

Chapter 2

Emotions of Sport Spectators

Daichi Oshimi

Abstract Much researcher has focused on emotions, because emotions play such an important role in predicting consumer behavior. In this chapter I review previous studies related to customer emotion and delight and introduce empirical studies that apply psychological theory to sport spectator behavioral research. I also briefly cover fundamental knowledge concerning emotion and delight as a basis for understanding the research presented as well as for aiding in the development of future research topics. The information in this chapter will prove useful to those in the sport industry and especially to researchers and sport marketers or managers.

Keywords Spectator emotion • Customer delight • Watching sport

2.1 Introduction

It is often said that a strong relationship exists between emotion and watching sport. A wide variety of emotions are aroused when watching sport. These range from very positive (such as joy, delight) to quite negative (such as anger, irritation) (Sloan 1989). Many researchers have focused on emotions in their studies—not only in psychology, but also in other social sciences such as marketing science—because emotions play an important role in predicting consumer behavior (Bagozzi et al. 1999). For example, previous consumer behavior research verified that emotions influence consumer decision making (e.g., Holbrook and Hirshman 1982), customer satisfaction (e.g., Mano and Oliver 1993), and purchasing behavior (e.g., Westbrook 1987).

This chapter focuses on the emotions of spectators watching sport and summarizes previous research while introducing my own past empirical studies. Specifically, this chapter will emphasize the importance of the emotion of “delight”. This emotion has been verified as an important factor in marketing science (e.g., Oliver et al. 1997; Rust and Oliver 2000), and the number of consumer-related studies focusing on this emotion has increased recently (Oliver 2010). The information provided in

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this chapter, then, will surely be useful for those in the sport industry, and especially for researchers and sport marketers or managers.

2.2 Fundamental Concepts for Emotion Study

There are three fundamental concepts to consider when applying emotion to consumer behavior study: the variety of emotional terminology, the classification of emotions, and the hierarchy of emotions. It is helpful to understand these concepts as well as the fundamental knowledge from previous research. As in most disciplines, different scholars present varied viewpoints. It is useful to carefully select the theory or theories that best suit your research question and purpose.

2.2.1 Variety of Emotional Terminology

In psychology, a variety of terms is used to discuss emotion, such as the general terms “affect,” “feeling,” “mood,” and, of course, “emotion.” It should be recognized that these terms have been used inconstantly in the literature (Hama et al. 2001); in general, the duration, intention, and intensity of the emotion should be considered in order to differentiate these terms. For example, Bagozzi et al. (1999) mentioned that it is often difficult to draw a distinction between “emotion” and “mood” but that, by convention, a mood is often conceived of as lasting longer (from a few hours up to days) and being lower in intensity than an emotion. Moreover, emotion is intentional while moods are generally non-intentional and global or diffused (Frijda 1993). Table 2.1 summarizes the characteristics of emotion and mood. These definitions should be carefully considered when research involves an evaluation of emotion.

2.2.2 Classifications of Emotion

It is said that most humans, regardless of gender or culture, have certain basic, fundamental emotions that are necessary for normal function. Ekman (1992) suggests a “big six” of emotion; joy, surprise, anger, fear, disgust, and sadness, whereas Plutchik (1980) maintains there are eight basic emotions: joy, acceptance, fear, surprise, sadness, disgust, anger, and anticipation. Because the expression of emotions is influenced

Table 2.1 Differences between emotion and mood

	Intensity	Duration	Intention
Emotion	Higher	Shorter	Intentional
Mood	Lower	Longer	Non-intentional

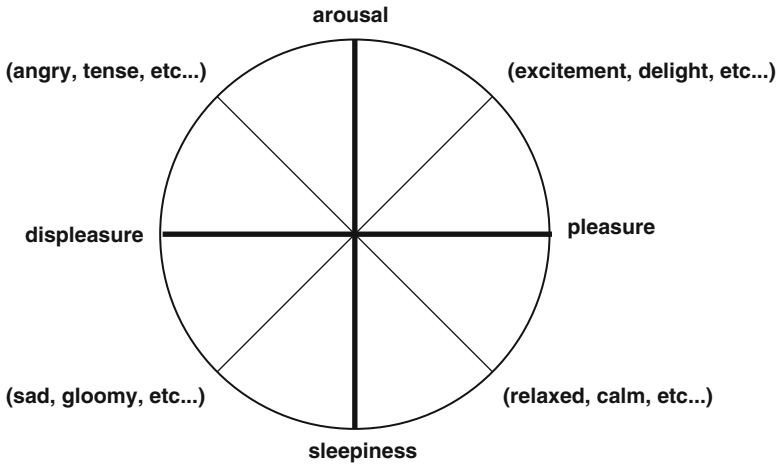


Fig. 2.1 Circumplex model of affect (From Russel 1980. Copyright 1980 by the American Psychological Association. Adapted with permission)

by culture and environment, in adults the emotions encountered by researchers can be quite different. Moreover, there is general recognition among psychologists that the basic emotions can be combined to form other emotions (e.g., joy + surprise = delight) (Plutchik 1980). Therefore, we should recognize a basic framework of classification for emotions. Figure. 2.1 shows a representative example of such a classification.

The model depicted in Fig. 2.1 is constructed using two dimensions, “pleasure–displeasure” and “arousal–sleepiness,” and is very useful in understanding each emotion’s orientation (Bagozzi et al. 1999). Recognize, however, that such dimensions can be different for each researcher, such as those employed by Schlosberg (1954) or Mehrabian (1978). It is important to be aware of the basic idea underlying each model.

2.2.3 Hierarchy of Emotion

Figure 2.2 shows a hierarchy of consumer emotions. In consumer behavior research, some researchers classify emotions roughly into positive or negative, while other researchers focus on specific emotions. For example, there are studies focusing on “surprise” (e.g., Derbaix and Vanhamme 2003; Kumar et al. 2001), “anger” (e.g., Bougie et al. 2003), and “delight” (e.g., Oliver et al. 1997; Chitturi et al. 2008). The advantage of viewing emotions in a rather rough way (such as positive or negative) is that it makes it simpler to understand subjects’ attitudes. However, blending various emotions into one coarse category means that useful information may be lost. For example, although emotions are typically classified as “positive” or “negative”, we can find distinct differences between anger and fear or excitement and calm. Therefore, we should decide which classification method is most appropriate to the purpose of one’s study.

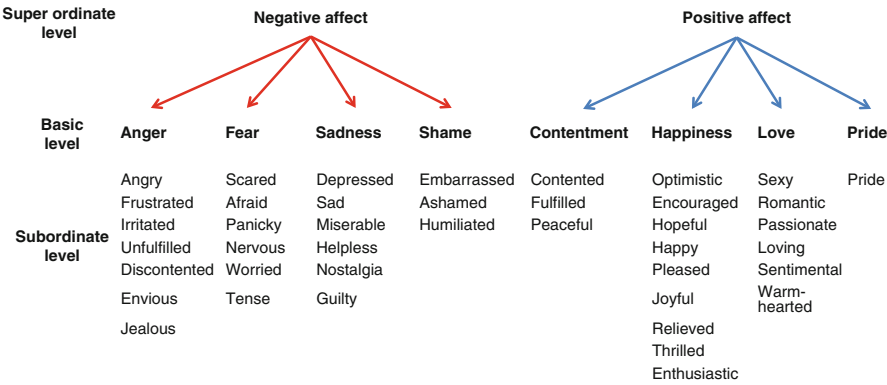


Fig. 2.2 Hierarchy of consumer emotions (From Laros et al. 2005. Copyright 2004 by Elsevier. Adapted with permission)

2.3 Emotion in Watching Sport

In this section, empirical studies are introduced that apply psychological theory to sport spectators. Two of the characteristics present when watching sport are “competitiveness” and “uncertainty of game outcome” (Wann et al. 2001); these characteristics enable spectators to be aroused easily. Previous studies have examined spectators’ psychological changes before and after watching games (e.g., Hirt et al. 1992; Knobloch-Westerick et al. 2009; Oshimi and Harada 2012a; Sloan 1989). In most results, positive emotions were aroused when the spectators’ favorite team won the game, and negative emotions were aroused when their favorite team lost. In other words, the outcome of the game, resulting from player or team performance, is a predicting factor for spectators’ emotions.

However, it is assumed that spectators’ emotional arousal cannot be fully predicted simply by whether their favorite team wins or loses. This is believed to be because spectators’ psychological states may differ depending on the content of a game (such as games won by a narrow or wide margin) (Bee and Madrigal 2012). One interesting example of the spectators’ emotional state before and after a game took place in the league qualifier games of the 2013 FIFA CONFEDERATIONS CUP in which people watched the Japan National Soccer Team (Japan vs. Brazil, Japan vs. Italy, and Japan vs. Mexico). The study focused on a total of 105 undergraduate student spectators of these games.

A unitary variance analysis was conducted on spectators’ emotions following each game, and subsequent verification was conducted using Tukey’s method. The results indicated a particularly strong occurrence of positive emotions such as pride, joy, and delight during the Italy game in comparison to the other two games ($p < .001$); also observed were differences in the influence of negative emotions such as anxiety and outrage as compared to the other games (Table 2.2). Therefore, it is clear that a win or loss of the spectators’ favorite team is not an adequate predictive

Table 2.2 Mean pre- and post-match scores for negative and positive emotions (Oshimi et al. 2013a)

Factor	Group	Pre-match (SD)	Post-match (SD)	<i>F</i>	Post hoc analysis
Pride	vs. BRA (n=40)	1.81 (1.19)	1.58 (0.88)	31.57 (2, 95)***	ITA > BRA
	vs. ITA (n=34)	1.54 (0.84)	3.38 (1.45)		ITA > MEX
	vs. MEX (n=31)	1.77 (1.10)	1.53 (0.96)		
Joy	vs. BRA (n=40)	2.37 (1.45)	1.52 (0.76)	30.68 (2, 95)***	ITA > BRA
	vs. ITA (n=34)	2.07 (1.17)	3.15 (1.43)		ITA > MEX
	vs. MEX (n=31)	2.24 (1.44)	1.61 (0.86)		
Delight	vs. BRA (n=40)	1.42 (0.82)	2.12 (1.22)	22.95 (2, 95)***	ITA > BRA
	vs. ITA (n=34)	1.26 (0.56)	4.07 (1.71)		ITA > MEX
	vs. MEX (n=31)	1.59 (1.04)	2.15 (1.04)		
Anxiety	vs. BRA (n=40)	2.08 (1.01)	1.89 (1.20)	3.33 (2, 95)*	MEX > ITA
	vs. ITA (n=34)	1.99 (1.32)	1.49 (0.91)		
	vs. MEX (n=31)	1.92 (1.27)	2.40 (1.57)		
Outrage	vs. BRA (n=40)	1.03 (0.16)	1.45 (0.85)	4.12 (2, 95)*	MEX > BRA
	vs. ITA (n=34)	1.09 (0.43)	1.45 (0.98)		MEX > ITA
	vs. MEX (n=31)	1.21 (0.77)	2.11 (1.40)		

Note 1, BRA=Brazil, ITA=Italy, MEX=Mexico

Note 2, There were no differences between participants' three pre-test, pre-game expectations, emotional state, and involvement with their favorite team for their designated game

Note 3, Overall null hypothesis for the five factors (post-match) was rejected (Wilks' $\lambda = .480$, $F(10, 182) = 8.080$, $p < .001$)

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

variable for spectator emotions, because there were major differences among spectators' emotions after each game even though the results of the games were same; Japan lost all three games (Japan vs. Brazil=0–3; Japan vs. Italy=3–4; Japan vs. Mexico=1–2).

Another approach for predicting spectators' emotions is to apply the cognitive appraisal theory. This approach is frequently used to determine consumer emotions; consumers' thoughts and evaluations of a given product have an impact on emotional arousal (Oliver 1993). The above methodology is based on the cognitive-motivational-relational theory (Lazarus 1991), which proposes that cognition is a precedent to emotional arousal. Table 2.3 shows the result of spectators' emotional state as determined by applying the cognitive appraisal theory which in this case focused on discrepancies between the results of the event and the spectators' expectations.

The results of the study were such that, depending on whether there was a high or low degree of discrepancy between the results of the event and the spectators' expectations, there was a clear reinforcement of positive or negative emotions. From these results, it is assumed that discrepancies between the results of the event and the spectators' expectations are important determinants in predicting the arousal of

Table 2.3 Mean negative and positive disconfirmation for negative and positive emotions (Oshimi et al. 2013a)

Factor	Disconfirmation		<i>t</i> -value
	Negative	Positive	
Pride	1.29 (0.49)	2.89 (1.56)	6.91***
Joy	1.23 (0.41)	2.71 (1.43)	7.06***
Delight	1.81 (1.02)	3.67 (1.67)	6.49***
Excitement	3.16 (1.35)	4.83 (1.49)	5.45***
Anxiety	2.45 (1.61)	1.46 (0.85)	3.45**
Outrage	2.13 (1.41)	1.36 (0.86)	2.97**
Disappointment	3.71 (1.70)	2.80 (1.39)	2.69*

Note 1, A seven-step scale was utilized concerned with discrepancies in the spectators' expectations ranging from negative disconfirmation=1–3 to positive disconfirmation=5–7; *4 (just as expected) was excluded

Note 2, The overall null hypothesis for the seven factors was rejected (Wilks' $\lambda = .556$, $F(7, 90) = 10.248$, $p < .001$)

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

emotions. This information accrues in addition to whether a spectator's supported team won or lost (e.g., Hirt et al. 1992; Madrigal 2008; Sloan 1989). Therefore, two variables, "outcome of the team they support" and "discrepancies between the results of the event and spectators' expectations," should be taken into account in predicting spectators' emotions.

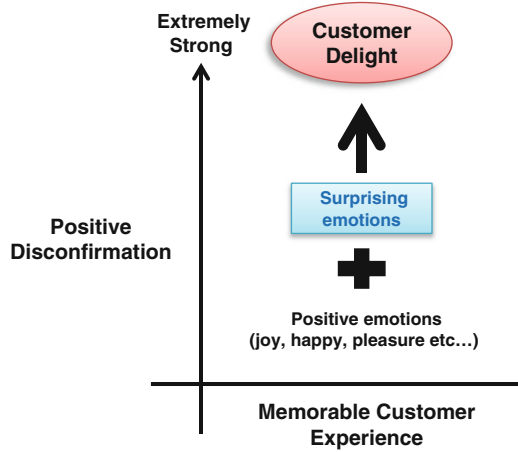
In actually, on comparing the Italy game to the other two games, there was a high degree of discrepancy post-game (Brazil game mean=3.53, SD=1.50; Italy game mean=6.38, SD=0.55; Mexico game mean=3.27, SD=1.22, $F(2, 95) = 71.14$, $p < .01$). The Italy game was a close match compared with the other two games, therefore the game content was enjoyable and caused arousal of positive emotions, in line with the indications of Bee and Madrigal (2012).

2.4 Customer Delight in Watching Sport

This section focuses on one specific emotion: "delight"; one of the strong positive emotions (Plutchik 1980). "Delight" is frequently used as a key word in business or research studies and is often utilized in the marketing evaluations as "customer delight". Surprisingly enough, however, studies focusing on delight are scarce in sport management/marketing research; thus, it will be beneficial to introduce some fundamental concepts involving delight as well as related empirical studies.

Rust and Oliver (2000) defined customer delight as a profoundly positive emotional state resulting from having one's expectations exceeded to a surprising degree. They held that customer delight should be considered as distinct from customer satisfaction. The advantages of delighting customers are: acquiring positive word-of-mouth (Torres and Kline 2006), receiving higher royalties, maintain-

Fig. 2.3 The process of creating customer delight



ing better customer retention (Hicks et al. 2005; Torres and Kline 2006), and creating a stronger possibility of re-purchase (Chitturi et al. 2008; Keiningham et al. 1999; Hicks et al. 2005). Being delighted by services or products has the potential to drastically increase customer satisfaction (Oliver 2010). Figure 2.3 shows the process of creating customer delight.

The key factors to arouse delight are “surprising emotion” and “positive emotions,” such as joy, pleasure, and happiness. Previous studies have explored the antecedent and outcome variables of customer delight by examining the customer delight experiences by utilizing quantitative (e.g., Arora 2012; Kim et al. 2012; Loureiro 2010), qualitative (Arnold et al. 2005; Magnini et al. 2011; Torres et al. 2014), and mixed method approaches (e.g., Swanson and Davis 2012). Based on these results, the author has examined spectators’ customer delight in watching sport, which will be introduced in the following section.

2.4.1 Customer Delight and Satisfaction Model

One of the models for investigating the mechanism of customer delight is the “customer delight and satisfaction model” (Oliver et al. 1997). Because of its general versatility, researchers have utilized this model in various service industry settings such as entertainment (theme park and orchestra audiences) (Oliver et al. 1997), tourism (Loureiro 2010), and retail (Finn 2005). The upper part of this model is constructed based on psychological theory, and bottom is composed of disconfirmation-satisfaction theory. This model was applied to 254 (155 men, 99 women) Japan professional football league spectators’ in an overall evaluation of past stadium experiences. Figure 2.4 shows the results of the model Structural Equation Modeling (SEM).

As a result, the sequence (surprising consumption/disconfirmation → arousal → positive affect → customer delight) was found to be important in inducing customer

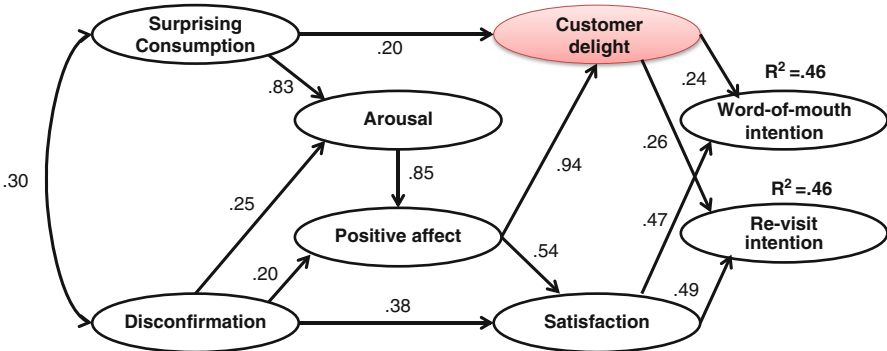


Fig. 2.4 The results of spectators’ overall evaluation of past stadium experiences. Note, $\chi^2/df=2.56$, CFI = .946, RMSEA = .079 (From Oshimi and Harada 2013)

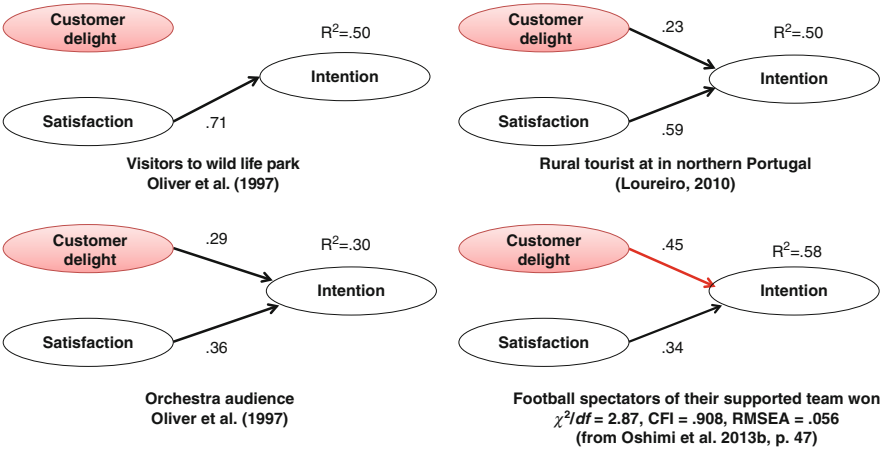


Fig. 2.5 The specific evaluations by each industrial customer on the day of his or her experience

delight and positive affect as an antecedent factor which strongly influenced customer delight. In addition, customer satisfaction was found to influence word-of-mouth and re-visit intention better than customer delight. This result agreed with those of previous studies (Finn 2005; Loureiro 2010; Oliver et al. 1997).

Next, another survey was conducted at the stadium to investigate the spectators’ specific evaluation on the day of their experience at the stadium and to compare the result with previous studies focusing on the interaction between customer delight/satisfaction and intentions (re-visit to the stadium and word-of-mouth) (Fig. 2.5)

Figure 2.5 shows the results of specific evaluations by industrial customers on the day of their experience. Interestingly, customer delight influenced intention more than satisfaction only when the football spectators’ favorite team won the game. This result implies that on the day of their stadium experience, when their

favorite team wins the game, there is a strong impact on intention.¹ Although we should take the lack of cases into account, this is one piece of evidence of the strong propensity of particular sporting event characteristics to contribute to the emotional state of the spectators (Yoshida and James 2010).

2.4.2 The Experience of Delight While Watching Sport

The customer delight and satisfaction model allows us to better understand the psychological mechanisms of customer delight, such as the importance of surprise emotion, arousal, and positive emotions and emotional intensity in the spectator experience. However, in spite of these advances in general understanding, there remains a general lack of knowledge on how we can arouse these emotions in a practical situation. For example, Magnini et al. (2011) clarified the determinants of customer delight in tourism venues through text-mines and content analysis on the travel blog “Tripadvisor.com,” and Arnold et al. (2005) verified the source of delightful experience through 113 in-depth interviews in a retail context. In sum, exploring delight experiences qualitatively leads to concrete and practical understanding of customer delight. Therefore, several investigations were conducted to clarify the delightful experience of watching a sport in the stadium through a questionnaire survey. Table 2.4 shows the method of this study, and Table 2.5 shows the results.

2.4.3 Delight Scenes from the Perspective of Sport Management/Marketing

Table 2.5 shows the name and definition of each factor. Six of the eight delight scenes, “spectating in stadium,” “dramatic scenes,” “outstanding plays,” “success from overcoming barriers,” “strenuous figures,” and “humanity,” are related to team/player performance or the existence or non-existence of a favorite/star player. These factors correspond to the core products of sport marketing (e.g., Greenwell et al. 2002). These factors are hard to manage, because team managers or marketers are not able to control team/player performance. However, the key factor to induce “success from overcoming barriers” and “humanity” is knowledge of the team or player. For example, if a spectator who has no knowledge about the team/player observes a certain players’ strong performance, even though the player may be overcoming a barrier such as a severe injury or some accident, the spectator would

¹As some have clarified that spectators whose favorite team lost showed no influence of customer delight on intention (Oshimi and Harada 2013), this result may occur when their supported team wins the game.

Table 2.4 Summary of the investigation (Oshimi and Harada 2010)

Subjects (n = 1,741)	1,322 Japan professional soccer league spectators (869 men, 453 women)
	299 professional basketball spectators (163 men, 136 women)
	120 undergraduate students (75 men, 45 women)
Method	Five-time questionnaire surveys at stadium, arena, university
Analysis	Confirmatory factor analysis, calculated average variance extracted (AVE) and Cronbach’s α , discriminate validity check

First, 742 free descriptions were collected through a three-time questionnaire survey in Japan professional soccer league spectators (n=289), Japan professional basketball league spectators (n=299), and undergraduate students (n=120). Second, these descriptions were categorized by three researchers, and a two-time (n = 1,033 in total) questionnaire survey was conducted to check validity and reliability of the scale

Table 2.5 Eight factors name and definition (Oshimi and Harada 2010)

<i>Sympathy/Togetherness</i>	Experiencing sympathy/togetherness with other spectators, including enthusiastic cheering and supporting the team along with other spectators
<i>Spectating in stadium</i>	Spectating in stadium watching a favorite or famous athlete
<i>Dramatic scenes</i>	Watching dramatic winning of a favorite team
<i>Outstanding plays</i>	Witnessing the exceptional skills of an individual and the combined effort of a team
<i>Success from overcoming barriers</i>	Watching player performing brilliantly after overcoming from some behind situations
<i>Strenuous figures</i>	Watching hard work of players and teams until the end of the match
<i>Humanity</i>	Feeling enriched humanness in athlete
<i>Additional elements</i>	Being in a beautiful and spectacular stadium or receiving excellent services

$\chi^2/df=2.58$, CFI= .923, RMSEA= .065

not be delighted because of his or her lack of knowledge and information about the player.

Similarly, when spectators watch a “humanity scene,” meaning some player expresses emotion such as crying during an interview or after the game, if they lack background information, they cannot understand or share the players’ feelings. Oshimi and Harada (2013) empirically demonstrated that arousing delight in spectators who had a high degree of knowledge about their favorite team influenced word-of-mouth and re-visit intention better than when delight was aroused in spectators who possessed only a moderate knowledge about the supported team. Therefore, sport managers/marketers should release sufficient information to spectators through various media to change common success or emotional scenes, which do not adequately inspire spectators, into “success from overcoming barriers” or “humanity” scenes.

Two of eight delight scenes, “sympathy/togetherness” and “additional elements,” are important variables because of their possibility to manage. Sympathy/togetherness means that a spectator shares euphoric moments with other spectators or players in a stadium. Although this is regarded as one of the core products in sport marketing (Yoshida and James 2010), we are able to manage it by distributing same-color paper or selling T-shirts, towels, and other merchandise to inspire a sense of togetherness in the stadium. An additional element is a delightful experience that occurs due to receiving good service from stadium staff or going to a clean and spectacular stadium; thus, managers/marketers should train stadium staff well and improve their stadium facilities.

In summary, it should be recognized that some delight experiences can be managed, and some can be hard to manage. Therefore, we should continue to explore, as researchers, more specific information about the points of customer delight so that managers/marketers can better utilize their business models.

2.5 Future Research

In this chapter, previous studies were reviewed, and empirical studies were introduced related to spectator emotion and delight in watching sport. This last section presents two future research topics: “pre-established harmony delight experience” and “psychological effect of delight experience.”

2.5.1 *Pre-established Harmony Delight Experience*

As mentioned in a previous section, arousing delight requires surprise and a positive emotion (Plutchik 1980). There are many indications that surprise is essential to inducing delight (e.g., Arnold et al. 2005; Berman 2005; Oliver et al. 1997; Rust and Oliver 2000). However, there are some delight experiences that occur without the surprise element. For example, you may be delighted by a movie you have watched many times or when you watch a TV drama that always follows the same pattern. The Japan professional football spectators² provided interesting responses such as “I’m always delighted when we sing prefectural songs before the game” or “I’m always delighted when I watch players come in to the pitch for the game.” These scenes may induce not surprise but joy, happiness, pride, or pre-established harmony feelings.

Kumar et al. (2001) investigated whether surprise is necessary for arousing delight and concluded that there is a possibility of delight where there is no surprise. Therefore, we should explore pre-established harmony delight experiences. In particular, an important aspect of watching sport is clearly the outcome of the game,

²Subjects were 143 spectators (86 men, 57 women), and the questionnaire survey was conducted at the stadium.

and if spectators’ favorite team loses the game, they tend to feel negative emotions (e.g., Hirt et al. 1992; Knobloch-Westerick et al. 2009; Oshimi and Harada 2012a, b; Sloan 1989). Thus, we should find some factors or devices to delight or please spectators even if their favorite team loses the game; this would definitely be a useful research topic for sport management/marketing.

2.5.2 Psychological Effect of Delight Experience

Although the effects of delight were limited to re-visit and word-of-mouth intention in Oliver’s model (Oliver et al. 1997), our investigation (Oshimi and Harada 2012b)³ showed that the effects of delightful experiences were “motivation,” “positive thought,” “developing interest,” “stress release,” “happiness,” “change thought,” “human love,” and “others” (Table 2.6).

Although we received descriptions of “developing interest” such as “I decided to support this team more than before following a delightful experience” or “I liked football better than before,” which were responses related to re-visit intention, other descriptions showed different effects. For example, there were descriptions of “motivation” such as “I feel motivated toward my job after seeing a player performing very well” and “I feel energized for the next week (or tomorrow).” Most of these scenes were related to psychological benefits such as psychological health or happiness. Studies addressing the psychological health or happiness of sport spectators have been scarce.

Recently, “positive psychology” and “happiness” have become key words in psychology (Lopez and Snyder 2009), and there are studies applying these concepts to marketing (e.g., Hsee et al. 2009) and sport participants (Lee et al. 2013). Undoubtedly, such studies may be expected to increase in the sport management or marketing field in the near future.

Table 2.6 The effect of delight experience in watching sport

Each effect	Number of descriptions (%)
Motivation	54 (37.2)
Positive thought	35 (24.1)
Developing interest	25 (17.2)
Stress release	9 (6.2)
Happiness	8 (5.5)
Change thought	6 (4.1)
Human love	5 (3.6)
Others	3 (2.1)
Total	145 (100)

³Subjects were 126 spectators (86 men, 40 women), and the questionnaire survey was conducted at the stadium. content analysis was utilized in this study to categorize free descriptions.

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Sports Management and Sports Humanities

Kanosue, K.; Kogiso, K.; Oshimi, D.; Harada, M. (Eds.)

2015, X, 202 p. 39 illus., 25 illus. in color., Hardcover

ISBN: 978-4-431-55323-6