



A Descriptive Study on Fan Avidity

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Abstract

This study aims to widen the area of research on compulsive consumption by creating and verifying a scale for compulsive sport consumption (CSC). Consuming sports sets off intricate psychological processes that involve emotional highs and lows that support and sustain ingrained behaviours.

We conducted three studies:

- (1) Qualitative investigation of compulsive sport consumers (CSC) and probe fundamental issues.
- (2) Generate items, purify them, then validate them to begin developing scale.
- (3) Examine the effects of CSC by categorising compulsive sports users.

The final scale will be a unidimensional scale that assesses a person's compulsive and habitual sports consumption, where the pattern of behaviour is linked to a sense of controllessness. Results also show the unexpected prevalence of CSC and several intriguing psychological and behavioural links. Scale can be implied for consumer welfare and contemporary sports marketing.

Introduction

The goal of this study is to analyse the potential for a certain consumer group—extremely ardent fans—to develop an excessive level of compulsiveness in their sports consumption as well as to evaluate the causes and effects of such behaviour. An analysis of pertinent theory and a conceptual evaluation are the first steps in the research process. We conducted depth interviews to better explore the concept of compulsive sport consumption (CSC) and take into account its breadth and depth. We create, test, and evaluate a scale to quantify CSC utilising survey research after the interview. The developed scale was then validated further in a second survey.

The CSCS is also contrasted with other measures, and we utilise the CSCS to categorise and compare consumers. We also look at how the CSCS links to other psychological and behavioural dimensions. At the end, there is a discussion of the work's contributions, implications, limitations, and ideas for further study.

People can develop addictions to a variety of activities, including texting, having sex, shopping, playing video games, watching television, using the internet, and even consuming chocolate.. These frequently pleasurable but occasionally dangerous activities seem to develop from unadulterated passions into compulsions, pre-addictive behaviours, and unstoppable addictions. (GROVER ET AL., 2011; O'GUINN &

FABER, 1989). According to recent studies, marketing cues may contribute to consuming addiction. (MARTIN ET AL., 2013). We argue that given the projected growth of the Indian sports industry, which includes broadcast rights, apparel, sports nutrition, and sports equipment, to \$100 billion by 2027 from \$27 billion in 2020, the context-specificities of sport consumption provide the ideal setting for researching this phenomenon. (KHOSLA, 2022).

Sport and compulsive consuming

Addictive behaviour is characterised by cravings, irrational emotional responses, a lack of self-control, and an inability to recognise the detrimental repercussions of an activity. (HING, LAMONT, VITARTAS, & FINK, 2015) This behavior is usually caused by a loss of willpower and a rise in the need for instant pleasure, which leads to a pathological and compulsive pursuit of rewards (Hoch & Loewenstein, 1991; MARTIN ET AL., 2013). According to (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989; Ridgway, Kukar-Kinney, & Monroe, 2008), compulsive buying is characterised by a regular, habitual pattern of purchasing activity and a matching lack of impulse control. We anticipate that impulsive control problems and obsessive-compulsive tendencies, which have the potential to have negative effects, will also be present in compulsive sport intake.

There are three basic reasons why excessive sport consumption crosses the line into compulsive. The first things are psychological internal factors. It has been discovered that sports have an impact on supporters' identities, values, and attitudes (Bee & Kahle, 2017; Branscombe & Wann, 1991). Many people use their love of sports as a simple (and possibly proud) way to identify who they are. Such conduct promotes internal feelings of allegiance and self-worth (Wann, Royalty, & Roberts, 2014). Second, supporters are obviously "pushed in" by external cultural factors in addition to being psychologically drawn in from within. A fulfilling sense of belonging and a sense of being a part of something greater than oneself are all benefits of engaging in sports, according to study (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Campbell, Aiken, & Kent, 2004). Sport has long been a source of societal fervour, and even the concept of excessive devotion is not new (Gubar, 2015). Because they are viewed as loyal, passionate, and focused people rather than as people who are obsessed, obnoxious, or sports fans, society typically applauds sports fans for their extreme participation. Thirdly, media- and marketing-based cues may promote obsessive consumption (Fullerton & Punj, 2002; Hing et al., 2015; Martin et al., 2013; Prentice & Cotte, 2015). Through television, radio, print, mobile, online, and other social media platforms, fans are continually exhorted to follow alternative, extreme, and e-sports in addition to traditional sports. Sports fans are urged by marketers to call in, send emails, tweet about sports, and watch pre- and post-game broadcasts. Surprisingly, about half of the world's population could be found watching the most recent Olympics on any media (3.6 billion; Fortune.com, 2016). We live in a technology-mediated society where access to sports is instantaneous as well as constant through all forms of media, so it is not surprising that many sports fans just can't help it and are willing to put off important professional and personal obligations in order to watch their favourite teams play.

Study 1: An in-depth study of fans sport participation.

- Method

The purpose of Study 1 was to create a concise constitutive definition and get a fundamental understanding of the psychological and behavioural mechanisms that underlie the consumption of extreme sports. Depth interviews provided for follow-up questions and the ability to investigate themes as they arose. A higher sample size than could be expected for qualitative interviews seemed appropriate given the exploratory character of Study 1 and the possible difficulties in locating compulsive sport consumers. We also intended to conduct the

investigation over multiple sporting seasons. Therefore, 62 unpaid volunteers were enlisted over a ten-month period using purposive snowball selection. The athletic departments of the universities referred

fifteen interview candidates.

The advantage of these suggestions lay not only in the introduction of possible interviewers, but also in the screening and qualification of interviews by the athletic department (as extreme fans). The majority of the other participants were followers of the institution or close relatives or friends of other interviewees who described themselves as die-hard sports fanatics. According to earlier studies on sports behaviour, men often exhibit higher levels of emotional involvement and consumption motivations than women (Gantz & Wenner, 1991). Accordingly, our sample contained a significantly higher proportion of male interviews (46 males, 16 females).

The interviews ranged in length from 45 to 75 minutes, and they took place in different places (homes, coffee shops, and on-site at athletic events). Participants ranged in age from 18 to 74 (mean age: 29.9). Furthermore, the average weekly time spent watching sports (including online) was 23.9 hours, which is three times the 7.7 hour national average (Statista 2014).

This sum includes 5.8 hours of reading, 9.4 hours of viewing, and 8.7 hours of sports-related conversation. An effort was made to obtain surveys from other parties to increase validity and eliminate any self-reporting biases (from spouses and family members). It's intriguing that the research team came to the conclusion that, although some respondents might suffer from optimism bias and proudly overestimate their sport consumption as a sign of devotion, others might suffer from guilt and shame and, as a result, underestimate their sport consumption. These five interviews with independent third parties offer novel perspectives and original thoughts on the complex CSC issue.

There have been 23 questions in the semi-structured script, divided into four main sections. Simple icebreaker questions regarding the interviewee's history of sport engagement and an estimation of how much time she now spends engaging in sport were included in the first portion (as a fan). Section 2 went into further detail on thoughts and feelings before, during, and after participating in sports. The questions in Section 3 focused on the potential drawbacks of participating in sport (such as commitments to one's job, connections with others, bodily necessities, and emotional well-being). The final section asked open-ended questions about overall perceptions of CSC (such as its presence, a proposed definition, predecessors, and perceived conceptual distinctions between passion and compulsion). In the final question, participants were asked if they or anybody they knew met the criteria of an obsessive fan.

Two outside coders were hired and trained after the transcription of the interviews. An identification key that allocated codes for topics in Section 1 have been designated for categorised sorting and evaluation other sections' subjects. Each interview was read and rated by the coders separately. A member of the team also examined codes and ratings of a research group. Inter-coder reliability values ranged from 0.713 to 0.945.

• Results

The tone of the first-person and third-person interviews varied greatly overall. First-person respondents were generally animated while talking about what seemed to be one of main problems in their life. The majority of them displayed positive views and were pleased of their

consuming habits, but they frequently acknowledged a downside as well. Despite talks of the negative effects of sport consumption, the majority of respondents sought to defend and explain previous actions. One participant cited his decision to miss his sister's wedding in order to attend an IPL playoff game. He was supposed to be in the bridal party, but he couldn't understand why his family was upset. At the end of his story, he minimised his actions by adding that "it was not that big of a thing" and that he really made it to the reception (I59, Male, age 24). On the other hand, while third-person respondents were just as eager to talk about sports consumption, they tended to criticise the attitudes and behaviours of participants. The majority of third-person responders expressed a desire for compassion and fiercely condemned behaviours and attitudes as foolish, meaningless, and even repugnant. The third-party interviews frequently included severe expressions of irritation and/or displeasure. It's interesting to see that interviewers from a third party also recognised a subject by their CSC. Excessive avidity and CSC were accepted as characteristics of the

subject's nature, as though there was no turning back or reversing the decision. Identification, social contact, avidity, emotions, coping, outcomes and repercussions, and perceived needs or compulsions are some of the different experiences that people have. Interesting quotes from interviews are displayed in Table 1.

An outward-focused social motive, such as group identity, community stability, and the need to show one's utter dedication to others, was linked to high levels of sport involvement. Many of the interviewees had been involved in fan clubs actively. Others had tight-knit groups of family and/or friends that were brought together by a love of a specific sport or group. They described a kinship in which CSC provided a much-needed and sincere support network (i.e., an in-group membership). Their high levels of engagement were linked to their sense of group belonging.

The statements "[Being a team's fan— it's who I am]" and "It's a huge part of my life" effectively captured their intense devotion to the squad. Although third-person respondents acknowledged their fandom, they did not express it with the same pride and passion as their first-person counterparts, and at times, they even came out as antagonistic. This is consistent with past studies that found that important components of sport consumption were pride, identity, and outward-directed behaviours (e.g., Campbell et al., 2004; Cialdini et al., 1976). When you watch sports, you may experience both happy and sad emotions (Bee & Madrigal, 2012)

In instance, the majority of respondents reported both increased physical and emotional stress (such as juggling feelings of guilt and/or humiliation, needing to make up time at work, etc). (e.g., being tired at work or school, not having time to eat right). Their involvement in athletics was linked to internalised sentiments of anger, a lack of freedom that they experienced, or the perspectives of people who "simply don't get it." Interviewees generally downplayed the negative impacts while admitting their tiredness and maintaining that "it was worth it." Even third-party interviews were able to see how

Table 1
Study 1 : Major ideas and relevant passages summarised

<p>Social motivation and Identification</p>	<p>"I enjoy watching sports because it gives me pride, boast me, and something that I talk about sports with my friends. In certain times , it might increase relevance of a person".(I11, male, 34).</p> <p>"Football has a unique culture all to itself. It can be very exciting to be a part of this game". (Female, 60, age 74).</p> <p>“Being great fan of team – it’s what define me” (I5, male, 44).</p> <p>“He actually lives happily through his favourite sports figures or teams. He feels like he succeeds along with them when they succeed. That's my boy! and "That's my team!" are two things he always screams”. (Female, 36, I31).</p> <p>"I feel as though I'm going through the player's real life when I watch the sport. My dream has always been to play sports which are professionally known” (I41, male, 21).</p>
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Positive and Negative emotions	<p>“When I watch sports, I frequently feel a lot of emotions, such as utter excitement at an incredible performance or grief when a team plays poorly on a certain day” (I47, female, 30).</p> <p>" He always smiles when he talks about Virat Kohli, and I can't stand it! He loves him dearly! however, He has yet to meet him. specific day ! (Female, 22, I25).</p> <p>"Without even a doubt, are you joking me? Depressed. Upset. To be a Punjab Kings sports fan brings an overwhelming feeling of downfall". (I11, male, 34).</p> <p>" Yes, he screams at the TV, rips out his own hair, and cries out at the players”</p>
	<p>(I25, male, 21).</p> <p>“If the team wins, we feel on top of the world. If we lose, we shout out, we feel angry at everyone – like something is wrong with the world” (I48, female, 22).</p>
Negative result	<p>“An addict is a person who doesn't care about anything except sports, particularly if it becomes too important and they stop sleeping, eating, or getting a tattoo of their beloved team”.</p> <p>“Relationships do indeed suffer! While I was trying to record a game so that I wouldn't see it later, a girl I dated who didn't like sports and acted like a bitch would tell me the results.”</p> <p>“He lost his position because he frequently skipped work to watch sports in bars. He severed ties with lots of friends”</p> <p>“I attribute my separation to SportsCenter. While watching sports, my husband frequently objected to me even holding our daughter. He was also incapable of skipping a game!”</p>

Compulsion	<p>“My friend's parents' 50th wedding anniversary was missed so that he could attend an IPL game.”</p> <p>“Nothing else is important. I never miss a game. Simply altering my plans will ensure that I watch. I can't watch in a bar because I have to give the game my full attention.”</p> <p>“He never misses a game, and nobody is allowed to interrupt him while he is watching. This includes having dinner while watching the game.”</p> <p>“During IPL season, I switch off on my work shifts”</p> <p>“Since it's all I know, I don't know if it's out of control. However, it reminds me of alcohol addiction. He needs to be active [emphasis added]. I'm not sure what he would do without sports.”</p>
Manage	<p>“In the absence of a game, I am enraged and agitated. It's an additional chance to decompress and just enjoy being among the guys.”</p> <p>“If he misses a game, he basically throws a tantrum” (I47, female, 33).</p> <p>“Having seen the games makes him happy than if he had not watched it and his team had won”</p> <p>“Watching sports allows me to unwind. I can relax and get away from whatever is bothering me. I also recall the excitement I felt while playing with pals in high school. After a victory, I feel alert and ready to move on to the next task. Losing irritates me, and I occasionally yell if I make a bad mistake.”</p>
Sport obsession and addiction as experienced by participants	<p>“Sport is a way of life. Nothing else is important.”</p> <p>[definition of CSC] “An insatiable urge to know anything and everything about players, teams, or sport in general to the expense of more significant issues or relationships”.</p> <p>“Fans only care about one team and are uninterested in the game itself. They only care about their team's success. Addicts scrutinize every aspect of the game.”</p> <p>“When a person is only genuinely pleased following that interest, or when the fixation has stolen too much away from crucial relationships or employment, then it is just like any other addiction. The person is using it to get a high or an emotional fix, and they are using it to escape from other things. Even after treatment, an addict will engage in the same behaviors.”</p>

significantly CSC harmed both personal and business relationships. Throughout many interviews, the concepts of moral obligation and addiction were frequently intertwined. Seven respondents to the study (11.3%) said that in some way, their athletic participation was out of control. The majority of respondents (82%) indicated they make a point of never missing their favourite team's games or matches when asked whether they ever do so (although a few jokingly claimed they did not comprehend the asked question). The majority of interviewees—34—said that skipping a game is not usual. When it was absolutely necessary to record the interview or make other arrangements, many interview subjects did so reluctantly.

Many of the people we spoke to said they were exhausted or had otherwise missed all of their work or school. The common theme was disregarding obligations due to their obsessive desire to follow sports. Because fixation is commonly used as a coping method for life's issues and

stresses, depriving these extreme sports enthusiasts of their sport intake would also deprive them of those coping strategies (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989). Indeed, participants acknowledged experiencing separation anxiety and withdrawal symptoms to varying degrees (Batra, Ahuvia, & Bagozzi, 2012). They regularly discussed how they were compelled to watch sports and how their behaviour was compulsive. After losing a sporting game, there have been accounts of people getting angry, outraged, frustrated, and even "throwing temper tantrums." When asked what attracts an extreme fan to CSC, the interviewees offered a wide range of ideas.

They approached problems with a tremendous deal of fervour, emotion, and dedication. They came to the conclusion that the fan must be out of control in some way and that the "addict" must also voluntarily give up something in order to qualify as a "addict." The inflection point where a fan transitions from regular (though incredibly enthusiastic) usage to an all-consuming kind of consumption was cited by many interviews. People who took part in the interviews claimed that some sports enthusiasts prioritise their love of the sport above everything else and virtually give power to it. Some respondents proposed the theory that addicts rationalised their behaviour by thinking CSC would make them into better persons. Last but not least, the majority of interviewees strongly backed the concept of CSC. In actuality, 24 respondents (38.7%) said they knew (or had known) a sports addict.

- Review

The interviews exposed a wide range of challenging topics and emotive reactions. While the majority of respondents expressed joy and pride in their devoted fandom, some others tried to downplay or explained their feelings and behaviour. Severe participation, social motivations, identity, glory, conflicted emotions, negative outcomes, athletics as a way of coping, and obsession were major themes that were intertwined throughout their perceptions. The term "compulsive sport consumption" was defined as "the habitual and highly emotional consumption of sport wherein the type of behaviour is coupled with a sense of restricted control" after a thorough assessment of the literature and evaluation of these themes.

Additionally, this behaviour may have negative internal effects (such as guilt, regret, conflict, etc.) as well as negative external effects (e.g., negative effects on relationships with friends, family, profession, etc.). CSC frequently entails a morally-justifiable, well-founded, even arrogant, consumptive stance that is frequently endorsed by society. As a result, Study 1 provided crucial understandings into the nature of CSC, helped identify constructs for additional research, and provided a working definition from which to proceed.

Study 2: Development of scale

- Method

In Study 2, a CSC scale (CSCS) was formalised, its initial validity was assessed, and the items were cleaned up using exploratory component analysis. Items were explicitly chosen from Study 1 and studies on obsessive buying, sport consumption, and technology use (DeSarbo and Edwards, 1996; Grover et al., 2013; Faber & O'Guinn, 1992; Mowen & Spears, 1999;

Ridgway et al., 2008; Valence et al., 1988). (Andreassen et al., 2003). (Kourosh and others, 2010).

Six professionals with expertise in fan culture and obsessive consuming were given the initial pool of 60 products. The pieces were examined by the experts for repetition, appropriateness, appropriateness, and simplicity. Additionally, they were requested to input any pertinent details (or concepts) they felt were lacking. The quantity of articles was trimmed down to 41 by professional analysis. The literature on binge eating and addiction included discussions of identity, sense of time, sense of others, compulsivity/impulsivity, losing control, passion, connection, commitment, and participation.

20 students (50.2% of them were female) provided the data. As part of the introduction, participants read a text about sport consumption, which made it clear that the questions that followed would not pertain to engaging in sports (e.g., watching cricket not playing cricket). Each participant completed an online survey that included the 41 CSC items as well as identification, self-esteem, and positive and negative affect measures (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Rosenberg, 1965). (Watson et al., 1988). A 7-point Likert scale was used to capture responses (1 being strongly disagree, and 7 being strongly agree).

• Results

As in DeVellis, we used an iterative approach with several exploratory principal component factor analyses and an oblique rotation (2012). Items that scored lower than 0.4 communally, scored lower than 0.5 on factor loading, scored higher than 0.3 on loading of a non-primary factor, or scored higher than 0.7 on intercorrelation within the same subscale were eliminated. The initial study resulted in the removal of 16 entries (one with a communality of less than 0.4 and 15 with factor loadings of less than 0.5). After three further analysis iterations, 11 items, 6 items, and 2 items were eliminated, respectively. The remaining two items were removed because they had a poor conceptual match and little variance explanation. The final result was a six-item single factor structure that explained 69% of the total variance. Table 2 includes the final solution with factor loadings, descriptive statistics, and Cronbach's alpha. Correlations among the items are seen in Table 3.

Previous research on compulsive consumption is compatible with the unidimensional Compulsive Sport Consumption Scale (CSCS), which incorporates measures that represent both poor impulse control and obsessive-compulsiveness (Ridgway et al., 2008). The first three questions, in particular "Much of my life focuses around the intake of sport," demonstrate obsession and cognitive centrality. "I am entirely taken with the consumption of sport," and "I think about sport all the time." The following three phrases, "I find it tough to quit reading, watching, or talking about sports," "There is a huge desire to consume sports," show a lack of control over a psychological impulse to do so consistently. I am compelled to engage in this activity, and I am unable to live without my love of sports.

Using the following validated scales, measures of self-esteem (= 0.89; Rosenberg, 1965), positive and negative affect (pos = 0.89; neg = 0.87; Watson et al., 1988), and identification (= 0.88; Mael & Ashforth, 1992) that have been linked to compulsive consumption and sport participation were also evaluated. The CSCS and identification were shown to be significantly correlated ($r = .47$, $p .01$). Unsurprisingly, higher degrees of CSCS correlated with higher levels of affiliation with a favoured team. The CSCS and either pleasant or negative emotions were not significantly correlated (all p -values $>.20$). The gender disparities at the CSC were also investigated. When compared to females ($M = 1.72$), males ($M = 2.82$) had substantially higher levels of CSC ($t(305) = 7.66$, $p .01$).

• Discussions

According to Study 2's findings, the unidimensional CSCS exhibits good reliability and is indicative of both behavioural and cognitive tendencies in CSC sufferers. The CSCS indicates a preoccupation with and compulsive desire for sport, which includes persistent and repetitive thoughts and actions as well as problems with self-control.

Study 3: Validation of the scale

- Method

Validating the CSCS created in Study 2 was the main goal of Study 3. In order to identify and distinguish compulsive sport lovers from less obsessive sectors of sport consumers, we therefore aimed to verify the factor structure, assess the reliability, parallel, discriminant, and criteria validity, and employ the CSCS.

Data were gathered online using Amazon Mechanical Turk from 400 participants (55.0% male, Mage = 35.7 years). The six-item CSCS and the related constructs were provided to participants after the identical introductory text as in Study 2: inclination to attend sporting events (OSE: Pons, Mourali, & Nyeck, 2006), Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS: Watson et al., 1988), sensation seeking (Stephenson et al., 2003), Big Five personality (Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann, 2003), identification (Mael & Ashforth, 1992), obsessive and harmonious passion (Vallerand et al., 2003), demographic questions, and Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS: Watson et al., 1988) (i.e., age, gender, education, income, relationship status). Items were also included to examine behaviour neglect linked to compulsive sport consumption, negative psychological effects, time spent engaging in sport, money spent engaging in sport, coping, and time spent engaging in sport. Negative psychological impacts, behavioural neglect, and coping mechanisms related to compulsive sport consumption With the help of 7-point Likert-type response formats, the domains of identification, OSE, obsessive and harmonious enthusiasm, sensory seeking, and personality were evaluated.

On a scale of 1 to 7, with 7 being the highest, PANAS was rated. Participation in high school, college, and current athletic activities was evaluated using a 7-point scale (1 being never and 7 being more than five times per week).

Respondents were asked if they engaged in the activities and, if so, how many hours per week they spent doing each one: discussing sports with friends, watching sports on television, online, or through other media, going to live sporting events, taking part in fantasy sports leagues or tournament pools, listening to sports on the radio, online, or through other audio, reading about sports (such as in newspapers, magazines, or online), and playing sports gambling. The month - to - month U.S. dollar amount spent on all of the following activities— sports magazines or websites, live-event tickets, pay-per-view sporting events, sports betting, fantasy leagues or sport pools, team or event apparel or memorabilia, and any other sport fan—was used to calculate the amount of money spent on sport consumption.

We evaluated negative psychological effects with the four following statements because prior research has shown that compulsive customers typically engage in deception or attempt to keep their behaviour hidden in order to prevent feelings of regret and shame (O'Guinn & Faber, 1989; Valence et al., 1988). "I am ashamed of the amount of sports media I watch," "I occasionally don't want others to know when I'm watching sports out of concern that I'll come across as unreasonable," Other individuals have advised me to watch/read less sport, and "At times, I have felt bad for viewing so many sporting events." " The five statements "I had also neglected my professional obligations because of sport," "I had also neglected my personal obligations because of sport," "I have neglected my physical needs because of watching sport," "I have hurt relationships because of sport," and "I am sometimes short on sleep because of sport consumption" were used to measure behavioural neglect. The following two statements were used to quantify coping: "I have consumed sport to make myself feel better" and "For me, sport consumption is a way of relieving tension in my daily life and relaxing." A 7-point Likert-type response scale was used to evaluate psychological effects, behavioural neglect, and coping.

- Results

Internal consistency, dimensionality, and factor structure

The six CSCS components that make up the proposed unidimensional structure were assessed using confirmatory factor analysis with AMOS 23. The CFA's results showed that the model and the data were well matched ($\chi^2(9) = 24.38, p = .004, 2/df = 2.71, CFI = 0.99, TLI = 0.99, SRMR = 0.04, RMSEA = 0.064$). The relative chi-square ratio, which had a value of 2.71 rather than the advised 3.0 (Carmines & McIver, 1981), suggested an acceptable model fit. The RMSEA value was at the cutoff requirement of 0.06 for a relatively acceptable fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999), the SRMR was below the advised cutoff of 0.05, and the CFI and TLI values were both well above the cutoff of 0.95. (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Undimensional factor	Mean (SD)	Standardized loadings
Item		
FAN AVIDITY SCALE	2.61	
	-1.47	
Much of my life revolves on my enjoyment of sports.	2.55	0.88
consumption of sport.	-1.61	
I constantly consider sports.	2.61	0.87
	-1.69	
Consuming sports has completely captured my attention.	2.61	0.87
	-1.72	
It's challenging for me to stop reading, watching, or discussing sports.	2.46	0.81
	-1.6	
There is a great desire to consume sports.	2.59	0.82
I have no choice but to engage in this behaviour.	-1.71	
I am a sports consumer, and I cannot live without it.	2.82	0.83
	-1.76	

The fit statistics of the alternative model indicated a similar fit to our suggested model (i.e., chi-square difference test not significant). We looked at the alternative two-factor framework's component structure with average variance extracted and construct correlations in light of the alternative model's strong link between the two constructs ($r = 0.98$). The extracted average variance for each construct was less than the squared pairwise correlation (0.96) but not more ($AVE_{preoccupation} = 0.77, AVE_{loss\ self-control} = 0.67$) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Additionally, the construct link between preoccupied and loss of self-control did not have plus or minus two standard errors of unity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). As a result, it appeared that there was no evidence supporting the discriminant validity of the two components. Therefore, the suggested unidimensional scale offered a more precise fit to the data.

The dependability and internal consistency of the unidimensional CSCS were determined to be adequate (see Table 2). According to Nunnally (1978), the extracted average variance ($AVE = 0.72$) was bigger than 0.50, Cronbach's alpha ($= 0.94$) was higher than 0.70, and the composite reliability ($CR = 0.84$) was higher than 0.6. 1981 (Fornell & Larcker). Table 5 shows correlations between items, while Table 4 shows descriptive statistics and factor loadings.

• Criterion validity

To determine how the CSCS connects to other constructs, we looked at psychological, fan-related, sport participation, demographic, negative psychological impacts, and behavioural neglect (see Table for means, standard deviations, reliabilities and correlations). Sensation seeking, PANAS, and the Big-5 personality domains were examined as psychological entities (Watson et al., 1988). (Gosling and others, 2003)

The CSCS was strongly correlated with sensation seeking and both positive and negative affect, in line with past investigations (Ridgway et al. 2008). (2006) Rodrigues Villarino et al. Additionally, this was positively connected to openness to experience, but negatively related to negative affectivity and openness to experience (Andreassen et al., 2012). These results showed that higher levels of CSC were associated with higher levels of extraversion, both positive and negative emotional responses, and openness to experience, but lower levels of neuroticism and openness to new experiences. People watch sporting events for three

reasons: thrill seeking, cognitive function, and socialisation, which correspond to the three most common ways that consumers engage in sport (Pons et al., 2006). The phrase "identification" refers to a supporter's sentimental attachment to a team or individual player (Madrigal, 2006).

Obsessive and harmonious enthusiasm refer to a great affinity for a pastime that people like and cherish and that was developed as a result of sports participation. Even though we predict a positive association between these three sport-related constructs and the CSCS, our conceptualization and quantification of compulsive sport consumption goes beyond such structures to encompass loss of self-control.

As predicted, positive correlations between the CSCS and the construct variables pertaining to sports enthusiasts were found. Increased affiliation, orientation toward sporting events, and both obsessive and harmonious passion are all correlated with higher levels of the CSCS. However, the association between the OSE's cognition seeking dimension and the CSCS was incredibly strong ($r = 0.72$, $p.001$), while the majority of correlations were only marginally significant ($r_s = 0.17-0.56$). It is not unexpected that these two conceptions are related given that they both have to do with how people view sports.

While the cognitive seeking factor is linked to sport knowledge, familiarity, and expertise, the CSCS is concerned with the amount of time spent thinking about sport and an unwillingness to quit engaging in it. However, the association between the OSE's cognition seeking dimension and the CSCS was incredibly strong ($r = 0.72$, $p.001$), while the majority of correlations were only marginally significant ($r_s = 0.17-0.56$). It is not unexpected that these two conceptions are related given that they both have to do with how people view sports.

While the cognitive seeking factor is linked to sport knowledge, familiarity, and expertise, the CSCS is concerned with the amount of time spent thinking about sport and an unwillingness to quit engaging in it.

As a result, the correlation between the cognition-seeking OSE and the CSCS is significantly different from a correlation of 0.99 ($34.8 > 2.58$). The level of past and current sport participation was included since earlier research revealed a connection between being a sports enthusiast and playing sports (Cohen & Avrahami, 2005). It is not surprising that the CSCS and sports involvement have positive connections. We predicted that CSC would have a wide range of negative impacts based on multiple other works where deleterious effects were identified within compulsion-related research (Hirschman, 1992; Faber & O'Guinn, 1988, 1992; Valence et al., 1988).

In light of the research that has already been done, five effects were assessed: (1) weekly time spent participating in sport (including reading, watching, and participating); (2) monthly financial commitment to sport fan consumption (including buying sport magazines, tickets to live events, and team/event apparel/memorabilia); (3) negative psychological effects; and (4) behavioural neglect as a result of sport involvement (e.g., neglect of physical needs, personal and professional obligations). The CSCS and consequences were shown to be significantly and strongly positively correlated, which is consistent with prior studies on compulsive behaviour that looked at the effects of consuming (Faber & O'Guinn, 1992; Ridgway et al., 2008).

There are more behavioural neglect, unfavourable psychological consequences, higher CSCS scores for 1A36, time and money spent more freely, and sport consumption as a coping method. Even though correlations are helpful in demonstrating a relationship between two variables, we also wanted to identify the relative significance of the CSCS to consumption effects. As a result, the CSCS was negatively impacted. According to the findings, consuming time ($= 0.30$, $t = 6.45$, $p.01$), average monthly expenditure ($= 0.25$, $t = 4.95$, $p.01$), coping ($= 0.65$, $t = 17.51$, $p.01$), adverse psychological impacts ($= 0.68$, $t = 18.92$, $p.01$), and behavioural neglect were all well predicted by the CSCS.

As people get more hooked with and currently experience a loss of self-control with sport consumption, they spend more time and money and, unfortunately, suffer harsher negative impacts as a result. We also investigated gender and relationship status discrepancies within the CSCS. Men had greater male to female CSC ratios ($M_{\text{male}} = 3.04$, $M_{\text{female}} = 2.07$; $t(420) = 7.15$, $p.01$). Respondents in relationships (married or long-term) and those who weren't in relationships showed marginally significant differences (i.e., never married, separated, divorced, not interested in a relationship). Couples scored lower on the CSC than

singles did (Mnrel = 2.75 vs. Mrel = 2.50; $t(420) = 1.66$, $p = .09$). Differences in education, income, and age were not found to differ significantly.

Table 5 Study 3 item correlations.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Fan Avidity Scale						
2. Life Centres	0.895					
3. Think about all the time	0.892	0.778				
4. Completely taken	0.888	0.775	0.76			
5. Difficult to stop	0.845	0.723	0.73	0.688		
6. Urge is strong	0.863	0.8	0.692	0.75	0.673	
7. Cannot live without	0.868	0.727	0.726	0.706	0.664	0.715

Table 6 Criterion validity: psychological, sport-related, and behavioural constructs.

	MEAN	SD	a	Correlation with Fan Avidity Scale
Psychological constructs				CSCS
affect in Positive sense	4.53	2.19	0.80	0.17**
affect in Negative sense	2.64	0.89	0.84	0.23**
Seeking of sensation	3.99	1.44	0.94	0.12**
Agreeableness	5.58	1.33		-0.08
Self - control	4.64	1.32		-0.04
Emotionality	2.89	1.6		-0.10*
Extraversion	3.75	1.76		0.16**
Openness to experience	5.27	1.39		-0.11*
Sport-related constructs				
Description	2.54	1.73	0.8	0.54**
Socialization of OSE	3.75	1.61	0.70	0.58**
OSE seeking sensation	4.76	1.83	0.84	0.52**
OSE seeking intelligence	4.69	1.54	0.80	0.73**
Excessive desire	3.35	1.55	0.82	0.44**
Passion in harmony	5.78	1.19	0.78	0.18**
Sport-participation				
High school sport participation	4.86	2.14		0.36**
College sport participation	2.54	1.67		0.34**
Current sport participation	3.53	1.4		0.48**
Consequences				
Time spent (hours per week)	9.79	18.23		0.29**
Money spent (\$ per month)	43.28	134.99		0.26**
Negative psychological consequences	3.03	1.25	0.74	0.69**
Behavioural neglect	1.07	1.33	0.89	0.67**
Coping	4.83	1.84		0.66**

Notes. 7-point Likert-type scale (except time and money spent).

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

• Differentiating the CSCS from other sport-related measures

We sought to make sure the CSCS distinguished itself from other sport-related scales given its strong association with the OSE cognitive dimension. The results of this behaviour serve as crucial markers of the distinctions between obsessive consumption and routine consumption (Martin et al., 2013). We employed hierarchical regression to determine the association between the sport-related measures and the CSCS based on coping, negative psychological impacts, and behavioural neglect.

In the first step of the hierarchical regression for each of the consequences, the sport-related variables were included, followed by the CSCS measure (see Table 7). We found that the CSCS distinguished itself from other sport-related measures by explaining a considerable amount of incremental variance in negative

psychological impacts (R^2 change = 0.20, $p.01$), behavioural neglect (R^2 change = 0.17, $p.01$), as well as coping (R^2 change = 0.04, $p.01$). Even though several of the sport-related measures were still significant outcome predictors, we also compared the squared semi partial correlation coefficients to determine the proportion of variance explained by the various independent variables (see Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken, 2003).

The other predictors only account for > 3% (psychological), 2% (behavioural), and 1% of variance in a distinct manner, while the CSCS accounts for 20% (psychological consequences), 17% (behavioural neglect), and 4% (coping) of variance in a unique way (coping). Despite the fact that several items from the other sport-related scales are significant, it is clear that the CSCS is different from these measurements.

- **Recognizing and identifying obsessive consumers with the CSCS**

We wanted to make sure the CSCS stood out from other sport-related scales because of its strong connection to the OSE cognitive component. The results of this behaviour serve as crucial markers of the distinctions between obsessive and normal consumption (Martin et al., 2013). We used hierarchical regression to determine the relationship between the sport-related variables and the CSCS based on coping, negative psychological impacts, and behavioural neglect. For each of the outcomes, the sport-related variables were initially incorporated into the regression analysis, followed by the CSCS measure (see Table 7). We found that the CSCS distinguished itself from other sport-related measures by explaining a significant amount of incremental variance in negative psychological impacts (R^2 change = 0.20, $p.01$), behavioural neglect (R^2 change = 0.17, $p.01$), and coping (R^2 change = 0.04, $p.01$). Even though several of the sport-related measures were still significant outcome predictors, we also assessed the square semi partial correlations to determine the amount of variance explained by the various independent variables (see Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken, 2003). The CSCS accounts for 20% of the variation in psychological repercussions, 17% of the variation in behavioural neglect, and 4% of the variation in coping, according to the R^2 change statistic, while the other variables do not account for > 3% (psychological), 2% (behavioural), and 1% of the variation (coping). Despite the fact that some components from the other athletic scales are significant, it is clear that the CSCS is different from these measurements.

- **Identifying and separating compulsive customers using the CSCS.**

It's important to recognise compulsive athletes and how they may differ from less compulsive athletes. To establish the ideal CSCS cut-off criterion for compulsive consumers, we followed the same methodology as Ridgway et al (2008).

First, we examined the relationship between the total CSCS and significant outcome characteristics such time and money spent on athletic participation, negative psychological consequences, and behavioural neglect. Based on the sum of their CSCS scores, respondents were then divided into 20 groups of nearly equal size (i.e., 5% in each group). As CSCS scores increase, all outcome variables show a similar growing pattern, as seen in Fig. 1. The final group (CSCS > 35) appears to have reached a significant inflection point, as evidenced by a substantial increase in time and financial costs as well as unfavourable psychological impacts and behavioural neglect. We categorised this final group of individuals ($n = 22$) as compulsive sports lovers as a result.

We anticipate that compulsive sport consumers will differ from less compulsive consumers in terms of behavioural and psychological characteristics. Using the first discovered twenty groups, we examined different inflection points between the remaining nineteen groups. We also conducted a similar examination of the summed CSCS and its link with the outcome variables (i.e., excluding compulsive consumers). Customers were divided into four groups based on this analysis: light consumers (groups 1–7), medium consumers (groups 8–12), heavy consumers (groups 13–19), and compulsive consumers (group 20). The weighted linear trend for the four groups was then assessed, and heavy and obsessive users were contrasted using planned contrasts. Many psychological and behavioural characteristics showed a linear

trend throughout the 4 categories and different disparities between compulsive and moderate users, which is not surprising (see Table 8). There were enormous gains in sport-related variables (all ps.05), sports participation (all ps.01), and outcomes as obsessive sport usage ratings climbed (i.e., time, money, coping, adverse psychological consequences, and behavioural neglect; all ps .01). Based on the trend line analysis of the 4 types of sport customers, this was assumed. In terms of mental constructs, extraversion, positive affect, and neuroticism all grew as CSCS grew, while neuroticism shrank (all ps .01). When trying to compare heavy sport consumers with obsessive sport consumers using planned contrasts, we discovered that compulsive consumers demonstrated significantly greater levels of identification, orientation toward sporting events, enthusiasm towards sports, current participation in sports, and managed to spend a third as much time and almost three times as much money consuming sport. Furthermore, compulsive consumers were more likely to disregard their behaviour, experience detrimental psychological impacts, and turn to sports as a way to unwind.

• Discussion

The results of Study 3 give strong support for the unidimensional obsessive sport consumption measure (CSCS). Higher levels of CSCS were associated with psychological and behavioural traits including previous and present participation in sports and the consequences of sports consumption (i.e., time, money, coping, and psychological and behavioural neglect)

Table7

DV	Regression Step 1		Regression Step 2		
	β	R ² change	β	R ² change	Squared semipartial correlation
DV: psychological implications		0.34**		0.19**	
Identification	0.16**		0.07		0
Passion in resonance	-0.24**		-0.12**		0.02
Obsessive desire	0.41**		0.23**		0.04
OSE seeking sensation	-0.12		-0.09		
Looking for knowledge OSE	0.38**		-0.04*		
Seeking socialisation OSE	-0.11		-0.09		
FAN AVIDITY SCALE			0.69**		0.1
DV: behavioral neglect		0.29**		0.18**	
Identification	0.06		0.02		
Passion in resonance	-0.25**		-0.14**		0.02
Obsessive desire	0.34**		0.16**		0.01
OSE seeking sensation	-0.09		-0.08		
Looking for knowledge OSE	0.42**		0.02		
Seeking socialisation OSE	0.02		0.02		
FAN AVIDITY SCALE			0.64**		0.16
DV: coping		0.50**		0.05**	
Identification	0.07		0.04		
Passion in resonance	-0.05		-0.02		
Obsessive desire	0.12		0.05		
OSE seeking sensation	0.04		0.06		
Looking for knowledge OSE	0.37**		0.17**		
Seeking socialisation OSE	0.25**		0.25**		0.02
CSCS		0.32**		0.05	

Notes. 7-point Likert-type scale (except time and money spent).

* p < .05.

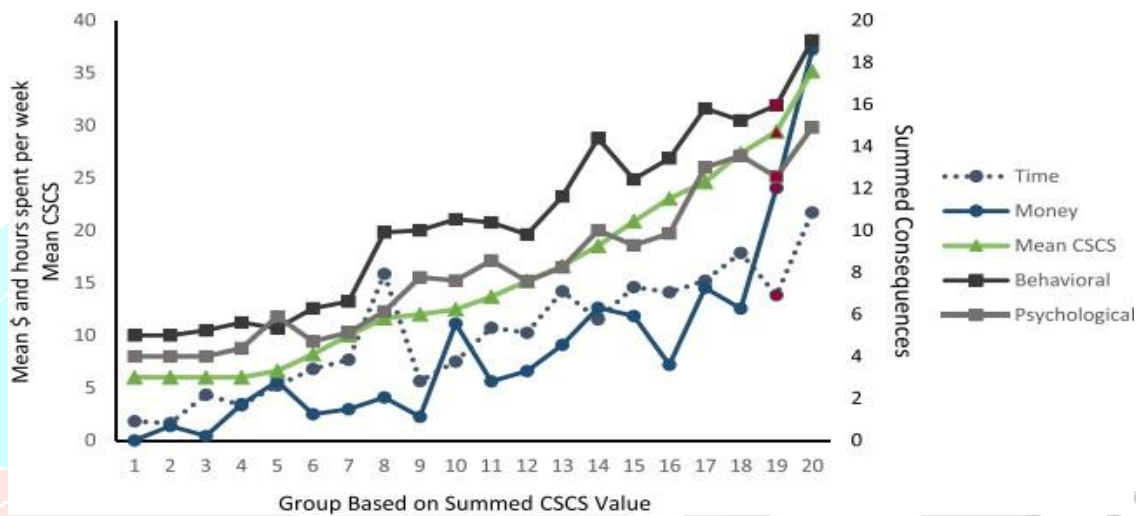
** p < .01

Our results demonstrated that the CSCS clearly distinguished itself from other sport-related scales by accounting for significantly greater variance. A key finding was the categorization of the separation of excessive sport consumers from less compulsive sport consumers using the CSCS. The CSCS identified obsessive sport consumers who demonstrated significantly high levels of time and money spent on sport as well as greater negative impacts of sport consumption.

General discussion

This article enhances our theoretical understanding of compulsive consuming by first exploring CSC in various circumstances, giving a succinct description of CSC, and coming to the conclusion that it is plausible for some consumers to participate in compulsively excessive sport consumption. Sport presents a particularly special and complicated environment for customer connection. This study uncovered new issues and trends in the areas of social incentives, connection, loyalty, emotions involved, proud vs. guilty consumption, compulsion, and a range of unanticipated (potentially extreme) internal and external negative repercussions. Because sport is usually consumed socially, this research intriguingly demonstrates a distinct feature not previously associated with obsessive consumption. That is to say, some extreme sports enthusiasts display a certain level of conceit, immodesty, and even arrogance. This is not meant as a denial of the presence of suppressed negative feelings. Such is the complex of CSC, where internalised negative emotional experiences regularly coexist with externalised good ones.

Fig.1 Using the CSCS to identify compulsive sport participants.



	CSCS Light (n = 147)	CSCS Medium (n = 93)	CSCS Heavy (n = 160)	CSCS Compulsive (n = 22)	Linear trend Across 4 segments (weighted)	Heavy vs. Compulsive planned contrast (equal variance not assumed)
CSCS						
CSCS summed score range	1-4	5-15	16-34	35-42		
Mean CSCS	1.6 (0.25)	2.11 (0.19)	3.74 (0.82)	5.78 (0.49)	F(1, 418) = 2484.22***	t(40) = -16.66***
Psychological Constructs						
Positive affect	4.21 (1.31)	4.35 (1.29)	4.51 (1.20)	5.31 (1.51)	F(1, 418) = 11.46***	t(25) = -2.50***
Negative affect	1.67 (0.88)	1.70 (0.98)	1.82 (1.01)	1.91 (1.38)	F(1, 418) = 1.83	t(26) = 0.36
Sensation seeking	3.84 (1.36)	3.69 (1.29)	3.97 (1.24)	4.24 (1.79)	F(1, 418) = 1.66	t(24) = -0.42
Agreeableness	5.62 (1.23)	5.39 (1.25)	5.34 (1.18)	5.64 (1.19)	F(1, 418) = 1.91	t(28) = -1.43
Conscientiousness	5.58 (1.36)	5.60 (1.16)	5.48 (1.18)	5.89 (1.02)	F(1, 418) = 0.01	t(31) = -2.05**
Neuroticism	3.16 (1.66)	2.75 (1.51)	2.74 (1.31)	2.61 (1.31)	F(1, 418) = 6.54***	t(27) = 0.53
Extraversion	3.29 (1.72)	3.82 (1.77)	3.79 (1.55)	4.05 (1.46)	F(1, 418) = 7.92***	t(28) = -0.61
Openness to experience	5.45 (1.27)	5.00 (1.38)	5.01 (1.23)	5.37 (1.20)	F(1, 418) = 5.47**	t(28) = -1.43
Sports-related constructs						
Identification	2.23 (1.51)	3.44 (1.61)	4.31 (1.52)	5.29 (1.37)	F(1, 418) = 180.07***	t(37) = -5.10***
OSE socialization	3.59 (1.59)	4.71 (1.78)	5.33 (1.00)	6.35 (0.63)	F(1, 418) = 185.54***	t(38) = -6.03***
OSE sensation seeking	3.57 (1.96)	4.65 (1.24)	5.47 (1.12)	6.30 (0.64)	F(1, 418) = 152.44***	t(42) = -4.65***
OSE cognition seeking	2.54 (1.31)	3.72 (1.11)	5.10 (0.99)	6.09 (0.79)	F(1, 418) = 469.38***	t(29) = -4.56***
Obsessive passion	2.71 (1.40)	2.99 (1.14)	3.65 (1.33)	4.86 (1.63)	F(1, 418) = 66.13***	t(25) = -3.22***
Harmonious passion	4.79 (1.36)	4.71 (0.95)	4.92 (1.12)	5.66 (0.96)	F(1, 418) = 5.12**	t(31) = -3.17***
Sports-participation						
High school	2.82 (2.02)	3.84 (2.15)	4.38 (1.86)	5.00 (2.27)	F(1, 418) = 53.10***	t(25) = -0.82
College	1.73 (1.32)	2.42 (1.90)	2.98 (1.75)	3.50 (2.06)	F(1, 418) = 50.48***	t(26) = -0.72
Current	1.70 (1.01)	2.20 (1.32)	2.99 (1.52)	4.05 (1.91)	F(1, 418) = 98.62***	t(25) = -2.11**
Consequences						
Time spent (hours per week)	4.40 (5.64)	9.71 (20.66)	14.30 (12.02)	21.41 (21.80)	F(1, 418) = 56.82***	t(23) = -1.59
Money spent (\$ per month)	9.33 (30.77)	21.69 (51.45)	50.78 (92.76)	148.86 (142.74)	F(1, 418) = 46.58***	t(22) = -1.92*
Coping	2.44 (1.60)	3.51 (1.38)	4.72 (1.16)	5.86 (0.86)	F(1, 418) = 268.73***	t(34) = -5.50***
Behavioral neglect	1.12 (0.36)	2.07 (0.64)	2.74 (1.21)	3.81 (1.77)	F(1, 418) = 310.14***	t(24) = -2.66**
Psychological consequences	1.15 (0.33)	1.87 (0.47)	2.69 (1.22)	3.53 (1.36)	F(1, 418) = 311.10***	t(28) = -2.73**

Notes. 7-

point Likert-type scale (except time and money spent).

* $p < .10$.

** $p < .05$.

*** $p < .01$

Second, by developing a trustworthy and reliable research instrument, this study advances technique. CSC appears to be unidimensional and is characterised by both behavioural and cognitive traits. The CSCS demonstrates an obsession with sports, obsessive behaviour, persistent, repetitive thoughts, and actions associated with self-control. These theories are consistent with scales for compulsive purchasing (such those from Ridgway et al. (2008) and Faber & O'Guinn, 1992). For instance, Ridgway et al. distinguish an obsessive-compulsive component and an impulse control component while Faber & O'Guinn describe an impulse control component and an outcome component. Since the CSCS recognises the significance of mental energy in compulsive sport consumption, it specifically names both a behavioural and a cognitive preoccupation component. The CSCS is linked to numerous unfavourable attitudes, emotions, and deeds.

Third, our work offers a useful contribution by categorising CSC as a harmful habit. Results indicate that CSC can significantly influence people's lifestyle choices, personal and professional lives, and our culture of consumption as a whole. Therefore, it is practically required to conduct more research on CSC. Results of this fundamental study suggest that a sizable fraction of sports enthusiasts are suffering because of CSC. In-depth sport consumers who had badly impaired their social, professional, and personal connections were described in our qualitative research (some had lost their jobs and others had turned away from loved ones). Concurrently, survey respondents who were labelled as compulsive sports fans displayed considerably higher levels of psychological, participation-related, and behavioural consequences.

The CSCS contributes to the field of transformative consumer research, which seeks to enhance consumer wellbeing and better understand social challenges (Crockett et al., 2013). The CSCS can be utilised as a platform for research on societal causes, personal causes, and marketing cues like promotion, location, peer culture, and psychological effects (Prentice & Cotte, 2015). The research may also serve as a basis for developing and assessing programmes for prevention and treatment. For people who are compelled to consume sports compulsively, recognition and rehabilitation maybe difficult. There seem to be elements of denial, shame, guilt, etc. When we combine societal demands with cheap, quick, and continuous access to virtually infinite sport product options, the removal of this important component of a consumer's life will definitely leave a hole (Batra et al., 2012). The damaging removal or even simple restriction of sport consumption would almost certainly have a severe influence on the internal and societal pride associated with sports (Decrop & Derbaix, 2010). We contend that the real-world applicability of this research go well beyond marketing theory. Perhaps most importantly, this study demonstrates that both the scientific community and the general public endorse CSC. Six (of 62) interviewees self-identified as compulsive sport consumers, 24 interviewees claimed to know (or have known) someone they think to be a compulsive sport consumer, and 22 (of 422) survey respondents may be deemed obsessive sport consumers, according to data from several studies. Our research indicates that between 5 and 6% of adults are sports lovers. Therefore, rather than saying that fans are consumers of sport, it might be more accurate to argue that a large (and surely increasing) fraction of them are being consumed by it. Therefore, further theoretical research and empirical validation are required for this fascinating issue of sport consumer behaviour.

Limitations and future research

The current study may have limitations due to sample issues and the complex and contentious nature of CSC. Study 1 individuals were chosen based on their keen interest in and involvement in sports. The interviewees may have experienced demand bias, in which case their responses may have been exaggerated or enhanced. In Study 2, student samples were used. Although this practise is widespread, students may have more access to technology, more free time, and even more opportunities to participate in sport. Study 3's paid Internet sample may stand out for its technological prowess and desire to become paid survey takers.

The social desirability bias probably had an impact on all three studies. Some individuals in the first study were really rather delighted with their excessive sport consumption, which could lead to overestimation in self-report interviews or survey research. But we also found persons who admitted to having regrets, guilt, and embarrassment over their excessive use. These feelings may cause one to underestimate their actions. The six items in the final CSCS do not utilise the words "addiction," "compulsion," or "obsession" explicitly, which may help with underestimating issues. However, future research should consider how social desirability bias influences compulsive sport consumption.

The study of CSC has opened up a tonne of possibilities for future research. Researchers should begin by considering how marketing cues influence compulsive sport consumption. Second, researchers may consider the ethical implications of companies exploiting weak superfans. Third, it is important to not ignore the complicated issues surrounding sports betting in relation to CSC (see Hing et al., 2015). Fourth, there may be contextual peculiarities related to CSC during important sporting events like the Olympics or the NCAA March Madness basketball tournament. While developed in the context of sport consumption, the CSCS contains universal claims that may be adapted and used to a variety of different consumption domains, such as brand communities and/or subcultures of consumption.

To put it another way, the current findings may open the door for later studies into a range of novel social environment addictions. Many consumption circumstances feature the same hedonic, experiential, and social components as sport does, along with elements of identification, shared ideals, and even prideful consumption. Undoubtedly, there are still a great deal of factors, relationships, and consuming contexts that need to be studied.

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