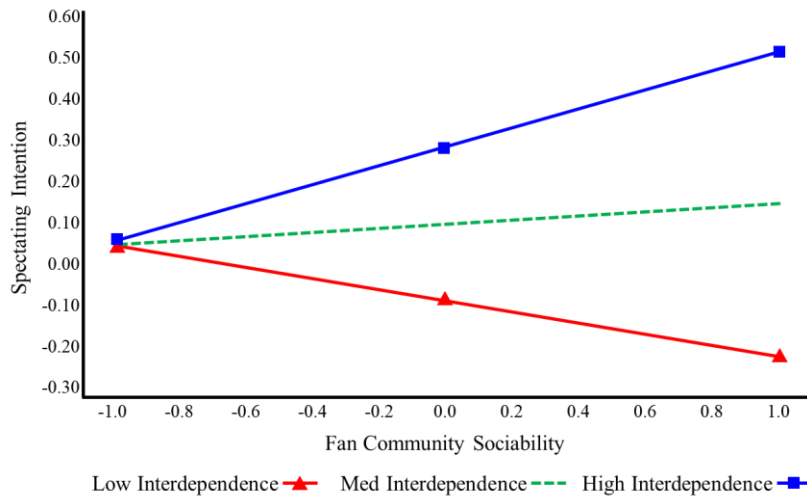
In the case of Team Merchandise Purchase Intentions, the R^2 values of the tested model demonstrated that 24.4% of the variance in attitude can be explained from the causal relationships with the other constructs. The Stone-Geisser's Q^2 for team merchandise purchase intention was 0.187, indicating a small predictive relevance.

To test the hypotheses, analysis of the path coefficients was conducted using a bootstrapping method with 500 iterations of resampling (Davison & Hinkley, 1997). The estimated path coefficients for the endogenous latent variables and significance test results can be found in Table 23. Analysis of the path coefficients indicated that for the team-related characteristics, Team Competence (β =0.114, p < .05) and Team Morality (β =0.224, p < .05) positively influenced merchandise purchase

intentions. In the case of fan community−related characteristics, only Fan Community Morality ($\beta = 0.140$, $p < .05$) positively influenced merchandise purchase intentions. Self−construal did not have any significant direct or moderating effects on merchandise purchase intentions.

For the Attitude towards the University, the R^2 values of the tested model demonstrated that 42.5% of the variance in attitude can be explained from the causal relationships with the other constructs. The Stone−Geisser's Q^2 for attitude towards the university was 0.325, indicating a medium predictive relevance.

Table 23

Standardized Path Coefficients for Merchandise Purchase Intention

Structural Path	Path Coefficient	SD	t	sig.
Team Competence -> Purchase Intent	.11	.05	2.24	**< .05**
Team Sociability -> Purchase Intent	-.04	.07	.53	.59
Team Morality -> Purchase Intent	.22	.07	3.19	**< .05**
Fan Community Competence -> Purchase Intent	.05	.06	.83	.41
Fan Community Sociability -> Purchase Intent	.01	.06	.16	.87
Fan Community Morality -> Purchase Intent	.14	.07	2.09	**< .05**
Independence -> Purchase Intent	.03	.09	.38	.71
Interdependence -> Purchase Intent	.08	.05	1.70	.09
Team Comp X Independence -> Purchase Intent	.05	.05	1.06	.29
Team Soc X Independence -> Purchase Intent	.02	.09	.23	.82
Team Mor X Independence -> Purchase Intent	-.03	.07	.38	.71
Fan Comp X Independence -> Purchase Intent	-.11	.10	1.08	.28
Fan Soc. X Independence -> Purchase Intent	.09	.13	.75	.46
Fan Mor X Independence -> Purchase Intent	-.12	.12	.98	.33
Team Comp X Interdependence -> Purchase Intent	.03	.08	.42	.68
Team Soc X Interdependence -> Purchase Intent	.07	.12	.58	.56
Team Mor X Interdependence -> Purchase Intent	< .01	.11	.03	.98
Fan Comp X Interdependence -> Purchase Intent	.07	.07	.99	.32
Fan Soc. X Interdependence -> Purchase Intent	.03	.07	.43	.67
Fan Mor X Interdependence -> Purchase Intent	-.06	.13	.44	.66

To test the hypotheses, analysis of the path coefficients was conducted using a bootstrapping method with 500 iterations of resampling (Davison & Hinkley, 1997). The estimated path coefficients for the endogenous latent variables and significance test results can be found in Table 24. Analysis of the path coefficients indicated that for the team-related characteristics, Team Competence (β=0.131, p < .05) and Team Morality (β=0.203, p < .05) positively influenced attitude toward university. In the case of fan community-related characteristics, only Fan Community Competence (β=0.179, p < .05) positively attitude towards university. Also, interdependence positively influenced attitude towards university (β=0.075, p < .05), where individuals with higher interdependence displayed higher spectating intentions. Meanwhile, independence had no significant effects. There were no significant moderating effects of self-construal.

Table 24

Standardized Path Coefficients for Attitude Toward University

Structural Path	Path Coefficient	SD	t	sig.
Team Competence -> Univ. Attitude	.13	.05	2.54	**< .05**
Team Sociability -> Univ. Attitude	.09	.06	1.42	.16
Team Morality -> Univ. Attitude	.20	.07	2.96	**< .05**
Fan Community Competence -> Univ. Attitude	.18	.05	3.73	**< .05**
Fan Community Sociability -> Univ. Attitude	.11	.06	1.88	.06
Fan Community Morality -> Univ. Attitude	.09	.06	1.55	.12
Independence -> Univ. Attitude	.06	.04	1.46	.15
Interdependence -> Univ. Attitude	.08	.04	2.01	**< .05**
Team Comp X Independence -> Univ. Attitude	-.04	.05	.74	.46
Team Soc X Independence -> Univ. Attitude	.03	.07	.36	.72
Team Mor X Independence -> Univ. Attitude	.05	.06	.82	.42
Fan Comp X Independence -> Univ. Attitude	-.07	.08	.88	.38
Fan Soc. X Independence -> Univ. Attitude	-.14	.10	1.38	.17
Fan Mor X Independence -> Univ. Attitude	-.04	.08	.50	.62
Team Comp X Interdependence -> Univ. Attitude	.09	.07	1.25	.21
Team Soc X Interdependence -> Univ. Attitude	.02	.06	.32	.75
Team Mor X Interdependence -> Univ. Attitude	-.01	.07	.11	.91
Fan Comp X Interdependence -> Univ. Attitude	.01	.08	.16	.87
Fan Soc. X Interdependence -> Univ. Attitude	.07	.10	.73	.47
Fan Mor X Interdependence -> Univ. Attitude	-.01	.09	.08	.94

Finally, for University Pride, the R^2 values of the tested model demonstrated that 41.0% of the variance in attitude can be explained from the causal relationships with the other constructs. The Stone-Geisser's Q^2 for university pride was 0.320, indicating a medium predictive relevance.

To test the hypotheses, analysis of the path coefficients was conducted using a bootstrapping method with 500 iterations of resampling (Davison & Hinkley, 1997). The estimated path coefficients for the endogenous latent variables and significance

test results can be found in Table 25. Analysis of the path coefficients indicated that for the team−related characteristics, Team Competence (β=0.115, p < .05) and Team Morality (β=0.200, p < .05) positively influenced university pride. In the case of fan community−related characteristics, Fan Community Sociability (β=0.134, p < .05) and Fan Community Morality (β=0.229, p < .05) positively influenced university pride. Interdependence also had a significant direct positive relationship with university pride (β=0.085, p < .05). Meanwhile, self−construal did not have any significant moderating effects between the exogenous variables and university pride.

Table 25

Standardized Path Coefficients for University Pride

Structural Path	Path Coefficient	SD	t	sig.
Team Competence -> Univ. Pride	0.115	.05	2.39	**.017**
Team Sociability -> Univ. Pride	0.004	.06	.08	.940
Team Morality -> Univ. Pride	0.200	.06	3.24	**.001**
Fan Community Competence -> Univ. Pride	0.069	.05	1.29	.199
Fan Community Sociability -> Univ. Pride	0.134	.06	2.20	**.029**
Fan Community Morality -> Univ. Pride	0.229	.06	3.77	**.000**
Independence -> Univ. Pride	0.078	.04	1.96	.051
Interdependence -> Univ. Pride	0.085	.04	2.12	**.034**
Team Comp X Independence -> Univ. Pride	0.004	.09	.04	.966
Team Soc X Independence -> Univ. Pride	0.030	.09	.34	.738
Team Mor X Independence -> Univ. Pride	0.045	.07	.68	.499
Fan Comp X Independence -> Univ. Pride	-0.151	.10	1.53	.126
Fan Soc. X Independence -> Univ. Pride	-0.143	.12	1.23	.220
Fan Mor X Independence -> Univ. Pride	0.002	.08	.03	.979
Team Comp X Interdependence -> Univ. Pride	0.083	.08	1.00	.317
Team Soc X Interdependence -> Univ. Pride	0.001	.09	.01	.994
Team Mor X Interdependence -> Univ. Pride	-0.026	.08	.34	.731
Fan Comp X Interdependence -> Univ. Pride	0.054	.06	.94	.349
Fan Soc. X Interdependence -> Univ. Pride	0.010	.09	.11	.914
Fan Mor X Interdependence -> Univ. Pride	0.004	.08	.05	.964

5.3. Discussion

Study 3 sought to investigate how the stereotype content model dimensions differentially influences individuals that are outside the boundaries of the university (i.e., community members / non-students). Also, based on past theorizing, Study 3 further distinguished the warmth dimension into the sociability and morality dimension. Lastly, Study 3 investigated the differing influence that fan community-related perceptions and team-related perceptions exert on the attitudes and behavioral intentions of community members.

Overall, the results of Study 3 partially support Hypotheses 5 through 8, albeit depending on the outcome variable. Analyses results indicated that only Team Competence and Team Morality had significantly positive influences across all the outcome variables. These results confirm past sport management studies indicating that the high level of performance and competence of a sport team is an essential component in creating positive attitudes and behavior not only for fans but also for those with little involvement. Interestingly, the path coefficients of Team Morality exceeded the path coefficients of Team Competence for all outcome variables with the exception of spectating intention. These results highlight the equal of perhaps greater importance placed on the morality of the team by low involvement individuals. These results are in-line with previous social perception research suggesting the primacy of moral character when forming positive attitudes or choosing to accept/associate with other social groups (Brambilla, Rusconi, Sacchi, & Cherubini, 2011; Leach, Ellemers, & Barreto, 2007). In the case of Team Sociability, it had a positive

effect only on the attitude toward the team. This indicates that although the sociability of the team does instill positive attitudes about the team, it does not necessarily motivate action. These results are similar to the study conducted by Castelli, Carraro, Ghitti, and Pastore (2009) where the competence and sociability of an electoral candidate were important in forming positive attitudes toward the candidate, only the competence of the candidate predicted actual voting behaviors. The authors explained that in competitive contexts where the individual must form an allegiance, such as in the political environment, the sociability of the electoral candidate can be associated with excessive attention to interpersonal relations and consequently high malleability and low dominance, leading to favorable attitudes about the individual but lower trust in the sustainability of his/her ability to deliver results. Furthermore, past social perception research also suggests that while positive perceptions of competence, sociability, and morality all induce positive attitudes toward a low−encounter out−group, only the perceived morality of the group induces behaviors that are beneficial to the out−group (Brambilla, Hewstone, & Colucci, 2013). Therefore, although the competence, sociability and morality of the team induced favorable attitudes toward the team, only the competence and morality of the team led to favorable behaviors.

As for the fan community−related perceptions, Fan Community Competence had a significant positive effect on spectating intentions and attitudes toward the university. The effect on attitudes toward the university are quite intuitive in that a university that has a student population that is highly competent is likely to be viewed as a prestigious university, and thus attitudes

are likely to be positive (Sung & Yang, 2008). In the case of spectating intentions, spectating intention was the only outcome variable that involved not only the team itself as the object of evaluation, but the nature of spectating involves face—to—fact contact with the fans. Therefore, while the fan community competence did not affect attitudes, purchase intentions, and word of mouth intentions about the team, it did affect participants' intention to spectate games and associate with competent others within the community.

Fan Community Sociability had positive effects on positive word of mouth intention and university pride, while Fan Community Competence did not. This was an interesting result given that Fan Community Competence positively influenced the attitudes toward the university, but did not influence the pride felt by community members. Also, the sociability and morality of the fan community did not influence the attitude toward the university itself, but did influence how proud community members were that the university was part of the community. Thus, pride is related to social aspects while attitude is a personal preference. Therefore, the sociability and morality of the fan community had more of an effect on pride rather than attitude, while fan community competence led to an evaluation of the goodness or badness of the quality of the university (i.e., attitude).

Fan Community Morality had significant positive effects on attitude toward the team, positive word of mouth intention, merchandise purchase intention, and university pride, while no significant effects were found for spectating intention and attitude toward the university. These results seem to indicate that while participants viewed the team positively when the fans behaved

morally and showed intentions to support their cause by spreading positive word of mouth and purchasing merchandise, it was not enough motivation to affect their willingness to invest the time to spectate the games. Past studies indicate that the desire to help other individuals and groups is better predicted by the perceived morality of the individual/group requiring help than by their sociability or competence (Pagliaro et al., 2013; Prati, Moscatelli, Van Lange, Van Doesum, & Rubini, 2018). Also, given that the study participants were generally older than the average university student, a strong motivation may have been needed to directly influence spectating intentions.

Examination of the moderating effects of independent self-construal revealed that independent self-construal had a moderating effect only on the relationship between Team Competence and Spectating Intention. In other words, the positive relationship between team competence and spectating intention was stronger for those with higher levels of independence. In fact, simple slope comparisons revealed that the positive relationship was mostly driven by those high in independence. This results provides support for the notion that independents tend to focus on the core attributes of a product (in this case, the competence of the team) before making investments (Friedmann & Lowengart, 2016).

However, other than spectating intentions, Independence had no moderating effects on any other endogenous and exogenous variable relationship. This may be because the sample for Study 3 was intentionally set to community members who do not have an allegiance with the university nor the team. While, attitude, word of mouth, merchandise purchase, and pride all require some form of

identification, it is speculated that the sample's lack of identification with the university or team has led to insignificant moderating effects of self-construal on most outcome variables. However, in the case of spectating intentions, the stimulus about the university team was provided as a nearby university. Given that sport consumption is a form of hedonic or experiential consumption, it may have been a viable option to spectate, regardless of levels of identification. In other words, the competence of the team was incentive enough for individualists to attempt to experience one of their games in the future, before making any evaluations (attitude) of or behavioral investments (positive word of mouth and merchandise purchase) in the team itself. Furthermore, the motivation to spectate a high quality game may have been stronger for those with high levels of independent self-construal, as has been shown in previous research (Han, Mahony, & Greenwell, 2016).

Interdependent self-construal had a moderating effect on the relationship between Fan Community Competence and Positive Word of Mouth Intention, Fan Community Competence and Spectating Intention, and Fan Community Sociability and Spectating Intention. These results confirm past studies' results indicating that individuals with higher levels of interdependent self-construal are more likely to become fans of a team due to relationship-based reasons (Koch & Wann, 2016). In the context of the current study, the results indicate that highly interdependent participants were more motivated to spectate due to the sociability and competence of the fellow spectators with whom they would have to interact when spectating than those with low interdependence.

The non-significant moderation effects of interdependence on

other fan community−related perceptions and outcome variables (attitude, merchandise purchase intention, university attitude, and university pride) may be due to interdependents' sensitivity to the opinions of others, particularly those close to them (Riemer & Shavitt, 2011; Singelis & Sharkey, 1995; Ackerman & Chung, 2012). Therefore, while interdependents were willing to talk about the team, they did not form attitudes nor make any behavioral investments but were willing to spectate the game and gain first−hand experience with the fans (and perhaps the team).

Chapter 6. General Discussion and Conclusion

6.1. General Discussion

Many Korean intercollegiate athletics programs are facing existential threats mainly due to little interest from the student body and general public. Many of these athletics programs benchmark NCAA teams in the United States and continue to emphasize the performance of the individual athletes and teams. However, past sport consumer behavior has indicated that witnessing and associating with high performing teams is not the sole motivation for sport consumption.

Therefore, the current paper attempted to investigate how perceptions about not only the competence but the warmth (i.e., sociability and morality) of a team/fan community can influence the attitudes and behavior of prospective fans. Furthermore, the study hypothesized that the influence of each dimension would differ according to cultural orientation.

In pursuit of the aforementioned purposes, Study 1 investigated the interaction effect between the type of information provided (competence information vs. warmth information) and cultural orientation (individualistic vs. collectivistic culture). Study 2 took into account the stratified nature of higher education institutions by exploring how the salience of university status (i.e., academic ranking) influenced the interaction effect between stimulus type and cultural orientation. Finally, Study 3 further distinguished the warmth dimension into the sociability and morality dimensions, while simultaneously investigating how cultural

orientation moderates the relationship between team－related perceptions, as well as fan community－related perceptions and attitudes and behaviors toward the sport team.

The findings of the current paper can be summarized into the following. First, individualistic university students display more favorable attitudes and behavioral intentions toward their university sport team when exposed to information about the competence of the team, while collectivistic university students display more favorable attitudes and behavioral intentions when exposed to information about the warmth of the team. Individualists hold a view of the self that is defined by a set of internal traits that are stable across contexts and this collection of traits set each individual apart from the other (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). This view of the self extends to the evaluation of objects and as a result, individualists tend to focus on the core functionality of objects (Firendmann & Lowengart, 2016) and defines them through their concrete attributes (Chiu, 1972). Thus, when making judgments about a sport team, they more readily process information about the competence (i.e., core functionality of a sport team) of a team and positive competence information leads to higher attitudes and favorable behaviors.

Meanwhile, collectivists define the self as socially embedded with others and value their ability to fit into groups and fulfill their roles within valued groups (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). This view of the self promotes the importance on one＇s ability to change one＇s behavior in response to the demands of changing situations. Therefore, collectivists tend to display a heightened sensitivity to contextual cues and a heightened importance on placed on maintaining harmony and benevolent relationships (Shavitt &

Barnes, 2019). As a result, when making judgments about a sport team, and particularly their university sport team, they displayed higher attitudes and behavioral intentions toward a team that is perceived to be of greater social good and highly ethical (i.e., warm).

The results of study 1 suggest that merely striving for excellence in athletic performance (i.e., competence) may not be the most effective method for instilling positive attitudes and increasing spectatorship for collegiate sport teams operating within a predominantly collectivistic society. While top NCAA teams invest millions of dollars into recruiting the best athletes and coaching staff, perhaps teams in Korea or other collectivistic societies should invest a portion of these funds into activities that promote social good (i.e., warmth).

Second, when the university student identity is made salient by providing information about their universities academic rankings, individualists showed no differences in preference for the warm or competent team when their university's ranking was high. However, when told that their university was ranked low, they displayed more collectivistic tendencies and showed increased preferences for the warm team, while preferences for the competent team declined. Given that individualists show a heightened tendency to engage in a cost-benefit analysis even in social relationships (Triandis et al., 1990), when a superior university identity is salient (i.e., forced to incorporate the shared university identity context), both a warm and competent team are sources of positive distinctiveness, thus, both are favorable. However, under threats to the self-image, individualists activate a self-enhancement motivation, leading them to focus on areas of

relative strengths (Tsai, Chiang, & Lau, 2015), and emphasize dominance in other domains while downplaying the importance of the threatened domain (Heine, Kitayama, & Lehman, 2001). Furthermore, the perceived morality of an individual is used more to make assumptions about the entire group's morality, while sociability and competence is more a judgment about each individual within the group (Brambilla et al., 2012).

In the case of a university sport team, the competence of the team does not necessarily reflect positively on the students, but the warmth (which includes the morality) of the team is a better representative of the university as a social group. Thus, under the inferior academic university identity condition, individualists displayed higher attitudes and behaviors toward the warm team, compared to the competent team. This difference was caused by increased preferences for the warm team and decreased preferences for the competent team.

In the case of collectivists, the complete opposite trend was apparent. While collectivists displayed higher attitudes and behavioral intentions for the warm team than the competent team in the academically superior university identity condition, in the inferior university identity condition, their preferences for the warm team declined while their preferences for the competent team increased, thus resulting in no significant differences. Collectivists tend to define their self-concepts in terms of the groups to which they belong (Trafmow et al., 1991). Therefore, when a particular social identity is threatened, this activates a need to belong (White, Argo, & Sengupta, 2012), but not necessarily to the threatened identity, but multiple other identities, leading them to evaluate these other identities more favorably than when not under threat

(Knowles & Gardner, 2008). The information about the inferiority of their university identity activated multiple other social identities with a higher importance, leading participants to evaluate the university soccer team more objectively, rather than viewing it as part of their university identity group. Furthermore, interdependents focus on their relative weaknesses in the face of ability threats and thus become more keen on accepting out-groups that are superior in the threatened domain (Marx, Stapel, & Muller, 2005), leading to an increase in interdependents preference for the competent soccer team.

Study 2 results may also suggest the overall primacy of the warmth dimension for both individualists and collectivists. Perhaps more accurately stated, university status caused situations in which the warmth dimension was either more valued, or equally valued than the competence dimension, but the competence dimension was never valued above the warmth dimension. Individualists showed a higher preference for the warm collegiate sport team, while collectivists showed similar preferences for the warm and competent team. Thus, under low university status conditions, the warmth dimension becomes increasingly important even for collegiate sport teams that operate in individualistic societies. Meanwhile, for collectivistic societies, the warmth dimension is still relevant, because the students value both the warmth and competence of the team equally, even when their university identity is threatened.

Finally, Study 3 investigated how the perceptions about a community university sport team and its fan community influenced attitudes and behavioral intentions toward the team for the general public (i.e., non-students). Specifically, how perceptions of team

competence, team sociability, team morality, fan community competence, fan community sociability, and fan community morality influenced attitudes toward the team and university and behavioral intentions toward the team.

First, it was hypothesized that the perceptions about the team itself would positively influence attitudes and behavioral intentions. This hypothesis was generally supported, as team competence and team morality had positive influences on all outcome variables, while team sociability had a positive effect on only attitude toward the team. These results are in-line with previous research indicating that in competitive contexts, although both the competence and sociability of an individual instills positive attitudes, only the competence of the individual results in favorable behaviors (Castelli et al., 2009) and the influence of perceived morality on attitudes and behavior is particularly prominent in low-encounter situations (Brambilla et al., 2013). Overall, these results provide support for hypothesis 5.

Second, it was hypothesized (Hypothesis 6) that perceived fan community competence, sociability, and morality would positively influence attitudes and behavioral intentions. This hypothesis was also generally supported, albeit with different perceptions influencing different outcomes.

Of the fan community related perceptions, fan community competence positively influenced attitude toward the university itself. Participants that perceived the fans (who are mostly students) as being competent likely perceived the university to be prestigious and thus, evaluated positively. In fact, fan community competence was the only fan community related variable that influenced attitude toward the university. Thus, when it comes to

making assumptions about the university itself, only the competence dimension transferred to the attitudes about the institution (i.e., the university).

Fan community competence also positively influenced spectating intention and was the only fan community related variable that positively influenced spectating intention. While other outcome variables involved an evaluation and behavior that is supportive to only the team itself, spectating a sport event involves both supporting the team and co-viewing with the fan community. Furthermore, past studies support the notion that individuals were more likely to join a group that was perceived as having a high potential for future success than a group with potential for morality as well as a group with constantly high morality (Xie, Wen, Tan, Wei, & Zuo, 2020; Tormala, Jia, & Norton, 2012). Thus, regardless of their attitudes toward the team, participants may have viewed the fan community of students as having a high potential for future success, and displayed a higher intention to be affiliated with the fan community, rather than show support for the team itself.

Fan community sociability and morality positively influenced how proud individuals were of their nearby university, while fan community competence did not. Meanwhile, fan community competence influenced attitudes toward the university while sociability and morality did not. Given that attitudes are personal evaluations ranging from positive to negative, pride is a self-conscious emotion that takes into account social perceptions (Tracy & Robins, 2004). Thus, attitudes about the university were more reliant on the quality or competence of the student population, while pride relied more on the social good (i.e., sociability and morality) of the student population.

Fan community morality positively influenced attitude toward the team, word of mouth intention, merchandise purchase intention, and university pride, while no significant effects were found for spectating intention and attitude toward the university. Past studies in social perception and prosocial behavior suggest that the morality of a focal individual or group better predicts willingness to help than sociability and competence (e.g., Pagliaro et al., 2013). Therefore, individuals perceived teams with a moral fan base more positively and were more willing to help these moral fans' cause by showing higher willingness to spread positive word of mouth and purchase merchandise. However, it did not motivate them to spectate the team's games. A possible explanation could be that the morality of the fan community does not necessarily reflect upon the team's morality, therefore participants' spectating intentions were unaffected. Furthermore, the average age of participants was above the average college student, which may have acted as a barrier to engaging in direct contact (i.e., spectating). Overall, these results provide support for Hypothesis 6.

Hypothesis 7 predicted that independent self-construal would moderate the effects of team-related perceptions on attitudes and behavioral intentions. This hypothesis was supported only for the relationship between team competence and spectating intentions. Data analysis revealed that the positive effect of team competence on spectating intentions were mostly driven by those with high independent self-construal. This result provides support for past studies indicating that independents tend to focus on the core function of a product before investing their time and money into the product (Friedmann & Lowengart, 2016). Also, past studies have shown that independents tend to be motivated to spectate a high-

quality game more so than interdependents (Han, Mahony, & Greenwell, 2016).

As for the insignificant moderating effects of independent self-construal, independents' motivation for attitude formation and behavior stems from cost-benefit analyses in relation to the self.

Sport competitions are competitive in nature and thus the competence of the team is likely important to those both high and low in independent self-construal (Han, Mahony, & Greenwell, 2016). Furthermore, attitudes, purchase intention, and positive word of mouth are expressions of their opinions and thus, the competence of a team similarly affected participants regardless of their independent self-construal. However, spectating a sports game is a form of hedonic consumption. Given that highly independent individuals attend more to their inner feelings and act upon them to a greater extent (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), in the current study, they were more motivated to witness highly competitive sport competitions.

Furthermore, the perceived sociability and morality of the team's influence on outcome variables were not moderated by independent self-construal. Past studies have consistently displayed that the warmth dimension (sociability and morality) are more pertinent to the interdependent self-construal (Cojuharenco et al., 2011; Gollwitzer & Bucklein, 2007; Jang, Wu, & Wen, 2019), and thus, resulting in insignificant moderating effects of independent self-construal.

Finally, Hypothesis 8 predicted that interdependent self-construal would moderate the relationship between fan community-related perceptions and attitudes and behavioral intentions. Once again, most of the moderating effects were

observed with spectating intentions, with the exception of one moderating effect for positive word of mouth. Specifically, interdependent self－construal moderated the relationship between (1) fan community competence and positive word of mouth intention, (2) fan community competence and spectating intention, and (3) fan community sociability and spectating intention. These results confirm past studies' results indicating that individuals with higher levels of interdependent self－construal are more likely to become fans of a team due to relationship－based reasons (Koch & Wann, 2016), and highly interdependent participants were more motivated to spectate due to the sociability and competence of the fellow spectators with whom they would have to interact when spectating than those with low interdependence. Meanwhile, given that morality is generally a universal top priority (Brambilla et al., 2013), it may have positively affected all participants, regardless of self－construal.

The non－significant moderation effects of interdependence on other fan community－related perceptions and outcome variables (attitude, merchandise purchase intention, university attitude, and university pride) may be due to interdependents' sensitivity to the opinions of others, particularly those close to them (Riemer & Shavitt, 2011; Singelis & Sharkey, 1995; Ackerman & Chung, 2012). Therefore, while interdependents were willing to talk about the team, they did not form attitudes nor make any behavioral investments, but were willing to spectate the game and gain first－hand experience with the fans (and perhaps the team).

6.2. Theoretical and Practical Implications

The current study holds theoretical and practical implication. Theoretically, the current study is one of the first studies to apply the Stereotype Content Model dimensions in a sport consumption context. While past studies employing the SCM dimensions have focused on social perception (Fiske, 2018), physical products (Diamantopoulos, Florack, Halkias, & Palcu, 2017; Motsi & Park, 2020) and brands (Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, & Diamantopoulos, 2019), the current study sought to explore its effects in a hedonic consumption context that is known to be highly reliant on competence (i.e., sport teams). The current study suggests and empirically found that although competence is an important aspect leading to favorable attitudes and behavioral intentions toward a sport team, the warmth dimension can hold equal or even higher importance, especially for those with interdependent views of the self.

Furthermore, this study adds to the limited studies investigating non-fans. In studies 1 and 2, the current study purposefully set the target population as university students in general, rather than collecting data from collegiate sport events (i.e., current spectators), or targeting students that are already fans (Goldsmith & Walker, 2014; Woratschek, Horbel, & Popp, 2013). This allowed for a better understanding of how the general student population reacts to the competence and warmth information about a collegiate sport team that shares their superordinate university identity, and how these reactions differ according to culture and status comparisons.

As such, the current study also adds to the limited studies within the sport management literature investigating cultural differences in sport consumption preferences. Although cultural comparison research is thriving in other disciplines, it is surprising how little research has been conducted to investigate how cultural values and orientations influence sport consumers. Past sport management literature has predominately been focused on single cultural context (i.e., samples gathered from one country). The current study empirically displayed how cultural orientation dictates which aspects of a team induce favorable reactions from potential sport consumer.

This study further investigated the effects of cultural orientation within situations of social identity threat, particularly to the superordinate identity. Past research on social identity threats have only theoretically suggested the influence of multiple and layered structure of social identities and have not empirically examined how threats to a superordinate identity can influence the attitudes and behavior toward a group that shares the superordinate identity. The current study operationalized the superordinate identity as the university student identity and investigated how threats to this identity influences students' reactions toward a sport team that shares the superordinate identity. Through empirical analyses, the current study found that independents displayed interdependent tendencies when faced with a superordinate identity threat in that their preference for a warm team increased while their preference for a competent team decreased. Meanwhile, interdependents displayed more independent tendencies when under threat where attitudes and favorable behavioral intentions toward the sport team decreased in the

warmth condition, while they increased in the competence condition. These results are substantial in that past research has suggested that independents tend to dissociate from threatened identities, while interdependents strengthen their association (White, Argo, & Sengupta, 2012). However, these studies simply provided participants with a dichotomous choice of either dissociating or associating, while the current study compared reactions to two different types of information. Therefore, the current study adds to the literature and suggests that independents may also display associative tendencies under threat, if other domains of superiority are an option, while for interdependents, the importance competence and warmth are equally important in superordinate threat situations, at least for low-identification groups.

Practically, the current study holds significance in emphasizing the importance of the sociability and morality (i.e., warmth) of a collegiate sport team in gaining the interest of not only the student population (particularly non-fans), but also the community members that are not directly associated with the university. Study 1 results indicated that the warmth dimension was particularly important for individuals with collectivistic cultural orientations, while Study 2 displayed that event individuals with individualistic tendencies prefer warmth information when under a social identity threat. Study 3 displayed that the morality of a team may be equally or perhaps even more important than the competence of a team when it comes to instilling positive attitudes and willingness to engage in favorable behaviors toward a team with which they have no prior contact. These results suggest that managers of collegiate sport teams should more actively promote a culture of high moral standards and make efforts to communicate information regarding

the warmth of the team, rather than simply continuing to market the performance of the team.

Additionally, to increase spectatorship and the general fan-base, collegiate sport teams operating in different cultural context may wish to more strongly promote warmth information depending on the status of the university itself, particularly to non-fans or the general student population. Teams operating in individualistic cultures such as the United States, may wish to disseminate more warmth information about the team when the academic status of the university is dropping, while teams operating in collectivistic cultures such as Korea may wish to disseminate more warmth information when the university ranking is improving.

Finally, the current study suggests that perceptions of sociability and morality of the fan community influences intentions to spectate the collegiate sport team's games, especially for non-fan community members in collectivistic cultures. Therefore, collegiate teams should make efforts to instill a culture of high moral standards and plan and support fan community initiatives that attempt to socialize with outsiders and create a welcoming atmosphere.

6.3. Limitations and Future Research

As with any academic inquiry, the current study is not without its limitations. First, the current study utilized a fictitious university soccer team as the sport team of interest. Although this was done in an attempt to minimize national differences in the familiarity and

involvement with the team, there is a need to verify the results across different types of sport teams.

Secondly, Study 2 yielded results that were in the opposite direction of what was initially hypothesized. Although the author has suggested explanations for the potential reasons for such results through a thorough review of the relevant literature, future research is necessary to empirically confirm these explanations. For example, it was suggested that interdependents more objectively evaluated their university sport team in the university threat condition due to a heightened importance and number of alternate social identities that compensated for the threatened identity. This conjecture may be tested in future research by asking participants to list the number of alternate social identities and report on how important they are to the participants (White, Argo, & Sengupta, 2012).

Third, with regards to Study 3's results, team competence, team sociability, team morality, fan community competence, fan community sociability, and fan community morality had differing effects on different outcome variables. Although the current study suggested the reasons for such differing effects, future research is needed to confirm the mechanisms through which different cues effect different outcomes. For example, future research can investigate whether prosocial motives toward the fan community and not toward the team itself explains one of the results in Study 3 in which fan community morality positively influencing positive word of mouth intentions and merchandise purchase, while having non-significant effects on spectating intentions.

Fourth, the current study only considered the individualism-collectivism cultural distinction. However, cultures can also vary

between organizations within a particular national context. In the case of intercollegiate sports, different universities have differing histories and cultures of promoting intercollegiate athletics. Thus, future studies may investigate how the differing importance placed on intercollegiate athletics by universities influences the perceptions and behaviors of the students.

Finally, the current study did not consider identification levels with the superordinate identity. Future studies may wish to compare results between high and low identifiers of the university and community and its interaction with cultural orientation, as well as how this affects their reactions to threats and SCM dimensions.

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Appendix A

Electronic Informed Consent Form (English)

[PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET]

The current study is conducted to investigate how the perceptions about a collegiate sport team influence the attitudes and behavioral intentions towards the team. You have been invited to participate in the current study due to your status as a college student.

This information sheet has been written to help you decide if you would like to take part. It is up to you and you alone whether you wish to take part. Please read over the following information before making the decision to participate or withdraw from the current study. If needed, you may consult with friends and family members.

If you have any questions about the study, please contact the head research via e-mail (giberish@snu.ac.kr).

This survey will take about 15 minutes to complete.

1. WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY?

This study is conducted to investigate how information about your college's sport team influence your attitudes and behavioral intentions towards the sport team.

2. HOW MANY PEOPLE WILL TAKE PART IN THE STUDY?

400 college students (200 Korean & 200 US college students) 18 years of age or older will participate.

3. IF I PARTICIPATE, WHAT WOULD I BE REQUIRED TO DO?

If you decide to participate, the following process will be required.
(1) You will be provided an internet link to an online survey that will take approximately 15 minutes to complete.
(2) Upon clicking the link, the survey will ask you to answer questions regarding your sport involvement.
(3) You will then be provided with a list of descriptors about your college's sport team.
(4) After reading the list of descriptors, you will be asked to answer questions regarding your perceptions about the team, attitudes toward the team, behavioral intentions toward the team, and demographic information.

4. HOW LONG WILL IT TAKE?

Approximately 15 minutes will be required to complete the survey.

5. IS IT POSSIBLE TO WITHDRAW MY PARTICIPATION AFTER THE STUDY HAS STARTED?

Yes. You may choose to discontinue your participation at any point during the study. If you choose to discontinue your participation, you may simply stop answering the survey questions or leave the survey site. Once you have withdrawn from participation, your responses will be automatically discarded.

6. ARE THERE ANY RISKS ASSOCIATED WITH TAKING PART?

No. The survey questionnaire and stimulus material do not cause discomfort or psychological distress.

7. ARE THERE ANY REWARDS OR COMPENSATION FOR PARTICIPATION?

No. There are no direct rewards or compensation for taking part. However, your responses will help in understanding factors that influence collegiate sport consumption.

8. ARE THERE ANY PENALTIES FOR NOT TAKING PART?

No. You are free to decide not to take part in the study. Furthermore, you will not be penalized in any shape or form for not taking part in the current study.

9. HOW ILL MY PERSONAL INFORMATION BE SECURED?

The researcher responsible for your personal data is Jisuk Chang (e-mail@snu.ac.kr, tel. +82 000-0000-0000) of Seoul National University. Personal data to be collected for the current study are limited to your gender, age, and ethnicity. Your personal data will be stored in a locked data file on a password protected computer, to which only Jisuk Chang and Choong Hoon Lim will be granted access. In accordance with applicable laws and regulations, your consent form will be stored for 3 years, after which it will be destroyed. If shared (published and/or placed in a database accessible by others), your data will be in an anonymized form, which means that no-one could use any reasonably available means to identify you from the data. However, your personal information may be provided to official only under circumstances where the law requires it. Monitor personnel, inspectors, and ethics committee members can view the results of this study to verify the reliability of the procedures and data, within the scope of the relevant regulations and under the condition of not compromising the privacy of the study participants. Providing consent entails that you understand the contents of this information sheet and agree to all conditions.

10. WILL I BE FINANCIALLY COMPENSATED FOR MY PARTICIPATION?

No. There are no financial incentives for taking part.

11. WHAT SHOULD I DO IF I HAVE ANY CONCERNS ABOUT THIS STUDY?

If you have any questions or concerns before, during, or after the study, please contact the head researcher bellow.

Name: Jisuk Chang   e-mail: e-mail@snu.ac.kr   Tel.: +82-00-0000-0000

IF YOU HAVE ANY QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR RIGHTS AS A RESEARCH PARTICIPANT, PLEASE CONTACT THE FOLLOWING SEOUL NATIONAL UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD:

Seoul National University IRB (SNUIRB)   Tel.: +82-2-880-5153   e-mail: irb@snu.ac.kr

CONSENT FORM

Project Title: The Influence of Competence and Warmth Perceptions on the Attitudes and Behavioral Intentions Towards a Collegiate Sport Team

Head Researcher: Jisuk Chang (Seoul National University, Ph.D. Student)

1. I have read the contents of this information sheet and have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the study and have had them answered satisfactorily.

2. I understand the risks and rewards involved in taking part in this study and have received satisfactory answers to any questions that I have asked.

3. I agree to voluntarily participate in this study.

4. I agree to the collection and processing of any information that I provide to the extent that current laws and the Seoul National University Institutional Review Board regulations allow.

5. I grant access to my personal information under the following conditions: (1) when the researcher or delegated representative conducts research or manages results, and (2) when governmental bodies prescribed by law and the Seoul National University Institutional Review Board conducts investigations.

6. I understand that I can withdraw from this study at any time without giving an explanation and with no disbenefit.

7. I give permission for any information provided by myself for this study to be used in future studies without further consultation.

I agree ☐   I disagree ☐

By selecting "I agree," you are consenting to the conditions described above.

Do you agree to partake in this study?   I agree ☐   I disagree ☐

Appendix B

Electronic Informed Consent Form (Korean)

[연구 참여자용 설명문]

본 연구는 대학스포츠팀에 대한 인식이 팀에 대한 태도와 행동의도에 미치는 영향에 대한 연구입니다. 귀하는 현재 대학을 재학 중인 학생이기 때문에 이 연구에 참여하도록 권유 받았습니다. 이 연구는 자발적으로 참여 의사를 밝히신 분에 한하여 수행 될 것이며, 귀하께서는 참여 의사를 결정하기 전에 본 연구가 왜 수행되는지 그리고 연구의 내용이 무엇과 관련 있는지 이해하는 것이 중요합니다.

다음을 신중히 읽어보신 후 참여 의사를 밝혀 주시길 바라며, 필요하다면 가족이나 친구들과 의논해 보십시오. 만일 어떠한 질문이 있다면 담당 연구원에게 이메일(e-mail@snu.ac.kr) 혹은 문자 및 전화(000-0000-0000)를 주시면 자세하게 설명해 줄 것입니다.

본 설문은 약 15이 소요될 것입니다.

1. 이 연구는 왜 실시합니까?

이 연구의 목적은 귀하가 재학 중인 대학의 스포츠 팀에 대한 인식이 팀에 대한 태도 및 행동의도에 미치는 영향을 알아보기 위함입니다.

2. 얼마나 많은 사람이 참여합니까?

400 명(한국 대학생 200 명 & 미국 대학생 200 명)의 만 18 세 이상의 대학생이 참여 할 것입니다.

3. 만일 연구에 참여하면 어떤 과정이 진행됩니까?

만일 귀하가 참여의사를 밝혀 주시면 다음과 같은 과정이 진행될 것입니다.
(1) 귀하는 약 15 분 분량의 설문지를 인터넷 링크를 통해 전달 받게 될 것입니다.
(2) 전달 받은 링크를 클릭하시면 스포츠 관여도에 관한 문항에 답변이 우선 제시됩니다.
(3) 귀하의 대학 축구팀에 관한 설명이 제시됩니다.
(4) 축구팀에 대한 설명을 읽으신 뒤 팀에 대한 인식, 태도, 행동의도, 그리고 인구통계학적 정보에 대한 문항으로 구성된 문항들에 답변하시게 됩니다.

4. 연구 참여 기간은 얼마나 됩니까?

약 15 분이 소요될 것입니다.

5. 참여 도중 그만두어도 됩니까?

예. 귀하는 언제든지 어떠한 불이익 없이 참여 도중에 그만 둘 수 있습니다. 만일 귀하가 연구에 참여하는 것을 그만두고 싶다면 바로 설문응답을 중지하시거나 해당사이트에서 나가시면 됩니다. 그만 두는 경우 모아진 자료는 인터넷 창을 닫으시거나 중단하시는 즉시 자동으로 전량 폐기됩니다.

6. 부작용이나 위험요소는 없습니까?

설문 문항은 자극적이거나 심리적으로 불편함을 유발하지 않기 때문에 부작용이나 위험요소는 없습니다.

7. 이 연구에 참여시 참여자에게 이득이 있습니까?

귀하가 이 연구에 참여하는데 있어서 직접적인 이득은 없습니다. 그러나 귀하가 제공하는 정보는 대학 스포츠 소비자를 이해하는 것에 큰 도움이 될 것입니다.

8. 만일 이 연구에 참여하지 않는다면 불이익이 있습니까?

귀하는 본 연구에 참여하지 않을 자유가 있습니다. 또한, 귀하가 본 연구에 참여하지 않아도 귀하에게는 수업이나 성적 등 그 어떠한 불이익도 없습니다.

9. 연구에서 얻은 모든 개인 정보의 비밀은 보장됩니까?

개인정보관리책임자는 서울대학교의 장지석(000-0000-0000)입니다. 본 연구에서 수집되는 개인정보는 성별과 나이입니다. 이러한 개인정보는 장지석, 임충훈에게만 접근이 허락되며, 암호화 된 노트북에 잠금파일로 보관이 될 것입니다. 동의서는 관련 법령에 따라 3년을 보관한 후 폐기할 예정이며, 연구자료의 경우는 서울대학교 연구윤리 지침에 따라 가능한 한 영구 보관할 예정입니다. 저희는 이 연구를 통해 얻은 모든 개인 정보의 비밀 보장을 위해 최선을 다할 것입니다. 이 연구에서 얻어진 개인 정보가 학회지나 학회에 공개 될 때 귀하의 이름 및 기타 개인 정보는 사용되지 않을 것입니다. 그러나 만일 법이 요구하면 귀하의 개인정보는 제공될 수도 있습니다. 또한 모니터 요원, 점검 요원, 생명윤리위원회는 연구참여자의 개인 정보에 대한 비밀 보장을 침해하지 않고 관련규정이 정하는 범위 안에서 본 연구의 실시 절차와 자료의 신뢰성을 검증하기 위해 연구 결과를 직접 열람할 수 있습니다. 귀하가 본 동의서에 서명하는 것은, 이러한 사항에 대하여 사전에 알고 있었으며 이를 허용한다는 동의로 간주될 것입니다.

10. 이 연구에 참가하면 사례가 지급됩니까?

죄송합니다만 본 연구에 참가하는데 있어서 금전적 보상은 없습니다.

11. 연구에 대한 문의는 어떻게 해야 됩니까?

본 연구에 대해 질문이 있거나 연구 중간에 문제가 생길 시 다음 연구 담당자에게 연락하십시오.

이름: 장지석   이메일: e-mail@snu.ac.kr   전화번호: 000-0000-0000

만일 어느 때라도 연구참여자로서 귀하의 권리에 대한 질문이 있다면 아래의 연락처로 서울대학교 생명윤리위원회에 연락하십시오:

서울대학교 생명윤리위원회 (SNUIRB)   전화번호: 02-880-5153
이메일: irb@snu.ac.kr

연구참여 동의서

연구 과제명 : 대학스포츠팀의 유능함과 따뜻함이 태도 및 행동의도에 미치는
　영향

연구 책임자명 : 장지석(서울대학교 체육교육과, 박사과정)

1. 나는 이 설명서를 읽었으며 담당 연구원과 이에 대하여 의논하였습니다.

2. 나는 위험과 이득에 관하여 들었으며 나의 질문에 만족할 만한 답변을
　얻었습니다.

3. 나는 이 연구에 참여하는 것에 대하여 자발적으로 동의합니다.

4. 나는 이 연구에서 얻어진 나에 대한 정보를 현행 법률과 생명윤리위원회
　규정이 허용하는 범위 내에서 연구자가 수집하고 처리하는 데 동의합니다.

5. 나는 담당 연구자나 위임 받은 대리인이 연구를 진행하거나 결과 관리를
　하는 경우와 법률이 규정한 국가 기관 및 서울대학교 생명윤리위원회가 실태
　조사를 하는 경우에는 비밀로 유지되는 나의 개인 신상 정보를 확인하는
　것에 동의합니다.

6. 나는 언제라도 이 연구의 참여를 철회할 수 있고 이러한 결정이 나에게
　어떠한 해도 되지 않을 것이라는 것을 압니다.

7. 나는 수집되는 자료가 본 연구 이외에 연구책임자 및 다른 연구자의 연구의
　목적으로 사용되는 것에 동의합니다.

동의함　☐　　동의하지 않음　☐

본 연구에 참여하시습니까?　　예 ☐　　아니오 ☐

Appendix C

Study 1 & Study 2 Stimulus Material

[MY UNIVERSITY SOCCER TEAM IS…] (COMPETENCE CONDITION)

1. Offensively, my university soccer team ranked 1st in total assists (51) and points (167) and 2nd in corner kick goal conversions per game (9.11).

2. Defensively, my university soccer team has allowed only 11 goals last season (best in league).

3. Defensively, my university soccer team's defense ranks 2nd in the nation in goals-against-average (0.384). Goals-against-average is the number of goals allowed per game.

4. Defensively, my university soccer team's defense ranks 1st in shutouts with 15 shutouts in 20 games (75%).

5. Offensively, my university soccer team ranked 2nd in total goals (50 total goals).

6. Of the 20 games played last season, my university soccer team won 15 games, lost 4, and 1 draw (Winning rate = 75.0%)

7. Offensively, my university soccer team ranked 2nd in the nation in goals-per-game (2.50 goals per game).

[MY UNIVERSITY SOCCER TEAM IS…] (WARMTH CONDITION)

1. My university soccer team has the most voluntary community service hours by any team in the league.

2. My university soccer team ranked 1st in total amount donated to charity.

3. My university soccer team organizes the most number of fan-friendly programs such as the annual "Meet the Team Night" during the season.

4. My university soccer team is known for their unique pre-game ritual where all team members take selfies with the fans/spectators.

5. My university soccer team has the most number of starting members (3) that have been awarded the 2020 Community Service Award.

6. My university soccer team was voted the most well-mannered team by the league's referees.

7. My university soccer team has the most frequent voluntary community service participation in the league.

[우리 대학 축구팀은...] (COMPETENCE CONDITION)

1. 공격역량 면에서, 우리 대학 축구팀은 경기당 총 어시스트(51)에서 1 위(51), 공격 포인트(167)와 코너킥 골(9.11)에서 2 위를 기록했다.

2. 수비역량 면에서, 우리 대학 축구팀은 지난 시즌 단 11 골(리그 1 위)만을 허용했다.

3. 수비역량 면에서, 우리 대학 축구팀은 경기당 평균 골 허용이 0.384 로, 대학 축구팀들 중 골을 평균적으로 2 번째로 적게 내주었다.

4. 수비역량 면에서, 우리 대학 축구팀은 20 경기 중 15 경기에서 무실점을 기록하여 리그 통산 무실점 경기 수에서 1 위를 차지했다.

5. 공격역량 면에서, 우리 대학 축구팀은 총 득점 2 위(50 골)를 차지했다.

6. 우리 대학 축구팀은 지난 시즌 20 경기 중 15 승, 4 패, 1 무 (승률 75%)를 기록했다.

7. 공격역량 면에서, 우리 대학 축구팀은 경기당 골이 2.5 개로 전국에서 2 번째로 많았다.

[우리 대학 축구팀은...] (WARMTH CONDITION)

1. 우리 대학 축구팀은 모든 대학팀들을 통틀어서 사회봉사 시간이 가장 많았다.

2. 우리 대학 축구팀은 모든 대학팀들을 통틀어서 자선단체에 가장 많은 금액을 기부했다.

3. 우리 대학 축구팀은 "축구팀과 함께하는 밤"과 같이, 팬들 및 학생들과의 친목 프로그램을 가장 많이 기획하는 팀이다.

4. 우리 대학 축구팀은 경기시작 전에 관람객들과 함께 셀카를 찍는 독특한 경기전 의식으로 유명하다.

5. 우리 대학 축구팀은 가장 많은 주전 선수(3 명)가 2020 년 사회봉사상을 수상하였다.

6. 대학 축구 심판들을 대상으로 한 투표에서 우리 대학 축구팀이 가장 매너가 좋은 팀으로 선정되었다.

7. 우리 대학 축구팀은 모든 대학 팀들 중, 지역 사회봉사활동에 가장 자주 참여하는 팀이다.

[뉴스 기사] (HIGH STATUS CONDITION)

제목: 2021 년 대학 종합 평가 순위 발표

교육부와 한국대학교육협의회가 공동으로 실시한 '2021 년 대학 종합 평가'에서 국내 4 년제 대학
순위가 발표됐다. 이번 대학 종합 순위 평가는 100 여개의 국내 4 년제 대학을 대상으로 이루어졌으며,
언론사, 대학교 전문 평가 기관, 기업들의 신규채용 졸업생 평가, 대학 감사자료, 학계 평판, 연구 역량,
그리고 대학생 및 졸업생 대상 설문을 종합적으로 반영해 신뢰성 및 객관성이 강화된 대학 순위라는
평을 받고있어 이목이 집중되고 있다. 대학의 전반적인 평가는 학생 및 졸업생 역량, 교수진의 연구 역량,
그리고 강의의 질 3 가지 항목으로 이루어졌다.

2021 년 대학 종합 평가'에 의하면 [OOO 대학]의 전반적인 교육의 질이 동급의 대학들에 비해 높은
것으로 나타났다. 구체적으로, 기업들과 공공기관의 평가 및 학생 및 졸업생의 설문 자료를 바탕으로
산출된 학생 및 졸업생 역량 부문에서 [OOO 대학교]는 다른 동급의 대학의 학생들에 비해 개개인의
역량이 비교적 높은 것으로 평가 받았다. 교수 1 인당 연구 출판물과 논문의 피인용도를 바탕으로 산출된
교수진의 연구 역량 역시 동급의 대학들보다 높게 나타났다. 마지막으로 강의의 질 부문에서도
[OOO 대학]은 다른 대학들에 비해 수준이 높은 것으로 나타났다.

[뉴스 기사] (LOW STATUS CONDITION)

제목: 2021 년 대학 종합 평가 순위 발표

교육부와 한국대학교육협의회가 공동으로 실시한 '2021 년 대학 종합 평가'에서 국내 4 년제 대학
순위가 발표됐다. 이번 대학 종합 순위 평가는 100 여개의 국내 4 년제 대학을 대상으로 이루어졌으며,
언론사, 대학교 전문 평가 기관, 기업들의 신규채용 졸업생 평가, 대학 감사자료, 학계 평판, 연구 역량,
그리고 대학생 및 졸업생 대상 설문을 종합적으로 반영해 신뢰성 및 객관성이 강화된 대학 순위라는
평을 받고있어 이목이 집중되고 있다. 대학의 전반적인 평가는 학생 및 졸업생 역량, 교수진의 연구 역량,
그리고 강의의 질 3 가지 항목으로 이루어졌다.

2021 년 대학 종합 평가'에 의하면 [OOO 대학]의 전반적인 교육의 질이 동급의 대학들에 비해 낮은
것으로 나타났다. 구체적으로, 기업들과 공공기관의 평가 및 학생 및 졸업생의 설문 자료를 바탕으로
산출된 학생 및 졸업생 역량 부문에서 [OOO 대학교]는 다른 동급의 대학의 학생들에 비해 개개인의
역량이 비교적 부족한 것으로 평가 받았다. 교수 1 인당 연구 출판물과 논문의 피인용도를 바탕으로
산출된 교수진의 연구 역량 역시 동급의 대학들보다 낮게 ,나타났다. 마지막으로 강의의 질 부문에서도
[OOO 대학]은 다른 대학들에 비해 수준이 낮은 것으로 나타났다.

[도성 인재 파견 이야기] (INDEPENDENT SELF-CONSTRUAL CONDITION)

나는 도성으로부터 급박한 연락을 받고 누구를 보내야 할 지 고민에 빠졌다. 나라의 명운이 걸린 중대한
일이라 여러 가능성을 놓고 심사숙고하였다.

도성에서 해결을 필요로하는 일을 성사시키기 위해서는 사사로운 인간관계에 얽매이지 않고 자신의
뜻을 강력하게 주장할 수 있는 독립적이고 자신감에 찬인물이 필요한데 나와 개인적 친분은 없으나
평소에 일을 처리하는 것을 지켜본 바에 의하면 홍록은 주변 사람의 말에 흔들리지 않는 올곧은 품성에
상황을 꿰뚫는 명석함이 더하여 일을 잘 처리하니 홍록 같은 유형의 사람이 적임자라 생각했다.