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The Perceived Level of Enjoyment in Sports Violence: An Experiment Examining How Sports Commentary, Fanship, and Gender Affect Viewer Emotions

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THE PERCEIVED LEVEL OF ENJOYMENT IN SPORTS VIOLENCE: AN
EXPERIMENT EXAMINING HOW SPORTS COMMENTARY,
FANSHIP, AND GENDER AFFECT VIEWER EMOTIONS

By

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the

Master of Arts – Journalism & Media Studies

Hank Greenspun School of Journalism and Media Studies
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University of Nevada, Las Vegas
December 2013

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THE GRADUATE COLLEGE

We recommend the thesis prepared under our supervision by

Sarah Jenette Vineyard

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**The Perceived Level of Enjoyment in Sports Violence: An Experiment
Examining How Sports Commentary, Fanship, and Gender Affect
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December 2013

ABSTRACT

The Perceived Level of Enjoyment in Sports Violence: An Experiment Examining How Sports Commentary, Fanship, and Gender Affect Viewer Emotions

by

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This investigation examines if the independent variables of sports commentary, fanship, and gender affect the viewer's level of perceived enjoyment while watching sports violence through televised professional football and hockey clips. Previous studies have found that these three variables contribute most to a viewer's level of perceived enjoyment. This study aimed to test to see if that was still true, while taking into account new rules regarding violence by the National Football League and the National Hockey League. This thesis addresses all variables in one study, which something past research has failed to do.

Perhaps the most significant finding from this study pertained to the variable of gender. Using *t*-tests for inequality of means and Pearson Product Moment correlations to test all hypotheses, both the football and hockey groups reported significant findings with gender, with men having a higher enjoyment average for both sports compared to women. No other variables were consistent predictors of perceived enjoyment. However, in addition to gender, the sport of football did yield four significant results. Pre-game rituals, suspense, and fan emotions (feeling happy or disappointed) were all found to

affect enjoyment levels. The investigation resulted in the sport of hockey not yielding any other supported hypotheses.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

According to Mamola (2011), we are a “violent society at heart, even though most of us would never admit it” (p. 1). Sports especially create concentrated emotions and tensions in an “otherwise bored society” (Beck & Bosshart, 2003, p. 8). Stiff body checks into the glass in hockey or a horse collar tackle to the ground in football are athletic acts of prowess that are anything but innocent. Out of the four major sports leagues, football and hockey are the two that require the most physical contact to play the game. Football cannot be played without tackles, and hockey cannot survive without aggressiveness (2003). However, it may not be the touchdowns or the goals that catapult these two sports into high television ratings, the violence depicted within the National Football League (NFL) and the National Hockey League (NHL) are a favorite among sports fans (2003).

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this research was to use audio manipulation while testing to see if sports commentary, fanship, and gender affected a viewer’s perceived level of enjoyment while watching sports violence through televised professional football and hockey clips. Through surveys, questionnaires, videos and various scientific approaches, numerous research studies have devoted their time to studying sports commentary, fanship, and gender differences within the realm of televised sports violence. While assorted factors play into each variable, past research studies have formulated that televised sports violence causes fans, non-fans, men, and women alike to enjoy individual games more when an increased amount of violence is depicted. This study used similar methods as previous approaches to see if the same results emerge.

While the study of sports violence is considered to be a subset of the broader topic of media violence, it is an attractive area of research that has increasingly become timely (Beck & Bosshart, 2003; Helland, 2007; Raney & Depalma, 2006). The topic of sports violence is suitable due to the increasing amount of measures taken by the NFL and the NHL regarding rules and player safety (Gross, 2011; “John Madden supports,” 2011; Keating, 2011; Marvez, 2011). As more athletes are continuously hurt due to unwarranted plays on the field, the two leagues have had no choice but to enact new rules protecting their players from potential serious injuries. While violence within football and hockey has always existed, the two leagues have only just started to seriously converse about the safety of athletes (Wade, 1999; Marvez, 2011; Keating, 2011). This study took into account the most updated rule changes and applies them to the experimental design, something past research studies have not been able to do. This study tested levels of enjoyment based on the three factors that numerous past research studies have found to contribute to levels of enjoyment, specifically the broadcasters’ commentary, a viewer’s level of fanship, and gender.

Early Days of Sports Violence within Football and Hockey

According to Wade (1999), in all sports, but especially football, a period of “gentlemanly amateurism” (p. 1) has never existed. Sports violence in the 18th and 19th centuries would make “Lennox Lewis and Mike Tyson look like wimps” (p. 1) in modern culture. In earlier centuries, Great Britain was the home for many excruciatingly painful sports, such as cudgeling, cut-leg, and kick-shins (1999). Cudgeling involved using clubs and sticks to purposely crack open another player’s head (1999). Cut-leg and kick-shins were not far off; with the goal to completely disable another human’s walking ability

(1999). While these extreme cases no longer exist in modern society, sports violence has taken on new games, themes, and dangers. Violence within football and hockey may not involve cutting into someone's skull, but players are suffering nonetheless.

Violence within football has evolved since the sport first came into existence. Safety precautions, uniforms, and game rules have progressed with each passing year. The consistent changing of rules, however, was not due to the boredom of those in charge. Player safety has received attention since the early 1900s. Between the years 1905 and 1909, there was a reported total of 57 football related deaths, 18 deaths alone were reported in 1905 (Buford, 2010; Miller, 2011; "The Evolution," 2011). In 1905, Theodore Roosevelt told representatives from Harvard, Yale, and Princeton to investigate a solution before football had to be banned altogether (Buford, 2010; Miller, 2011; Watterson, 2000). After almost 60 deaths, the new rules "banned pushing and pulling, and the flying, or diving, tackle" ("The Evolution," 2011, p. 1). According to Buford (2010), to avoid "rugby-type scrums" (p. 1) that were common in the earlier game, the new rules also required only seven men on the line of scrimmage at one time. Looking at the modern game of football, the pattern has clearly shifted back to a more violent type of game. Only after the league took action over 100 years ago did player safety and protection become an issue. In football's early days, helmets had no facial protection, were made of leather, and were not made with safety as the number one priority ("The Evolution," 2011). Players today have become stronger and faster, which has some sports industries wondering, "whether big facemasks encourage a recklessness that can lead to long term brain damage" (p.1). While the number of football related deaths have significantly gone down, player violence is higher than ever.

Buford (2010) goes on to say that in the 1940s, coaches described the game as an all out attack, where only “sissies” (p. 1) threw the ball. Real players charged the line and survived, despite coming away beaten and bloody (2010). A *New York Times* report stated that the “most popular way to disable an opponent was to step on his feet, kick his shins, give him a dainty upper cut, or gouge his face while making a tackle” (Watterson, 2000, p. 32). Roosevelt was a true believer in football, and considered it a sport that had no choice but to survive (Buford, 2010; Miller, 2011). He believed the success and vitality of the sport “would preserve the nation’s hardy pioneer virtues” and that “success can only come to the player who hits the line hard” (Buford, 2010, p. 1). Admiring this stance, Glenn S. Warner, the coach of famed football player Jim Thorpe, invented the three-point stance, which includes players charging ahead to block other players with their heads rather than with their hands and arms (2010). Today, that play is now considered a key factor in current head injuries among modern football players (2010). In a 1911 football game, with his leg bandaged up to his knee, Thorpe continued to play, kicking four field goals (2010). Later, when asked why he continued to play despite suffering agonizing leg injuries, he said the pain made him “more deliberate” (p. 1) and focused on the playing field. During his football career, Thorpe even asked a sports reporter, “How could anybody get hurt playing football?” (p. 1). The tough and dangerous play of famous athletes has only fueled modern players into acting like copycats (Buford, 2010; “The Evolution,” 2011).

The same can be said of the game of hockey. Violence has been a hot button issue since its early days of existence (Mamola, 2011). Out of the four major sports, hockey has seen the most changes since the 19th century (2011). According to Dave Maloney,

New York Rangers broadcaster, the “tough guys, the fighters, wanted to become better players” (Gross, 2011, p. 1). Now, he adds, “the role is so specialized that they want to become better fighters” (p. 1). When the game began to take shape in the 17th and 18th centuries, it required a muddled form, and a severe competitiveness (“History of Hockey,” 2010). Since early games were all about manhood and dignity, players pursued an extra dangerous level of play (Dunning, 1986; “History of Hockey,” 2010). In view of the fact that pride was the only thing on the line, games would last weeks or months, with referees acting as spectators most of the time (“History of Hockey,” 2010). Because of the rigid playing environment, many athletes would end up severely injured, sometimes fatally (2010). In May of 2011, Derek Boogaard, left wing for the Minnesota Wild and the New York Rangers, died at the young age of 28 from a drug overdose, thought by many to be a direct result from the numerous concussion-related medical issues Boogaard faced throughout his hockey career (Branch, 2011). Boogaard constantly dismissed the serious toll that countless concussions took on his health, often saying that no medical issue was too serious for him, as long as he got to play the game he loved (2011). He was known as one of the most fierce and toughest players in the sport (2011). The “enforcer” (as he was often called) required the NHL to begin to take a closer look at its violence policies (2011). After the knockout blow he inflicted on Todd Fedoruk, which led to Fedoruk having to receive reconstructive surgery on his shattered cheek bones using titanium plates, serious rumblings began in the world of hockey that something needed to be done to prevent another serious hit (2011).

Once common sense set in, a more structured and coherent approach to the game of hockey was set in place (“History of Hockey,” 2010). In 1875, rules were revised and

the Hockey Association was formed (2010). No specific rules regarding violence were overtly stated, however, a limit of 30 players for each team was strictly enforced (2010). Umpires were also given more power; they were no longer just spectators of the game (2010). Overall, the beginning rules were positive, well received, and improved the quality of the game (2010). It was not until 1923 that any rule change regarding game violence took hold (“National Hockey League,” 2004). Any athlete that committed a foul that was thought to be “deliberately injuring or disabling an opponent” (p. 1) was fined a maximum of 50 dollars and suspended for the remainder of the game. Those who committed these fouls were required to meet with the league president to discuss any further punishment (2004). In 1941, the NHL added to their previous rule by stating that those who engaged in simple fist-fights would suffer financially, also adding that anyone who joined in on the fight would face a 25 dollar fine (Amodeo, 2011).

Once specific rules were enacted regarding hockey fights, the number of fights among players actually increased (“NHL Fight Log,” 2011). Once players started to feel as if their safety and well-being was better accounted for, they felt safe to partake in more fistfights and other brawls than ever before (2011). Just less than 20 years after the first rules regarding fights took effect in the late 1950s; there were 47 instances of penalized fights (2011). However, the numbers continually increased, almost doubling in just 10 years (2011). In the late 1960s, there were 92 reported fights that incurred penalties (2011). Not surprisingly, over 30 years later the number of fights in the game of hockey grew by 522% to 573 penalized fights reported in the 1999-2000 NHL season (2011). During the 2010-2011 season, there were 645 fights, increasing over 12% from just a decade earlier (2011). Even though sportswriters and journalists agree that hockey

violence is here to stay, it is evident that the violence has continually increased with each passing year (Mamola, 2011).

Violence in the NFL

Raney and Kinnally (2009) described televised football as a “hypermasculine sport that juxtaposes a brutal display of physical dominance” (p. 315). Mamola (2011) goes on to say that sports violence is appealing to society, especially the aggression within football. As the current number one sport in America, “the idea of a human being catching an oval shaped ball and being leveled by someone on his blind side causing his helmet to fly off into the air is attractive” (p. 1). Something that cannot be done well by anyone not in the profession is truly something out of the ordinary. Regardless of beauty, these eye-catching plays are what the NFL is trying to abolish.

In 2010, the NFL enacted new rules regarding potential vicious acts on the playing field. Any helmet-to-helmet or helmet-to-neck hit officially results in fines and possible league suspensions (“Goodell issues memo,” 2010). These new rules came as an addition to the 2005 rule that banned horse-collar tackles, an act where a player is grabbed around their collar and thrown to the ground (McHenry, 2011). According to NFL Commissioner Roger Goodell, such hits will absolutely no longer be tolerated as they have been in the past (“Goodell issues memo,” 2010). Given these devastating hits continue to increase in number, the NFL was required to step in and take care of the players’ safety and well-being. According to Peterson (2010), concussions, the common injury resulting in perilous hits to the head, have increased almost three times since 2001. Peterson reports that while concussions among quarterbacks have actually decreased the injury for other positions have nearly tripled (2010). This is mainly due to the fact that

the NFL never strictly enforced its past rules concerning violent hits. While there were restrictions in place involving risky plays, the limited number of serious injuries resulted in a nonchalant view of the matter. McHenry (2011) states that according to recent changes with their rules, the NFL considers any act of “launching” (p. 1) to be their most serious offense. Launching refers to when a defensive player, “in order to deliver a devastating blow to an opposing player, leaves the ground and leads with their helmet, often striking the opposing player high in the head or neck” (p. 1). Fines, suspensions, and game ejections occur when the vicious play is carried out against a helpless player, which is referred to as “an individual who is in a position where their ability to protect themselves from a big hit is compromised” (McHenry, 2011, p.1; Zirin, 2010). While watching the defense make an exciting play is surely a crowd pleaser, some players simply walk a fine line between normal game play and violent behavior.

Violence in the NHL

The romantic image of young children skating around on a frozen pond has been replaced with gruesome images from the NHL. Rule changes made for the 2010-2011- hockey season have already been put to the test, and in some cases, outright broken. The most notable change to the 2010-2011 official NHL rulebook has been “Rule 48: Illegal Check to the Head” (“Rules,” 2011, p. 1). Similar to the NFL rule changes, the NHL considers any “lateral or blind side hit to an opponent where the head is targeted and/or the principle point of contact” (p. 1) to be its main indicator of violence. In the past, the NHL gave its athletes a minor penalty for this rule infringement; however, the new rules state that a major penalty and an automatic game misconduct penalty will be assessed (2011). If an athlete continues to incur this penalty throughout the season, he could be

fined, suspended, or face possible criminal action as seen fit by the NHL Commissioner (2011). While fights in the game of hockey are common and sometimes encouraged, the NHL, along with the NFL, has just begun to crack down on rules concerning player safety.

In March of 2011, the NHL was under attack from fans, sponsors, and politicians concerning rising levels of violence within the sport, most notable the devastating hit on Montreal Canadiens' player Max Pacioretty (Keating, 2011). Pacioretty's head was violently slammed into the boards by 6-foot, 9-inch, 260-pound Zdeno Chara from the Boston Bruins (2011). As he lay unconscious on the ice for several minutes, the crowd watched in stunned silence as Pacioretty was eventually taken away on a stretcher and rushed to a local hospital. He suffered a fractured vertebrae and a severe concussion in the vicious play (2011). Other than a couple game penalties, the hockey player that started the violent play escaped retribution. The outrage could be heard from Canada's House of Commons to Air Canada, one of the NHL's main sponsors (2011). Air Canada contacted the NHL and threatened to withdraw its sponsorship of hockey altogether if action was not taken (2011). Not wanting to be outdone by a sponsor, "Quebec's director of criminal and penal prosecutions [also] requested a police investigation" (p. 1) into the incident. All of this came after the new ruling concerning deliberate hits to the head were put in tact. Sponsors and politicians alike were angered over the fact that the NHL did not seem to enforce its own ruling, and advocated for even tougher penalties against any athlete who is responsible for horrific attacks. Nevertheless, the NHL continued to see some of its highest ratings on television for its sport. Fans' outrage did not turn into loss of dedication (Yerdon, 2011).

Defining Sports Violence

Even though sports violence is usually contained within the sports setting, televised violence is something viewers have access to every day of the week. Although interpreting what television violence truly is might be up to each individual. Tamborini et al. (2005) used the description of any action that causes a victim pain or suffering, an act of unjustified aggression, or any act of punishment that is overloaded with weapons. In addition, the same authors also described televised violence as a continuing effort to “increase its harm on viewers” (p. 204). Although different in some ways, the definition for televised violence carries some resemblance to that of violence in sports.

According to various studies, the universal definition of televised violence is any featuring of crime stories, fights, or assaults that leads to physical harm upon another human being (Greenberg, 1974; Krmar & Greene, 2000; Scharrer, 2008). Although violence within the realm of television shows varies from character to character, violence within sports is even more specific. As Raney and Kinnally (2009) described, sports violence is any on-the-field play where an athlete purposely tries to inflict bodily harm on their opponent. However, the authors admit that those actions can also be perceived as provoked, warranted, or even retaliatory due a variation of interpretations (2009). Raney and Depalma (2006) stated that sports violence as a whole demands a more sophisticated definition due to the multiple factors contained in sports. They reported that “sports violence can be seen as either an example of the laudable competitive drive present in worthy participants or an underhanded attempt at rule bending in cheaters” (p. 322). For their particular study, however, the two researchers defined sports violence as any play that results in life-threatening injuries or criminal prosecution.

Raney and Depalma (2006) add that giving a proper definition to sports violence requires two dimensions, scripted and unscripted. These two terms have roots in various media violence research that once was unrelated to sports (2006). Unscripted sports violence “refers to presentations of violence that naturally occur in the course of the traditional violent sports (e.g., football, boxing, hockey), that is the hard checks, rough hits, and aggressive play” (p. 323). Scripted sports violence, on the other hand, “refers to the violent depictions found in the increasingly popular sports entertainment arena (e.g., inline roller derby, Slamball, certain fighting competitions)” (p. 323). Whether unscripted or scripted, sports violence as a whole is defined as any act of intended viciousness that results in the possible serious injury of another opponent (Greenberg, 1974; Krcmar & Greene, 2000; Raney & Depalma, 2006; Raney & Kinnally, 2009; Scharrer, 2008).

Televised Violence Statistics in Sports

Vicious plays in sports, especially football and hockey, are the ones that make the highlight reels; rarely do conservative plays have the same bragging rights. In an age of “sports media saturation, every head shot and stick in the face is sure to get plenty of airtime” (Fitzpatrick, 2002, p. 1). The vicious hit on NHL player Max Pacioretty was replayed continuously and debated on sports television and radio (Keating, 2011). While the NFL surpasses the NHL in ratings as a whole, the 2010 Stanley Cup Playoffs saw the largest audience in the sport’s history (Walker, 2010). In fact, the June 9, 2010 broadcast on NBC was the most watched NHL game in 36 years, and the highest rated game the sport had seen in that time frame (2010). As a whole, violence within football and hockey is what makes the games so popular among fans, especially young fans (Bryant, Comisky, & Zillmann, 1981).

According to the NFL's main website, the sport averaged more viewers through the first four games of the 2010 season compared to the same four weeks in 2009 ("Television ratings for NFL," 2010). More than 150 million people watched at least part of an NFL game over the 2010 season (2010). According to Young and Smith (1989), an average of 15 hours of violent plays in football per week was aired on television between 1961-1976. Today, due to the increased number of networks, channels, and overall airtime, the number of hours has nearly doubled and will most likely continue to grow (1989). While hockey is not considered to be as popular or as mainstream as football, the game has seen a significant increase in viewership. The 2011 Stanley Cup Playoffs saw a 24% jump in ratings over the playoffs a year prior (Yerdon, 2011). The audiences for the 2010-2011 season as a whole have been the most significant since the 2007-2008 season (2011). NBC, one of the major network stations that covers the NHL, has averaged just under two million viewers per game in 2011, which is a jump of almost 13% compared to the previous year (2011). Since NBC has locked in the Stanley Cup final for the next 10 years, sports broadcasters are hopeful that ratings will only continue to increase each passing year (2011).

As sports ratings continue to grow, so do the number of violent television episodes. Studies have reported that roughly 70% of American theater productions, comedies, and television dramas contained acts of violence compared with just 17% of violent themes listed in newspapers (Scharrer, 2008; "TV Bloodbath," 2011). Out of that 70%, approximately 25% were considered major acts of violence (Scharrer, 2008). Between the years 1998 and 2002, a 200% in televised violence was shown during the second hour of prime time television ("TV Bloodbath," 2011). During that time span,

NBC was the only major network that took the initiative to reduce the frequency of violent scenes within their arena of television shows (2011). A 2008 study that examined over 214 hours of local news and television showed that more time was given to violent storylines than any other topic (Scharrer, 2008). Although not all these stories were sports-related, it does show that over the years the number of violent clips being shown on television has significantly increased. Add in the number of violent sports acts, and the numbers will most likely rise even higher.

Organization of Thesis

Chapter 1 provided a general purpose of study review as well as definitions for sports violence, NFL violence, and NHL violence. The first chapter also provided statistics about televised sports violence and a brief history of the earlier days of sports violence. Chapter 2 contains a literature review of the uses and gratifications theory and how that pertains to this study. The second chapter also reviews previous studies regarding how media portrays televised sports, as well as studies on audio commentary, fanship, gender roles, and how those three variables relate to enjoyment factors. Chapter 3 consists of the methodology for this particular study, which will include a description of the stimulus materials and how emotions and opinions will be measured. Chapter 4 includes the results and findings from the experimental design. Finally, Chapter 5 includes a discussion of the research findings, as well as a discussion about the study's strengths and weaknesses including suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Sports and media coexist as a team. However, the assorted outlets that allow sports to thrive are the very ones that contribute to its increasing levels of violence. First, this chapter discusses the role of the uses and gratifications theory and how it is particularly suited for this study. Second, chapter two starts by discussing multiple research studies on how the media portray televised sports, particularly how sports is used as an entertainment tool for audiences and how the media and sports cohabitate with one another. Third, the chapter discusses how commentary within televised sporting events contributes to viewers' perceptions of violent events. Various research studies were used to see how games both with and without commentary affected audience discernment. Fourth, studies on fanship and gender are reviewed to see how numerous factors play into audience enjoyment of sports violence.

Uses and Gratifications Theory

In the 21st century, media audiences are active communicators. Even if a viewer is sitting idle in front of a television, they are still communicating an idea. Messages come from an array of technological devices, adding more purpose, function, and intrigue to the role that media play in modern society. Whether or not a viewing audience actively and purposefully chooses to receive and digest the message they discover, social and psychological elements are in force (Rubin, 1994). The uses and gratifications theory "is a psychological communication perspective that shifts the focus of inquiry from the mechanistic perspective's interest in direct effects of media on receivers to assessing how people use the media" (p. 418). Diving into one's psyche, while evaluating surface

content is a tested way to appraise how someone's interests and values may shift over time.

While many researchers outline detailed definitions for the proper use of this theory, three main objectives commonly surface. First, the uses and gratifications theory explains how a viewing audience uses various types of media to satisfy their needs (Rubin, 1994). Second, motives behind a person's media behavior are explained (1994). Lastly, the theory seeks to identify various purposes and effects that follow from a viewer's motivation, desires, and manners (Rubin, 1994; Weaver, 2011). Within those three objectives, the uses and gratifications theory focuses on a viewer's psychological and social foundations for their needs, which, in turn, produce "expectations of the mass media or other sources, which lead to differential patterns of media exposure (or engagement in other activities), resulting in need gratifications and other consequences, perhaps mostly unintended ones" (Rubin, 1994, p. 419). The theory holds an underlying implication that audiences use the media to fill a personal gap, ultimately satisfying a desire in their lives. A viewer's deep psychological reasoning for using the media may not be immediately obvious; nevertheless, the uses and gratifications theory assumes there are at least five fundamental suppositions for someone's inadvertent media activity.

The first assumption states that any social behavior, particularly those relating to media use, is "goal-directed, purposive, and motivated" (Rubin, 1994, p. 420). Media users are active participants in their own communication-based interactions, even realizing that there may be certain positive or negative outcomes due to the content they choose (Rubin, 1994; Weaver, 2011). Second, viewers will choose a particular form of media based on the fulfillment of a particular need (Rubin, 1994). Whether solving a

problem or courting an interest, audiences will deliberately select various forms of communication to respond to their desires and needs (1994). Third, prior knowledge, biases, or social environments contribute to how a viewer receives a media message (Rubin, 1994; Weaver, 2011). Preexisting social circumstances play a role into how a viewer could potentially react to new personalities, social circles, or new forms of interaction (1994). The fourth assumption states that the media compete with other forms of communication for viewer's attention. This interplay allows audiences to form relationships between different forms of mass communication, ultimately testing how devoted one is to a certain type of media outlet (1994). Finally, the last assumption states that the individual holds more power than do the media as a whole (1994). Certain social categories and societal patterns mediate particular characteristics of the media (Rubin, 1994; Weaver, 2011). In turn, political, cultural, entertainment, and other forms of media can rely on the psychological patterns of their audiences (Rubin, 1994).

Strengths of Theory

One specific strength of the uses and gratifications theory is that it continuously strives to build upon itself. Given media technologies incessantly change from year to year, it is only natural that this particular theory change along with society (LaRose & Eastin, 2004). One common thread among all uses and gratifications theory research is that it “furnishes a benchmark base of data for other studies to further examine media use” (Ruggiero, 2000, p. 12). Regardless of any weaknesses the theory might carry, it does provide a stable ground for other social scientists. A continual emphasis on building the theory has existed for decades, and only continues to do so. According to Ruggiero (2000), “a continued emphasis on theory building must proceed, particularly by scholars

who will attempt to develop theories that explain and predict media consumption of the public based on sociological, psychological, and structural variables” (p. 13).

Ruggiero (2000) goes on to say that a “convincing theoretical explanation” (p. 17) exists within the uses and gratifications theory that it is truly the best method for studying the ever-changing platform of media use patterns. The theory itself has for decades provided a “cutting-edge theoretical approach in the initial stages of each new mass communications medium” (p. 27). As media platforms change, how viewers engage with one another will change. This circle of life blueprint displays what the uses and gratifications theory has always followed; societal and psychological patterns rest heavily on how one uses the media (McQuail, 1984; Ruggiero, 2000; Westerik, Renckstorf, Lammers, & Wester, 2006). According to Ruggiero (2000), the primary strength of the theory has always been its capability “to permit researchers to investigate mediated communication situations via a single or multiple sets of psychological needs, psychological motives, communication channels, communication content, and psychological gratifications within a particular or cross-cultural context” (p. 28). While using a theory that rests on continually updating itself might present problems for solid groundwork, it allows the researcher to be more open and vulnerable with their studies.

According to Westerik, Renckstorf, Lammers, and Wester (2006), any researcher “can confidently say that uses and gratifications is still the standard perspective for studying audience activity, and that it is likely to remain so in the coming years” (p. 140). Ruggiero (2000) added that the theory “is still touted as one of the most influential theories in the field of communication research” (p. 26). Overall, the theory is the best choice when interpreting observations surrounding human action (Westerik, Renckstorf,

Lammers, & Wester, 2006). McQuail (1984) contests that it is the simplest and most forthright endeavor “to learn more about...the connection between the attraction to certain kinds of media content and other features of personality and social circumstances” (p. 177). According to McQuail (1984), uses and gratifications theory has always included the following:

A simple wish to know more about the audience, an awareness of the importance of individual differences in accounting for the audience experience, a still fresh wonderment at the power of popular media to hold and involve their audiences, and an attachment to the case study as an appropriate tool and an aid to psychological modes of explanation. (McQuail, 1984, p. 177)

The uses and gratifications theory has demonstrated itself to be a bridge between social scientists and popular culture, giving audiences a voice in matters regarding social issues (1984). Through research with this theory, society is offered clues “to our understanding about exactly what needs are, where they originate, and how they are gratified” (Ruggiero, 2000, p. 27). While the theory itself has been adjusted and changed overtime, its core values have stayed in tact, allowing, “researchers the ability to examine challenges and barriers to access that individual users are currently experiencing” (p. 27).

Weaknesses of Theory

The fact that the uses and gratifications theory has not remained consistent overtime has been one of its main criticisms. The theory’s increased intricacy over the years has allowed the premise to swing from its conjectures made in earlier decades (Westerik, Renckstorf, Lammers, & Wester, 2006). In fact, Ruggiero (2000) claims that many scholars still claim the theory is nothing more than “an approach rather than an

authentic theory” (p. 26). The once forthright assumptions of previous approaches tend to be overlooked, as fine tuning of the theory continuous to be made (Westerik, Renckstorf, Lammers, & Wester, 2006).

According to Ruggiero (2000) some “skeptics may question the theory for a lack of empirical distinction between needs and motivations and the obstacles of measuring the gratification of needs” (p. 26). Carey and Kreiling (1974) made a case against the theory’s popular culture approach saying that “an effective theory of popular culture [would] require a conception of man, not as a psychological or sociological man, but as cultural man” (p. 242). Finn (1997) added that regardless of what researchers find within their studies, they would never truly be able to properly link “personality traits to patterns of mass media use” (p. 11). Westerik, Renckstorf, Lammers, and Wester (2006) plainly state that a “more comprehensive theory is needed for creating a more complete picture of audience activity” (p. 143). These cases, as well as many others made against the uses and gratifications approach simply state that the theory is has fallen away from its origins. The basic weakness of the theory claims that linking personality, societal, and psychological traits along with patterns of media use is too complex for one theory to tackle.

In looking for major problems of any theory, “qualities of consistency, precision, and the like thus become prerequisite to the favorable evaluation of any theory or conceptual framework” (Swanson, 1977, p. 215). Using these definitions, Swanson (1977) outlines four major problems that have always plagued the uses and gratifications theory approach. First, the theory lacks a consistent, underlying framework (1977). The origins of where the theory was birthed are clear, but overall the intimate details of the

approach are sometimes considered vague (1977). In fact, various researchers say that the theory contradicts itself, forcing many social scientists to claim that it is impossible “to state just what the theory underlying uses and gratifications research is, and that is a conceptual difficulty of the greatest magnitude” (p. 217). Second, there is a lack of clear definitions relating to the theory (1977). The opaqueness of certain concepts and terms such as the meanings of the words “use,” “gratification,” “motive,” and “need” leave perplexed examples of important concepts (1977). Each study that applies this theory can use it how it best applies to their particular subject of research. Given that this particular theory does not give a universal definition into these often used terms, it is left up to the individual doing the research to provide their function and application (Swanson, 1977; Weaver, 2011).

Third, the concept of media use is considered by many to be a main source of confusion regarding the theory (Swanson, 1977; Weaver, 2011). Varying definitions surround the concept resulting in differing interpretations. According to Swanson (1977), media use could refer to the cause, consequence, or the process of behaviors as a whole. This blurred approach is what causes researchers to sternly discredit the theory. Finally, the “uses and gratifications program has not sought to investigate how persons perceive and interpret the content of messages and whether those interpretations do indeed provide the expected link between needs, uses, and gratifications” (pp. 219-220). Given that the idea of perception is what binds the theoretical approach together and the overall broadness and wide-ranging approach to the definitions within the theory, a failure to properly define these key elements makes this one of the major weaknesses of the theory (1977).

Relevance to this Research

Focusing on how people express their emotions can be a formidable process; however, tearing apart the uses and gratifications theory into manageable parts makes this model relevant to the current research. Figuring out the balance between a participant's previously existing deep, imbedded values and their current level of loyalty to sports commentary, fanship, and gender roles makes the uses and gratifications theory a pertinent method. In order to thrive in the media, sports violence craves an audience. This particular theory, however, tests why viewers are so willing to respond to that appetite. Given sports in general can be a mirror into society, using the uses and gratifications theory not only tests various participants' emotional responses, but also could possibly gauge certain societal traits.

Given studying the reasoning behind why viewers might enjoy watching violent sporting events is a timely issue, using a theory tested over time is most suitable. Even though this theory can be vague in its meanings and applications, it has been commonly used for its ease of theoretical relevance. In fact, Ruggiero (2000) claims that the uses and gratifications theory "has always provided a cutting-edge theoretical approach in the initial stages" (p. 3). However, he goes on to say that just like any other research, the theory needs to be willing to "explore interpersonal and qualitative aspects of mediated communication" (p. 3). Both statements by the author are applied within this current experiment. This present research not only investigates past dispositions of the theory that are known to be true, but also paves the way for possible future research to explore. The study of sports violence is decades old, but only in the past few years has it come to

be a pressing matter in the media. Applying tested methods to new findings makes the theory fresh, modern, and progressive (LaRose & Eastin, 2004; Ruggiero, 2000).

Pertaining to this experimental study, the uses and gratifications theory was used to explore how participants view various violent sporting events due to their previously established social and psychological histories. The level of audio commentary, fanship, and gender roles each carry unique characteristics along with them. Since the problem of sports violence has become more relevant, studying contemporary persona behaviors only seems fitting. A uses and gratifications study “committed to a broad range of personality traits has become a more tractable endeavor” (Ruggiero, 2000, p. 12). This current research builds on what previous scholars have theorized, yet applies them to a different audience venue. According to Ruggiero (2000) and LaRose and Eastin (2004), media convergence allows users to gain more freedom with their media choices. As new technologies do so, however, “motivation and satisfaction become even more crucial components of audience analysis” (Ruggiero, 2000, p. 14). This current research will expand on that thought by providing video clips through manipulation tests and the main study. This will also be further discussed in Chapter 5.

Studies on how the Media Portray Televised Sports

According to Beck and Bosshart (2003), “sports and the mass media enjoy a very symbiotic relationship in American society” (p. 3). Sports in general, not just football and hockey, “provide reliable mirrors of societies” (p. 3). Games often reflect social values, individual significance, and forms of discipline, self-control, sportsmanship, and cooperativeness (2003). Sports mesh with American society in that they symbolize a grand stage to showcase beliefs in effort, productivity, competition, and the survival of

the fittest (2003). Any sport showcases cultural and social changes within a community by defining a specific set of values (2003). They act as the glue between society, athletes, and the fans by carving out cultural and national identities (2003). The media take the cultural identities to the next level by making sports an important, public issue (2003).

Sports as Entertainment

With the help of eight entertainment stimuli, the media use certain elements in an attempt to sell their particular genre of sport (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). Further explained through the hypotheses in the methodology chapter, these eight stimuli are the top reasons why fans continue to come back week after week to watch football and hockey (Beck & Bosshart, 2003; Peterson & Raney, 2008). First, various forms of media encourage public participation both inside and outside of the stadium walls (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). Vociferous songs, the wave, and in-game chants allow opportunities for fans to participate in the game and encourage their favorite athletes even when they cannot be on the field of play. Outside the game setting, network prize giveaways, concerts, and special eateries are often showcased in order to gather fans to participate in various forms of camaraderie. The second stimulus consists of show and artistic elements that bring more media attention to the sporting event or athlete (2003). Before every Super Bowl, the NFL will enlist musicians, bands, and rock stars days before the big game starts in an attempt to pump up the crowd, escalate the energy, and drive viewers to the most watched sporting event. Often, major networks that carry the football game such as CBS, NBC, FOX, or ESPN will send their commentators and broadcasters to the city to broadcast their shows live in front of the hosting venue. Third, game rituals such as team introductions, the singing of the national anthem, and the opening ceremonies of the

Olympic Games offer moments for fans to come together as a unit, regardless of the team or country they represent (2003).

The fourth stimulus used by the media is that of suspense (Beck & Bosshart, 2003; Knobloch-Westerwick, David, Eastin, Tamborini, & Greenwood, 2009; Peterson & Raney, 2008). Given sports offer the “ideal combination of the dramatic and the unexpected,” conflict, drama, and uncertainty provide the idyllic theatrical setting (Beck & Bosshart, 2003, p. 5). The idea that any team can win or lose in the last, riveting seconds of a game provides fans with an emotional risk each time their team plays (2003). The often-said phrase, “the thrill of victory, and the agony of defeat” is used to describe the elation and pitfalls that sports can bring. Heated rivalries, emotional duels, and the combat of wits add to the suspense where no one can know the exact ending (Knobloch-Westerwick, David, Eastin, Tamborini, & Greenwood, 2009; Peterson & Raney, 2008). The fifth stimulus used is a sense of belonging for the fans (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). Through poignant commercials and marketing ploys, the media encourage a state of fandom and patriotism associated with various sporting events. Sixth, the media use identification with athletes, heroes, or icons associated with sports (2003). Hall of Fame athletes who pass away will often times get special mentions on sports broadcasts, even though their names have long been forgotten by their sport. The seventh stimuli the media uses, and one of the more popular tactics, is that of sex-appeal (2003). Using sex-appeal via cheerleaders in advertisements are common ways sports teams market themselves to their male audience. While some teams display this stimulus in more overt ways than others, all major sports teams do associate themselves with this seventh element (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). Finally, the media use unexpected and fresh

strategies in order to reinvent itself each year (2003). In an attempt to break out of the mold, broadcasters and networks will often move their broadcasts to various locations, invent new prize giveaways, and personally correspond with their fans through social media. Together, these “mental pleasures” (p. 5) provide fans a way to interact with the media on a personal, but healthy level.

Sports and Media Interaction

With regards to relaying sports information, the press is the oldest form of communication (Beck & Bosshart, 2003; Solberg & Helland, 2011; Zion, Spaaij, & Nicholson, 2011). With newspapers, magazines, and periodicals being the three main print resources for the press, these categories have built audiences for sporting events, and as a result, helped to bring in revenue (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). Approximately 150 years after the first newspaper was published, the first sports-related articles began to appear (Beck & Bosshart, 2003; Solberg & Helland, 2011). In the 18th century, sports became a mainstream topic in newspapers with the *Boston Gazette* reporting in full length a local boxing match for the first time (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). In 1817, the *Morning Herald* in England became the first newspaper with a special section dedicated specifically to sports (Beck & Bosshart, 2003; Solberg & Helland, 2011). Other English and American newspapers including *The Globe*, *The American Farmer*, *Bell's Life*, and *The Times* followed with the trend by introducing sports sections into their publications (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). Because of the rising popularity with sports in the print media, readers became more informed and interested in popular sports (2003). In 1883, the *New York World* became the first newspaper that dedicated a special sports newsroom in its offices (2003). Over 40 years later, 40% of the *New York World* and over 60% of the *New*

York Tribune consisted of sports news (2003). After the telegraph became more widely used, sports news started to travel immediately, allowing sports fans to become collectively involved in their favorite sports for the first time (2003). Even though electronic media eventually took over as the most popular medium for sports reporting, newspapers still had a vital role (Beck & Bosshart, 2003; Zion, Spaaij, & Nicholson, 2011). Print media picked up the slack left behind by digital sports reporting. It became the sports journalists' job to provide the detailed news, comments, analyses, reports, and interviews that television broadcasts could not produce (Zion, Spaaij, & Nicholson, 2011). Although broadcasts on ESPN remain the most popular spot for sports-related news, sports reporting in newspapers have increased and still remain quite popular.

The language used and the topic itself is simple and concise (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). Unlike televised sports broadcasts, there is enough room for background information, comments, and game statistics. Newspaper reporting is decisively cheaper than live-transmission on radio or the television, and is usually not required to obtain permission from major sports broadcasts (2003). Contrasting broadcasts like ESPN, sports-related print media offers variety; personal niches, and relates to both a local and global audience (2003).

Emotions and tensions can be commonly shared through sports, regardless of what medium is used. However, up until the 20th century, the two main ways to share in the instantaneous drama was to either play in the actual game or attend (Bess & Bosshart, 2003). Once sporting events were heard on radio, the sense of being apart of the suspense and emotions brought fans closer to the games than ever before. Radio announcers learned early on to add to the drama, by using an array of words to otherwise boring

events (2003). Making mundane scenarios seem dramatic and extraordinary helped the listeners feel more engaged. Since the radio has always been easily transportable, the interconnection between the announcers and the listeners has always been unchanged (2003).

In 1927, over 40 million American households tuned into the live transmission of one of the first boxing matches, also one of the first sporting events, broadcast over radio airwaves (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). In the 1930s another boxing match scored a 58% rating within American households, showing that radio was fast becoming the media of choice for sports-reporting (Beck & Bosshart, 2003; Solberg & Helland, 2011). Because of this growing trend, newspapers sought governmental protection in order to keep themselves relevant (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). Laws and policies were passed that restricted some radio stations to report sports news before 7 o'clock in the evening (2003). In the early 1930s, the Los Angeles Olympic Games' broadcasting time was restricted to only 15 minutes per day (2003). Even though live reporting through radio brought more fans to sporting events than ever before, various industries wanted the power of radio to be restrained (2003). Sports in print was beginning to decline, and corporations had to take action. Broadcasting license fees soon became the norm, in an attempt to prevent advertising and marketing loss for the newspaper industry (2003). Even though television far outweighs radio in terms of popularity, radio transmissions remain one of the most viable and easiest ways to listen to a sporting event. Used as a supplement to television reporting, radio broadcasts add depth, intrigue, and imagination to the world of sports. Regardless of how popular radio was during its time, television was even more so when it came to broadcasting sports (Zion, Saaij, & Nicholson, 2011).

Televised broadcasts of sports not only caught fire quickly, but changed a few sporting rules along with it (Beck & Bosshart, 2003; Solberg & Helland, 2011; Zion, Saaij, & Nicholson, 2011). Media managers, not the sports teams, decided what time a game started (2003). Various time-outs during sporting events, especially within football, are necessary breaks for the networks to air commercials (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). Copyright laws began to be enforced with some sports leagues threatening jail time if they were broken. Even though print media and radio are more than capable of picking up any slack television may leave behind, no publicity also means no sponsors for sports leagues (2003). Given sports teams and venues rely heavily on sponsorships to garner money, no sponsors could ultimately mean no sports to play. Intimate and noteworthy details of human society would be lost, and fans would be without a cause.

Other than actually being in the stadium with a boisterous crowd, television provides the only way for viewers to see the intimate details of a live sporting event. With the use of replays, close-ups, slow motion, and appealing camera angles, it can be more exciting to sit in front of the television set than to actually be at the stadium. Television is the perfect medium to display the show business of sports, and to show the spectacle of possibilities that various sporting events can bring. In the 21st century, televised sports reach more people than ever before (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). According to Beck and Bosshart (2003), “the phenomenon of mass consumerism of televised sport has created a much different feel for sport than in the past” (p. 11). Televised sports contribute to the globalization of popular sports, as well as introduce new sports to the world (2003). International events like the World Cup and the Olympics provide audiences access to sports they may not be familiar with. Some sports around the world

owe their existence in part to their television spotlight (2003). Even today, television “remains the most important medium for sports reporting” (p. 14).

A college baseball game in 1939 was the first live televised transmission of a sporting event in America (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). The broadcasting station of NBC was the first to pick out a game thought worthy of a live broadcast (2003). Before that, boxing, soccer, tennis, rugby, and some events in various Olympic events were broadcast in Great Britain starting with short on-air times and modest audiences (2003). Early problems often plagued televised sports as technical issues were just beginning to come to the forefront. Cameras used for games were deemed stationary; therefore close-ups of any kind were unfeasible (Beck & Bosshart, 2003; Solberg & Helland, 2011). Because of the small square space used for boxing, these events were regarded as the easiest ones to televise (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). Since other sports have risen to the limelight, improvements were made on cameras making them more functional and mobile, as well as outfitting them with satellite transmission and color capable technology (2003). Because of the new technology for televising sports, ESPN was created in 1979, starting the first national network dedicated solely to sports (“ESPN Fact Sheet,” 2011). Since sports were introduced to television, they have been placed in an ever-increasing competitive market. Multiple television stations are in existence that only broadcast sports related news and media. Even though all channels seemingly coexist, often times corporate greed takes over. To raise awareness and rating for their brand, sports broadcasts add an element of show business to their broadcasts by showcasing human interest stories, asking athletes to open up their guarded lives, and forcing announcers to create sometimes unnecessary drama (Peterson & Raney, 2008; Sullivan, 1991).

Sports Commentary

The show-business effect that sports had added to television has forced a dramatic framing around one of the world's oldest pastimes (Sullivan, 1991). Putting more emphasis on combativeness each passing year has forced television networks to take a stand against game violence. For years, American society has focused on an outcome rather than the means of getting to the finish line (1991). The saying of "it's not whether you win or lose, it's how you play the game" has lost its meaning over time (1991). Coaches and players have always used methods of bullying and hostility as a means to winning a game. In some sports, it is even considered a vital part of participation (Peterson & Raney, 2008). With sports that put more emphasis on their win-loss records, such as football and hockey, the use of intimidation among players is likely to be higher (2008). However, coaches and athletes are not the only ones that use coercion tactics. Sports broadcasters who announce televised games are just as guilty of intensifying the fan experience (Peterson & Raney, 2008; Raney & Kinnally, 2009; Sullivan, 1991).

When broadcasting sporting events, commentators will often play up certain game situations to make them sound more hostile or exciting (Bryant, Brown, Comisky, & Zillmann, 2006; Peterson & Raney, 2008; Raney & Kinnally, 2009; Sullivan, 1991). Sullivan (1991) found that viewers who watch contact-heavy sports on television, especially football and hockey, described their experiences as more enjoyable when the commentary emphasized hostility, violence, and aggression between the players and teams. Even if what they were viewing on television did not seem to be villainous, viewers still reported having enjoyable experiences because the commentators' language added more punch to the situation (Peterson & Raney, 2008; Raney & Kinnally, 2009;

Sullivan, 1991). It is often understood that violent play represents human discord at its crest, and passionate conflict is the spirit and essence of elevated excitement. Given sports commentators often mediate these experiences through their own eyes; they serve a vital role in influencing viewer perceptions (Bryant, Brown, Comisky, & Zillmann, 2006; Cummins, Keene, & Nutting, 2008; Peterson & Raney, 2008; Raney & Kinnally, 2009; Sullivan 1991).

Objectively, commentators simply harmonize with what the camera is showing; they merely call the game as it is being played (Sullivan, 1991). Using descriptive narrative, announcers validate their capabilities as an expert on the sport or the athlete (1991). Interviews, sideline reports, and notable statistics aid commentary to feel more illustrative and poignant. With historical methods, commentary compares athletes or game events to past accomplishments, even if those statistics have no relevance to the current sporting event (1991). If a major sports record is close to being reached or broken, commentators will intensely focus on the athlete, often sharing personal stories about the player in an attempt to sound more heartfelt (Knobloch-Westerwick, David, Eastin, Tamborini, & Greenwood, 2009; Peterson & Raney, 2008). Finally, when using methods of judgment, announcers often seek motivations for certain athlete's behaviors (Sullivan, 1991). If a player or team is underperforming, sports broadcasters will dissect every possible element, often relying on their own opinions and biases (Knobloch-Westerwick, David, Eastin, Tamborini, & Greenwood, 2009; Peterson & Raney, 2008; Raney & Kinnally, 2009).

Over 40 years ago, commentators began to increase their roles as storytellers by maximizing their use of dramatic narration; a trend that has only continued (Bryant,

Brown, Comisky, & Zillmann, 2006; Peterson & Raney, 2008; Sullivan, 1991). Sullivan (1991) found that viewers who watched football or hockey became more aggressive towards someone who later angered them after watching the sporting event. It was determined that commentator lead-ins, which emphasized team animosity made the viewers more emotionally hostile (1991). Announcers run the risk of jeopardizing their credibility when it comes to justifying sports violence. When violence is framed as acceptable, tolerable, or just part of natural game play, viewers can be made to feel that the violence is reputable, habitual, and appropriate (1991). By highlighting inappropriate acts of violence, announcers manipulate viewers' feelings of enjoyment (1991). Feeding the community craving for violence is not a commentators' job, nor is their job to justify player hostility. However, dramatic commentary does add tension, anticipation, and excitement, which, in turn, fuels television ratings (Cummins, Keene, & Nutting, 2008; Peterson & Raney, 2008).

Comisky, Bryant, and Zillmann (1977) conducted a study over forty years ago that originated those very facts. Using manipulation tests, the researchers had participants view one of two selected hockey segments either with or without commentary and report their level of appreciation and enjoyment of what they viewed (1977). They found that those who watched the clips with the audio commentary perceived their levels of enjoyment as higher and substantially altered versus those who watched their video clips without any audio commentary (1977). In another similar study done by Bryant, Comisky, and Zillmann (1977), it was found that intense language, high competition, and strong effort were repeatedly relied upon by the sports broadcasters to seemingly enhance the television viewers' level of enjoyment and perceived intensity of the game.

Bryant, Comisky, and Zillmann (1981) note that because of these two previous studies, “it would appear that producers of sports telecasts are eagerly attempting to satisfy home viewers’ love for violence and competition by giving them a ‘double dose’- the action plus the dramatic commentary” (p. 261). Besides offering a unique way of watching a football or hockey game, audio commentary is a phenomenon that only enhances the viewing experience. The broadcasters “can dwell on and amplify the violent aspects of the game...the exploration of the precise mechanisms by which enjoyment is derived from witnessing violence should be of great importance” (p. 261).

Fanship

According to Gantz, Wang, Paul, and Potter (2006), fanship is simply described as “a keen and regular spectatorship of a sport” (p. 96). It describes those with a particular interest in the personalities, athletes, and specific sports teams (2006). Fanship requires a dynamic and engrossed audience, representing an assortment of thought processes, emotional attachments, and behaviors that disconnect fans from nonfans. According to the authors, fans are those “who become particularly attached to certain programs or stars within the context of a relatively heavy media use” (p. 96). Sports fans in particular have a self-reported interest and a specific pattern to their sports use (2006). In general, sports fans reported having the most loyal followers, surpassing entertainment television all together (Mamola, 2011; Peterson & Raney, 2008).

Because fans in general tend to be heavy media users, they also tend to experience various formats differently than non-fans of specific genres (Cummins, Keene, & Nutting, 2008; Gantz, Wang, Paul, & Potter, 2006). Their knowledge and experience greatly outweighs those of non-fans. Considering they are already emotionally attached to

their favorite programs or stars, they also may process information differently than non-fans (Gantz, Wang, Paul, & Potter, 2006). According to Gantz, Wang, Paul, and Potter (2006), the emotional responses have been noted to empower fans and produce enthusiasm and vigor in them when viewing sports-related visuals.

Gantz, Wang, Paul, and Potter (2006) identified three benefits of becoming and staying a sports fan. First, it provides a means of escape (2006). Passionate sports fans tend to become engrossed in games, allowing them to breakout from their mundane reality, even if for a few hours. Second, being a sports fan provides self-fulfillment (2006). If a favored team wins, fans will feel reassured, validated, and blissful even though they had nothing to do with their teams' outcome (Cummins, Keene, & Nutting, 2008; Peterson & Raney, 2008). As vital competitions approach, fans experience an increase in "cognitive and somatic anxiety" (Gantz, Wang, Paul, & Potter, 2006, p. 97). On the opposite side, serious fans are also less able to detach themselves from their teams when their favorite teams do poorly (2006). Finally, sports fans have an opportunity for social integration (2006). All across the world, bars, restaurants, and shops are dedicated to specific teams. Fans can interact with other fans through run of the mill, everyday activities. Sports offer a way for fans to engage one another on a scale that does not exist with other various types of television genres. Gambling, office bets, and championship parties all provide fans with a way to socially interact with one another. Sports, unlike entertainment programming, offer a continuous brigade of fanciful wishes, dreams, and memorable moments (Cummins, Keene, & Nutting, 2008; Peterson & Raney, 2008).

Sports fans, according to Gantz, Wang, Paul, and Potter (2006), possess certain game-time habits. In their study, they found that the most passionate fans become

emotionally aroused before the game even starts (2006). By viewing the pre-game festivities and viewing player statistics on the Internet, fans become quite active before the game clock begins to tick away. Fans are also more likely to be “strongly motivated to watch for the intrinsic pleasures associated with watching, to be emotionally involved and overtly expressive while viewing, and, for better or worse, to have the game linger on after the final whistle was blown” (Gantz, Wang, Paul, & Potter, 2006, p. 98).

Hocking (1982) and Eastman and Land (1997) researched how viewers watch sports and the specific social interactions involved. They found that ultimately, location mattered. Fans who gathered to watch games at a sports bar, for instance, did so because they sought societal contact and a unique sense of community. Public forums, such as sports bars, naturally provide a setting for sports fans to feel prideful, welcomed, and understood. Comfortable rituals, such as drinking and wagering on the games, allow sports fans to legitimize “their fanship, and establish them as real, serious fans” (Gantz, Wang, Paul, & Potter, 2006, p. 98). While this may not be true of every sports fan in society, it is the general basis for the definition of fanship. These genuine, serious fans usually dedicate themselves to one specific team that they have grown up to love (2006). Because of the deep, emotional attachment to a team that sometimes transcends understanding, three different factors of enjoyment help establish the deeper meaning of fanship.

Gender

The matter of who considers themselves sports fans is an important and vital part of the study of fanship and enjoyment. Gender differences with sports fans make an enormous difference regarding viewership levels, advertisements, and marketing tactics.

At a young age, girls tend to watch televised sports because it gives them access to a male-dominated part of society (Gantz, Wang, Paul, & Potter, 2006). It opens up a forum for them to discuss a topic that would otherwise be considered taboo (2006). For men, televised sports provide a sense of identity, masculine prowess, and common ground with other men (Dunning, 1986; Hill, 2005; Watterson, 2000). According to Watterson (2000), “a broken bone is a small thing compared with the coolness, the self-control, and the manly spirit which football more than another sport gives the player” (p. 34). In modern society, men are told that they have to enjoy sporting events; it is considered a rite of passage (Dunning, 1986; Hill, 2005). However, males have always had more of an intimate connection with sports (Hill, 2005). According to Hill (2005), “being a successful sportsman, that is, earning one’s living by playing, was a state that most working-class males would willingly trade for other forms of wage labor” (p. 411). Not being good in playing sports could be made up for by being a die-hard spectator, however, not liking sports all together is an “ensured marginalization in male society” (p. 412). Males are more strongly motivated to watch televised sports, while social norms, responsibility factors, and expectations might deter females from taking part (Dunning, 1986; Hill, 2005; Watterson, 2000). Beck and Bosshart (2003) found that “there is a close fit between sport and masculinity; each is a part of the other...to be in sport poses a threat to femininity, and to be feminine poses a problem for sporting activity” (p. 16).

Furthermore, in a study done by Peterson and Raney (2008), male participants reported feeling more suspense and enjoyment during televised sporting events. The closer a particular game is in score; the level of enjoyment is heightened due to the level of suspense (2008). However, among female viewers, the level of excitement due to

suspense related drama decreased (2008). In fact, the researchers proposed that high levels of suspense in sporting events might actually lead to an increased level of misery for female viewers (2008). Whereas mens' levels of enjoyment tend to increase during the most suspenseful and drama filled moments in a game, females' level of enjoyment became encumbered (2008). While it is certainly not true of every female sports fan, suspenseful games do tend to cause females more anxiety (Knobloch-Westerwick, David, Eastin, Tamborini, & Greenwood, 2009; Peterson & Raney, 2008). This is not limited to America, however. Worldwide men outrank women when it comes to fully enjoying sports.

As adults, more men than women admit to being sports fans (Gantz, Wang, Paul, & Potter, 2006; Kennedy, 2000). In a worldwide study, Kennedy (2000) found that in Norway, 64% of men and 49% of women actually watched televised sports. In Germany, the numbers were slightly higher with 75% of men and 52% of women found to regularly watch sports (2000). Overall, sports are the "only television program type that attracts more men than women" (p. 58). Although a study done by Dietz-Uhler, Harrick, End, and Jacquemotte (2000) found that women were just as likely to consider themselves sports fans, the motivations and viewing styles were drastically different. Women were more likely to watch sports in groups, whereas men were content to watch in solitude if necessary (2000). Even though social identity and bonding with their counterparts is an important part of male fanship, women described a sports fan as someone who attends, watches, or cheers at sporting events in the company of friends and family. Women viewed fanship as a family oriented ordeal, whereas family-oriented reasoning played no role for males.

Enjoyment Factors

While the term “enjoyment” might seem self-explanatory, individuals interpret their own definition through the lenses of their social circles, social norms, and personal characteristics (Raney & Depalma, 2006; Raney & Kinnally, 2009). Enjoyment is measured through how each individual translates the action they are viewing, whether that is through television or in person (Raney & Kinnally, 2009). Moreover, viewing violent sports scenes have been associated with physiological changes such as increased arousal, changes in facial expressions, and sudden bodily movements (Ekman et al., 1972; Murray et al., 2006; Peterson & Raney, 2008; Raney and Depalma, 2006; Raney & Kinnally, 2009). While enjoyment is through the eyes of the beholder, these particular qualities are known to be common across audiences.

First, according to Raney and Kinnally (2009) and Raney and Depalma (2006), enjoyment increases when a preferential team wins and/or when a detested team loses. Peterson and Raney (2008) add that spectators of scripted sports violence tend to view the action with a different set of expectations than they would with unscripted sports. Both genres display violence, and sometimes use violence as a means to achieving an end result, but both present reasonable differences “in the enjoyment of, and emotional responses to, the two types of sports violence” (Raney & Depalma, 2006, p. 323). Sloan (1989) discovered that cognitive, affective, and behavioral responses of sports fans were similar to those of the athletes themselves. Intense emotions, physicality, and a desire for revenge have been reported to fuel the fire of athletic violence; the same passion and drive fuels the sports fans who can only watch from afar (Knobloch-Westerwick, David, Eastin, Tamborini, & Greenwood, 2009; Peterson & Raney, 2008). When viewers watch

their favorite athlete or sports team statistically destroy a hated team, the viewer's ambitions and desires have hypothetically come true (Knobloch-Westerwick, David, Eastin, Tamborini, & Greenwood, 2009; Hill, 2005; Peterson & Raney, 2008).

Second, in previous studies, self-identified sports fans have reported to feeling more enjoyment, as well as more nervous and angry than non-sports fans (Raney & Kinnally, 2009). It has been reported that the "suspenseful action drives people to tune in and keeps them glued to the set" (Peterson & Raney, 2008, p. 545). Not knowing the final outcome drives sports fans to experience feelings of uncertainty, unpleasant and pleasant emotions, anticipation, and emotional apprehension (Knobloch-Westerwick, David, Eastin, Tamborini, & Greenwood, 2009; Peterson & Raney, 2008). According to Peterson and Raney (2008), the battle between two potential outcomes, "one morally superior, but in doubt, the other evil and likely," (p. 546) attacks the hearts of sports fans. Comparing sports drama to fictional television shows, Peterson and Raney (2008) say that fans of fictional drama tend to "take sides emotionally with the protagonists who deserve positive feelings...and must take sides emotionally against their antagonist counterparts" (p. 546). This emotional seesaw is necessary for viewers to experience a level of suspense and drama within the television show (Knobloch-Westerwick, David, Eastin, Tamborini, & Greenwood, 2009; Peterson & Raney, 2008). Knobloch-Westerwick, David, Eastin, Tamborini, and Greenwood (2009) defined suspense as an "audience experience, not the characteristic of the media message or plot" (p. 751). They go on to say that suspense is a "noxious affective reaction that characteristically derives from the respondents' acute, fearful apprehension about deplorable events that threaten liked protagonists" (p. 751). The same can be true of televised sports. Naturally, sports fans will view their favorite

team, as the protagonist character that they hope will destroy the antagonist, or their favored team's main rival. Suspense is created when situations arise that promote the certainty of a feared outcome (Knobloch-Westerwick, David, Eastin, Tamborini, & Greenwood, 2009; Peterson & Raney, 2008). Maximum suspense is reached when the viewer fears the evil outcome is the most likely to occur (Peterson & Raney, 2008).

Finally, Westerman and Tamborini (2010) found that the more sports violence is depicted, the more it is enjoyed. Likewise, the more prevalent sports violence is in society, the more enjoyment viewers will gain from watching the televised violence unfold. The studies that have specifically been done on the appeal of violent sports suggest that the violence is enjoyed overall (Mamola, 2011; Westerman & Tamborini, 2010). In referencing player injuries and massive hockey brawls, Mamola (2011) said the following:

I think, these...incidents are when NHL hockey [is] the front-page story in the collective minds of American sports fans. Who cares about hat tricks when I can see something I rarely see in my everyday life. Trophies, blood, and violence draw more hockey fans to the game than any major superstar...The NHL relies on fighting as much as the PGA relies on Tiger Woods. No one is talking about Mark Wilson when it comes to PGA golf, but if Tiger is playing, we pay attention.

(Mamola, 2011, p. 1)

What a superstar athlete is to golf, violence is to hockey. While some fights only incur a minor penalty and nothing more, some brawls on the ice turn into battles, even mental battles long after the game is over. These unusual fights are something sports fan do not often experience.

Summary

The genre of sports television needs media to thrive, survive, and nurture audiences. In addition, sports violence needs that audience in order to remain relevant. Given television is the main source for sports viewership, fans have the opportunity to view violence through the lens of unique broadcasts. By playing up mundane situations and adding suspense, sports commentators add to the fans' experience in ways that might be found manipulative and noteworthy. Given that announcers are fueled by hard football plays and hockey brawls, the viewers' experience is stained through what the commentators share and deliver.

As the mirror of society, sports present viewers a way to escape their everyday lives. Fans will go out of their way to pay the necessary money that is sometimes involved in sports viewership. Games allow fans to cultivate their self-esteem when their favorite team wins, or, on the other hand, feel miserable when their team is defeated. If a favored team is involved in violent acts on their respective fields of play, society is then symbolized through the lens of those commentating, viewing, or attending the game. Nevertheless, sports offer a getaway for those who choose to delve deep enough to find the route. By fostering their social desires, fans have numerous opportunities to seek out places and people that are similar to them. Social interactions among sports fans are what feeds their desires, passions, and drive to return to their favorite sport.

An intense likeability or hatred for a particular team adds fuel to the already burning flame. The intense feelings sports rivalries can bring add arousal and excitement to sports fans. The more the media depict sports on television, the more overall enjoyment a viewer will receive. This is not due to the fact that there are simply more

opportunities, but it is how society as a whole accepts and parades the cause. As referenced by Mamola (2011), sports violence, in particular, is not something society has the chance to view on an everyday basis. The suspense that an exciting and thrilling act might occur at any moment continuously brings sports fans into stadiums and tuned into their television sets.

Numerous studies mentioned in this chapter have explained how suspense factors into the sports experience. One of the main factors is that a maximum level of suspense and drama becomes an exciting and almost spiritual event, many times played up by commentators and announcers of various games. As mentioned in this chapter, gender differences are also seen to have an impact. While men feel the desire to maintain their masculine presence, women do not feel as much pressure to desire the need for sports. Men, on the other hand, have for years been compared to one another when it comes to their level of need for sports. Chapter three further discusses this issue as well as the other two factors that contribute to viewers' level of enjoyment while watching sports: violence-sports commentary and fanship. Along with the methodology for this study, chapter three delves into why these factors are most important when it comes to understanding why things of a violent nature are considered worthy of pursuit.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

As discussed in the first two chapters, researchers have only begun to crack the surface on the study of sports violence and perceived levels of enjoyment. However, the experiments that have been done thus far have shown that three major factors have influenced various results. The intensity of sports commentary, the participants' levels of fanship, and gender have been shown to have the greatest impact on whether or not someone enjoys watching violent sports moments play out on screen (Beck & Bosshart, 2003; Helland, 2007; Peterson & Raney, 2008; Raney & Depalma, 2006; Raney & Kinnally, 2009; Sullivan, 1991). While numerous experiments and analyses have been conducted on this subject, very few have been tried in the modern era. Since violence has moved to the front of the line in terms of problems plaguing sports, especially football and hockey, this particular experimental design is timely, applicable, and relevant (Gross, 2011; Keating, 2011; Marvez, 2011).

Constructs

To conduct this experimental design, three independent variables were used for two different sports, football and hockey. The variables of sports commentary, fanship, and gender were applied to test the participants' level of enjoyment (dependent variable) while watching video clips of violent moments in both football and hockey. Bryant, Comisky, and Zillmann (1981) noted in their study that their investigation indicated that "roughness and violence in sports play serve to enhance viewers' enjoyment of the action. Within the rules of the game, the rougher and more violent, the better-as far as the sports spectators were concerned" (p. 260). However, the researchers also discussed the

fact that within the videos they chose no player got seriously injured; all action was in the limits of the game rules (1981). While taking these methodological points into consideration for this experimental design, videos that showed rough, but legal plays were shown, as to not distract or take away from the overall sphere of the games.

Sports Commentary

Numerous previous studies have found that commentators often emphasize various moments in sports (Bryant, Brown, Comisky, & Zillmann, 2006; Bryant, Comisky, & Zillmann, 1977; Comisky, Bryant, & Zillmann, 1977; Sullivan, 1991). Whether it is a routine play, or an out-of-the-ordinary moment, announcers will habitually use their skills to accentuate a particular instant. For randomly chosen groups in both the manipulation tests and the main study, non-audio versions of the clips were shown. The data for audio and non-audio groups were compared to see if the broadcasters' commentary made any difference in the viewer's level of violence, enjoyment, and excitement.

Both audio and non-audio groups for both the manipulation tests and the main study recorded their answers to the same three statements concerning each clip, using a Likert-type scale (See Appendices A-D). The first statement, "I would consider this to be violent," gauged how violent the viewer perceived the clip. The second statement, "I enjoyed watching this particular football play" (with the hockey groups, it will be listed as "hockey"), tested to see the viewer's perceived level of enjoyment while watching the clip. The final question, "This football clip was exciting to watch," (with the hockey groups, it will be listed as "hockey") gauged the viewer's perceived level of excitement. The choice of "strongly disagree," which was coded with a "1" signified that the viewer

strongly went against the statement. The choice of “strongly agree,” which was indicated with a “5” signified that the viewer passionately agreed with the statement. The choices of “disagree,” “neutral,” and “agree” were coded with a “2,” “3,” and “4” respectively.

Fanship

A viewer’s level of fanship was found to be one of the main reasons a viewer emotionally connects to a game (Bryant, Comisky, & Zillman, 1981). Therefore, it was one of the main variables going forward in the experiment. Using a model similar to the experiment performed by Bryant, Comisky, and Zillman (1981), viewers were asked to gauge their level of fanship by answering questions that pertained to their disposition toward either football or hockey. The answers given by the respondents show how little or how much a commitment towards a particular sport affects a viewer’s perceived level of enjoyment. Questions regarding fanship were used only for the main study; viewers participating in the manipulation tests were not asked any questions regarding their level of fanship towards a particular sport.

Similar to Bryant, Comisky, and Zillman’s (1981) experiment, a Likert-type scale, was used to determine the level of fanship for the viewer. The choice of “strongly disagree,” which was coded with a “1” signified that the viewer strongly went against the statement. The choice of “strongly agree,” which was indicated with a “5” signified that the viewer passionately agreed with the statement. The choices of “disagree,” “neutral,” and “agree” were coded with a “2,” “3,” and “4” respectively. This particular variable of fanship was tested only in the main study through a course of ten questions on both the survey relating to football and the survey relating to hockey (See Appendices C & D). Questions one and two related to the first and fifth entertainment stimuli, as discussed in

chapter two. The public participation of a fan can lead to a sense of belonging within their own team niche (See Appendices C & D). Question three related to the third and eighth entertainment stimuli because dealing with the game rituals and the fresh strategies by networks in an attempt for better viewership (See Appendices C & D). Questions four and five coincided with the fourth entertainment stimuli in that they deal with suspense and excitement, which were found to be two of the main reasons for which fans watch sports (See Appendices C & D). Questions six and seven dealt with the sixth entertainment stimuli in that it regards identification and bonding with the athletes (See Appendices C & D). Question eight measured the second and seventh entertainment stimuli dealing with various artistic elements networks use during their broadcasts, especially that of sex-appeal (See Appendices C & D). Finally, questions nine and ten asked about co-viewing, taking into consideration the first entertainment stimuli that dealt with public participation and societal influences while watching a sporting event (See Appendices C & D).

Gender

Chapter 2 discussed how gender roles played a significant factor in determining perceived levels of enjoyment between men and women. Multiple previous studies found that men reported enjoying violent sports clips more than women. These studies used surveys, questionnaires, and other means of determining this result. While those same studies did report that the women did not necessarily dislike or not enjoy the violent sports clips they were watching, factors, specifically fanship and sports commentary, played a role in determining that men, as a whole, enjoy sports violence more than females.

By listing their gender as either a man or a woman at the end of the given survey during the main study (See Appendices C & D), results were compared amongst one another. A code of “1” was given to women and a code of “2” was given to men.

Sampling

Study participants included undergraduate and graduate students at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas during the Spring 2013 academic semester. A convenience sample of fifty-eight students were used for the stimulus-materials pretesting phase of the study, and a convenience sample of 110 students were used in the main study. Students attending classes from the Greenspun College of Urban Affairs were approached regarding a voluntary opportunity to participate in this research. Participating students were told about the experiment, the procedures, and any possible risks involved. Each student signed up for a particular time slot on various days with each group allowing for a maximum of six students, each of those time slots were randomly assigned to one of the treatments. Those who participated by completing the entire experiment were given extra credit for one of their courses. For those students who wished to participate, but were not able, a research paper opportunity was presented to them as the alternative extra credit opportunity (See Appendix E). It was stressed to the possible participants that this opportunity was voluntary, and that they were not forced to participate if they did not feel comfortable doing so.

Stimulus Videos

Both the football and hockey videos were selected from YouTube, and were chosen for the specific words and tone the sports broadcasters used during the particular clip. The video clips for both sports were edited to feature the essential action plays and

commentary only (when necessary). Each set of video stimuli contained three sporting clips. There was 20 seconds of silent, black screen before and after each clip. Both sets of videos were made with Windows Movie Maker on a personal laptop. During the manipulation tests and main study the videos were watched on a 65-inch television set in the Emerging Technologies Lab (ETL) in the Greenspun College of Urban Affairs building. Since the original video clips contained different volume levels, the volume was adjusted on the television set when appropriate for the groups that watched the audio version of the videos.

Clip 1 for football featured the sports commentators saying, “What a hit!” As the announcers laughed throughout the video, they also said “Ricky Williams got leveled by Patrick Willis,” and “this is a big time, hello, Thanksgiving Day hit.” The 20-second clip started out showing the original football play, and then showed one replay. The student participants saw the football hit a total of two times. Clip 2 for football highlighted the announcers saying, “What a shot by Lewis!” They further said, “See if you can hear this. This is a hard knock,” as well as “The master of disaster. For 15 years he’s been lighting people up.” The 31-second clip started out showing the original football play, and then showed two replays. The student participants saw the football hit a total of three times. Clip 3 for football featured the commentator telling the viewing audience that “there’s just no place in the game right now [for this].” The commentator went on to say, “one of the major reasons why the league is trying to outlaw these...,” and “launching with the helmet, a clear foul, and it’s going to be a fine.” The 28 second clip started out as a non-slow motion replay that was repeated three more times. The student participants viewed this particular football hit a total of four times.

Clip 1 for hockey featured the sports commentators saying, “That’s a great hit!” They went on to say that a particular player “does a tremendous job of pounding the guy,” and that if a particular player is “going to be dumb enough to come into the middle, Rinaldo is smart enough to be able to take that advantage.” The 25 second clip started out as a non-slow motion replay and was repeated three times. The student participants viewed this hockey hit a total of four times. Clip 2 for hockey featured the announcer exclaiming that a particular hit was “devastating” going on to describe a play as a “lethal, lethal hit.” The 34 second clip started out showing the original play, with two repeats. The student participants viewed this hockey play a total of three times. Finally, Clip 3 highlighted the announcers saying, “oh jeepers, oh boy. This scares the daylights out of me.” They went on to say, “ah man, I don’t like that at all” when describing a particular hit. This 25-second clip started out showing the original play, and then showed two replays. The student participants viewed this hockey play a total of three times.

Manipulation Tests

Fifty-eight student participants were used for the manipulation tests. Students arrived during their designated session times, and were asked to show picture identification upon entering the testing area. They were asked to sit down on one of the ETL couches facing the television, in order to simulate a home viewing environment. Participants were given a notebook and a pen to use for filling out their surveys. Before the videos began playing, the participants were notified that they were about to watch three sports clips, and to fill out their survey questions about each clip after each clip had finished (See Appendix F). Participants were reminded that this experiment was voluntary and that they were free to leave at any time. Once all video clips had been

shown and the surveys were finished, participants were given an index card to write their name and class identification for their extra credit. The index cards and the surveys remained separate, to assure the surveys remained anonymous. Once the index cards were complete, student participants were told to hand in their surveys and cards, and were free to leave the testing area.

Six, video clips were utilized in the football manipulation tests. Three videos showed football-player action with announcer, and the same three football player action clips without audio. Six, video clips were also utilized in the hockey manipulation tests. Three videos showed hockey player action with announcer, and the same three hockey player action without audio. The respondents completed a short survey instrument that contained enjoyment measures (See Appendices A & B) to assure statistically significant differences on the part of audience perceptions for the video clips with and without announcer. The same three questions were asked after each clip, each pertaining to measures of enjoyment that were previously tested in past studies. Tests of means utilizing ANOVA with appropriate post hoc analyses were used to analyze pretest results. Any non-significant differences between announcer versus non-announcer versions for each sport resulted in a consideration whether to drop that video clip from the main study.

Results from manipulation tests were as follows. Because of smaller sample sizes, Cohen's d and effect-size correlations were calculated comparing the means and standard deviations of the audio versus no-audio versions of each of the six video clips.

For football, there were significant interactions for Clip 1 on violence ($r = -.18$, $d = -.38$) and enjoyment ($r = .24$, $d = .11$), but not for excitement. For Clip 2 there were no interactions for violence but both enjoyment ($r = .35$, $d = .17$) and excitement ($r = .46$,

$d = .22$) measures showed significant interactions. For Clip 3 only the violence measure was significant ($r = .14$, $d = .28$). Based on these results, both the first and second football clips were retained for the main study because these clips demonstrated significant differences between audio and no-audio clips for at least two of the three measures. The third football clip was dropped because it showed differences on only one measure.

For hockey Clip 1, there were significant interactions for violence ($r = -.42$, $d = -.20$), enjoyment ($r = .67$, $d = .31$), and excitement ($r = .24$, $d = .12$). For hockey Clip 2, there were also significant interactions for violence ($r = -.38$, $d = -.18$), enjoyment ($r = .56$, $d = .27$), and excitement ($r = .89$, $d = .40$). Finally, the hockey Clip 3 showed significant interactions for enjoyment ($r = .43$, $d = .21$) and excitement ($r = .61$, $d = .29$). Consistent with criteria used for evaluating football clips, all three hockey clips were retained for the main study because they showed significant interactions on at least two measures.

Main Study

One hundred and ten students were used for the main study. The students arrived during their designated session times, and were asked to show picture identification upon entering the testing area. They were asked to sit down on one of the ETL couches facing the television, in order to simulate a home viewing environment. Participants were given a notebook and a pen to use for filling out their surveys. Once each participant was given a survey, they were asked to fill out the 10 survey questions on the first page (See Appendix C & D). Once participants finished the first portion of the survey instrument, and before the videos began playing, the participants were notified that they were about

to watch three sports clips, and to fill out their survey questions about each clip after each clip has finished. Participants were also reminded that this experiment was voluntary and that they were free to leave at any time if they did not wish to finish or if they felt uncomfortable at any point during the experiment. Once all video clips were shown and the surveys were finished, participants were given an index card to write their name and class identification for their extra credit. The index cards and the surveys remained separate, to assure the participants' surveys remained anonymous. Once the index cards were complete, student participants were told to hand in their surveys and cards, and were free to leave the testing area. The extra credit information was later given to the appropriate professors in the College of Urban Affairs to apply the extra credit to the respective classes.

Four, video clips were utilized in the football main study. Two videos showed football-player action with announcer, and the same two football player action clips without audio. Six, video clips were utilized for the hockey main study. Three videos showed hockey player action with announcer, and the same three hockey player action without audio. To keep all surveys the same, and to better analyze the impending results, the same three questions that were asked after each clip in the manipulation tests were asked after each clip in the main study.

Hypotheses

To study the perceived levels of enjoyment on participants watching violent football and hockey clips, the following 24 hypotheses were examined:

H1: Those watching football clips with audio report higher levels of enjoyment versus those watching the same football clips without audio.

H2: Those watching football clips with audio report higher levels of excitement versus those watching the same football clips without audio.

H3: Those reporting to be enthusiastic fans of football enjoy watching the football clips with audio more than those not professing to be enthusiastic football fans.

H4: Those reporting to agree with watching football for the pre-game rituals enjoy watching football clips (regardless of production value) more than those who disagree with watching football for the pre-game rituals.

H5: Those reporting to agree with watching football because it is exciting enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value) more than those who disagree with watching football because it is exciting.

H6: Those reporting to agree with watching football because it is suspenseful enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value) more than those who disagree with watching football because it is suspenseful.

H7: Those reporting that they feel happy when their favorite team wins a game enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value).

H8: Those reporting that they feel disappointed when their favorite team loses a game enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value).

H9: Those reporting who watch football for the sex appeal enjoy the football clips (regardless of production value) less than those not reporting who watch football for the sex appeal.

H10: Those reporting to watch football because their significant other watches it enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value) more than those not reporting to watch football because their significant other watches it.

H11: Those reporting to watch football as a way to hang out with their friends enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value) more than those not reporting to watch football as a way to hang out with their friends.

H12: Men enjoy watching football clips (regardless of production values) more compared to women.

H13: Those watching hockey clips with audio report higher levels of enjoyment versus those watching the same hockey clips without audio.

H14: Those watching hockey clips with audio report higher levels of excitement versus those watching the same hockey clips without audio.

H15: Those reporting to be enthusiastic fans of hockey enjoy watching the hockey clips with audio more than those not professing to be enthusiastic hockey fans.

H16: Those reporting to agree with watching hockey for the pre-game rituals enjoy watching hockey clips (regardless of production value) more than those who disagree with watching hockey for the pre-game rituals.

H17: Those reporting to agree to watching hockey because it is exciting enjoy watching the hockey clips (regardless of production value) more than those who disagree with watching hockey because it is exciting.

H18: Those reporting to agree to watching hockey because it is suspenseful enjoy watching the hockey clips (regardless of production value) more than those who disagree with watching hockey because it is suspenseful.

H19: Those reporting that they feel happy when their favorite team wins a game enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value).

H20: Those reporting that they feel disappointed when their favorite team loses a game enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value).

H21: Those reporting to watch hockey for the sex appeal enjoy the hockey clips (regardless of production value) less than those not reporting who watch hockey for the sex appeal.

H22: Those reporting to watch football because their significant other watches it enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value) more than those not reporting to watch football because their significant other watches it.

H23: Those reporting to watch football as a way to hang out with their friends enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value) more than those not reporting to watch football as a way to hang out with their friends.

H24: Men enjoy watching hockey clips (regardless of production value) more compared to women.

All 24 hypotheses were broken up between football and hockey with each hypothesis having a counterpart with the other sport. Hypotheses 1 through 12 tested fanship within the sport of football, and hypotheses 13 through 24 tested fanship within the sport of hockey. Hypotheses 1 and 13 dealt with the sports commentary value and enjoyment variable within each sport. Hypotheses 2 and 14 dealt with the sports commentary value and excitement variable within each sport. Hypotheses 3 and 15 considered the first and fifth entertainment stimuli as previously discussed in Chapter 2. Hypotheses 4 and 16 considered the third and eighth entertainment stimuli. Hypotheses 5, 6, 17, and 18 tested the fourth entertainment stimuli. Hypotheses 7, 8, 19, and 20 and tested the sixth entertainment stimuli. Hypotheses 9 and 21 tested the second and seventh

entertainment stimuli. Hypotheses 10, 11, 22, and 23 considered the first entertainment stimuli, and finally hypotheses 12 and 24 tested gender.

Analysis Plan

A number of statistical analyses were employed to test hypotheses, including *t*-tests and Pearson Product Moment correlations.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter provides a description of analyses from the data collection for this study. The results in this section reference the main study portion of the experiment, as the results from the manipulation tests were mentioned in the previous chapter. While the results from this experiment will be reported in this chapter, possible implications, reasonings, and general discussion will be viewed in Chapter 5.

General Findings

The sample size for the main study included 110 total participants, of which 72 (65%) were female and 38 (35%) were male. Of the 110 participants, 53 (48%) were randomly assigned to the football group and 57 (52%) were randomly assigned to the hockey group. In regards to the audio manipulation for the main study, the numbers were split down the middle exactly. For both audio and non-audio groups for both football and hockey, there were 55 total participants for each group. Specifically, for those assigned to the football group, 27 watched the video clips with audio and 26 watched the video clips without audio. Within the hockey group, 28 participants watched the video clips with audio and 29 watched the video clips without audio. There were no missing data in this experiment as all 110 of the participant surveys were filled out completely. As a result, all survey answers were analyzed and taken into consideration during the data analysis portion of the study.

H1

Hypothesis 1 stated those who watch football clips with audio will report higher levels of enjoyment versus those watching the same football clips without audio. This

hypothesis was not supported. A *t*-test for inequality of means was used to analyze both sets of football clips and no significant difference of enjoyment levels was shown between those who watched the clips with audio versus those who watched the clips without audio.

H2

Hypothesis 2 stated that those who watch football clips with audio will report higher levels of excitement versus those watching the same football clips without audio. Similar to the first hypothesis, this also was not supported. A *t*-test for inequality of means determined that participants who viewed the football clips with audio reported no significant difference in excitement versus those who viewed the football clips without audio.

H3

Hypothesis 3 stated that those who report to be enthusiastic fans of football will enjoy watching the football clips with audio more than those who do not profess to be enthusiastic football fans. A Pearson Product Moment correlation showed that this hypothesis was not supported. The level of fanship did not have a difference in enjoyment levels (regardless of production value) in this particular case.

H4

Hypothesis 4 stated that those who report to agree with watching football for the pre-game rituals will enjoy watching football clips more than those who disagree with watching football for the pre-game rituals. The results showed that with a Pearson Product Moment correlation of $r(53) = .28, p < .04$, this hypothesis was supported.

H5

Hypothesis 5 stated that those who report to agree to watching football because it is exciting will enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value) more than those who disagree with watching football because it is exciting. Similar to the previous two hypotheses, a Pearson Product Moment correlation was used and showed that this particular hypothesis was not supported.

H6

Hypothesis 6 stated that those who report to agree to watching football because it is suspenseful will enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value) more than those who disagree with watching football because it is suspenseful. A Pearson Product Moment correlation showed that this hypothesis was supported, $r(53) = .27, p < .01$.

H7

Hypothesis 7 stated that those who report that they feel happy when their favorite team wins a game will enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value). A Pearson Product Moment correlation showed that this hypothesis was supported, $r(53) = .24, p < .01$.

H8

Hypothesis 8 stated that those who report that they feel disappointed when their favorite team loses a game will enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value). A Pearson Product Moment correlation showed that this hypothesis was supported, $r(53) = .25, p < .01$.

H9

Hypothesis 9 stated that those who report watching football for the sex appeal will enjoy the football clips (regardless of production value) less than those who do not report watching football for the sex appeal. A Pearson Product Moment correlation showed that this hypothesis was not supported.

H10

Hypothesis 10 stated that those who report to watch football because their significant other watches it will enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value) more than those who do not report watching football because their significant other watches it. A Pearson Product Moment correlation showed that this hypothesis was not supported.

H11

Hypothesis 11 stated that those who report to watch football as a way to hang out with their friends will enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value) more than those who do not report watching football as a way to hang out with their friends. Similar to H10, a Pearson Product Moment correlation showed that this hypothesis was also not supported.

H12

Hypothesis 12 stated that men will enjoy watching football clips (regardless of production value) more compared to women. With a total of 53 students participating in the football group, this hypothesis was found to be supported. There was a significant effect for gender in this case, $t(53) = -5.16, p < .000$, with men reporting to enjoy the football clips more than women.

H13

Hypothesis 13 stated that those who watch hockey clips with audio will report higher levels of enjoyment versus those watching the same hockey clips without audio. Similar to the results regarding football, a *t*-test for inequality of means showed no significant differences in enjoyment levels between the audio and non-audio groups.

H14

Hypothesis 14 stated that those who watch hockey clips with audio will report higher levels of excitement versus those watching the same hockey clips without audio. Similar to the football clips, this also was not supported. A *t*-test for inequality of means determined that participants who viewed the hockey clips with audio reported no significant difference in excitement versus those who viewed the hockey clips without audio.

H15

Hypothesis 15 stated that those who report to be enthusiastic fans of hockey will enjoy watching the hockey clips with audio more than those who do not profess to be enthusiastic hockey fans. Similar to its football counterpart, a Pearson Product Moment correlation showed that this hypothesis was not supported. The level of fanship did not have a significant difference in enjoyment levels (regardless of production value) in this case.

H16

Hypothesis 16 stated that those who report to agree or strongly agree with watching hockey for the pre-game rituals will enjoy watching hockey clips (regardless of production value) more than those who disagree or strongly disagree with watching

hockey for the pre-game rituals. Unlike Hypothesis 4, the Pearson Product Moment correlation showed no significant results. Possible reasoning for this difference will be discussed in Chapter 5.

H17

Hypothesis 17 stated that those who report to agree to watching hockey because it is exciting will enjoy watching the hockey clips (regardless of production value) more than those who disagree with watching hockey because it is exciting. Unlike football, a Pearson Product Moment correlation showed that this hypothesis was not supported.

H18

Hypothesis 18 stated that those who report to agree to watching hockey because it is suspenseful will enjoy watching the hockey clips (regardless of production value) more than those who disagree with watching hockey because it is suspenseful. Unlike football, the Pearson Product Moment correlation showed that this hypothesis was not supported. Possible reasoning for this difference will be discussed in Chapter 5.

H19

Hypothesis 19 stated that those who report that they feel happy when their favorite team wins a game will enjoy watching the hockey clips (regardless of production value). Unlike football, the Pearson Product Moment correlation showed that this hypothesis was not supported. Possible reasoning for this difference will be discussed in Chapter 5.

H20

Hypothesis 20 stated that those who report that they feel disappointed when their favorite team loses a game will enjoy watching the hockey clips (regardless of production

value). Unlike football, the Pearson Product Moment correlation showed that this hypothesis was not supported. Possible reasoning for this difference will be discussed in Chapter 5.

H21

Hypothesis 21 stated that those who report watching hockey for the sex appeal will enjoy the hockey clips (regardless of production value) less than those who do not report watching hockey for the sex appeal. A Pearson Product Moment correlation showed that this hypothesis was not supported.

H22

Hypothesis 22 stated that those who report to watch football because their significant other watches it will enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value) more than those who do not report watching football because their significant other watches it. Using a Pearson Product Moment correlation, this hypothesis was not supported.

H23

Hypothesis 23 stated that those who report to watch football as a way to hang out with their friends will enjoy watching the football clips (regardless of production value) more than those who do not report watching football as a way to hang out with their friends. Using a Pearson Product Moment correlation, this hypothesis was not supported.

H24

Hypothesis 24 stated that men will enjoy watching hockey clips (regardless of production value) more compared to women. With a total of 57 students participating in the hockey group, this hypothesis was found to be supported. There was a significant

effect for gender in this case, $t(57) = -3.47, p < .001$, with men reporting to enjoy the hockey clips more than women.

Chapter Review

This chapter discussed the general findings of the experiment as well as the results from the statistical analyses. It was shown that the gender variable was the only significant factor with both football and hockey. Both H12 and H24 were significant in that the male participants enjoyed the football and hockey clips more so than the female participants. Hockey yielded no other significant findings. Football, on the other hand, showed that pre-game rituals, suspense, and fan emotions (feeling happy or disappointed) were significant factors in the viewers' levels of enjoyment. The final chapter will discuss these findings in more detail, as well as possible explanations as to why they occurred. This study's strengths and weaknesses, as well as suggestions for future research will also be discussed.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the 24 hypotheses' results that were analyzed in Chapter 4. Possible reasonings for the results dealing with the uses and gratifications theory and differences with previous studies will also be examined. In addition, the variables of sports commentary, fanship, and gender, and their collective roles in the results will be discussed. The study's strengths and weaknesses as well as ideas for future research will also be reviewed.

Discussion of Hypotheses

Each section regarding the particular hypothesis will discuss the possible reasons as to why the experiment yielded the specific results. Limitations to the specific hypothesis as well as other factors will also be reviewed. In addition, possible changes for future research regarding the specific hypotheses will also be evaluated. Finally, various results from past research will also be compared to the results this particular study brought forth.

H1: Enjoyment-Football

If H1 were significant, those who watched the football clips with audio would have reported higher levels of enjoyment than those who watched the non-audio versions of the same clips. These results were also the same for hockey, which showed that the sports commentary did not prove to be significant in viewers' enjoyment levels. However, the results also showed that the participants generally enjoyed each individual video clip, regardless of the production value (audio or non-audio). Participants seemed to enjoy the sports clips regardless of which version or sport they were viewing. Even

though previous studies have shown that sports announcers often influence viewers' feelings of enjoyment, it is possible that the participants were immune to the manipulation. Even though one hypothesis does not cement a theory, this finding does go against previous studies' results which showed that viewers who watch violent sports tend to report higher levels of enjoyment when the sports commentary emphasized violence, hostility, and aggression between the teams (Sullivan, 1991).

H2: Excitement-Football

If H2 were correct, those who watched the football clips with audio would have reported higher levels of excitement versus those who watched the non-audio versions of the same clips. Similar to H1, the sports commentary was not found to be a significant factor in the participants' excitement levels. Since previous studies have shown that sports commentators often mediate sports experiences through their own eyes, it is possible that the levels of perceived violence witnessed were different between the announcers and the viewers.

H3: Enthusiastic Fans-Football

Hypothesis 3 speculated that those who reported to be enthusiastic fans of football would enjoy watching the football clips with audio more than those who did not profess to be enthusiastic fans of football. This particular hypothesis was not supported. In this case, sports commentary was not found to have a significant relationship with the viewers' levels of fanship. Numerous previous studies have said that those who classify themselves as enthusiastic sports fans tend to be more emotionally attached to the game they are watching. Other studies have also reported that more enthusiastic sports fans may even process the game differently than non-fans. The results of this hypothesis could

be due to the fact that a large number of football fans watched the hockey clips and a significant amount of hockey fans watched the football clips. Since all participants were randomly assigned to either the football or hockey group, levels of fanship were not known until after the participant had finished the experiment.

H4: Pre-game Rituals-Football

Hypothesis 4 speculated that pre-game rituals play a strong part in viewers' enjoyment levels. This hypothesis was supported. Football, more so than hockey, tends to have more pre-game rituals associated with the game. Usually, there is more commoradory, tailgating, and pre-game festivities involved with football. Overall, this finding says pre-game rituals can be seen as a factor in affecting viewer enjoyment. If further research is done on this particular point, perhaps different types of rituals can be looked at, as well as to what extent fans immerse themselves in those festivities to see if there is an even higher level of enjoyment.

H5: Excitement-Football

Hypothesis 5 speculated that those who watch football because it is exciting would also enjoy watching the football clips. This hypothesis was not supported. Even though various past studies have shown that violence is the essence of elevated excitement within sports, this hypothesis was not found to have any significance. Similar to H2, excitement did not seem to play a major role in terms of the participants' levels of enjoyment. Many factors could have played a part in this result, as will be discussed later on in this chapter. Perhaps the participants do not find football exciting, or it could be that they did not understand the term. If the latter is the case, future research will want to possibly explain in further detail the term "excitement."

H6: Suspense-Football

Hypothesis 6 was found to be significant meaning that those who reported to watch football for the suspense factor enjoyed the clips more than those who did not report to watch football for the suspense factor. Going along with previous studies, suspense was found to be a significant factor in enjoyment levels. Even though football is a common and well-known sport, the unpredictability of each play creates suspense for the viewer. Unlike hockey, football news is prevalent throughout sports media, therefore possibly causing the participants to be more emotionally invested with the football clips that they viewed.

H7: Team Connections-Football

Hypothesis 7 was found to be significant meaning that those who reported to feel happy when their favorite team wins a game also enjoyed watching the football clips. As discussed in previous chapters, enjoyment levels increase when a preferential team wins a game (Raney & Depalma, 2006; Raney & Kinnally, 2009). As mentioned earlier, if a favored team wins, fans will feel reassured, validated, and blissful even though they had nothing to do with their teams' outcome (Cummins, Keene, & Nutting, 2008; Peterson & Raney, 2008).

H8: Team Connections-Football

Hypothesis 8 was also found to be significant meaning that those who reported to feel disappointed when their favorite team loses a game also enjoyed watching the football clips. Previous studies have shown that fans are less able to detach themselves from their teams when their favorite teams do poorly (Raney & Depalma, 2006). Both H7

and H8 are connected in that the participants' emotions during an actual sporting event were also connected to their enjoyment levels with this experiment.

H9: Sex Appeal-Football

Hypothesis 9 predicted that sex-appeal would play a significant role in viewers' enjoyment levels. Similar to H21 for hockey, this hypothesis was not supported. Even though football features more sex-appeal than hockey, this hypothesis was not shown to be significant. Sex-appeal seemed to play no major role in viewers' enjoyment levels.

H10: Significant Other-Football

If H10 were correct, those who reported watching football because their significant other watches it would have reported to enjoy watching the football clips more than those who did not report watching football because their significant other watches it. One factor that was not taken into consideration was whether or not the participants had a significant other at the time the surveys were taken. It is possible that the results were skewed with this particular hypothesis due to the fact that it may not have applied to certain people. For future research, first asking participants if they have a significant other might have yielded different results for this particular hypothesis.

H11: Hanging out with Friends-Football

Hypothesis 11 speculated that those who watch football as a way to hang out with their friends would enjoy watching the football clips more than those who do not watch football as a way to hang out with their friends. Hocking (1982) and Eastman and Land (1977) found that fans who gathered to watch games at sports bars and other related venues did so because they sought social contact and a unique sense of community. While this hypothesis was not supported, it also was not proven to be the opposite. The

participants might have simply felt that they simply enjoy watching football regardless of their surroundings, settings, or societal influences. Since there was no survey question that took into account the preferred setting for watching a football game, the results might have yielded different data if the participants' favorite venue were taken into consideration.

H12: Gender-Football

Hypothesis 12, along with H24, yielded the most significant results of the experiment. Men enjoyed watching the football clips more than the women participants. It is also interesting to note that the female participants outnumbered the male participants nearly two to one in this study, yet the men still reported more significant results. Football as a whole is a male dominated sport, making this particular hypothesis outcome expected.

H13: Enjoyment-Hockey

If H13 were significant, those who watched the hockey clips with audio would have reported higher levels of enjoyment than those who watched the non-audio versions of the same clips. Similar to H1, the sports commentary did not prove to be significant in viewers' enjoyment levels. However, the results also showed that the participants generally enjoyed each individual hockey video clip, regardless of the production value (audio or non-audio). Participants seemed to enjoy the clips regardless of which version or sport they were viewing. Since hockey is not as mainstream as football, participants who were assigned to the audio section could have been more intrigued by the visual aspects of what they were viewing versus paying too much attention to what the announcers were saying.

H14: Excitement-Hockey

If H14 were correct, those who watched the hockey clips with audio would have reported higher levels of excitement versus those who watched the non-audio versions of the same clips. Similar to H2, the sports commentary was not found to be a significant factor in the participants' excitement levels. Since previous studies have shown that sports commentators often mediate sports experiences through their own eyes, it is possible that the levels of perceived violence witnessed were different between the announcers and the viewers, comparable to H2.

H15: Enthusiastic Fans-Hockey

Hypothesis 15 speculated that those who reported to be enthusiastic fans of hockey would enjoy watching the hockey clips with audio more than those who did not profess to be enthusiastic fans of hockey. Just like H3, this hypothesis was not supported. Again, sports commentary was not found to have a significant relationship with the viewers' levels of fanship. Since all participants were randomly assigned to only one sports group, levels of fanship were not known until after the participant had finished the experiment.

H16: Pre-game Rituals-Hockey

If H16 were significant, those who reported to watch hockey for the pre-game rituals would have also enjoyed watching the hockey clips more than those who said they did not watch hockey for the pre-game rituals. Unlike H4, this hypothesis was found to be not significant. This could be due to the fact that hockey features less pre-game rituals than does football. While hockey fans are known to be a special breed with their own

unique rituals, as a whole, televised hockey does not feature as much pre-game commentary, cheerleaders, or televised graphics as football does.

H17: Excitement-Hockey

Hypothesis 17 speculated that those who reported to watch hockey because it is exciting would enjoy watching the hockey clips more so than those who do not watch hockey because it is exciting. This hypothesis was not supported. Similar to H14, levels of excitement did not correlate with enjoyment. Similar to many of the other hockey results, non-hockey fans that participated in the hockey part of the experiment might have influenced the data. It could simply have meant that if they were indeed non-hockey fans, they were uninterested in this particular portion of the experiment.

H18: Suspense-Hockey

Unlike H6, H18 was found to be not significant meaning that the factor of suspense did not play a significant role in viewer enjoyment levels. This particular outcome went against previous studies, showing that suspense was not an important factor for enjoying the hockey clips. Even though football is a common and well-known sport, the unpredictability of each play creates suspense for the viewer. Unlike hockey, football news is prevalent throughout sports media, therefore possibly causing the participants to be more emotionally invested with the football clips that they viewed. Previous studies have shown that the level of enjoyment is heightened due to the level of suspense (Knobloch-Westerwick, David, Eastin, Tamborini, & Greenwood, 2009; Peterson & Raney, 2008). The outcome of this hypothesis could be different from H6 due to the fact that the participants found hockey to be a more predictable sport. Hockey has the reputation of being violent and very combative; perhaps the viewers who came into

the experiment expecting to see hard hits, fights, and other violent acts. Prior studies have also found that suspense is created when situations arise that promote the certainty of a feared outcome (2009; 2008). Since H6 was shown to be significant and H18 was not, it is possible that the participants did not care about any outcome of the clips.

H19: Team Connections-Hockey

Unlike H7, H19 was found to be not significant meaning that participant emotions played no important factor in their enjoyment levels with hockey. Since hockey is not as nationally popular as football, it is possible that the participants had no favorite hockey team to refer to. If more football fans than hockey fans took the hockey survey, they may be indifferent to whether a particular team wins or loses. If fanship was taken into consideration before the main study began, the results may have yielded more significant results.

H20: Team Connections-Hockey

Unlike H8, H20 was found to be not significant meaning that participant emotions played no important factor in their enjoyment levels with hockey. Similar to H19, it is possible that the participants had no favorite hockey team going into the experiment. As mentioned with the previous hypothesis, fanship was not taken into consideration before the main study began. If that fact were reversed, the results may have yielded more significant results.

H21: Sex Appeal-Hockey

If H21 were supported, those who reported watching hockey for the sex appeal would have enjoyed the hockey clips more than those who did not report to watch hockey for the sex appeal. According to previous studies, all major sports use the seventh

entertainment stimuli, sex appeal, in some way or another (Beck & Bosshart, 2003). While some teams display this in more obvious and noticeable ways than others, sex appeal is one of the most commonly used tactics in sports, aimed at both men and women. This hypothesis could have been unsupported due to the fact that hockey does not feature as much sex appeal during televised broadcasts as football commonly portrays, nor does the sport feature the likes of cheerleaders dancers during any halftime performances. While hockey is certainly not immune to using sex appeal, it is simply not as common compared to other sports.

H22: Significant Other-Hockey

If H22 were correct, those who reported to watch hockey because their significant other watches it would have reported to enjoy watching the hockey clips more than those who did not report watching hockey because their significant other watches it. Similar to H10, one factor that was not taken into consideration was whether or not the participants had a significant other at the time the surveys were taken. It is possible that the results were skewed with this hypothesis as well due to the fact that it may not have applied to certain people.

H23: Hanging out with Friends-Hockey

Hypothesis 23 speculated that those who watch hockey as a way to hang out with their friends would enjoy watching the hockey clips more than those who do not watch hockey as a way to hang out with their friends. Similar to H11, the participants might have simply felt that they like to watch hockey regardless of the surroundings. Since there was no survey question that took into account the preferred setting for watching a

hockey game, the results might have yielded different data if the participants' favorite venue were taken into consideration.

H24: Gender-Hockey

Hypothesis 24 yielded significant results. Comparable to the results within football, men enjoyed watching the hockey clips more than women. As a whole, females outnumbered males almost two to one in this study, yet the men still reported more significant results in this particular area of the experiment. Similar to football, hockey is a male dominated sport, making this particular outcome expected. As with previous studies, this does not show that women disliked the clips, only that the men reported more significant findings.

Enjoyment

As previously discussed, the intensity of sports commentary, the participants' levels of fanship, and gender have been shown to have the greatest impact on whether or not someone enjoys watching violent sports (Beck & Bosshart, 2003; Helland, 2007; Peterson & Raney, 2008; Raney & Depalma, 2006; Raney & Kinnally, 2009; Sullivan, 1991). These factors were used in the main study portion of the experiment and as a whole did not yield many significant results. While sports commentary, fanship, and gender are still important issues with regards to enjoyment levels, this study's results showed that those variables played only minor roles. Of those factors, the issue of gender was one of the only significant data results. With the exception of a few significant results within the football portion, sports commentary and fanship had very little to do with the participants' perceived levels of enjoyment, especially within the sport of hockey.

Sports Commentary

As discussed in previous chapters, prior studies have found that sports commentators often highlight a range of moments in sporting events (Bryant, Brown, Comisky, & Zillmann, 2006; Bryant, Comisky, & Zillmann, 1977; Comisky, Bryant, & Zillmann, 1977; Sullivan, 1991). Announcers will routinely use their skills to emphasize different plays within games. For randomly chosen groups in both the manipulation tests and the main study, non-audio versions of the video clips were shown. In the main study, data for audio and non-audio groups were compared to see if the broadcasters' commentary made any difference in the viewer's level of enjoyment. Even though some hypotheses showed significant results, as a whole, audio had no significant showing within the data. Those who watched the video clips with audio did not show to enjoy the clips more so than the participants who watched the non-audio version of the same clips. While further research could be done to further investigate the use of sports commentary, this study showed that sports commentary did not alter the viewers' perceptions of the game. Since not one of the participants viewed both the audio and non-audio version of any of the clips, further research on this subject could possibly yield a different outcome if that particular factor were to be applied.

Fanship

Throughout this study, it was discussed that a viewer's level of fanship significantly contributes to how someone connects to a game. Using a model based off the one done by Bryant, Comisky, and Zillman (1981), participants were asked to measure their level of fanship by answering questions that pertained to their disposition toward either football or hockey. The answers given by the respondents showed how little

or how much a commitment towards a particular sport affects a viewer's perceived level of enjoyment. Differing from Bryant, Comisky, and Zillmann's (1981) study, fanship was not taken into consideration until the main study. In the previous experiment, the participants had to rate themselves as a sports fan in order to participate in their main study. In this current study's manipulation tests, fanship was not tested, as all participants, regardless of levels of fanship, were encouraged to participate.

As a whole, this study found that the participants' levels of fanship played no significant factor in their enjoyment of either the football or hockey video clips. While men reported higher levels of enjoyment for both sports versus females, few other factors stood out, especially with hockey. In general, fanship rated a little higher with football than it did with hockey. This could be due to the fact that the sport of football, especially the NFL, is a more popular, mainstream, and talked about sport. Stories surrounding the NFL remain in the media long after the football season has ended. The NHL, on the other hand, remains elusive for many general sports fans. If this study had been conducted on the east coast where hockey is more prevalent, perhaps the data regarding hockey fanship would have yielded more significant results.

Gender

Previous studies have found that more men than women admit to being sports fans (Gantz, Wang, Paul, & Potter, 2006; Kennedy, 2000). As a whole, sporting events are the only televised programs that naturally attract more males than females (Kennedy, 2000). Similar to the study done by Bryant, Comisky, and Zillmann (1981), the viewer's gender was one of the only significant interactions involved. Males reported to enjoy both the football and hockey clips more than the females. It should be noted that in the

previous study, an equal number of males and females were used as participants. In this current study, the number of female participants outnumbered the males almost two to one, yet still the males reported higher enjoyment levels than the females. In general, males have always had a more personal connection with sports while different factors including social expectations might lower females' enjoyment levels with sports (Dunning, 1986; Hill, 2005; Watterson, 2000).

Uses and Gratifications Theory

As discussed in Chapter 2, the uses and gratifications theory suggested that as a whole, most viewing audiences use the media to suite varying needs and desires. Whether or not a viewer realizes their emotional needs are being met, a level of psychological communication is nonetheless in force. In this experiment, the psychological element of a viewer's enjoyment was the main variable that was tested. While other previously discussed outside factors could have played a role in the final results, another factor relating to the uses and gratifications theory that could have influenced the outcomes was that of narcotizing dysfunction. This particular term describes a viewing audience that has become so inundated with a particular issue in modern society that they become apathetic to it; they do not realize the social consequences of their mass media consumption. This experiment's outcomes could have been a result of the participant's desensitization to the subject of sports violence. Even though the level of media consumption was not tested in this experiment, it is possible that the participants have become accustomed to images of sports violence that they came into the testing area with a pre-conceived idea of what they were going to witness. Images and videos of hard football tackles or extreme hockey hits could have been nothing out of the ordinary,

therefore possibly making the results not as significant as they otherwise could have been.

The factor of suspense within football resulted in significant findings possibly due to the nature of the variable. While the participants who viewed the football clips might be familiar with the game overall, no one person can precisely predict what will happen within a game. They might anticipate an outcome, but cannot possibly know what the final results will be. Pre-game rituals were another variable that showed significant results within football. The uses and gratifications theory states that users of a media type base their choice on whether it will fulfill a particular need. Their unspoken need for a social environment relating to a sporting event could have impacted the results in that particular area. Other than gender, the final significant results found in this study were that of the participants' emotions when their favorite team won or lost a game. Similar to what the theory suggests, this particular variable stands its ground. If the participants truly watch sports to fulfill psychological needs, then their emotions are likely to change based on a game's outcome.

Strengths of this Study

This study was intended to update an experiment done by Bryant, Comisky, & Zillman (1981) from over three decades ago. By taking into account the ever-changing rules and guidelines within the sports of football and hockey, this study brought a fresh and different approach to how sports violence is studied. Rules for both sports have drastically changed over the past 30 years. What was once acceptable in the 1980s is considered against the rules of sports today. This experiment brought about testable results clearly representing viewer's perceived enjoyment levels by testing sports

commentary, fanship, and gender. While many of the hypotheses were not supported, this study had some strengths that can be used for any possible future research.

Although Bryant, Comisky, and Zillmann's (1981) study only looked at televised football, this current experiment took into account more variables, especially other factors used by other researchers who did similar experiments.. By looking at more previous studies on the issue of sports violence, sports commentary, fanship, and gender were the three main variables that stood out across the board as influencing viewer's enjoyment levels. To test this theory, these variables were added to the current study to see if modern day sports plays showed any of these previous findings to still be significant.

Another strength of this study was that it was conducted in an environment intended to closely match what the participants might experience outside the testing area. A room with couches and a big screen television was used to give the participants a home viewing experience, unlike Bryant, Comisky, and Zillmann's (1981) study which did not take participant comfort into consideration. Having the study participants watch the video clips on a classroom projector while sitting at desks would not have closely matched a home viewing environment. Even though participants were told not to converse with one another about their survey answers, they were allowed to react to the video clips however they thought it would be appropriate. This allowed the participants to not only watch the video clips in a home-like environment, but to react how they naturally might during a televised sporting event. This set-up was designed for the purpose of trying to eliminate as many distractions as possible, and to make it feel different than just an average classroom atmosphere.

The general overview of the experiment was done in a similar way to Bryant, Comisky, and Zillmann's (1981) study. For both studies, participants were told that they were going to view sports clips, and that they were to fill out the corresponding survey questions after each clip. The participants rated their answers on Likert-type scales and were told that there were no right or wrong answers; they were encouraged to fill out their surveys to the best of their ability answering each statement how they best felt it ranked their opinion. As was done previously, when the experiment finished, subjects were dismissed and were later given extra credit for their participation in the respective study. The overall setup was the same between the prior study and this present one in order to alleviate any possible limitations in that area of the experiment.

Weaknesses of this Study

One weakness in this study was that it was carried out in an experimental setting. While the testing area tried to simulate a home viewing environment, average television viewers do not spend their time watching sports while trying to answer survey questions that correspond to each game play, which is what participants were asked to do for this experiment. This could have resulted in an unintentional limitation with the results. The typical sports game includes commercials, television graphics, and other media tools, none of which were included in this study. Although these features were left out intentionally, not including any of these aspects might possibly have influenced participants' survey answers.

Another weakness with this study was that it relied on human participants for the experiment. Even though extra credit was offered to all possible participants, the manipulation tests began the third week of the Spring 2013 semester, which could have

resulted in an initial low respondent turnout. The main study, however, started in the last few weeks of the semester, which could explain the more robust turnout for the second half of the study. Moving the manipulation tests to begin later on in the semester could have prevented the length of time it took to complete the first part of the experiment. Respondent vision was also not studied or taken into consideration for this study. Any impairment with eyesight could have impacted how well the viewer saw the video clips on the television screen. Since everyone has their own subjective view, no two participants could have seen the clips in the exact same way. Personal distractions, background noise, or other miscellaneous factors could have played a role in viewer responses.

Although not necessarily a limitation in this study, fanship was not taken into consideration before any experiment began. This variable was not taken into account at all during the manipulation tests, and it was not dealt with in the main study until the participants had already been assigned to a particular sports group (football or hockey). It is possible that those who were already football fans were assigned to the hockey group and therefore did not enjoy the video clips as much. The opposite could be true as well. Those who would claim to be hockey fans might have been assigned to the football group, affecting their survey answers. If the participants' levels of fanship towards either football or hockey had been determined beforehand, it could have resulted in very different data. However, it could have also meant that those who would not have professed to be fans of either sport would have been left out. Even though this detail was a deviation from Bryant, Comisky, and Zillmann's (1981) study, it could be something that could be revised for possible future research.

Future Research

Even though this study was extensive and included many variables, going forward a more narrow focus on just one variable might yield different results. If this type of research is done in the future, it may want to focus on just sports commentary, fanship, or gender. Going into more detail with any of the variables might yield further suggestions as to why sports commentary, fanship, and gender are important factors in viewer's perceived levels of enjoyment while watching televised sports. It is possible that these factors could have influenced one another in this study, and removing variables going forward might minimize any possible limitations.

This experiment only focused on two sports, football and hockey. Although they are considered to be violent, contact sports, taking into account different sporting events would most likely produce different results. Comparing a lesser violent sport, such as baseball, to either football or hockey would mostly likely show a more significant difference with viewer enjoyment levels. Looking into other sports such as NASCAR, MMA, or the UFC might also be worthy of pursuit. Focusing on sports that thrive off more violent acts would offer interesting comparisons with previous studies. Since sports such as MMA and the UFC have not been extensively studied in modern day research, future researchers might want to include these sports in their potential studies.

Finally, future research must take into consideration the ever changing environment in the atmosphere of sports. As athletes continue to test the limits of what they can and cannot get away with, rules will continue to be adjusted. If a similar study were to be done a decade from now, new game rules would have to be applied. Similar to the design done by Bryant, Comisky, and Zillmann (1981), all the video clips showed

action that was within the rules of game. One limitation the previous study listed was that survey results could very well be different if more violent sports plays were shown. This current study's video clips were chosen for the sports commentary factor, not for the visual aspect of what was happening on the screen. Going forward, there will be no shortage of football and hockey hits, and the realm of future plays to choose from will only increase as the years go on. Even if the current rules within each sport continue to get stricter, players will undoubtedly find a way to defy the rules. If a similar study were to be done in the future, choosing more violent plays-ones that are outside the rules of the sports-should be taken into consideration. Comparing results from previous research and this current study could be a benefit to see if more violent action plays any significant factor in viewers' perceived enjoyment levels while watching televised football and hockey.

Conclusion

This study used Bryant, Comisky, and Zillmann's (1981) research as the main backdrop for the experiment. However, it also combined multiple previous studies that also researched the effects of sports commentary, fanship, and gender. This study's purpose was to use sports commentary, fanship, and gender as variables to see if viewers' level of enjoyment was affected while watching sports violence through televised professional football and hockey clips. While assorted factors play into each variable, past research studies have formulated that televised sports violence causes fans, non-fans, men, and women alike to enjoy individual games more when an increased amount of violence is depicted. This study used similar methods as previous approaches to see if the same results emerged. As a whole, the only variable that showed to be a significant factor

was gender. Sports commentary and fanship yielded mostly insignificant results. However, pre-game rituals, suspense, and fans' emotions (feeling happy or disappointed) within football were supported as influencing enjoyment levels. Hockey did not yield any significant results other than the variable of gender.

While the study of sports violence is considered to be a subset of the broader topic of media violence, it continues to be an attractive area of research. This experiment took into account the most recent rules of football and hockey, as both sports have created new rules and regulations regarding violence within their respective sports. Future research should take into account any future rule changes within each sport. Since both football and hockey are violent sports, there will be no shortage of possible, new stimulus materials going forward. Since many consider television to be "the cultural democracy-exercised by knob-twirling or button-pushing viewers-that it appears to be, we should expect violence in sports to be a phenomenon that will stay with us for many years to come" (Bryant, Comisky, and Zillmann, 1981, p. 261).

Even though this study used prior research as its basis for the experiment, many of the results did not parallel that of past studies. Similar to the study from Bryant, Comisky, and Zillmann (1981), gender was the only significant factor in both sports. Within the entertainment stimuli that the media use, pre-game rituals, suspense and fans' emotions (feeling happy or disappointed) were the only other stimuli that appeared to hold true. Since past research did not have the opportunity to use modern day football and hockey rules within their experiments, the rulings on athlete safety could be a bigger factor than originally thought. Perhaps eliminating (or attempting to eliminate) violence from the sports of football and hockey has had a major impact on viewers' enjoyment

levels. Even though players' safety should always be of utmost importance, games may not be as enjoyable to sports fans without the strong possibility of violent play.

Throughout this study, it was also found that the element of sports commentary was seen to play only a minor role in enjoyment levels. Participants' enjoyment levels did not waver whether they viewed the audio or non-audio versions of the sports clips. Perhaps society has become immune to what the announcers say that they have learned to just tune out the broadcasters, or it could mean that society might be more well versed with football and hockey and can figure out for themselves what is happening on the field of play, without the announcers' help. This study's findings could be used as a starting point for future research, aiding in the future re-evaluation of sports violence. Years from now, researchers may want to again test the variables of sports commentary, fanship, and gender to see if they still are the three main factors in viewer's perceived enjoyment levels (although gender was shown to be highly significant with this study). If multiple future studies yield the same results as this current research, perhaps a new norm is beginning to emerge.

APPENDIX A: EXAMPLE OF MANIPULATION TEST SURVEY - FOOTBALL

For the following statements, please place an “X” indicating how much you disagree or agree with each statement. Be as honest as possible, marking only ONE answer for each statement. Keep in mind your answers will be confidential.

Clip 1:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I would consider this to be violent.	()	()	()	()	()
2. I enjoyed watching this particular football play.	()	()	()	()	()
3. This football clip was exciting to watch.	()	()	()	()	()

Please await further instructions before proceeding to the next page. Thank you.

Clip 2:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
4. I would consider this to be violent.	()	()	()	()	()
5. I enjoyed watching this particular football play.	()	()	()	()	()
6. This football clip was exciting to watch.	()	()	()	()	()

Please await further instructions before proceeding to the next page. Thank you.

Clip 3:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
7. I would consider this to be violent.	()	()	()	()	()
8. I enjoyed watching this particular football play.	()	()	()	()	()
9. This football clip was exciting to watch.	()	()	()	()	()

Please await further instructions. Thank you.

APPENDIX B: EXAMPLE OF MANIPULATION TEST SURVEY - HOCKEY

For the following statements, please place an “X” indicating how much you disagree or agree with each statement. Be as honest as possible, marking only ONE answer for each statement. Keep in mind your answers will be confidential.

Clip 1:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I would consider this to be violent.	()	()	()	()	()
2. I enjoyed watching this particular hockey play.	()	()	()	()	()
3. This hockey clip was exciting to watch.	()	()	()	()	()

Please await further instructions before proceeding to the next page. Thank you.

Clip 2:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
4. I would consider this to be violent.	()	()	()	()	()
5. I enjoyed watching this particular hockey play.	()	()	()	()	()
6. This hockey clip was exciting to watch.	()	()	()	()	()

Please await further instructions before proceeding to the next page. Thank you.

Clip 3:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
7. I would consider this to be violent.	()	()	()	()	()
8. I enjoyed watching this particular hockey play.	()	()	()	()	()
9. This hockey clip was exciting to watch.	()	()	()	()	()

Please await further instructions. Thank you.

APPENDIX C: MAIN STUDY SURVEY INSTRUMENT - FOOTBALL

Please place an “X” indicating how much you disagree or agree with each statement. Be as honest as possible. Keep in mind that your answers will be confidential. Please mark only ONE answer for each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I consider myself to be a fan of professional football.	()	()	()	()	()
2. I consider myself to be an enthusiastic fan of professional football.	()	()	()	()	()
3. I watch professional football because of the pre-game rituals.	()	()	()	()	()
4. I watch professional football because it is exciting.	()	()	()	()	()
5. I watch professional football because it is suspenseful.	()	()	()	()	()
6. I feel happy when my favorite team wins a football game.	()	()	()	()	()
7. I feel disappointed when my favorite team loses a football game.	()	()	()	()	()
8. I watch professional football for the sex appeal during the broadcast.	()	()	()	()	()

9. I watch professional football because my significant other watches it. () () () () ()
10. I watch professional football as a way to hang out with my friends. () () () () ()

Please sit quietly until you receive further instructions. Thank you.

For the next series of statements, please place an “X” indicating how much you disagree or agree with the statement. Be as honest as possible. Keep in mind your answers will be confidential. Please mark only ONE answer for each statement.

Clip 1:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
11. I would consider this to be violent.	()	()	()	()	()
12. I enjoyed watching this particular football play.	()	()	()	()	()
13. This football clip was exciting to watch.	()	()	()	()	()

Clip 2:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
14. I would consider this to be violent.	()	()	()	()	()
15. I enjoyed watching this particular football play.	()	()	()	()	()
16. This football clip was exciting to watch.	()	()	()	()	()

Please place an “X” next to the answer that best describes you. Please remember that your answers will remain confidential.

1. Gender: Man () Woman ()

APPENDIX D: MAIN STUDY SURVEY INSTRUMENT - HOCKEY

Please place an “X” indicating how much you disagree or agree with each statement. Be as honest as possible. Keep in mind that your answers will be confidential. Please mark only ONE answer for each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I consider myself to be a fan of professional hockey.	()	()	()	()	()
2. I consider myself to be an enthusiastic fan of professional hockey.	()	()	()	()	()
3. I watch professional hockey because of the pre-game rituals.	()	()	()	()	()
4. I watch professional hockey because it is exciting.	()	()	()	()	()
5. I watch professional hockey because it is suspenseful.	()	()	()	()	()
6. I feel happy when my favorite team wins a hockey game.	()	()	()	()	()
7. I feel disappointed when my favorite team loses a hockey game.	()	()	()	()	()

8. I watch professional hockey for the sex appeal during the broadcast. () () () () ()
9. I watch professional hockey because my significant other watches it. () () () () ()
10. I watch professional hockey as a way to hang out with my friends. () () () () ()

Please sit quietly until you receive further instructions. Thank you.

For the next series of questions, please place an “X” indicating how much you disagree or agree with the statements. Be as honest as possible. Keep in mind your answers will be confidential. Please mark only ONE answer for each statement.

Clip 1:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
11. I would consider this to be violent.	()	()	()	()	()
12. I enjoyed watching this particular hockey play.	()	()	()	()	()
13. This hockey clip was exciting to watch.	()	()	()	()	()

Clip 2:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
14. I would consider this to be violent.	()	()	()	()	()
15. I enjoyed watching this particular hockey play.	()	()	()	()	()
16. This hockey clip was exciting to watch.	()	()	()	()	()

Clip 3:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
17. I would consider this to be violent.	()	()	()	()	()
18. I enjoyed watching this particular hockey play.	()	()	()	()	()
19. This hockey clip was exciting to watch.	()	()	()	()	()

Please place an “X” next to the answer that best describes you. Please remember that your answers will remain confidential.

1. Gender: Man () Woman ()

APPENDIX E: SCRIPT READ FOR RECRUITMENT

I would like to thank [Professor's Name] for letting me take some of her/his class time to talk to you. My name is Sarah Vineyard, and I am a graduate student here at UNLV. I am conducting an experiment for my Master's thesis in which I need volunteers. In exchange for helping me out and participating in my experiment, [Professor's Name] has been generous enough to offer extra credit in this class to each of you who qualify, and participate, in my experiment. To qualify for participation in this experiment, you must be at least 18 years of age. This experiment essentially involves watching video clips that have to do with sports violence, specifically NFL and NHL plays for no more than ten minutes at the most and filling out survey questions. It will take place on [DATES] throughout the day. There will be multiple sessions throughout the day in which you can participate. If you would like to volunteer, please sign up on one of the sign up sheets outside of Dr. Paul Traudt's office, in the Greenspun College of Urban Affairs building, office #2140. You can only register and get credit for one session. You can also only register and get extra credit for one class. You must complete

the entire session for credit...no partial credit will be allotted. Participation is completely voluntary. By successfully participating in this experiment, you will receive two-percent extra credit in this class. If this particular project's extra credit is offered to you in another class, you can only receive this credit in one of the classes. Therefore, you must choose which class you want the credit for at the time of the experiment...you will not receive credit in both. For those of you who do not qualify for participation in this experiment, those under 18 years of age, and/or those with a high level of vision impairment, and/or any of you who do not want to participate in this experiment, there is another alternative exercise which will earn you the same amount of extra credit. To receive that credit you will need to find a recent article at the library that deals with sports violence. You will then write a two-page, double-spaced paper discussing that article. Your paper should follow APA guidelines and should have the proper citation and a link to the article at the top of the page. Be sure, in the header of your paper, that you include the class for which you would like to receive this extra credit. Your paper should be submitted electronically to me via my e-mail address. I will evaluate your paper and communicate your completion of extra-credit requirements to your course instructor. The details regarding your alternative assignment are as follows:

- You will need to find a recent article about sports violence available the Lied Library's electronic databases.
- Complete a two-page paper reviewing/discussing the article.
- Formatting the paper
 - The top of your paper should have your name, the name and number of the class for which you want credit, and the professor's name.

- After your name/class/professor's name, the paper should start with a link and proper citation of the article.
- The article will be emailed to Dr. Paul Traudt at paul.traudt@unlv.edu by February 27. No late work will be accepted. The papers will then be emailed to each respective professor for you to receive the extra credit. The professors will be the ones who will be grading the papers.
- The paper will be graded on a pass/fail basis. No partial credit will be given. Please remember to write your name, the class name and number, and the professor's name so you can be given your extra credit.
- This paper is worth 2% extra credit, the same amount available to those participating in my experiment. However, you can only receive credit for participating in the experiment or by completing the paper, but not both.

APPENDIX F: SCRIPT READ TO RESPONDENTS

Manipulation Tests

Please do not communicate with others while this experiment is being conducted. Please read this cover page material to yourselves as I read it out loud for everybody. “For the following statements, please place an “X” indicating how much you disagree or agree with each statement. Be as honest as possible, marking only ONE answer for each statement. Keep in mind your answers will be confidential.”

You are about to be shown three, separate, video clips, each containing a particular sports play. After each video clip, please record your responses to the appropriate part of the survey (Ex: after clip number one, please record your responses under Clip 1 ONLY!). Please refrain from recording any responses for any of the other clips other than the one you currently viewed. Please know that there are no right or wrong answers. What is important to this test is your perceptions of each video clip. Any Questions so far?

Now, turn the page and look at your response form. You will notice there are three statements with each response ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. As

said before, after each video clip, please record your answer with an “X.” marking which response best represents your feelings. Please mark only one answer for each statement.

This sequence will be repeated until all 3 clips have been shown. Any Questions?

So to review. You will watch 3 video clips and record your responses to each statement immediately after viewing each video clip. Any last Questions?

Script Read to Respondents After They Have Conducted the Experiment

Thank you for your participation in this study. I now ask that you do not discuss this experiment with others, especially with those who have not already participated in this experiment. Now please clearly print your name, the name of the class you want to be notified of your participation in this experiment & the class’ call number (such as JOUR 101) and professors name on the index cards that will be passed around. Before you leave, please hand in your index card and completed survey. Again, thank you for your participation.

Main Study

Please do not communicate with others while this experiment is being conducted. Please read this cover page material to yourselves as I read it out loud for everybody. You are about to be shown 3, separate, video clips, each containing a particular sports play. After each video clip, please record your responses to the appropriate part of the survey (Ex: after clip number one, please record your responses under Clip 1 ONLY!). Please refrain from recording any responses for any of the other clips other than the one you currently viewed. Please know that there are no right or wrong answers. What is

important to this test is your perceptions of each video clip. So by rating your perceptions you are doing great and helping this research. Any Questions?

Now, turn the page and look at your response form. You will notice there are 10 statements with each response ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Before we begin watching the video clips, please take a few minutes and fill out the following questions....

Now, we are ready for the video clips. After each video clip, please record your answer with an "X." The responses range from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Your answer should best represent your feelings. Please mark only one answer for each statement. This sequence will be repeated until all 3 clips have been shown. After the last clip has been shown, and you have recorded your response, please turn to the final page and answer the last question. Any Questions?

So to review. You will first fill out a 10 question survey, then proceed to watch 3 video clips and record your responses to each statement immediately after viewing each video clip. Finally, you will answer one last question at the end. Any Questions?

Script Read to Respondents After They Have Conducted the Experiment

Thank you for your participation in this study. I now ask that you do not discuss this experiment with others, especially with who have not already participated in this experiment. Now please clearly print your name, the name of the class you want to be notified of your participation in this experiment, the class' call number and professors name on these sheets of paper that will passed around. Before you leave, please hand me those sheets of paper with your name, class number, and professors' name for you to receive your extra credit. Again, thank you for your participation.

APPENDIX G: IRB APPROVAL



**Social/Behavioral IRB – Exempt Review
Deemed Exempt**

DATE: October 30, 2012

TO: Dr. Paul Traudt, Journalism and Media Studies

FROM: Office of Research Integrity – Human Subjects

RE: Notification of IRB Action
Protocol Title: **The Perceived Level of Enjoyment in Sports Violence: An Experiment Examining how Sports Commentary, Fanship, and Gender Affect Viewer Emotions**
Protocol # 1203-4077M

This memorandum is notification that the project referenced above has been reviewed as indicated in Federal regulatory statutes 45CFR46 and deemed exempt under 45 CFR 46.101(b)2.

PLEASE NOTE:

Upon Approval, the research team is responsible for conducting the research as stated in the exempt application reviewed by the ORI – HS and/or the IRB which shall include using the most recently submitted Informed Consent/Assent Forms (Information Sheet) and recruitment materials. The official versions of these forms are indicated by footer which contains the date exempted.

Any changes to the application may cause this project to require a different level of IRB review. Should any changes need to be made, please submit a **Modification Form**. When the above-referenced project has been completed, please submit a **Continuing Review/Progress Completion report** to notify ORI – HS of its closure.

APPENDIX H: INFORMED CONSENT



INFORMED CONSENT

Department of Journalism and Media Studies

TITLE OF STUDY: The Perceived Level of Enjoyment in Sports Violence: An Experiment
Examining how Sports Commentary, Fanship, and Gender Affect Viewer Emotions

INVESTIGATOR(S): 2

CONTACT PHONE NUMBER: (702) 265-7311

Purpose of the Study

You are invited to participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to determine the perceived levels of enjoyment in sports violence through the variables of sports commentary, fanship, and gender.

Participants

You are being asked to participate in the study because you fit this criterion: You are a student of higher education.

Procedures

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following: View 3 separate video clips containing sports violence (either professional football or hockey plays) and rate your perception of each video clip.

Benefits of Participation

There may/may not be direct benefits to you as a participant in this study. However, we hope to learn if sports commentary, fanship, and gender affect viewer enjoyment levels.

Risks of Participation

There are risks involved in all research studies. This study may include only minimal risks. *The risks are minimal as subjects may feel uncomfortable viewing video clips that contain sports violence.*

Cost /Compensation

There may not be financial cost to you to participate in this study. The study will take less than an hour of your time. You will not be compensated for your time.

Contact Information

TITLE OF STUDY: THE PERCEIVED LEVEL OF ENJOYMENT IN SPORTS VIOLENCE: AN EXPERIEMENT EXAMINING HOW SPORTS COMMENTARY, FANSHIP, AND GENDER AFFECT VIEWER EMOTIONS.

Integrity – Human Subjects at 702-895-2794 or toll free at 877-895-2794 or via email at IRB@unlv.edu.

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate in this study or in any part of this study. You may withdraw at any time without prejudice to your relations with the university. You are encouraged to ask questions about this study at the beginning or any time during the research study.

Confidentiality

All information gathered in this study will be kept completely confidential. No reference will be made in written or oral materials that could link you to this study. All records will be stored in a locked facility at UNLV for at least 3 years after completion of the study. After the storage time the information gathered will be destroyed.

Participant Consent:

I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study. I am at least 18 years of age. A copy of this form has been given to me.

Signature of Participant

Date

Participant Name (Please Print)

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