DETERMINANTS OF PSL TEAM BRAND LOYALTY AMONGST BLACK GENERATION Y STUDENTS

Thabang Excellent Mofokeng
(M Tech)

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

Philosophiae Doctor

in
Marketing Management
at the
Vaal Triangle Campus
of the
North-West University

Promoter: Prof A.L. Bevan-Dye
Co-promoter: Prof N. de Klerk

Vanderbijlpark
2016
DECLARATION

I declare that: **DETERMINANTS OF PSL TEAM BRAND LOYALTY AMONGST BLACK GENERATION Y STUDENTS** is my own work; that all sources used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references, and that this mini-dissertation was not previously submitted by me or any other person for degree purposes at this or any other university.

__________________________  _________________________
SIGNATURE                   DATE
LETTER FROM THE LANGUAGE EDITOR

Ms Angeliki Albanis
English Language Editing
SATI membership number: 1003365
Tel: 061 466 6783
E-mail: angeliki.albanis@gmail.com

18 April 2016

To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that I, the undersigned, have language edited the completed research of Thabang Excellent Mofokeng for the Philosophiae Doctor thesis entitled *Determinants of PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students*.

The responsibility of implementing the recommended language changes rests with the author of the thesis.

Yours truly,


Angeliki Albanis
This thesis is dedicated to my mom, Julia Mofokeng.

Thank you for your unconditional love, endless support and for constantly encouraging me to pursue my dreams.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I praise God, the Almighty for giving me His wisdom and strength to complete this thesis.

I wish to express my sincere gratitude and deep appreciation to several people who played a major role in the completion of this thesis.

➢ To my study promoter, Professor Ayesha Bevan-Dye, for her advice, expertise, and invaluable guidance. I have great appreciation for the way she guided me.

➢ To my co-promoter, Professor Natasha de Klerk for her assistance.

➢ To Ms Aldine Oosthuyzen of the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus) for her assistance with the statistical and technical aspects of this thesis.

➢ To Ms Angeliki Albanis for language editing this thesis.

➢ To the ProGenY research entity at the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus) for their support and on-going commitment to profiling the consumer behaviour of the Generation Y cohort.

➢ To my family and friends for their encouragement and support.

➢ To my brother, Thapelo Prince Mofokeng - his career trip to Russia in 2014 was a great inspiration and motivation.

➢ To the South African black Generation Y participants who took part in the pilot and final study.

➢ To all the people who gave me motivation on a daily basis, including all the students whom I inspire both at the Vaal University of Technology (Vaal Triangle Campus) and the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus).

Thabang Excellent Mofokeng
Vanderbijlpark
2016
ABSTRACT

DETERMINANTS OF THE PSL TEAM BRAND LOYALTY AMONGST BLACK GENERATION Y

Keywords: South African Premier Soccer League, psychological commitment, behavioural commitment, team identification, soccer involvement, relationship quality, brand associations, black Generation Y students

In South Africa, the three sports that enjoy the most popularity in terms of spectatorship support are rugby, cricket and soccer, with local soccer being mainly supported by black South Africans, a population group who in 2015 made up approximately 80.5 percent of the population. The South African Premier Soccer League (PSL), first established in the 1996/1997 season, is the country’s top soccer league and is widely acknowledged for playing a significant role in improving the standard of local club soccer through attracting greater media exposure and funding from sponsors.

In terms of revenue, the PSL is mostly dependent upon broadcast deals and sponsorships from major businesses in South Africa, including financial service providers and cellular service providers, for its survival and success. The League’s ability to attract such lucrative deals is significantly influenced by the extent to which the clubs in the League manage to attract and maintain a passionate and loyal fan base. The concept of branding is essential to professional sport teams as it contributes to achieving a sport team’s long-term objectives, which is to increase team brand loyalty and, thereby, attract more or better sponsorship deals.

The continued survival of South Africa’s PSL teams is reliant on their ability to attract and retain the support of today’s youth – currently labelled Generation Y – particularly African Generation Y members (hereafter referred to as black Generation Y). Generation Y encompasses individuals born between 1986 and 2005. In 2015, members of the Generation Y cohort made up an estimated 38 percent of South Africa’s population, with members of the black Generation Y cohort accounting for 84 percent of the country’s Generation Y cohort and 32 percent of the country’s total population of approximately 54 956 920 people. PSL team marketers are likely to be particularly interested in the university student members of this race and age group because a tertiary education is
most often predictive of a higher future earning potential and stronger opinion leadership status. This infers that black Generation Y students’ interest in and support of PSL teams may influence the wider black Generation Y cohorts’ interest in and support of PSL teams.

The primary objective of this study was to develop and empirically test a model of the determinants of South African PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students. This entailed testing the influence of relationship-quality dimensions, brand-image dimensions, sport domain involvement and team identification as determinants of PSL team brand-loyalty amongst black Generation Y students in the South African market.

A self-administered questionnaire was distributed to a single cross-sectional sample of 289 black Generation Y students at three university campuses in the Gauteng province in 2013. The collected data was analysed by means of exploratory factor analysis, reliability and validity analysis, descriptive statistics and correlation analysis, and structural equation modelling.

The findings of this study suggest that the brand image dimensions of team success and team delivery have a direct positive influence on black Generation Y students’ psychological commitment towards their favourite PSL team, while the relationship quality dimensions of satisfaction and trust, together with soccer involvement have an indirect positive influence on this psychological commitment via their positive influence on team identification. Team identification has a direct positive influence on psychological commitment, which, in turn, has a significant positive influence on behavioural commitment.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION...................................................................................................................... i

LETTER FROM THE LANGUAGE EDITOR........................................................................ ii

DEDICATION......................................................................................................................... iii

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ......................................................................................................... iv

ABSTRACT............................................................................................................................... v

TABLE OF CONTENTS ........................................................................................................... vii

LIST OF TABLES ................................................................................................................... xiv

LIST OF FIGURES .................................................................................................................. xv

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT ........................................... 1

1.1 INTRODUCTION ............................................................................................................. 1

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT .................................................................................................. 3

1.3 STUDY OBJECTIVES ....................................................................................................... 4

1.3.1 Primary objective........................................................................................................... 4

1.3.2 Theoretical objectives .................................................................................................. 5

1.3.3 Empirical objectives ...................................................................................................... 6

1.4 HYPOTHESES .................................................................................................................. 6

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY .............................................................. 8

1.5.1 Literature review........................................................................................................... 8

1.5.2 Empirical study ............................................................................................................ 8

1.5.2.1 Target population....................................................................................................... 8

1.5.2.2 Sampling frame ........................................................................................................ 9

1.5.2.3 Sample method ....................................................................................................... 9

1.5.2.4 Sample size ............................................................................................................ 9

1.5.2.5 Measuring instrument and data collection method .................................................. 10
1.5.3 Statistical analysis ................................................................. 11
1.6 CONTRIBUTIONS ........................................................................ 11
1.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS ...................................................... 12
1.8 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION ....................................................... 12
1.9 GENERAL .................................................................................. 14
1.10 CONCLUSION ........................................................................... 14

CHAPTER 2 DETERMINANTS OF BRAND LOYALTY ...................... 15
2.1 INTRODUCTION .......................................................................... 15
2.2 BRANDING ................................................................................ 16
  2.2.1 Defining the concept of a brand ............................................ 16
  2.2.2 Importance of branding ....................................................... 17
2.3 BRAND EQUITY ........................................................................ 18
2.4 BRAND LOYALTY ...................................................................... 23
  2.4.1 Behavioural brand loyalty .................................................... 24
  2.4.2 Attitudinal brand loyalty ..................................................... 26
  2.4.3 Importance of brand loyalty ............................................... 27
2.5 DETERMINANTS OF BRAND LOYALTY ................................ 29
  2.5.1 Brand identification ............................................................ 29
  2.5.2 Product category involvement and brand awareness ............ 30
  2.5.3 Brand image ........................................................................ 32
    2.5.3.1 Perceived brand quality ............................................... 33
    2.5.3.2 Delivery on brand benefits .......................................... 34
  2.5.4 Relationship quality ........................................................... 35
    2.5.4.1 Brand trust .................................................................. 36
    2.5.4.2 Brand satisfaction ....................................................... 38
2.6 MODEL OF THE DETERMINANTS OF BRAND LOYALTY .......... 40
2.7 GENERATION Y .................................................................42
2.8 CONCLUSION ........................................................................43

CHAPTER 3 DETERMINANTS OF SPORT-TEAM BRAND LOYALTY ..........45

3.1 INTRODUCTION ..................................................................45
3.2 A SPORT TEAM AS A BRAND .............................................46
3.3 SPORT-TEAM BRAND LOYALTY ..........................................48

3.3.1 Sport-team brand loyalty - behavioural loyalty versus attitudinal loyalty ........48
3.3.2 Sport-team brand loyalty as a two-dimensional construct .........................50

3.4 DETERMINANTS OF SPORT-TEAM BRAND LOYALTY ...............52

3.4.1 Team identification ..................................................................52
3.4.1.1 Levels of team identification ..................................................54
3.4.1.2 Development of team identification ..........................................55
3.4.1.3 Benefits of team identification ..................................................57

3.4.2 Sport domain involvement and team brand awareness ............................57
3.4.2.1 Sport domain involvement as a predictor of team identification .............58
3.4.2.2 Sport domain involvement as a predictor of team brand loyalty .............59

3.4.3 Team brand image ..................................................................60
3.4.3.1 Team success ........................................................................61
3.4.3.2 Team delivery ........................................................................65

3.4.4 Team relationship quality ........................................................67
3.4.4.1 Team relationship trust ............................................................69
3.4.4.2 Team relationship satisfaction ....................................................71

3.5 PROPOSED MODEL OF THE DETERMINANTS OF PSL TEAM
BRAND LOYALTY AMONGST BLACK GENERATION Y
STUDENTS ..............................................................................74

3.6 CONCLUSION ........................................................................75
CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

4.3 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

4.3.1 Questionnaire design

4.3.2 Questionnaire content

4.3.3 Questionnaire structure

4.3.4 Pre-testing of the questionnaire

4.3.5 Pilot testing of the questionnaire

4.4 SAMPLING DESIGN PROCEDURE

4.4.1 Target population

4.4.2 Sampling frame

4.4.3 Sample procedure

4.4.4 Sample size

4.5 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

4.6 DATA PREPARATION

4.6.1 Editing

4.6.2 Coding

4.6.3 Data capturing

4.6.4 Data cleaning

4.7 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

4.7.1 Frequency distribution

4.7.2 Exploratory factor analysis

4.7.2.1 Exploratory factor analysis method

4.7.2.2 Factor rotation

4.7.2.3 Assessment of factor loadings and communalities
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.7.3</td>
<td>Collinearity diagnostics</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7.4</td>
<td>Reliability and validity</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7.4.1</td>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7.4.2</td>
<td>Validity</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7.5</td>
<td>Descriptive statistical analysis</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7.5.1</td>
<td>Measures of central tendency</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7.5.2</td>
<td>Measures of variability</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7.5.3</td>
<td>Measures of shape</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7.6</td>
<td>Correlation analysis</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7.7</td>
<td>Structural equation modelling</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7.7.1</td>
<td>Measurement model specification</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7.7.2</td>
<td>Reliability and validity of a measurement model</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7.7.3</td>
<td>Goodness-of-fit indices</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7.7.4</td>
<td>Structural model specification</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>CONCLUSION</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>RESULTS OF THE PILOT TEST</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>DATA GATHERING PROCESS</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.1</td>
<td>Coding</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.2</td>
<td>Data cleaning</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.3</td>
<td>Tabulation</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>SAMPLE DESCRIPTION AND SPORT DOMAIN INTEREST</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5.1</td>
<td>Sample description</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.5.2 Interest in the domain of soccer .................................................. 113
5.6 EXPLORATORY PRINCIPLE COMPONENT ANALYSIS ................. 114
5.7 EVALUATION OF MULTICOLLINEARITY .................................. 116
5.8 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ................................................................. 117
5.9 CORRELATION ANALYSIS ................................................................. 119
5.10 HYPOTHESES TESTING ................................................................. 120
5.11 STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING ........................................... 122
5.11.1 Measurement model specification .............................................. 122
5.11.2 Reliability and validity tests for the measurement model .......... 126
5.11.3 Structural model ................................................................. 127
5.12 CONCLUSION .............................................................................. 132

CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS ...................... 134
6.1 INTRODUCTION ............................................................................ 134
6.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY .......................................................... 135
6.3 MAIN FINDINGS OF THE STUDY ..................................................... 138
6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS ................................................................. 140
6.4.1 Use both attitudinal and behavioural metrics to measure PSL team brand loyalty ................................................................. 141
6.4.2 Design brand strategies to enhance PSL team identification ........ 141
6.4.3 Direct marketing efforts at promoting the domain of soccer in South Africa .... 142
6.4.4 PSL teams need to remain competitive on the field and deliver on experiential benefits during games ........................................... 142
6.4.5 Strengthen relationship quality with fans by building trust and satisfaction with the PSL team ......................................................... 143
6.5 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES ........ 144
6.6 CONCLUSION .............................................................................. 145
## LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1: Items answering the empirical research objectives .................................................. 81

Table 5.1: Summary of pilot test results ..................................................................................... 104

Table 5.2: Coding of questionnaire ............................................................................................ 106

Table 5.3: Frequency table of responses .................................................................................... 109

Table 5.4: Exploratory principle component analysis .................................................................. 114

Table 5.5: Collinearity diagnostics ............................................................................................. 117

Table 5.6: Descriptive statistics ................................................................................................ 118

Table 5.7: Correlation matrix .................................................................................................... 120

Table 5.8: Standardised factor loadings and error variances ..................................................... 124

Table 5.9: Measurement model: construct reliability, average variance extracted and correlation matrix ..................................................................................................................... 126

Table 5.10: Comparison of the fit indices of Structural Models A and B ................................. 131
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Brand equity model according to Aaker (1991:15) ..................................20
Figure 2.2: Brand equity model according to Keller (1993:7) .................................21
Figure 2.3: Model of customer loyalty according to Donio” et al. (2006:447) ..........22
Figure 2.4: Determinants of brand loyalty .................................................................41
Figure 3.1: Brand loyalty – A deterministic and stochastic perspective ..................50
Figure 3.2: Proposed model of the determinants of black Generation Y students’ PSL team brand loyalty .................................................................74
Figure 4.1: Sampling design process ........................................................................84
Figure 5.1: Type of higher education institution .........................................................111
Figure 5.2: Gender ......................................................................................................111
Figure 5.3: Age ...........................................................................................................112
Figure 5.4: Province of origin .....................................................................................112
Figure 5.5: Home language ........................................................................................113
Figure 5.6: Specified measurement model .................................................................123
Figure 5.7: Structural Model A ..................................................................................128
Figure 5.8: Structural Model B ..................................................................................130
Figure 6.1: Model of the determinants of black Generation Y students’ PSL team brand loyalty .................................................................140
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In South Africa, the three sports that enjoy the most popularity in terms of spectatorship support are rugby, cricket and soccer, with local soccer being mainly supported by black South Africans (IPSOS, 2015; Morgan, 2013; Khumalo, 2009), a population group who in 2015 made up approximately 80.5 percent of the population (Statistics South Africa, 2015). The South African Premier Soccer League (PSL), first established in the 1996/1997 season, is the country’s top soccer league and is widely acknowledged for playing a significant role in improving the standard of local club soccer through attracting greater media exposure and funding from sponsorships (Morgan, 2013).

Currently, the League comprises 16 teams or clubs that, in a given season, play each other twice; that is, 30 matches per team. Teams accumulate points after each match depending on the outcome, with three points being awarded for a win and one point for a draw (Moyo, 2013). Concerning the PSL’s relegation and promotion process, as from 2012 the team in the fifteenth position together with those in the second and third positions play off against each other to determine which team gets promoted and which team gets relegated at the end of a season (Molefe, 2012). The five top teams to have been part of the PSL since its inception include Kaizer Chiefs, Orlando Pirates, Mamelodi Sundowns, Supersport United and Moroka Swallows (Moyo, 2013). Among these teams, Kaizer Chiefs is ranked fifth top club in Africa, with Mamelodi Sundowners and Orlando Pirates ranked eleventh and nineteenth respectively on the continent in 2015 (Ditlhobolo, 2015). In terms of spectatorship, Kaizer Chiefs and Orlando Pirates, both teams based in the country’s Gauteng province, remain the most popular of the PSL teams (Mseleku, 2015).

In terms of revenue, the PSL is mostly dependent upon broadcast deals and sponsorships from major businesses in South Africa, including financial service providers and cellular service providers, for its survival and success. The League’s ability to attract such lucrative deals is significantly influenced by the extent to which the clubs in the League manage to attract and maintain a passionate and loyal fan base (Kazeem, 2015). The concept of branding is essential to professional sport teams as it contributes to achieving a
sport team’s long-term objectives, which is to increase team brand loyalty (Chanavat & Bodet, 2009:463) and, thereby, attract more or better sponsorship deals (Kazeem, 2015).

Day (1969:30) emphasises that brand loyalty needs to be understood and measured as a two-dimensional construct that comprises both attitudinal and behavioural loyalty in order to differentiate between unauthentic and authentic brand loyalty. In terms of professional sport, sport-team brand loyalty refers to an enduring allegiance to a particular team (Wakefield & Sloan, 1995:159) that entails an individual developing a psychological connection to a team (James et al., 2002:216) and, ultimately, leads to consistent and enduring attitudinal and behavioural loyalty towards that team (Sari et al., 2011:188; Funk & James, 2001:136). Typically, a high degree of psychological commitment towards a sport team results in increased behavioural loyalty towards that team (Gray & Wert-Gray, 2011:279).

Several studies have focused on identifying the antecedents of professional sport-team brand loyalty. These studies address the importance of viewing sport teams as a brand in the professional sport setting (Alexandris et al., 2008:240; Kaynak et al., 2008:343; Ross et al., 2007:107; Ross et al., 2006:263; Bauer et al., 2005b:498; Gladden & Funk, 2002:54).

Team identification, which refers to the intensity of cognitive or perceptual connectivity an individual has with a sport team (Mael & Ashforth, 1992:105), is recognised in the literature as a key antecedent of team loyalty (Lee et al., 2013:209; Wann & Branscombe, 1993:2; Sloan, 1989:175), influencing both attitudinal team loyalty (Choi, 2013:214; Koo, 2009:172) and behavioural team loyalty (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2011:786; Matsuoka et al., 2003:246). Sport domain involvement is an important determinant of sport team identification, which, in turn, is a significant predictor of sport-team brand loyalty (Stevens & Rosenberger, 2012:223; Fisher & Wakefield, 1998:27). Sport domain involvement refers to an individual’s interest in a specific genre of sport (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003:278). According to Fisher and Wakefield (1998:27), sport domain involvement is an important predictor of sport-team brand loyalty in that it explains why individuals remain fans of unsuccessful teams.

In the literature, brand image is also viewed as a significant predictor of both brand identification (Albert & Merunka, 2013:259) and brand loyalty (Keller, 1993:1). In order to measure the influence of brand image on sport-team brand loyalty, Bauer et al. (2008:211) developed a scale that included product-related attributes (team management,
head coach, team success, star player and team delivery), non-product-related attributes
(logo and club colours, club history and tradition, stadium, and fans) and brand benefits
(identification, peer-group acceptance, escape, socialising, emotions, nostalgia, and
entertainment). In professional sport, the product-related attributes of team success and
team delivery are likely to represent particularly salient facets of a team’s brand image
that influence team identification (Wu et al., 2012:183). A sport team’s success elevates
its status and differentiates it from other teams (Carlson et al., 2009:373), thereby
suggesting that it is an important determinant of team identification and team brand
loyalty. Similarly, team delivery, which relates to the entertainment value of watching a
game and to the performance of the team, is also considered an important determinant of
team identification and team loyalty (Gladden & Funk, 2002:58).

Brand relationship quality and brand loyalty are closely linked in that both serve as a
measure of the strength of the bond between a consumer and a brand and serve to predict
the stability of that bond over time (Fournier, 1998:367). Relationship quality refers to the
level of trust and satisfaction that exists in a relationship, and dictates the likelihood of
continued interaction between two parties (Crosby et al., 1990:68). Understanding
relationship quality will contribute to implementing the concept of relationship marketing
into the sport context (Kim et al., 2011a:255; Kim et al., 2011b:576; Kim & Trail,
important link between the relationship quality dimensions of brand trust and brand
satisfaction (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002:236; Zhang & Bloemer, 2008:161) as well as
brand identification (He et al., 2012:655) and brand loyalty (He et al., 2012:655;
Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001:82; Oliver, 1999:42).

This suggests that soccer domain involvement, team success and delivery, together with
team trust and satisfaction are important determinants of team identification, which, in
itself is an important determinant of team brand loyalty.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The continued survival of South Africa’s PSL teams is reliant on their ability to attract
and retain the support of today’s youth – currently labelled Generation Y – particularly
African Generation Y members (hereafter referred to as black Generation Y). Generation
Y encompasses individuals born between 1986 and 2005 (Markert, 2004). In 2015,
members of the Generation Y cohort made up an estimated 38 percent of South Africa’s population, with members of the black Generation Y cohort accounting for 84 percent of the country’s Generation Y cohort and 32 percent of the country’s total population of approximately 54,995,920 people (Statistics South Africa, 2015). PSL team marketers are likely to be particularly interested in the university student members of this race and age group because a tertiary education is most often predictive of a higher future earning potential and stronger opinion leadership status (Bevan-Dye et al., 2009; Hallett & Ashley, 2008; Nimon, 2007). This infers that black Generation Y students’ interest in and support of PSL teams may influence the wider black Generation Y cohorts’ interest in and support of PSL teams.

While a number of studies have investigated one or a few of the determinants of professional sport-team brand loyalty in a variety of sports, there is scarce evidence in the literature of a model that considers relationship-quality dimensions, together with brand-image dimensions, sport domain involvement and team identification as determinants of team brand-loyalty in a specific sport and amongst a specific target market.

This suggests that there is a need to develop and empirically test a model of these factors as potential predictors of PSL team brand loyalty amongst the black Generation Y cohort of South Africa.

Against the background of the introduction in Section 1.1 and the problem statement put forward in this section, the objectives for the study are laid out in the following section.

1.3 STUDY OBJECTIVES

The general goal of this study was to expand the knowledge of the spectator sport phenomenon beyond current boundaries by applying both brand loyalty and relationship quality theories to the team-sport consumer context.

The following primary, theoretical and empirical objectives were set for this study:

1.3.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study was to develop and empirically test a model of the determinants of South African PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students.
1.3.2 Theoretical objectives

The following theoretical objectives relating to a review of the relevant literature were formulated in order to achieve the primary objective of the study:

1.3.2.1 Review the concept of branding and the conceptualisation of brand equity.

1.3.2.2 Discuss brand loyalty as a two-dimensional construct consisting of attitudinal brand loyalty and behavioural brand loyalty.

1.3.2.3 Describe brand identification.

1.3.2.4 Discuss product category involvement as it relates to brand awareness.

1.3.2.5 Describe the brand image dimensions of perceived brand quality and delivery on brand benefits, together with the relationship quality dimensions of brand trust and satisfaction.

1.3.2.6 Define and outline the characteristics of the Generation Y cohort.

1.3.2.7 Discuss the concept of a sport team as a brand.

1.3.2.8 Describe sport-team brand loyalty in terms of attitudinal loyalty and behavioural loyalty.

1.3.2.9 Describe team identification.

1.3.2.10 Discuss the influence of sport domain involvement, the team brand image dimensions of team success and team delivery, and the team relationship quality dimensions of team trust and team satisfaction on team identification and team brand loyalty.

1.3.2.11 Propose a model of the determinants of PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students.

Against the background of the theoretical objectives set out in this section to guide the review of the literature, the following empirical objectives were formulated.
1.3.3 Empirical objectives

In order to achieve the primary objective, the following empirical objectives for the study were formulated:

1.3.3.1 Determine black Generation Y students’ level of soccer domain involvement and attitudinal loyalty, behavioural loyalty and identification with their favourite PSL team, together with their perceptions of their favourite team’s success, delivery, trust and satisfaction.

1.3.3.2 Determine the relationship between black Generation Y students’ PSL team attitudinal loyalty, team behavioural loyalty, team identification, team success, team delivery, soccer involvement, team trust and team relationship satisfaction in order to evaluate the nomological validity of the factors proposed for inclusion in the hypothesised measurement model specified in Chapter 3.

1.3.3.3 Determine whether PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students is an eight-factor structure consisting of team success, team delivery, soccer involvement, team relationship trust, team relationship satisfaction, team identification, team psychological commitment and team behavioural commitment.

1.3.3.4 Determine the influence of team success, team delivery, soccer involvement, team relationship trust and team relationship satisfaction on team identification, and the influence of team identification on team psychological commitment, and the influence of team psychological commitment on team behavioural commitment.

1.4 HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses set out below were formulated in Chapter 5, following a review of the literature in Chapters 2 and 3, and the construction of a matrix of construct correlations to assess the nomological validity between each pair of constructs proposed as the antecedents of black Generation Y students’ sport-team brand loyalty within the South African PSL context.
Ho1: Determinants of PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students is not an eight-factor structure consisting of team success, team delivery, soccer involvement, team relationship trust, team relationship satisfaction, team identification, team psychological commitment and team behavioural commitment.

Ha1: Determinants of PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students is an eight-factor structure consisting of team success, team delivery, soccer involvement, team relationship trust, team relationship satisfaction, team identification, team psychological commitment and team behavioural commitment.

Ho2: The team brand image dimensions of team success and team delivery do not have a direct significant positive influence on black Generation Y students’ PSL team identification.

Ha2: The team brand image dimensions of team success and team delivery have a direct significant positive influence on black Generation Y students’ PSL team identification.

Ho3: The relationship quality dimensions of team relationship trust and team relationship satisfaction do not have a direct significant positive influence on black Generation Y students’ PSL team identification.

Ha3: The relationship quality dimensions of team relationship trust and team relationship satisfaction have a direct significant positive influence on black Generation Y students’ PSL team identification.

Ho4: Soccer involvement does not have a direct significant positive influence on black Generation Y students’ PSL team identification.

Ha4: Soccer involvement has a direct significant positive influence on black Generation Y students’ PSL team identification.

Ho5: Team identification does not have a direct significant positive influence on black Generation Y students’ PSL team psychological commitment.
Ha5: Team identification has a direct significant positive influence on black Generation Y students’ PSL team psychological commitment.

Ho6: Black Generation Y students’ PSL team psychological commitment does not have a direct significant positive influence on their PSL team behavioural commitment.

Ha6: Black Generation Y students’ PSL team psychological commitment has a direct significant positive influence on their PSL team behavioural commitment.

The section ahead provides a brief overview of the research methodology followed in this study. A more in-depth discussion of the study’s research design and methodology is provided in Chapter 4 of this thesis.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The study comprises a literature review and an empirical study that is quantitative in nature.

1.5.1 Literature review

The secondary data sources used for the literature review portion of this study included relevant textbooks, academic journal articles, newspaper articles, Internet sources and online academic databases.

1.5.2 Empirical study

The empirical portion of this study followed the descriptive research design using the single cross-sectional survey method for data collection.

1.5.2.1 Target population

The target population encompassed South African black Generation Y university students ranging in age from 18 to 24 years, registered at public South African higher education institution (HEI) campuses. The target population was defined as follows:

Element: Full-time black Generation Y undergraduate students between the ages of 18 and 24 years
Sampling unit: South African registered public HEI campuses

Extent: South Africa

Time: 2013

1.5.2.2 Sampling frame

The sampling frame in this study comprised the 23 registered South African public HEIs in existence in 2013 (Higher Education in South Africa, 2014:10; Govinder et al., 2013:2). This was narrowed down using non-probability judgment sampling to include three HEI campuses located in the Gauteng province - one being a comprehensive university campus, one a traditional university campus and one a university of technology campus.

The reason for focusing on HEI campuses in the Gauteng province is because it is the province that comprises the largest share of the total South African population (24 percent), as well as the largest share of the 10 to 29 year old segment (21 percent) which constitutes the age parameters of the Generation Y cohort (Statistics South Africa, 2015). In addition, the Gauteng province is the home ground of South Africa’s three top ranked PSL teams in Africa, namely Kaizer Chiefs, Mamelodi Sundowners and Orlando Pirates (Ditlhobolo, 2015).

1.5.2.3 Sample method

From the sampling frame, a non-probability convenience sample of full-time undergraduate black Generation Y students was drawn across the three campuses.

1.5.2.4 Sample size

Whilst 402 questionnaires were distributed across the three campuses, the final sample comprised 289 responses. This sample size was deemed sufficient to meet the 200 to 400 cases rule for structural equation modelling (Malhotra, 2010:731); it is also large enough to meet the 5 to10 responses per scale item rule for conducting factor analysis (Pallant, 2010:183) on a questionnaire that includes 31 scaled-response items.
1.5.2.5 Measuring instrument and data collection method

A self-administered questionnaire will be utilised to generate the primary data for the study. A screening question was asked to ascertain whether the prospective respondent was a South African citizen and if he/she was interested in PSL teams.

The questionnaire included scales drawn from published research. Psychological commitment was measured using four items and behavioural loyalty was measured using six items (Bauer et al., 2008:225). Team identification was measured using Mael and Ashforth’s (1992:122) six-item uni-dimensional scale. Soccer domain involvement, which was used to conceptualise brand awareness, was measured using Fisher and Wakefield’s (1998:38) three-item uni-dimensional scale assessed. Scales from the Kim et al. (2011a:262) Sport-Team Relationship Quality Scale (STRQS) were utilised to measure the relationship quality dimensions of trust (three items) and satisfaction (three items). The team brand image dimensions of team success (three items) and team delivery (three items) were measured using sub-scales from Gladden and Funk’s (2002:67-68) team brand image scale.

The questionnaire included two sections, namely Section A and Section B. Section A was designed to gather demographic data and Section B included the scaled response items. All scaled responses were measured using a six-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree. Given that the study employed convenience sampling, demographic questions concerning gender, province of origin and home language were included as measures of the degree to which the sample is representative of the target population. The questionnaire also included a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study and providing relevant contact details.

In the pre-testing stage, two experienced researchers were requested to examine the questionnaire in order to establish its face validity. Thereafter, two academics knowledgeable about sports marketing were asked to ascertain the content validity of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was then be piloted on a convenience sample of 50 black Generation Y students not included in the main study in order to ascertain its reliability. The Cronbach alpha was calculated in order to test the reliability of the scales used in the questionnaire, where the guideline for the overall scale and sub-scales is 0.7 or above (Malhotra, 2007:285).
Lecturers at each of the three campuses were contacted and asked if they would allow fieldworkers to distribute questionnaires to students on the campus. They were shown a copy of the questionnaire and the ethical clearance certificate. Once they agreed that the questionnaire did not impose any breach of ethics, the questionnaire was administered by fieldworkers. The fieldworkers were informed that the questionnaire was to be completed on a voluntary basis only and that no student was to be coerced into completing the questionnaire. The self-administered questionnaire was then distributed to the full-time black Generation Y undergraduate students at each of the three campuses in 2013.

1.5.3 Statistical analysis

The captured data will be analysed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) and analysis of moment structures (AMOS), Versions 22.0 for Windows. The following statistical methods will be used on the empirical data sets:

Frequency analysis
Exploratory principle components analysis
Reliability and validity analysis
Descriptive analysis
Correlation analysis
Structural equation modelling

1.6 CONTRIBUTIONS

The purpose of this study was to develop and empirically test a model of the determinants of South African PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students. This model differs from models in the literature in that it considers the influence of both brand image and relationship quality dimensions, as well as the dimensions of sport domain involvement and team identification on the brand loyalty dimensions of psychological commitment and behavioural loyalty. The findings of this study provide sport marketers with a greater understanding of the factors that determine Generation Y individuals’ brand loyalty towards professional sport teams. The model developed in this study may be used by PSL team marketers to measure strong and weak areas in their team’s branding strategies. This model may also serve as a guide to tailoring marketing
programmes geared at targeting South Africa’s black Generation Y cohort. The findings of the study also contribute to the literature on sport spectator psychology within South Africa. In addition, the findings of the study add to the literature on the consumer psychology of South African Generation Y, as per the aims of the ProGenY (Profiling the consumer psychology of Generation Y in South Africa) project at the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus).

1.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The questionnaire together with the research proposal outlining the target population and objectives of the study was submitted for review to the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Economic Sciences and Information Technology at the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus). The study and questionnaire received ethical clearance (Ethical clearance number: ECONIT-ECON-2014-021). Lecturers at the three campuses included in the study were shown a copy of the questionnaire and the ethical clearance certificate before agreeing to allow the questionnaire to be distributed to students on their respective campuses. Fieldworkers were instructed that student participation in the study was voluntary. All results are reported in aggregate and the names of the participants as well as the names of the HEI at which they were registered at the time of the study have been kept confidential.

1.8 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

Chapter 1 Introduction and background to the study: The aim of this chapter was to clarify the problem to be addressed by the study and to set out the primary, theoretical and empirical objectives of the study. In addition, the chapter provided an overview of the research methodology followed in achieving these objectives. The chapter included a description of the considerations put in place to ensure that the study met the conventional academic rigour in terms of ethical conduct.

Chapter 2 Determinants of brand loyalty: The purpose of Chapter 2 is to develop a model of the determinants of brand loyalty and to provide an overview of the study’s target population, namely the Generation Y cohort. The chapter includes a review of the concept of branding and brand equity, and a discussion of brand loyalty as a two-dimensional construct consisting of attitudinal brand loyalty and behavioural brand
loyalty. In addition, the concept of brand identification and product category involvement as it relates to brand awareness are described. Thereafter, the brand image dimensions of perceived brand quality and delivery on brand benefits, together with the relationship quality dimensions of brand trust and satisfaction are discussed. The chapter ends with a review of the literature on the Generation Y cohort.

**Chapter 3 Determinants of sport-team brand loyalty:** The objective of Chapter 3 is to develop a model of the determinants of South African black Generation Y students’ brand loyalty towards their favourite PSL team. The development of this model was guided by the model developed in Chapter 2 and sport marketing and sport spectator psychology literature. The chapter includes a discussion of the concept of a sport team as a brand and a description sport-team brand loyalty in terms of attitudinal loyalty and behavioural loyalty. In addition, the chapter provides a description of team identification together with a discussion of the influence of sport domain involvement, the team brand image dimensions of team success and team delivery, and the team relationship quality dimensions of team trust and team satisfaction on team identification and team brand loyalty.

**Chapter 4 Research methodology:** The purpose of Chapter 4 is to explain the theory behind the research methodology followed in empirically testing the model proposed at the end of Chapter 3 in Chapter 5. The chapter includes a description of the research design followed in the study together with a description of the research instrument used in the study. This is followed by an outline of the five steps involved in the sampling procedure. Furthermore, the chapter includes a discussion on the administration of the questionnaire, the data preparation and the statistical analysis techniques applied in the study.

**Chapter 5 Analysis and interpretation of the empirical findings:** Against the background of Chapter 4, Chapter 5 reports on the analysis and interpretation of the empirical findings of this study. This chapter includes an overview of the results of the pilot test, a description of the data-gathering process and an outline of the preliminary data analysis. In addition, the demographics and sport domain interest of the respondents is discussed. Thereafter, an outline of the exploratory principle components analysis undertaken is given, followed by a report on the evaluation of multicollinearity.
Furthermore, the chapter includes the descriptive statistics computed and a discussion of the results from the correlation analysis and structural equation modelling procedure.

**Chapter 6 Conclusions and recommendations:** The purpose of Chapter 6 was to provide an overview of Chapters 1 to 5 and to discuss the findings in relation to the objective evidence garnered from the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 and 3. The chapter includes recommendations based on the literature review and the empirical study. The limitations of the study and implications for future research are also provided in this concluding chapter.

1.9 GENERAL

Annexures are placed at the back of the thesis.

Tables and figures are placed on the relevant pages in the thesis.

Where no source reference appears for figures and tables, it refers to own research.

Referencing is based on the NWU Referencing Guide (2012).

1.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter included the background of the study, an overview of the problem statement, study objectives and research methodology, together with the contribution of the study.

In the following chapter, a review of the literature on the determinants of brand loyalty is given.
CHAPTER 2
DETERMINANTS OF BRAND LOYALTY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature pertaining to brand loyalty and the factors that influence brand loyalty are reviewed in this chapter in order to develop a model of the determinants of brand loyalty upon which to juxtapose the determinants of sport-team brand loyalty as per the primary objective of this study. Therefore, the purpose of Chapter 2 is to address the first five theoretical objectives formulated in Chapter 1 in order to provide a theoretical framework that will guide the discussion of the determinants sport-team brand loyalty in the next chapter, Chapter 3.

The literature review in Chapter 2 includes an elaboration of the concept of branding, together with a brief discussion of Aaker (1991:15) and Keller’s (1993:8) conceptualisation of brand equity. In addition, an overview of relationship marketing and an explanation of brand equity is provided, which is illustrated using the model proposed by Donio et al. (2006:447).

The core element of brand equity is brand loyalty, acting as both an input and output of brand equity and serving as the descriptive dimension of brand equity (Moisescu, 2006:1128). As such, the focus of the chapter is on reviewing the literature pertaining to brand loyalty and the determinants thereof.

According to the literature, several factors influence brand loyalty. These factors include brand identification (Albert & Merunka, 2013:262; Shirazi et al., 2013:153), brand awareness, as it relates to product category involvement (Aaker, 1996:114; Keller, 1993:3), brand image (Keller, 1993:4), brand trust (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005:188; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001:82; Morgan & Hunt, 1994:22) and brand satisfaction (He et al., 2012:655; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001:82; Oliver, 1999:42). Chapter 2 explains the influence of these variables on brand loyalty, as per the literature.
In accordance with the sixth theoretical objective formulated in Chapter 1, the chapter ends with a discussion of the characteristics of the target population of this study, namely the Generation Y cohort.

The chapter commences with a discussion on the concept of branding.

2.2 BRANDING

Contemporary organisations function in highly competitive business environments and use branding as a strategic competitive tool (Abosag et al., 2012:1233). This is especially the case for those organisations operating in industry sectors where differentiation is an essential and critical element of competitive success (Oliveira-Castro et al., 2008:445; Bauer et al., 2005b:497; Kapferer, 2001:164). Essentially, branding entails significant long-term investment in order to create and maintain a well-known and trusted brand that can command a price premium (Kotler, 2003:418).

2.2.1 Defining the concept of a brand

A brand is defined as a name, term, symbol, design or combination thereof that serves to differentiate a product from competing products or services in a product category (Choi, 2013:19; Williams et al., 2012:35; Javani et al., 2012:8; Richelieu et al., 2011:179; Schwartz & Hunter, 2008:148; Jin, 2006:8; Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005:25; Keller, 1993:2; Kotler, 1991:442; Aaker, 1991:39). The purpose of a brand is to convey meaning to a target market(s) in terms of the attributes, benefits, values, culture, personality and targeted user of the market offering (Kotler, 2003:418). A brand enables an organisation to affix unique meanings and associations to its market offerings (Romaniuk & Gaillard, 2007:271; Keller, 1993:5-6; Aaker, 1996:113); in turn, these influence the consumers’ perception and imagery of the branded offering (Choi, 2013:21). The perceived uniqueness of a brand refers to a situation where consumers associate a brand with a particular attribute or benefit, even though several other brands may offer the same attribute or benefit (Romaniuk & Gaillard, 2007:271).

From a financial perspective, a brand is viewed as an asset, where its value to an organisation depends on the extent to which it builds and maintains earnings aside from the value created by other tangible assets (Motion et al., 2003:1084). From a consumer’s perspective, a brand is an organisation’s promise to deliver value in terms of specific
features and benefits (Kotler, 2003:420). As defined by Schiffman et al. (2010:29) and Lassar et al. (1995:13), this customer value is the perceived brand utility relating to its costs and is based on the simultaneous evaluation of what is obtained in terms of perceived economic, functional and/or psychological benefits in relation to what is given in terms of monetary, time, effort and/or psychological resources. Therefore, a brand is a salient strategic asset and a key element of an organisation’s value (Wong & Merrilees, 2008:372).

The image and value of an organisation is represented by belief in the brand (Jin, 2006:8), as well as in the promise of quality that customers associate with the brand (Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005:23-24), which is built on the coherence and continuity of the brand offering that customers experience each time they interact with that brand (Richelieu et al., 2011:179; Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005:25). A person’s experience with a brand is how they acquire knowledge about the brand (Romaniuk & Gaillard, 2007:271), which requires operational excellence that enables interactive marketing to deliver the value promised by the brand consistently (Srivastava & Thomas, 2010:465). For instance, consumers drinking a particular brand of soda expect the same taste (coherence) that they experienced the previous time they drank that soda brand, as well as any time in the future that they consume that brand (continuity) (Richelieu et al., 2011:179; Richelieu, 2003:2-3). Successfully delivering on a brand promise necessitates understanding the importance of branding.

### 2.2.2 Importance of branding

Organisations devote a significant amount of time and effort on the creation and development of their brands (Del Rio et al., 2001:410), using branding strategies to increase the strength of their brand image (Kaynak et al., 2008:338) in order to persuade targeted consumers to become emotionally attached to the brand (Abosag et al., 2012:1238).

A brand has both the benefits of accounting value and commercial value (Keller, 1993:1). The accounting value refers to the asset valuation of the brand for balance sheet, merger, acquisition or divestiture purposes. The commercial value refers to the awareness and recognition a brand enjoys, as well as the promise of quality that consumers associate with the brand, where a strong brand results in additional sales of market offerings.
When a brand plays a central role in the formation of an organisation’s strategy, a brand orientation is set as a precondition, where well-established brands enhance an organisation’s ability to compete successfully in a market, generate capital growth and sustain greater profits (Wong & Merrilees, 2008:372).

Branding is also an important tool for organisations seeking to extend their business (brand extension) and introduce new offerings (product extension) (Choi, 2013:21). When compared to a new brand name, a current brand extension involves lower advertising costs and higher sales because of consumers’ knowledge of the original brand (Lassar et al., 1995:12), and if a customer has a good experience with the extension, this leads to positive associations towards the parent brand or attracts new customers who have had no previous experience with the parent brand (Abosag et al., 2012:1237). For instance, consumers who are familiar with and favourably disposed to existing brands are likely to exhibit more favourable behaviour towards new market offerings that are introduced by the organisation, especially if those offering carry the same brand name (Choi, 2013:21). Consumers accept brand extensions more readily when the quality variations across the product line are negligible (Lassar et al., 1995:12). This suggests that large quality variations across a product line create an unwillingness to try a new product, even if the consumer is familiar with the brand (Ghosh et al., 1995:18).

In the next section, brand equity is discussed, with an emphasis on the value of brand loyalty.

**2.3 BRAND EQUITY**

The development and measurement of brand equity is an important topic in branding research (Keller, 1993:12). The value of branding is that it adds value to an organisation by creating brand equity. Brand equity may be conceptualised as an intangible asset that is based on the complex interaction of brand reputation, brand performance, brand meanings and relationships that add value to the organisation (Motion et al., 2003:1083-1084). Yoo and Donthu (2001:1) note that almost all marketing efforts, whether successful or unsuccessful, focus on building, managing and exploiting brand equity.

Farquhar (1990:7) defines brand equity as the “added value with which a given brand endows a product”, where the brand equity concept is used to analyse the ways in which
brands create value. Brand equity brings added value to the product (Saveri & Ling, 2013:125). Blumrodt et al. (2012:484) suggest that the definition of brand equity that has received the greatest amount of consensus is the one advanced by Aaker (1991:15), which states that “brand equity is a set of brand assets and liabilities such as name awareness, loyal customers, perceived quality, and associations linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that adds to or subtracts from the value provided by a product or service to an organisation and/or its customers”. Kaynak et al. (2008:339) indicate that assets or liabilities must be linked to the name and symbol of the brand to inspire brand equity, and if there is a change in name or symbol, this may affect some or all the assets and liabilities.

Almost all conceptualisations of brand equity refer to it as a phenomenon involving the value added to a product by consumers’ associations and perceptions of a brand name, which results in greater value for the brand name from the organisation’s perspective (Chaudhuri, 1999:136). The term brand equity refers to the value inherent in a well-known brand name, which stems from the consumers perception of the brand’s superiority, the social esteem obtained from using it, and the customer’s trust and identification to that brand (Schiffman et al., 2010:236). Most definitions agree that brand equity is the incremental value of a product due to the brand name (Kaynak et al., 2008:339; Yoo & Donthu, 2001:2-3). For many organisations, their most valuable assets are their brand names (Schiffman et al., 2010:236), which suggests these organisations emphasise the “brand name component” of their brand identities, defined as “that part of a brand that can be vocalised” (Keller, 1993:3).

Brand equity involves measuring the effect of marketing efforts in terms of the organisational-level outcomes, such as a brand’s market share, revenue, and premium prices, as well as consumer-level outcomes, such as consumer’s brand awareness, knowledge and overall attitude towards the brand (Oliveira-Castro et al., 2008:446). Therefore, while the organisational view of brand equity centres on marketing metrics, the consumer-based view centres on attitudinal associations (Keller, 1993:8).

Several studies (Choi, 2013:33; Williams et al., 2012:36; Lassar et al., 1995:12; Simon & Sullivan, 1993:29; Farquhar et al., 1991:91) point out that the financial perspective and customer perspective are two different perspectives of brand equity. However, Oliveira-Castro et al. (2008:44) argue that these two levels of brand equity are clearly related
because the changes in organisation-level outcomes, such as sales volume and profit, are likely to be the aggregate consequence of changes in consumer-based brand equity such as the perceived brand image and attitude towards the brand. Possibly the two most well-respected and cited works on brand equity are those of Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993).

Aaker’s model of brand equity is illustrated in Figure 2.1.

![Brand equity model according to Aaker (1991:15)](image)

Figure 2.1: Brand equity model according to Aaker (1991:15)

According to Aaker (1991:13-15), brand loyalty, brand name awareness, the perceived quality of the brand and brand associations (other than perceived quality and other proprietary brand assets such as patents and trademarks) determine brand equity, which, in turn, enhances consumer value and organisational value.

Keller’s model of brand equity is illustrated in Figure 2.2.
Keller (1993:1), who conceptualises brand equity as being the differential effect of brand knowledge on an individual’s response to a brand, indicates that high levels of brand awareness and a positive brand image lead to brand loyalty.

Both Aaker (1991:16) and Keller (1993:8) suggest that brand loyalty is central to the concept of brand equity and highlight the importance of factors such as brand awareness, brand identification, brand image, brand trust and brand satisfaction in creating brand loyalty.

Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán (2005:191) found both brand satisfaction and brand trust to be important predictors of brand loyalty and consequent brand equity. In this regard, an alternative but related explanation of brand loyalty/equity is offered by proponents of the relationship marketing approach (Donio’ et al., 2006:445; Hennig-Thuraus et al., 2002:230; Ravald & Gronroos, 1996:19; Morgan & Hunt, 1994:20; Berry, 1983:25). From this perspective, brand equity reflects the bond between the organisation and its stakeholders (Veloutsou et al., 2013:238). In terms of the relationship marketing approach to brand loyalty/equity, relationship quality refers to the level of trust and satisfaction that exists in a relationship (Crosby et al., 1990:68), which leads to the creation of consumer loyalty (Ravald & Gronroos, 1996:19).
As depicted in Figure 2.3, the model proposed by Donio’ et al. (2006:447) provides a good illustration of the relationship marketing approach to explaining customer loyalty/equity.

According to the model presented in Figure 2.3, consumers’ satisfaction with previous purchases of a brand results in them developing a trust in that brand, which culminates in commitment to that brand and, ultimately, loyalty towards that brand and so-called customer equity. In terms of this model, the behavioural dimension of loyalty is viewed as the precursor of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty.

![Model of customer loyalty](image)

**Figure 2.3:  Model of customer loyalty according to Donio’ et al. (2006:447)**

He et al. (2012:649) emphasise that brand identification together with the relationship dimensions of brand trust and brand satisfaction are especially instrumental in building and maintaining brand loyalty. Choi (2013:54) notes that brand loyalty is the essence of brand equity because as an asset, it is a major generator of a brand’s value to an organisation. Brand loyalty mediates the relationship between brand attitudes, and brand
equity (Tsiotsou, 2013:458). Severi and Ling (2013:128) believe that the ultimate objective and meaning of brand equity is to build brand loyalty.

In the following section, the concept of brand loyalty is elaborated upon.

2.4 BRAND LOYALTY

Successful branding helps enable an organisation to build and maintain brand loyalty (Choi, 2013:21), which is the key element of brand equity (Aaker, 1996:105; Keller, 1993:8), and the core value of a brand (Severi & Ling, 2013:127). Yoo and Donthu (2001:3) refer to brand loyalty as “the tendency to be loyal to a focal brand, which is demonstrated by the intention to buy the brand as a primary choice”.

According to Day (1969:30), brand loyalty needs to be conceptualised as a two-dimensional construct that includes both attitudinal and behavioural loyalty in order to differentiate between unauthentic and authentic brand loyalty. This conceptualisation of brand loyalty marries the two approaches used to understand brand loyalty in the literature. The first is the behavioural approach, which theorises that consumers’ ongoing brand repurchase behaviour is a manifestation of their loyalty towards that brand. The second approach is the cognitive approach, which argues that behaviour alone does not reflect brand loyalty (Severi & Ling, 2013:127).

In keeping with the views of Day (1969:30), Chaudhuri (1999:138-139) explains that brand loyalty is a function of both psychological (attitudinal) and behavioural processes. The first is derived through brand attitudes and the second is derived through habit, which constitutes past behaviour towards the brand in terms of repeated purchasing and intentions to buy in the future.

A study by Kabiraj and Shanmugan (2011:287) proposes that from a determinist approach, brand loyalty is conceptualised more as an attitude or intention of a consumer to purchase a product/or a service offered. The strength of these attitudes is the main predictor of a brand’s purchase and repeat patronage (Uncles et al., 2003:295), as a result of the perceived unique value in the brand that an alternative brand cannot provide (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001:81; Javani et al., 2012:8). According to Chaudhuri (1999:138-139), loyalty towards a brand has three outcomes. First, brand loyal customers search for their favourite brand and require less advertising frequency, which results in
lower advertising and distribution costs. Secondly, brand loyalty leads to greater and continual sales since the consumer repeatedly purchases the same brand, irrespective of situational constraints. In addition, consumers use more of the brand that they are loyal towards because they may ‘like’ using the brand or because they may identify with its image. Thirdly, consumers who are loyal towards a brand are willing to pay more for that brand because they perceive that the brand has some unique value that is not provided by any other alternative brand.

Loyal customers are referred to by Javadein et al. (2008:4), Kaynak et al. (2008:342), and Bandyopadhyay and Martell (2006:36) as those individuals who hold favourable attitudes toward an organisation and its brands, recommend the marketer’s products to other customers and exhibit repeat buying behaviour. Behavioural loyalty leads to a higher relative market share and attitudinal loyalty allows the marketer to charge consumers a higher price for the brand relative to competitors (Schiffman et al., 2010:235).

Irrespective of any situational constraint, Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001:81) emphasise that brand loyalty leads to greater market share when a loyal consumer purchases the same brand repetitively. Their model suggested that brand loyalty leads to a greater market share, while attitudinal loyalty leads to higher relative brand pricing. Brands with high market share also have high levels of habitual purchasing among their users (Chaudhuri, 1999:136).

Bandyopadhyay and Martell (2006:37) agree that behavioural loyalty results in greater market share, while attitudinal loyalty results in a higher relative price for the brand. Wang (2002:68) confirms the idea that brand loyal consumers purchase the brand exclusively within a particular product class and they do not switch brands. As such, the combination of attitudes and behaviour provides a loyalty definition that is the basis to assess, track and take actions to improve brand health (likelihood of the brand growing versus declining) (Kaynak et al., 2008:345), and allows the identification of loyalty antecedents (Bandyopadhyay & Martell, 2006:36).

2.4.1 Behavioural brand loyalty

A behavioural brand loyalty approach includes the variables relating to brand quality and brand awareness, and highlights the salience of situational and contextual variables
(Oliveira-Castro et al., 2008:447). From the consumer behavioural perspective, purchase loyalty considers a customer’s repeat purchase behaviour and is based on the brand or product purchase history (Javadein et al., 2008:4). Oliveira-Castro (2008:451) and Uncles et al. (2003:296) agree with Aaker’s (1996:108) approach to measuring loyalty, suggesting that satisfaction is an indicator of loyalty for those market offerings where the purchase and use experience represent habitual behaviour. Kaynak et al. (2008:344) also adhere to Aaker’s direct measurement of behavioural loyalty involving habitual behaviour, which considers actual purchase patterns, such as purchase rates, percentage of purchases or number of brands purchased.

Defining consumer brand loyalty from a behavioural perspective involves the application of different operational measures at an individual level, such as repurchase behaviour, frequency of consumption, length of relationship, shares of purchase, quantity purchased, repeated buying, and amount of money spent by consumers at a specific retailer compared to other retailers from which the consumer buys or even a mixture of these indicators (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2011:782; Kabiraj & Shanmugan, 2011:290; Schiffman et al., 2010:23; De Wulf et al., 2001:37). Bandyopadhyay and Martell (2006:35-36) identified several studies that define brand loyalty strictly from a behavioural dimension and indicate that a common theme among these studies was the focus on a surrogate behavioural measure to operationalise brand loyalty with the major assumption that repeat purchasing captures the consumer loyalty towards the brand of interest.

While brand loyalty comes about from an initial product trial that is then reinforced through satisfaction, leading to a repeat product purchase (Schiffman et al., 2010:234), repeat purchase behaviour alone is an insufficient indicator of brand loyalty (Kabiraj & Shanmugan, 2011:289). Tax et al. (1998:64) argue that the behavioural intention measures alone may not provide a true reflection of the underlying attitudes that contribute to building a long-term customer relationship. A major limitation of behavioural measures, according to Day (1969:30), is that it fails to differentiate between habitual purchasing of a brand and actual brand loyalty. The behavioural definitions (such as frequency of purchase or proportion to total purchase) lack precision, because they do not separate between the ‘true’ brand loyal buyer who is intentionally faithful and the spurious loyal buyer who repeats a brand purchase out of a mere habit or because it is the only one available at the store (Schiffman et al., 2010:235).
2.4.2 Attitudinal brand loyalty

Recognition of the importance of considering the attitudinal dimension of brand loyalty stemmed from the realisation that understanding true brand loyalty necessitated assessing consumer beliefs, feelings, and intentions towards a brand within the traditional consumer attitude structure (Day, 1969:30). True brand loyalty only exists when the consumer purchases the product or service regularly and displays a strong, positive attitude towards a specific brand (Mahony et al., 2000:16; Day, 1969:30). Wang (2002:69) agrees that true loyalty is commitment-based, separate from a non-commitment-based spurious loyalty. Therefore, the attitudinal component separates true brand loyalty from simply a repeat buying behaviour (Oliver, 1999:43), showing that a greater loyalty requires a deeper attitudinal attachment, as defined by attitudes (Kaynak et al., 2008:345).

Attitudinal loyalty is characterised by persistence, resistance to change and resistance to competitive stimuli that serves to guide consumption-related behaviour (Day, 1969:35), and is based on the interaction between negative external changes and the person’s attitude (Lee et al., 2013:205). Therefore, a measure of brand loyalty has to reflect an individual’s resistance to persuasion to switch brands (Kabiraj & Shanmugan, 2011:288) and the persistence of commitment to brand (Oliver, 1999:35). Kaynak et al. (2008:345) view attitudinal loyalty as a consumer’s predisposition towards a brand as a function of consumer’s psychological process, which includes the attitudinal preference and commitment to a brand.

Based on a favourable attitude towards a brand or service provider, customers tend to improve their preference loyalty (Javadein et al., 2008:4). Positive attitude to a brand ensures that previous purchase behaviour continues (Bandyopadhyay & Martell, 2006:37), which shows that loyalty on the attitudinal element is the consumer tendency to continue to exhibit similar attitude in similar future situations that are encountered (Kaynak et al., 2008:345).

Brand loyalty is the biased (non-random) behavioural response (purchase), expressed in the long-term by a decision-making unit, with respect to one or more alternative brands out of a set of brands, as a function of psychological (decision making, evaluative) processes, and it is this evaluation process that makes an individual to develop a commitment towards a brand (Bandyopadhyay & Martell, 2006:37). Commitment is
conceptualised in terms of intentions to remain loyal to a brand in the future, and it is considered as “an enduring desire to maintain a valued relationship” and is an outcome of attachment (Tsiotsou, 2013:461).

In order to develop a growing loyal customer base, Wang (2002:69) insists that an organisation has to make an effort to improve consumers’ emotional commitment, which will enable the brand to compete on bases other than price. Consumers who are attitudinally loyal are less susceptible to any negative information about the brand than their non-loyal counterparts (Uncles et al., 2003:296), and they remain committed to a brand for a long time; hence, it is important to consider them as having favourable attitudes towards a brand (Kaynak et al., 2008:345). Orth and Green (2008:248) opine that an important basis for identifying sustainable organisational success involves gaining a better comprehension of customer loyalty and its salient determinants.

2.4.3 Importance of brand loyalty

Today, mainstream organisations are increasingly becoming aware of desirable outcomes and the important benefits of high levels of customers loyalty and have shift their focus to brand loyalty strategy (Kabiraj & Shanmugan, 2011:287; Tapp, 2004:204). To these organisations, brand loyalty involves the creation and/or sustenance of customers’ patronage of a particular brand in the long-term (Severi & Ling, 2013:128). In particular, two aims of customer loyalty programmes stand out - one is to increase the sales revenues by raising the purchase/usage levels, and/or increasing the range of products bought from the suppliers and the other is to build a closer bond between the brand and current customers with a hope to maintain the existing customer base. The popularity of such programmes is based on the argument that profits are increased significantly by achieving either of these aims (Uncles et al., 2003:294-295).

Loyalty is crucial to sustaining profitability given that having a loyal customer base provides a profit stream (Gladden et al., 1998:3; Aaker, 1991:15), and these customers are regarded as key contributors to organisational profitability and success (Wu et al., 2012:177). Kabiraj and Shanmugan (2011:286) add that brand loyalty leads to brand equity, which leads to profitability. That is, when customers’ loyalty to a brand increases, the revenue-stream from loyal customers who bought the brand becomes more predictable and considerable over time (Uncles et al., 2003:296). Some of the reasons for
consumers to become loyal to a brand are to improve the ability to win the utility/cost game (for example, reduce risk, increase information process effectiveness, gain tangible frequent user benefits), and enjoy the benefits associated with the relationship connections (for example, affiliation, association, and value matching) (Hess & Story, 2005:314), which suggests that customer loyalty has both economic and non-economic benefits.

Brand loyalty has multiple benefits, classified in financial, marketing and communication terms. In terms of the financial benefits, customer loyalty increases profit. The marketing benefits relate to customers’ willingness to spread positive word-of-mouth communication about the brand or organisation. The communication benefits relate to customers’ willingness to participate in marketing research and contribute suggestions that can lead to the improvement of the organisations’ services (Alexandris et al., 2008:241). Brand loyalty brings about favourable or positive word-of-mouth communication and a greater resistance to the competitors’ promotional strategies (Wong & Merrilees, 2008:375). Positive word-of-mouth communication, reduced marketing costs, the acquisition of new customers, greater trade leverage and search motivation, greater resistance to competitor overtures, repeat purchase, greater market share and a high relative price, are the marketing advantages of brand loyalty (Tsiotsou, 2013:458; Stevens & Rosenberger III, 2012:222; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001:81; Aaker, 1991:15).

Marketing efforts targeted at attracting new customers are expensive; indeed, in saturated markets it may be almost impossible to obtain new customers (Schiffman et al., 2010:30). In economic terms, brand loyalty is beneficial to an organisation because it saves the costs of acquiring new customers, secures profits and growth per customer, offers reduced operating costs, increases the likelihood of the brand being directly or indirectly recommended to new customers by existing customers, allows for price premium to be charged and reduces the cost of introducing new products (Choi, 2013:53-54).

Non-economic brand loyalty benefits include an induced customer’s repeat buying behaviour, enhanced long-term business performance, improved customer retention, fortified customer relationships and expended distribution channels (Choi, 2013:56). Other non-economic benefits include improved long-term organisation performance, enhanced product development, a greater focus on customer needs, repeat customer purchases, increased customer retention, shorter customer purchase cycles, enhanced
product ownership experiences and better managed customer relationships (Kaynak et al., 2008:343). Customer loyalty is a key source of competitive advantage and is essential to organisations’ survival and growth (Javadein et al., 2008:4). Brand loyalty is a major focus of strategic marketing planning, and it offers a salient basis for the development of a sustainable competitive advantage (Kabiraj & Shanmugan, 2011:287).

In the following section, the determinants of brand loyalty are considered.

### 2.5 DETERMINANTS OF BRAND LOYALTY

The literature indicates several factors that influence brand loyalty. These factors include brand identification (Swimberghe & Woolridge, 2014:360; Albert & Merunka, 2013:262; Shirazi et al., 2013:153), brand awareness, as it relates to product category involvement (Aaker, 1996:114; Keller, 1993:3), brand image (Keller, 1993:4) and the relationship quality dimensions of brand trust (Swimberghe & Woolridge, 2014:360; Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005:188; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001:82; Morgan & Hunt, 1994:22) and brand satisfaction (Swimberghe & Woolridge, 2014:360; He et al., 2012:655; Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005:188; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001:82; Oliver, 1999:42).

The next section defines brand identification as an important determinant of brand loyalty.

#### 2.5.1 Brand identification

Brand identification has been found to have a significant positive influence on consumers’ commitment to a brand (Albert & Merunka, 2013:262). Rooted in social identity theory, brand identification refers to consumers’ use of a brand to satisfy one or more self-definitional needs (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003:77), and is thought to be a major predictor of brand loyalty (He & Li, 2011:674; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003:77) via its influence on affective commitment (Albert & Merunka, 2013:263).

According to the social identity theory, a person’s social identity refers to that part of their self-concept that is derived from their membership to a group or groups and the affective significance they attach to that membership (Tajfel, 2010:2). Applying the social identity theory to the concept of brand commitment suggests that individuals do not
simply select brands for their utilitarian value but also for their symbolic value (Albert & Merunka, 2013:259); that is, brand selection acts as an extension of the self, used to signal social status and self-esteem to others (Foxall, 2001:177). This identification with a brand manifests as a strong emotional attachment to a brand and a sense of oneness with that brand (Donavan et al., 2006:126). Albert and Merunka (2013:259) indicate that overall brand identification derives not only from an individual identifying with a brand in terms of its image, values and/or personality but also from the individual identifying with the typical consumer of that brand.

Tuškej et al. (2013:57) found that brand identification has a strong positive influence on brand commitment. In terms of this identification-commitment relationship, Shirazi et al. (2013:165) found that the relationship dimensions of brand trust and brand satisfaction are significantly associated with brand identification, which, in turn, is significantly associated with brand loyalty. Stokburger-Sauer et al. (2012:414) support these findings and indicate that brand identification is a significant positive predictor of both brand loyalty and brand advocacy. Albert and Merunka (2013:263) also found evidence that both brand trust and brand identification influence brand commitment and, hence, brand loyalty.

With regard to professional sport teams, team identification is likely to be an important precursor to team loyalty.

The following section discusses product category involvement as it relates to brand awareness and explains its influence on brand identification and brand loyalty.

2.5.2 Product category involvement and brand awareness

Brand awareness precedes brand identification (Tuškej et al., 2013:58), as well as the formation of brand associations (Keller, 1993:3), and some degree of product category involvement is generally necessary for brand awareness to occur (Aaker, 1996:114; Keller, 1993:3). Brand awareness refers to consumers’ ability to recognise and recall a brand name (Keller, 1993:3). Product category involvement refers to consumers’ level of interest in a particular product category (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998:260). Keller (2003:596) suggests that brand knowledge, which is preceded by brand awareness, should be interpreted as the personal meaning that a brand has to a consumer. Indeed, this concept
of personal relevance of a product category lies at the heart of the conceptualisation of consumer involvement (Schiffman et al., 2010:229). This suggests that some level of product category involvement is necessary before an individual has an awareness of the brands in that category. Bauer et al. (2008:209) support this assumption and indicate that brand recognition and recall will be high amongst those individuals who have a high level of involvement in a product category.

Much of the evolution of the concept of involvement may be attributed to the work of Rothchild (1984) and that of Laurent and Kapferer (1985). In an effort to arrive at a generally accepted generic definition of involvement, Rothchild (1984:217) proposes that the concept be defined as “a state of motivation, arousal or interest ... driven by current external variables (the situation; the product; the communications) and past internal variables (enduring; ego; central values).” Laurent and Kapferer (1985:41-42) indicate that consumers differ in not only their level but also their type of involvement in a product category, which may be rational or emotional. Quester and Lim (2003:24) scribe that product involvement refers to a consumer’s continued commitment to a product category in terms of their thoughts, affections and behavioural response that is free of situational influences.

Iwasaki and Havitz (1998:259) opined that product category involvement leads to the development of psychological commitment to a brand, which then leads to a resistance to change from that brand and, ultimately, results in behavioural brand loyalty. When they later empirically tested this hypothesis, they found that involvement did indeed predict behavioural brand loyalty via its influence on brand psychological commitment (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004:65). In line with these findings, Quester and Lim (2003:23, 32) argue that product category involvement relates directly to an individual’s psychological commitment to a brand in that product category, and the findings of this study confirm that people’s level of interest and pleasure, together with the degree of self-congruency with that category have a significant positive influence on brand loyalty.

Russell-Bennett et al. (2007:1257) also found a significant positive relationship between product category involvement and both attitudinal and behavioural brand loyalty. Interestingly, Stokburger-Sauer et al. (2012:414) found a significant positive association between product category involvement and brand identification.
In the world of professional sport teams, sport domain involvement (sport category involvement) is likely to precede both team identification and team brand loyalty.

The following section describes brand image as an important determinant of brand identification and brand loyalty.

2.5.3 Brand image

In the literature, brand image is considered a salient predictor of both brand identification (Albert & Merunka, 2013:259) and brand loyalty (Keller, 1993:1). According to Keller (1993:3-4), brand knowledge comprises brand awareness and brand image, where the latter refers to the cumulative brand associations of attributes (product- and non-product attributes), benefits and attitudes.

Albert and Merunka (2013:265) indicate that consumers attach certain meanings to brands and then select those brands that best match their own perceived self, where this congruence between the perceived self and the perceived brand image refers to brand identification. This self-brand congruency refers to the extent to which a brand’s image matches the consumer’s perceived or ideal self-image (Nam et al., 2011:1013). Consumers are more likely to experience brand identification with brands that have an image or identity that distinguishes them from competing brands (Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012:408). This suggests that brand image is an important determinant of brand identification and, hence, brand loyalty.

Whilst the brand associations and brand benefits that constitute a brand image take on different forms (Keller, 1993:3), this study focuses on two specific dimensions, namely (i) perceived brand quality (Aaker, 1991:15), which is linked to brand prestige (Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012:411) and brand success (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008:294), and (ii) brand benefits or, more specifically, what Keller (1993:4) termed as the experiential benefits derived from using a brand.

In the following section, the brand image dimension of perceived brand quality is discussed as one of the determinants of brand identification and brand loyalty.
2.5.3.1 Perceived brand quality

The perceived quality of a brand is considered a pivotal dimension of brand loyalty (Aaker, 1996:109). Perceived brand quality leads to brand prestige (Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012:411) and typically is associated with successful (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008:294) or winning brands (Ashforth & Mael, 1989:25). This perceived brand quality refers to the level of quality in comparison to competing brands, as well as the consistency of that quality over time (Aaker, 1996:109).

In terms of self-esteem, individuals generally prefer to associate themselves with a winner (Ashforth & Mael, 1989:25); that is, they prefer to identify with a prestigious group, organisation or brand in an effort to increase their self-esteem. Indeed, the very attractiveness of brand identification depends not only on self-brand congruity and brand distinctiveness but also on the prestigiousness of that identification (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003:79). Prestigious brands are assumed to be successful; therefore, successful and well-known brands have a level of prestige, which serves to increase consumers’ pride in identifying with that brand (Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012:408; Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008:294; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003:80).

Perceived quality, as an overall assessment of the superiority of a market offering (Zeithmal, 1988:3), is positively associated with brand satisfaction and the development of brand trust (Swimberghe & Wooldridge, 2014:354; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002:232; Ravald & Gronroos, 1996:24). Garberino and Johnson (1999:71) indicate that this perceived quality, along with brand satisfaction, trust and commitment, summarise consumers’ knowledge and experiences with a brand, and guide their future intentions towards that brand.

In a survey of car owners in the United Kingdom, Kuenzel and Halliday (2008:297) report that prestige is a significant positive predictor of brand identification, which, in turn, is a significant positive predictor of behavioural brand loyalty and positive word-of-mouth communication. This supports Ashforth and Mael’s (1989:25) view of the snowball effect that sees popular support for a brand/organisation/individual/idea gain momentum, thereby creating a rising star.
In the arena of professional sport teams, team success and consequent team prestige is likely to represent an important dimension of the brand image of a team and an important predictor of team identification and team brand loyalty.

The following section discusses the brand image dimension of delivery on brand benefits as one of the determinants of brand identification and brand loyalty.

2.5.3.2 Delivery on brand benefits

Brand benefits concern what consumers believe a brand can do for them (Keller, 1993:4) and relate to a brand’s ability to perform in a reliable manner (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005:190). Lassar et al. (1995:130) conceptualise a brand’s performance in terms of its ability to deliver flawlessly on that which it promises to deliver. A brand constitutes a promise an organisation makes to its target market about the product it can deliver (Campbell, 2002:209). For this promise to be successful, it is essential that the functional and emotional benefits offered meet expectations (Foster et al., 2010:403).

The failure of a brand to consistently deliver on its promise of value to the consumer is likely to result in cognitive dissonance and to be negatively associated with the relationship dimensions of brand trust (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005:188) and satisfaction (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002:232). Ultimately, this failure to deliver on brand benefits negatively impacts on brand identification (He et al., 2012:652) and brand loyalty (Garberino & Johnson, 1999:80).

According to Keller (1993:4), there are three categories of brand benefits, namely functional benefits, symbolic benefits and experiential benefits. In the realm of spectator sports, these experiential benefits, in the form of team delivery, are considered salient predictors of team identification (Funk & James, 2006:194) and team brand loyalty, in terms of both psychological commitment and behavioural loyalty (Funk et al., 2009:131). Keller (1993:4) explains that experiential benefits satisfy the need for cognitive stimulation, sensory pleasure and variety, and that these benefits correspond to product-related attributes, which refer to the elements required for performing the product or service function sought by consumers. In spectator sports, these experiential brand benefits are encapsulated by a sport team’s delivery, which includes the team’s style of
play (Funk et al., 2004:47), the players’ athletic skill (Trail et al., 2003a:9) and the excitement of the game (Bee & Havitz, 2010:145).

Stokburger-Sauer et al. (2012:414), in a study across four different product categories amongst households in Germany, found that the experiential benefits of brand social benefits, brand warmth and memorable brand experiences each had a significant positive influence on consumers’ brand identification, which, in turn, had a significant positive influence on their brand loyalty. Given the very nature of spectator sports, it is likely that the same will hold true; that is, the delivery of experiential benefits will have a positive influence on team brand identification and team brand loyalty.

In the following section, the influence of the relationship quality dimensions of brand trust and brand satisfaction on brand identification and brand loyalty are discussed.

2.5.4 Relationship quality

Brand relationship quality and brand loyalty are synonymous in the sense that both dimensions capture the strength of the bond between a consumer and a brand and serve to predict the stability of that bond over time (Fournier, 1998:367). The concept of relationship marketing was first introduced into marketing literature in the seminal paper scribed by Berry (1983:25), who highlighted the long-term importance of directing marketing efforts at not only attracting new customers but also at retaining existing customers by maintaining and enhancing customer relationships.

This conceptualisation of relationship marketing coupled with the increasingly dynamic and knowledge-driven environment led to the marketing discipline evolving from its origins as a transactional-based activity into that of a relationship-focused activity (Achrol & Kotler, 1999:146). That is, relationship marketing involves moving away from the short-term discrete transaction towards a relational exchange that has traces of previous encounters or interactions between a customer and an organisation (Dwyer et al., 1987:13).

Relationship marketing entails establishing, enhancing and maintaining a mutually beneficial relationship with various stakeholders, including the final consumer of the marketing offering (Kim & Trail, 2011:58). Morgan and Hunt (1994:22) define relationship marketing as “all marketing activities directed toward establishing,
developing and maintaining successful relational exchanges”. From an organisational viewpoint, the key outcomes of the formation and maintenance of such successful relationships include brand loyalty and positive word-of-mouth communication (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002:231).

The relationship quality concept, introduced by Crosby et al. (1990:68), refers to the level of trust and satisfaction that exists in a relationship, and dictates the likelihood of continued interaction between two parties. De Wulf et al. (2001:36) indicate that relationship quality is an overall measure of the strength of a relationship.

While a variety of different constructs have been suggested as potential measures of relationship quality, a number of scholars (De Vries, 2012:17; De Wulf et al., 2001:36; Tax et al., 1998:60; Morgan & Hunt 1994:22) emphasise the importance of relationship satisfaction, trust and commitment as indicators of relationship quality. Indeed, as observed by Hennig-Thurau et al. (2002:234), much of the work on the conceptualisation of relationship quality ameliorates the commitment-trust theory proposed by Morgan and Hunt (1994:20) by adding customer satisfaction. In this regard, the literature suggests that there is a salient link between the relationship quality dimensions of brand trust and brand satisfaction (Zhang & Bloemer, 2008:161; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002:236) and brand identification (He et al., 2012:655) and brand loyalty (He et al., 2012:655; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001:82; Oliver, 1999:42).

The following section elaborates on the relationship quality dimension of brand trust.

### 2.5.4.1 Brand trust

Several authors (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008:384; Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005:187; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002:232; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001:82; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999:71; Morgan & Hunt, 1994:22) subscribe to the notion that trust is a prerequisite for the existence of any long-term relationship. Morgan and Hunt (1994:23) conceptualise trust as the confidence one party has in the reliability and integrity of an exchange party. Hong and Cho (2011:471) distinguish between trust and trustworthiness and indicate that one party must assess the trustworthiness of another party in terms of that party’s likelihood of engaging in opportunistic behaviour before trust in that party develops.
The literature on trust suggests that, regardless of the level of analysis, trusting parties need to have an element of vulnerability for trust to become operational (Doney & Cannon, 1997:36). Moorman et al. (1993:82) agree that without the existence of a degree of vulnerability or an element of risk, trust is redundant because the outcomes are unimportant to the trustor. Interpersonal trust is defined as “the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that this other party will perform a particular important action to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party” (Han & Hams, 2010:23).


Brand trust refers to the average consumer’s belief of a brand’s ability to perform its stated functions (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001:82). Brand trust develops through consumers’ experiential interaction with a brand, including direct interactions such as trial and usage of the brand or indirect interactions such as exposure to word-of-mouth communication or advertisements about the brand and, ultimately, represents a consumer’s knowledge of and experience with a particular brand (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005:188).

Delgado-Ballester et al. (2003:38) opine that brand trust encompasses both cognitive and affective components, with the cognitive component encapsulating perceptions of the brand being reliable by meeting expectations, and the affective component relating to the perceived honesty and benevolence of the brand. Therefore, taken together, this suggests that brand trust refers to the degree of confidence consumers have in a brand to act in their best interests, both in terms of its reliability and integrity.

Given that trust is typically built through experience, it stands to reason that the more positive experiences consumers have with a brand, the more trusting they are likely to become of that brand. As such, delivery on promises and investments in satisfaction programmes, complaint handling and in communication and merchandising strategies
geared at informing about the responsive attitudes and behaviours of the brands, all constitute are ways of building brand trust (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005:193). In this regard, Lassar et al. (1995:14) warn that any distrust in a brand is likely to have a significantly negative impact on brand equity.

Castaldo et al. (2009:1) put forward that another important aspect of engendering consumer trust is for an organisation to behave in an ethically and socially responsible manner. This sentiment is in line with the thinking of Pivato et al. (2008:5), who also highlight the importance of corporate social responsibility in developing stakeholder trust, including consumer trust.

According to the findings of He et al. (2012:656), there is a strong positive correlation between brand trust and brand identification, as well as between brand trust and brand loyalty. Shirazi et al. (2013:165) report similar results from their study on brand loyalty in the cellular phone industry, where they found a strong positive relationship between brand trust and both brand identification and brand loyalty. Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001:89) also found that brand trust has a significant positive influence on the brand loyalty dimensions of attitudinal loyalty and behavioural loyalty.

The findings of these studies suggest that brand trust has a positive influence on brand identification and brand loyalty, and that the same is likely to hold true in the case of professional sport team identification and loyalty.

Delgado-Ballester et al. (2003:44) indicate that brand trust is significantly associated with both satisfaction and brand loyalty. As such, in the following section, the literature relating to the relational quality construct of satisfaction is discussed.

2.5.4.2 Brand satisfaction

Maximising customer satisfaction entails meeting or exceeding target customers’ expectations and lies at the heart of all marketing activities as it is a central ideal of the consumer orientation principle of the marketing philosophy (Schiffman et al., 2010:29). Oliver (1999:34) explains that consumption fulfils certain needs and desires and that when that fulfilment is pleasurable, satisfaction occurs.
Jones and Suh (2000:148) indicate that it is essential to distinguish between transaction-specific satisfaction and overall satisfaction. Satisfaction may be conceptualised as being transaction-specific when it refers to a positive evaluation of a single discrete transaction. In contrast, satisfaction is conceptualised as an overall or global affective state when it refers to cumulative satisfaction stemming from a positive series of transactions or interactions with a brand over time (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2011:783; Gray & Wert-Gray, 2011:277; Beccarini & Ferrand, 2006:3; Matsouka et al., 2003:245; Jones & Suh, 2000:148; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999:71). Therefore, while transaction-specific satisfaction is an immediate positive post-purchase evaluation of a specific purchase, cumulative satisfaction is a global evaluation of a long-term consumption experience with a brand (Bodet, 2007:157; Matsouka et al., 2003:245; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999:71). Oliver (1999:33-34) indicates that while satisfaction does not automatically translate into loyalty, loyal consumers are typically more satisfied but adds that for satisfaction to influence loyalty, frequent and cumulative satisfaction is required.

The construct of relationship quality is conceptualised as the interaction between trust, satisfaction and commitment (Wang et al., 2012:301; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999:71). In terms of brand relationship quality, consumer satisfaction refers to a person’s overall affective evaluation of the cumulative experience encounters with that brand (Zhang & Bloemer, 2008:163). This differs from customer satisfaction with the particular product and/or service in that it refers to satisfaction with the seller-buyer relationship (Wang et al., 2012:306) and is more in line with the global or overall conceptualisation of satisfaction. In relationship marketing literature, satisfaction with a relationship is viewed as being a prerequisite of relationship quality (Caceres & Paparoidamis, 2007:843).

According to Crosby and Stephens (1987:406), overall relationship satisfaction necessitates satisfaction with the organisation, satisfaction with the core service and satisfaction with the contact staff. Ashforth and Mael (1989:28) suggest that satisfaction with a group or organisation relates to social identification, which may be managed through symbolic interactions. In line with this reasoning, He et al. (2012:649) indicate that consumers’ symbolic needs are satisfied by brands with a strong brand identity. Fournier (1998:365) suggests that satisfaction with the relationship with a brand depends on the consumers’ evaluation of the performance of the brand in its partnership role.
He et al. (2012:656) found a strong positive association between satisfaction and brand identification, as well as between satisfaction and brand loyalty. Similarly, Shirazi et al. (2013:165) report a strong positive relationship between satisfaction and both brand identification and brand loyalty. In an older study focusing on business-to-business relationships, Caceres and Paparoidamis (2007:851) also report that relationship satisfaction has a strong positive influence on loyalty.

These studies infer that consumers’ satisfaction with their relationship with a brand has a positive influence on their identification with that brand, as well as their loyalty towards that brand. In terms of professional sport teams, this suggests that fans satisfaction with their relationship with a team is likely to influence their identification with and loyalty towards that team positively.

Based on the preceding review of the literature, the following section presents a model of the determinants of brand loyalty.

2.6 MODEL OF THE DETERMINANTS OF BRAND LOYALTY

The main purpose of the literature reviewed up to now in this chapter was to develop a model of the determinants of brand loyalty to act as a framework to guide the literature review on the determinants of sport-team brand loyalty in Chapter 3. This model of the determinants of brand loyalty is presented in Figure 2.4.
As is evident from Figure 2.4, product involvement, as it relates to brand awareness, together with the brand image dimensions of perceived quality and delivery on brand benefits, and the relationship quality dimensions of brand trust and satisfaction are hypothesised to have a direct positive influence on brand identification. Brand identification is hypothesised, in turn, to have a direct positive influence on the brand loyalty dimensions of psychological commitment and behavioural loyalty.

The model proposed in this chapter will be used to guide the literature review in Chapter 3 and, ultimately, will serve as the basis for developing a model of the hypothesised determinants of black Generation Y students’ South African PSL team brand loyalty. The empirical testing of the model in Chapter 3 is then reported on in Chapter 5.

In the following section, the justification for selecting black Generation Y students as the target population is given, together with an overview of the characteristics of this cohort, as per the literature.
2.7 GENERATION Y

The target population selected for this study was the black Generation Y university student cohort of South Africa, and the justification for selecting this ethnic, age and education cohort is threefold. First, the Youth, who in 2016 were categorised as being members of the Generation Y cohort, represent an important current and future target market for marketers including marketers of South Africa’s PSL teams (Mofokeng & Bevan-Dye, 2014:330). Secondly, in South Africa, Africans constitute the vast majority of the country’s Generation Y cohort, representing 84 percent of the cohort in 2015 (Statistics South Africa, 2015). In addition, in terms of local soccer spectatorship, anecdotal evidence suggests that Africans, more so than any other ethnic cohort in South Africa, tend to be particularly enthusiastic followers of local PSL games and results (IPSOS, 2015; Morgan, 2013; Khumalo, 2009). Thirdly, a tertiary qualification is generally associated with a higher future earning potential and a higher social class standing within a community, rendering university graduates potential opinion leaders amongst their peers (Bevan-Dye et al., 2009:172).

While there are conflicting definitions of the Generation Y cohort in terms of birth date ranges, this study follows the one offered by Markert (2004:21), who indicates that this age cohort includes individuals born between 1986 and 2005. The rationale for following this particular definition is that it fits with the concept of defining generations in 20 to 22 year increments put forward in the seminal generational writings of Strauss and Howe (1991:34). In addition to the Generation Y cohort, the other main cohorts in existence today include the Baby Boomers (born between 1946 and 1965) and Generation X (born between 1966 and 1985) (Eastman & Liu, 2012:94; Markert, 2004:21).

The concept of generational studies is rooted in the idea that each generation shares certain experiences that result from distinct environmental forces that occur during their formative years, and that these forces determine that generation’s values, tastes and behaviour that distinguishes them from other generations (Meriac et al., 2010:316; Strauss & Howe, 1991:48). One of the most noted factors to have shaped members of the Generation Y cohort is that they grew up in the digital era (Nicholas et al., 2010:44), which has led to them view digital connectivity and instant access to in-depth information as the norm (Schwalbe, 2009:53). They are reported to be heavy users of digital media channels (Chu & Kim, 2011:58), which they use to seek and share
information and to communicate with one another (Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000:176). This cohort, especially the university student portion, is known to be particularly heavy users of social networking sites (Special & Li-Barber, 2012:624; Mehdizadeh, 2010:357), of which Facebook is the largest in terms of number of active users (Statista, 2015). This suggests that social networking sites such as Facebook may represent important platforms for brands to engage with members of this cohort.

Individuals in this cohort have a preference for brands that match their self-image (Lazarevic, 2012:49), are more status consumption oriented than previous generations (Eastman & Liu, 2012:97) and seek out brands that are perceived as being socially acceptable (Williams & Page, 2011:290). Furthermore, their over exposure to marketing communication in today’s media-saturated world has made them aware of advertising hype (Schifman et al., 2010:410).

In terms of spectator sports, Ross et al. (2006:265) indicate that university/college students are significant consumers of sport. Indeed, several studies have focused on uncovering the factors that determine students’ sport team identification and loyalty across a range of sports, both at the university/college and professional level. In basketball, Carlson et al. (2008:378-379) found that team success influenced team prestige, which influenced team identification and behavioural loyalty towards the team amongst university students in the USA. The authors advise on focusing marketing efforts on promoting a team’s image of being successful and wholesome in order to enhance perceptions of the team’s prestige. Gau and Kim (2011:592) found a significant positive relationship between Generation Y college students’ attitude towards spectator sports and team identification in the USA, Korea and Taiwan. Magnusen et al. (2012:501) report that trust and commitment influence students’ sport-team behavioural loyalty. Fink and Parker (2009:213) found that the drama of the game, which relates to team delivery on entertainment value, was a major predictor of students’ behavioural loyalty.

### 2.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter focused on reviewing the literature pertaining to brand loyalty and the factors that influence brand loyalty in order to develop a model of the determinants of brand loyalty upon which to juxtapose the determinants of sport-team brand loyalty as discussed in Chapter 3. In the chapter, brand loyalty was conceptualised as a two-
dimensional construct that comprises attitudinal loyalty or psychological commitment and behavioural loyalty. As indicated in this chapter, there are several factors that the literature highlights as having an influence on brand loyalty. These include brand identification, brand awareness, as it relates to product category involvement, the brand image dimensions of perceived quality and brand benefit delivery, as well as the relationship quality dimensions of brand trust and brand satisfaction. Figure 2.4 highlights the relationship between these factors and brand loyalty. According to the relationships illustrated in Figure 2.4, product involvement, perceived quality and delivery on brand benefits, brand trust and brand satisfaction positively influence brand identification. Brand identification is illustrated to have a direct positive influence on the brand loyalty dimensions of psychological commitment and behavioural loyalty.

The chapter ended with an overview of the Generation Y cohort, which includes individuals selected as the target population of this study, namely South African black Generation Y students.

In the following chapter, Chapter 3, a model of the determinants of sport-team brand loyalty is developed, which is juxtaposed on the model of determinants of brand loyalty presented in Figure 2.4 of Chapter 2.
CHAPTER 3
DETERMINANTS OF SPORT-TEAM BRAND LOYALTY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 2, the literature pertaining to brand loyalty and the factors influencing brand loyalty was reviewed in order to develop a model of the determinants of brand loyalty. The purpose of the model developed in Chapter 2 was to provide a theoretical framework to guide the discussion of sport-team brand loyalty and the determinants thereof in this chapter, Chapter 3. The primary objective of Chapter 3 is to derive a proposed model of the determinants of black Generation Y students’ PSL team brand loyalty within the South African setting that is based on the model developed in Chapter 2. This chapter addresses the last five theoretical objectives formulated in Chapter 1.

The sport marketing and sport psychology literature reviewed in this chapter provides insights into the concept of loyalty towards professional sport teams and the influence of team identification, sport domain involvement, the team brand image dimensions of team success and team delivery, and the team relationship quality dimensions of trust and satisfaction. In accordance with the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 and the literature reviewed in this chapter, team brand loyalty is treated as a two-dimensional construct that includes both attitudinal loyalty and behavioural loyalty. The concept of sport team brand loyalty as a two-dimensional construct is discussed in Section 3.3. Thereafter, the determinants of team brand loyalty are discussed in Section 3.4. This section includes a review of the literature on the influence of sport team identification (Section 3.4.1), sport domain involvement (Section 3.4.2), the team brand image dimensions of team success (Section 3.4.3.1) and team delivery (Section 3.4.3.2), and the relationship quality dimensions of team relationship trust (Section 3.4.4.1) and team relationship satisfaction (Section 3.4.4.2) on team brand loyalty. The chapter concludes with a proposed model of the antecedents of PSL team loyalty amongst South African black Generation Y students as presented in Figure 3.2 of Section 3.5.

The chapter commences with a discussion of the role of branding in professional sport, taking into consideration the importance of viewing any sport team as a brand.
3.2 A SPORT TEAM AS A BRAND

The concept of branding is a crucial element in professional sport and aids in achieving a sport organisation’s long-term objectives. A sport organisation’s ultimate objective is to increase its brand equity through following a marketing approach (Chanavat & Bodet, 2009:463). To date there have been several studies (Choi, 2013:22; Doyle et al., 2012:4; Ross et al., 2007:106; Ross, 2006:22; Ross et al., 2006:261; Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005:24; Gladden & Milne, 1999:21) that have addressed the importance of regarding a sport team as a brand within the professional sport arena. It is only in recent years that sport teams have started to capitalise on the potential value of becoming a brand (Richelieu, 2003:1) and a great deal of academic research remains to be done on the concept of brand loyalty in professional sports (Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005:24).

A sport team’s ability to attract and maintain fans necessitates innovativeness and a competitive spirit (Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005:26). The primary rule of successful brands supports the idea of continuous innovation, which takes into account customers’ tastes and focuses on staying ahead of competition by anticipating change. In addition, it focuses on communicating the core values of the brand and adapting those values in accordance with changes in targeted segments’ tastes (Richelieu, 2003:3).

For example, Jordaan and Prinsloo (2004:116-117) explain that Kaizer Chiefs soccer club uses its branded products and services to reinforce the emotional bonds between the club and its fan base. The club and its lifestyle brand offers an extraordinary array of products and services to leverage the power of its name, such as Kaizer Chiefs jerseys, T-shirts, socks, training videos and financial services such as the Funeral Plan, Accidental Protection Plan and Education Savings Plan. In addition, the club has an Amakhosi Supporters Club membership card with options of yellow, silver and gold for loyal fans. This example illustrates that soccer brands do not only exist on the field of play but also in the field of business (Blumrodt et al., 2012:489).

As such, professional sport clubs need to define who they are, who they want to target, how they want to be perceived and how they plan on differentiating themselves from competing teams (Bodet & Chanavat, 2010:64). Richelieu and Couvelaere, (2005:26) suggest a three-stage framework for developing team brand loyalty in professional sport,
which includes defining the identity of the team, positioning the team in the market and implementing a team brand strategy.

Professional sport teams need to define who they are clearly (Bodet & Chanavat, 2010:57). Without consistency between the vision of the team managers and the perceptions of the fans, in relation to the values of the team and the value proposition, Richelieu (2003:6) argues that sport teams will be unable to build a strong brand. Jin (2006:9) warns that without a good brand strategy, the team will face difficulties in implementing sport marketing strategies. In a time of open markets and the frequent movement of players, building a branding strategy based on a player or players or even on the head coach is possibly not advisable (Kaynak et al., 2008:354).

One potentially useful branding strategy for professional sport teams is to establish emotional links with local communities (McDonald et al., 2010:76). Mason (1999:409) agrees that in markets relying heavily on the private or corporate team ownership, the host communities become the ardent consumers of the team’s brand. Building a branding strategy around local communities can be a powerful tool for connecting with the fans (Grant et al., 2011:50) because these fans often select teams that represent their home (Mahony et al., 2002:6). Kunkel et al. (2014:53) suggest that a sport team becomes a symbolic representation of the community and provides individuals with a sense of belonging to that community. This can also influence the satisfaction of a fan’s community pride (Mahony et al., 2002:17).

The importance of building a strong brand image cannot be over-estimated given that clubs in the top leagues with a strong brand image obtain more media exposure, broadcast rights and higher sponsorship fees than those clubs with a weaker brand image (Blumrodt et al., 2012:488). It is only through the development of a clear identity, strong positioning and targeted marketing actions that an organisation can leverage the brand loyalty of a sport team (Richelieu & Couvelaere, 2005:26).

In the sport industry, a brand acts as the most symbolic aspect of the organisation (Javani et al., 2012:8). Therefore, defining the sport organisation as a brand creates a foundation for all the other components of the sport organisation to build upon. Today, sport teams are viewed as brands that characterise the most important asset that provides a direction and meaning for a sport team (Richelieu et al., 2011:179). Studies (Williams et al.,
Chapter 3: Determinants of sport-team brand loyalty

2012:36; Richelieu et al., 2011:179; Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005:23; Tapp, 2004:203; Richelieu, 2003:1) indicate that a team is no longer considered as a mere sport team but as a brand in its own right.

Organisations operating in the sport industry are becoming increasingly aware that they must manage their teams as brands in order to attract and retain sport fans (Doyle et al., 2012:4), which in turn, will help them attract sponsors and secure profitable sponsorship and broadcast deals, as well as increase merchandise and gate sales (Bauer et al., 2005b:499). This infers that sport teams need to focus on developing team brand loyalty amongst sport consumers.

3.3 SPORT-TEAM BRAND LOYALTY

The term loyalty, in relation to sport team consumers, refers to consumers who have a commitment to a sport team over an extended period of time (James et al., 2002:215). Loyalty is regarded as a fundamental element of any longitudinal relationship and should be placed at the core of contemporary sport brand management (Tsiotsou, 2013:458; Funk & James, 2001:134-135). As discussed in Section 2.4, Day (1969:30) asserts that differentiating between spurious and true brand loyalty necessitates considering brand loyalty as a two-dimensional construct that includes both attitudinal and behavioural loyalty. In line with this reasoning, sport team loyalty is defined as an enduring allegiance to a particular team (Wakefield & Sloan, 1995:159). This involves an individual developing a psychological connection to a team (James et al., 2002:216), which results in consistent and enduring attitudinal and behavioural loyalty towards that team (Sari et al., 2011:188; Funk & James, 2001:136).

This suggests that sport team brand loyalty has two dimensions, namely attitudinal loyalty and behavioural loyalty, as discussed in the following section.

3.3.1 Sport-team brand loyalty - behavioural loyalty versus attitudinal loyalty

Javadein et al. (2008:4) indicate that there are three conceptual views defining brand loyalty, namely the behavioural perspective, the attitudinal perspective and the composite perspective, which encompass the combined use of both the attitude and behaviour perspective. For a number of years, sport management and psychology research focused
almost exclusively on behavioural indicators of fan loyalty, such as spectator attendance figures (Funk et al., 2002:34), money spent on team merchandise (Mahony et al., 2000:16; Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004:45; 1998:256; Pritchard et al., 1999:334) and fans’ interest in traveling distances to attend team games (Funk & James, 2001:138). However, viewing brand loyalty simply from the behavioural dimension may not provide a true reflection of loyalty because, as is the case in marketing literature (Day, 1969:30), it does not allow for the distinction between true team loyalty and spurious team loyalty (Kozechian, 2014:189). That is, it does not distinguish the sport fan who follows their team continuously and has a strong positive attitude towards that team (true loyalty) and the spectator who regularly watches games without having any particularly strong attitude towards that team (spurious loyalty) (Bauer et al., 2005a:17).

Similarly, Aurier and de Lanauze (2012:1606) and Javadein et al. (2008:4) argue that focusing more on the behavioural aspects of team brand loyalty tends to overestimate true loyalty. Chandrashekaran et al. (2007:161) warn that focusing only on the behavioural loyalty can be problematic because behavioural loyalty without psychological loyalty may be fragile. Keller (1993:5) agrees that while behavioural loyalty is crucial, it is not sufficient for resonance to occur.

In line with this reasoning, a number of authors (Funk & James, 2006:190; Kwon & Trail, 2003:88; Gladden & Funk, 2002:61; Mahony et al., 2000:15) indicate that it is more prudent to view brand loyalty as an attitudinal dimension, which in the sport marketing literature is conceptualised as psychological commitment (Mahony et al., 2000:15). Although attitudinal measures capture the inner attachment that fans have to a particular team and help discriminate between spurious and intentional or true loyalty (Stevens & Rosenberger III, 2012:222; Bauer et al., 2005a:17; Day, 1969:29), the attitudinal measure of loyalty has certain limitations in that there is a concern for the specificity of the attitude object and the possibility of demand effects. This may result in the construction of a false attitude and the possibility of attitude change (Kaynak et al., 2008:345). Therefore, although attitudinal loyalty may suggest that consumers have favourable perceptions towards a brand, it is only an indication of their mental perceptions of the brand rather than their behavioural intentions towards that brand.
3.3.2 **Sport-team brand loyalty as a two-dimensional construct**

In accordance with the theory of Day (1969:30) and Dick and Basu (1994:101) that suggests that brand loyalty be defined in terms of both the behavioural dimension and the attitudinal dimension, several sport psychology and marketing scholars (Stevens & Rosenberger III, 2012:220; Aurier & Sere de Lanauze, 2012:1603; Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2011:781; Gray & Wert-Gray, 2011:275-276; Dwyer, 2011:446; Kabiraj & Shanmugan, 2011:290; Bee & Havitz, 2010:140; Lin & Lin, 2008:73; Bauer et al., 2005a:17) advocate defining sport team brand loyalty from the behavioural and psychological commitment perspective.

Kabiraj and Shanmugan (2011:287) add that while explaining brand loyalty in terms of the stochastic approach of behavioural loyalty may be useful in low-involvement consumer behaviour studies, such as in the fast-moving consumer goods sector, in high-involvement consumption situations, such as sport consumption, a deterministic or attitudinal approach also needs to be considered.

Figure 3.1 illustrates the conceptualisation of brand loyalty from both an attitudinal deterministic and a behavioural stochastic perspective.

![Figure 3.1: Brand loyalty – A deterministic and stochastic perspective](source: adapted from Kabiraj and Shanmugan, 2011:288)
The behavioural dimension of team brand loyalty may represent past loyal behaviour or future intended behaviour (Bauer et al., 2008:207), and encompasses activities such as attending team games, watching team games on television, consuming team-related media, purchasing team merchandise, wearing the team’s colours or logo and participating in discussions about the team (Bauer et al., 2008:226; Bauer et al., 2005a:17). The psychological commitment dimension of team brand loyalty involves affective loyalty and commitment, and resistance to change (Bauer et al., 2008:225; Gladden & Funk, 2002:61; Funk & Pastore, 2000:181; Mahony et al., 2000:18). This dimension signifies the emotional attachment and allegiance that a fan has towards a particular sport team (Mahony et al., 2000:22).

Previous studies measuring fans’ psychological commitment to a team (Funk & James, 2004:16; Pritchard et al., 1999:335) indicate that it has three separate but related dimensions, labelled persistence, resistance and cognition. Bauer et al. (2008:207) and Bauer et al. (2005a:17) opine that a sport consumer who exhibits a high level of psychological commitment towards a team has an inner attachment to that team that is persistent over time and that is resistant to conflicting information or experience.

A high degree of psychological commitment towards a sport team is likely to result in increased behavioural loyalty towards that team (Gray & Wert-Gray, 2011:279). For example, devoted fans tend to attend games regularly, buy more of the licensed team merchandise than any other fans, seek team-media related information and engage actively in positive word-of-mouth communication about their team (Kim et al., 2011a:256). Indeed, attitudinal brand loyalty has been found to be a significant predictor of behavioural brand loyalty (Bandyopadhyay & Martell, 2006:35), including team behavioural brand loyalty (Bauer et al., 2008:220).

Adopting this attitude-behaviour approach to brand loyalty, rather than merely a stochastic approach, facilitates the identification of the antecedents of brand loyalty (Kabiraj & Shanmugan, 2011:287; Bandyopadhyay & Martell, 2006:36).

In the following section, the antecedents of team brand loyalty are discussed in accordance with the model of brand loyalty illustrated in Figure 2.4 in Chapter 2.
3.4 DETERMINANTS OF SPORT-TEAM BRAND LOYALTY

As illustrated in Figure 2.4 in Chapter 2, the literature indicates several factors that influence brand loyalty. These factors include brand awareness, as it relates to product category involvement (Aaker, 1996:114; Keller, 1993:3), brand image (Keller, 1993:4), brand trust (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005:188; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001:82; Morgan & Hunt, 1994:22), brand satisfaction (He et al., 2012:655; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001:82; Oliver, 1999:42) and brand identification (Albert & Merunka, 2013:262; Shirazi et al., 2013:153). Using this model as a foundation, the remainder of the chapter focuses on reviewing the literature on the determinants of sport team brand loyalty in terms of team identification, sport domain involvement, the team brand image dimensions of team success and team delivery, and the team relationship quality dimensions of team trust and team satisfaction.

This section commences with a discussion on team identification as an important determinant of team brand loyalty.

3.4.1 Team identification

As highlighted in Section 2.5.1, brand identification is an important predictor of brand loyalty (Shirazi et al., 2013:153), particularly attitudinal loyalty in the form of psychological commitment towards a brand (Albert & Merunka, 2013:262). The same holds true in the case of sport team loyalty, where sport team identification has been found to have a significant positive influence on team brand loyalty (Lee et al., 2013:209). Koo (2009:172) found that fan identification had a significant positive influence on attitudinal team loyalty. Choi (2013:214) found a significant positive correlation between the team identification and team attitudinal loyalty. Team identification also influences actual game attendance and intention to attend future games (Matsuoka et al., 2003:246). In general, spectators who watch or attend sport games regularly are more likely to show a high level of attitudinal loyalty when they are highly identified with a team (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2011:786).

Team identification refers to the intensity of cognitive or perceptual connectivity a fan has with a sport team relative to other fans, in terms of using that team as an extension of their self-concept and experiencing the team’s successes and failures as their own (Mael
& Ashforth, 1992:105). The concept of team and fan identification is grounded in social identity theory (Han & Harms, 2010:21; Fink et al., 2009:143). Kwon et al. (2007:541) indicate that team identification has been considered from two different theoretical viewpoints, namely the social identity theory and the self-identity theory.

Social identity theory was developed to explain situations whereby people behave in terms of group memberships rather than behave as distinct individuals (Ellemers et al., 1997:617). Adapted to social psychology, human resource management, psychology and marketing (Lin & Lin, 2008:71), the social identity theory has been applied extensively to explain the behaviour of sport consumers (Lock et al., 2012:283). It has been applied as a framework that contributes to understanding the aspects of team identity formation (James, 2001:235; Fisher & Wakefield, 1998:25), the strength of that identification (Wann & Branscombe, 1995:552; Wann & Branscombe, 1993:12-13), the dimensionality of the construct (Heere & James, 2007a:65; Heere & James, 2007b:319) and how it influences fan loyalty (Lee et al., 2013:209; Stevens & Rosenberger III, 2012:220).

Adopting a sport identity is an important element in developing sport team loyalty. An individual is thought to adopt a sport identity through a process of internalisation (derived from the self-determination theory), and the integration of the sport team into the self-concept results in the emergence of a sport identity (Funk & James, 2004:2).

Identification is a cognitive state whereby individuals view themselves as members of a social entity (Carlson et al., 2009:372). This team identification has also been found to influence fans’ loyalty positively towards the team’s sponsors (Levin et al., 2004:11).

In determining why certain sport consumers connect with one team and not another, several studies (Theodorakis et al., 2010:67; Carlson et al., 2009:371; Tsiotsou & Alexandris, 2009:361; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003:278) suggest that many of these teams are selected based on the individual consumer’s psychological connection, known as identification. This concept of psychological connection and identification continues to earn popularity and significant interest in recent studies (Choi, 2013:94; Zetou et al., 2013:13; Stevens & Rosenberger III, 2012:221; Lock et al., 2012:284; Wu et al., 2012:178; Potter & Keene, 2012:349; Dhurup, 2012:745; Ahn et al., 2012:14; Gray & Wert-Gray, 2011:276; Gau & Kim, 2011:589). Most significant is the fact that these psychological connections are constant in nature; that is, they do not tend to fluctuate from season to season nor from game to game (Tsiotsou & Alexandris, 2009:361;
Theodorakis et al., 2009:458; Funk & James, 2001:132). These connections stimulate positive moods in fans that, in turn, produce feelings, thoughts and preferences (Funk & James, 2004:2), which are controlled by the complexity and strength of sport-related mental associations (Funk & James, 2001:119) and play an important role in explaining fans’ behaviour (Theodorakis et al., 2010:67).

An individual’s level of team identification may reflect underlying needs for social approval, belongingness, or personal expression that explain aspects of initial attitude development towards the team (for example, team attraction) (Funk & James, 2006:196; Funk et al., 2000:132). This perception of belongingness partially enhances self-esteem (Fink et al., 2009:143; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003:277; Dakalas & Kropp, 2002:25; Ashforth & Mael, 1989:21), allowing fans to define themselves as members of a group or a team (Ko et al., 2010:30; Carlson et al., 2009:372; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003:278; Bhattacharya et al., 1995:46; Mael & Ashforth, 1992:109) and describe themselves to others as team fans. This elicits feelings of being part of the team (Funk & James, 2004:19, Funk & James, 2001:140; James, 2001:233) and results in the team becoming integral to that individual’s self-identity (Funk & James, 2004:10). This demonstrates a fan’s strong psychological commitment; not just an individual who watches games (James, 2001:233) but also as an individual who sees the team as an extension of his or her own self (Fink et al., 2009:144).

### Levels of team identification

There are three discernible levels of team identification, namely low identification (social fans), medium identification (focused fans) and high identification (vested fans) (Sutton et al., 1997:16-17). Fink et al. (2009:145) argue that an individual may have a favourite team, yet may not identify strongly with that particular team. For example, highly identified and loyal fans probably do not conclude post-game that “I really knew they would lose”, because such statements are contrary to being a committed and loyal fan. Committed and loyal fans have a greater expectancy of their team to perform successfully than those fans with a low level of identification (Trail et al., 2003a:10). They describe a win in terms of ‘we won’ when their favourite team wins and bask in the reflected glory (BIRG) of that win, while they cut off reflected failure (CORF) by describing a team loss as ‘they lost’ when their team loses the competition (Dhurup, 2010:214; Wakefield,
3.4.1.2 Development of team identification

In the identification theory, Mael and Ashforth (1992:118) argue that there is a feedback loop from identification to the antecedents of that identification, such as how an individual begins to identify with a group, and how the values and practices of that group become more salient and more distinctive over time. Hunt et al. (1999:440) suggest that identification with a target at different levels (such as with a specific sport) precedes identification at other levels (such as with a specific team). That is, spectators exhibit an interest in a sport in addition to an interest in a particular team and this involvement influences their allegiance to their favourite team. However, the formation of a sport identity differs from one individual to another, and although most people may be aware of the sport teams, not all of them proceed to form a sport identity. Many of these individuals enjoy the excitement of attending certain sport games or watching those games on television, others view such activities as an opportunity to escape from their daily routines; however, such individuals are only at the initial stage of team brand awareness through their involvement in soccer and may not move beyond this stage (Funk & James, 2004:12).

Funk and James (2001:119) developed the four-stage Psychological Continuum Model (PCM) of awareness, attraction, attachment and allegiance to explain the process of team identification. They indicate that the awareness process takes place primarily through socialisation agents, such as friends, family, sport advertisements, news and media, all of which serve to provide the realisation and knowledge that certain sport teams exist. The second stage is the attraction stage, which involves an individual starting to compare and evaluate different sports and sport teams, and finally acknowledging having a favourite team.

Funk and James (2006:191-192) indicate that this process driving an individual to progress from awareness to attraction also includes socialisation agents and leads to the satisfaction of dispositional and hedonic needs. Attraction takes place when a spectator views a sport team as being sufficiently relevant and desirable to select amongst other teams (Lock et al., 2012:284). At the attraction stage of the PCM, distinct interest or
initial attitude formation towards a sport team has been developed. At this stage, whilst identification is not internalised, attitude has been formed (Funk & James, 2006:191-192). However, spectators who are in the attraction stage may cease membership if they deem an alternative social category as positively distinct or more likely to enhance self-image (Tajfel & Turner, 1979:37). Of those individuals who have chosen a favourite sport team, there are those will continue to progress up the psychological continuum to develop strong attitudes towards that team, until such a team becomes psychologically important to them (Funk & James, 2001:141). The movement from attraction to attachment is activated by the realisation of hedonic and dispositional needs and is accompanied by the outcome that identification is internalised, where there is less reliance on external forces such as socialisation processes (Lock et al., 2012:284-285; Funk & James, 2006:192).

Attachment refers to identification with a team (Funk & James, 2001:131) and, according to Koo and Hardin (2008:33), is a good indicator of loyalty or a good criterion to classify sport consumers. The attachment process outlines how “I like the team” transforms into “that is my team” and later to “I’m devoted to the team”, based on a meaningful psychological connection that is dynamic, emotionally complex, irreplaceable and a type of self-extension (Funk & James, 2006:209).

Attachment is defined as the “degree to which physical and psychological features (attributes and benefits associated with the team such as success, star player, stadium or venue, identification, and community pride) take on internal psychological meaning” (Funk & James, 2001:132). It is defined by Koo and Hardin (2008:41-42) as “a long-term factor cultivated for a long period of time as a function of varied experiences”. The factors that distinguish attraction from attachment are the strength of an individual’s psychological connection to a sport team and the highest levels of involvement on facets such as centrality (Funk & James, 2001:131). When intense psychological attachment that goes beyond simple team loyalty develops, team identification has taken place (Wakefield, 2007:103). This is characterised by the formation of a distinctive and exclusive preference (positive affect) for a team, whereby this distinctive and exclusive preference satisfies a number of needs, including social affiliation and interaction (Funk & James, 2004:10). Transition between the stages is affected by a set of variables known as the processes of change, including decisional balance (weighing the pros and cons of change), self-efficacy (confidence in the ability to change) and situational influences (Funk & James, 2001:123).
3.4.1.3 Benefits of team identification

A sport team provides a basis for fan identification, which offers certain benefits to a fan. An individual identifies with a particular team to fulfil the need to affiliate with something successful or desirable (Gladden & Funk, 2002:59). Following a sport team helps a fan to escape daily stresses and helps in developing a strong association with the team (Javani et al., 2012:9). Those fans that have a high level of team identification represent an important target market for sport teams (Greenwood et al., 2006:254). The stronger the fan identifies with a team, the more time and money they spend on that team to show their level of support and affiliation (Carlson et al., 2009:381; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003:277). The benefits of high customer identification include customers’ loyalty to existing products, their positive word-of-mouth communication, and their resistance to negative information associated with the organisation (Keh & Xie, 2008:734). Team identification and the development of strategies to enforce the bonds between the team and its fans, as well as among the fans themselves, is the basis for a professional team’s long-term success (Zetou et al., 2013:13).

In conclusion, team identification is an important determinant of team psychological commitment and consequent behavioural loyalty towards a team. In the following section, the literature on the influence of sport domain involvement and team brand awareness on team identification is reviewed.

3.4.2 Sport domain involvement and team brand awareness

In Section 2.5.2, the point was made that product category involvement is typically necessary for brand awareness to occur (Aaker, 1996:114; Keller, 1993:3). In the professional sport arena, a degree of sport-team brand awareness is likely to occur simply due to exposure to the media. However, generally, individuals who are interested in a particular sport are likely to exhibit better team brand recognition and team brand recall in that particular sport than those individuals who have no interest in that particular sport or sport in general (Bauer et al., 2008:209). In the PCM, the awareness process results in outcomes such as knowledge about the existence of a team (Funk & James, 2001:191), and it is an essential first step in building team brand associations that create a sport team’s brand image (Bauer et al., 2008:209).
While much research has been devoted to the concept of involvement (Rothchild, 1984:216), particularly in the leisure and tourism sector, until recently it has been largely ignored in terms of the sport spectator (Funk et al., 2004:36; Kerstetter & Kovitch, 1997:238). Spectator involvement with a team is the biggest driver in the sportscape context. However, the emphasis in this case is more on the event and the amenities, rather than on how spectator sport domain involvement relates to team identification and team brand loyalty (Hill & Green, 2000:159).

Determining spectators’ sport domain involvement is important in that it serves as a starting point in segmenting sport consumers (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003:286) and because it influences sport team identification (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003:286; Fisher & Wakefield, 1998:35), the extent to which spectators follow a particular sport and spectator loyalty (Stevens & Rosenberger III, 2012:226).

3.4.2.1 Sport domain involvement as a predictor of team identification

Whilst there are a number of factors that may influence team identification and consequent team brand loyalty, sport domain involvement is likely to be the dominant factor given that it is a precursor to team identification (Bee & Havitz, 2010:144). As indicated under Section 3.4.1, team identification involves an individual feeling connected and emotionally involved with a sport team, and personally committed to that team - something that is unlikely to occur in the absence of a high level of involvement in that sport (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998:27).

Several studies have sought to measure the influence of sport domain involvement on team identification and the findings of these studies support the assumption of the current study that sport domain involvement is a precursor to team identification. For example, Gwinner and Swanson (2003:286) found that soccer involvement had a significant strong positive influence on spectators’ soccer team identification. In a more recent study, Tsiotsou (2013:465) found that soccer involvement was the strongest predictor of spectators’ professional soccer team identification. In an earlier study, Fisher and Wakefield (1998:35) found that hockey involvement had a significant positive influence on spectators’ professional hockey team identification in the case of both successful and unsuccessful teams.
3.4.2.2 Sport domain involvement as a predictor of team brand loyalty

Given that team identification is an important predictor of both psychological commitment and behavioural loyalty, and that sport domain involvement is an important predictor of team identification, it is reasonable to assume that there will be a positive association between sport domain involvement and team brand loyalty. Previous studies (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998:259; 2004:45; Backman & Crompton, 1991a:14; 1991b:205) suggest that enduring involvement predicts both psychological commitment and behavioural loyalty. Backman and Crompton (1991a:14) found that the level of involvement was one of the most discriminating variables regarding loyalty and, in a later study, Backman and Crompton (1991b:205) determined that involvement has a significant influence on psychological commitment. Similarly, Park (1996:223) found a strong correlation between involvement and psychological commitment, while Beatty and Kahle, (1988:7) indicate that involvement influences brand loyalty and brand commitment.

In the context of sport, involved sport fans are more likely to seek additional information, including game statistics, about both their favourite sport and their favourite team, which means that they are more likely to use a variety of media to keep them informed. In addition, they are more likely to engage in discussions with others about their favourite sport and team (Stevens & Rosenberger III, 2012:224). Furthermore, involved sport fans are more likely to attend home and away games (Tsiotsou & Alexandris, 2009:361) and are more likely to purchase licensed merchandise connected to that sport (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998:35).

Bee and Havitz (2010:152) report that spectators’ tennis involvement had a significant positive influence on their psychological commitment towards and resistance to change from the tennis event organisers, as well as the number of sessions attended at the event (behavioural loyalty). Similarly, Stevens and Rosenberger III (2012:224) found that there was significant positive correlation between rugby involvement and rugby-league team identification in Australia. In contrast, the findings of Fisher and Wakefield (1998:35) and Tsiotsou (2013:465) indicate that sport domain involvement influences team loyalty indirectly via its influence on team identification. The same approach will be followed in this study; that is, the influence of soccer domain involvement on psychological commitment will be tested via its influence on PSL team identification.
The following section considers the influence of team brand image dimensions on team brand loyalty.

### 3.4.3 Team brand image

Section 2.5.3 described Keller’s (1993:4) definition of brand image as being a reflection of consumers’ brand associations in terms of a brand’s perceived attributes (product- and non-product-related attributes) and benefits, which culminate in consumers’ overall assessment of that brand. In an attempt to operationalise brand image as it relates to team sports, Gladden and Funk (2002:54) developed the Team Association Model (TAM) that comprised team attributes (team success, head coach, team delivery, logo, tradition, stadium, star players and management), benefits (nostalgia, escape, pride in place, identification and peer group acceptance) and attitude (importance, knowledge and effect). In an effort to overcome the limitations of the TAM including factors influencing game attendance and sport consumer motives, Ross *et al.* (2006:263, 270) developed the Team Brand Association Scale (TBAS). This scale included the constructs of non-player personnel, team success, team history, stadium community, team delivery, brand mark, commitment, organisational attributes, concessions, social interaction, and rivalry.

In an effort to improve on this model by distinguishing between product- and non-product-related attributes, Bauer *et al.* (2008:211) developed a 20-item scale. This scale included product-related attributes (team management, head coach, team success, star player and team delivery), non-product-related attributes (logo and club colours, club history and tradition, stadium, and fans) and brand benefits (identification, peer-group acceptance, escape, socialising, emotions, nostalgia and entertainment). Each of these was then measured in terms of the uniqueness, likeability and trustworthiness of the sport team in order to determine attitude towards team.

The current study focused only on the product-related attributes of brand associations. Non-product-related attributes were excluded given that they are the external aspects of the product or service (Blumrodt *et al.*, 2012:484; Chanavat & Bodet, 2009:464; Keller, 1993:4). The present study specifically focused on the product-related attributes of team success and team delivery. The reasoning here was that star players and head coaches are transient and may not relate to enduring team identification and team brand loyalty (Bodet & Chanavat, 2010:63). In the world of professional sport, team success and team
delivery represent important facets of a team’s brand image that influence team identification (Wu et al., 2012:183).

As indicated under Section 3.4.1, basking in reflected glory (BIRGing) is linked to team identification and refers to a situation where consumers describe a win by their team in terms of ‘we won’, but cut off reflected failure (CORFing) by describing a team loss as ‘they lost’ (Dhurup, 2010:214; Wakefield, 2007:26; Dionisio et al., 2008:22; Fullerton, 2007:386; Dimmock & Gucciardi, 2007:287; Funk & James, 2004:11). A team’s increased success also elevates its status and differentiates it from other teams (Carlson et al., 2009:373), which suggests that it is an important predictor of team identification and team brand loyalty. Likewise, team delivery, which relates to the entertainment value of watching a game and to the performance of the team, is also considered an important determinant of team identification and team loyalty (Gladden & Funk, 2002:58).

3.4.3.1 Team success

In Section 2.5.2, the concept of perceived quality was discussed and the point was made that perceived brand quality leads to brand prestige (Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012:411), something that is generally associated with successful (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008:294) or winning brands (Ashforth & Mael, 1989:25). Soccer is a highly competitive sport and success on the pitch is critical, making it a major priority for teams to win their games. Despite team loyalty suggesting that spectators will remain psychologically committed to a team even if it is unsuccessful (Heere & Dickson, 2008:233), the strongest sport team brands remain those that are most successful on the field (Bauer et al., 2005b:497). A team must have a minimum level of success on the field because fans do not want to associate themselves with a losing team, which makes team success a fundamental dimension in sport events (Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005:25-26) and a primary reason for supporters to follow a team (Dionisio et al., 2008:19). In addition, an increase in team success leads to an increase in the team status and separates a team from other competing teams (Carlson et al., 2009:373).

The level of representation with a particular team depends on factors such as its standing record within the league or the level of the league itself, and demonstrates that the winning teams are more attractive to fans (Pawlowski & Anders, 2012:1554; Carlson et al., 2009:372; Wakefield, 2007:16; Hill & Green, 2000:148). Fans are attracted to those
teams with whom they share a strong feeling of similarity, which may be a real source with actual-self (the way an individual perceives himself) or aspiration source with ideal-self (the way an individual would like to be perceived) (Carlson et al., 2009:372; Kwak & Kang, 2009:88). Fans are attracted by the possibility of feeling a sense of personal success if a favourite team wins, which, in turn, increases their self-esteem and public image (Koenigstorfer et al., 2010:131; Mahony et al., 2002:5; Cialdini et al., 1976:369). Conversely, a loss by a favourite team may negatively impact the fans’ public image and self-esteem (Mahony & Moorman, 1999:49). This may result in individuals feeling a need to decrease their association with the unsuccessful team to protect their self-esteem and to increase their association with winning teams to enhance their self-esteem (Wann & Branscombe, 1995:562).

This suggests that a sport team’s success is an important element of its brand image (Pawlowski & Anders, 2012:1554-1555). As such, fans are more likely to identify with a successful sport team brand because, in doing so, they maximise their sense of vicarious achievement (Trail et al., 2003a:10; Fink et al., 2002:8; Fink et al., 2009:144; Mahony et al., 2000:19; Wann & Branscombe, 1993:3), which is defined as the ability of the brand to provide the consumer with a sense of personal accomplishment (Williams et al., 2012:45).

Individuals begin to support and continue their support of a sport team because of the success of the team, its geographical location and peer group support for a team (Funk & James, 2006:190). However, it is team success that drives the developments in attitude-strength at the attraction and attachment stages of the Psychological Continuum Model, due to the satisfaction of hedonic needs (Funk & James, 2006:205-206). For example, a positive relationship exists between success on the field and game attendance (Robinson & Mille, 2003:58; Marcum & Greenstein, 1985:315). A team win and positive game outcome not only lead to fan satisfaction but also stimulate future game attendance. In contrast, a team loss and negative game outcome lead to dissatisfaction that decreases future game attendance, where the game itself is characterised as being the most important facet to bring about spectator satisfaction (Beccarrini & Ferrand, 2006:15). For example, a sport fan may be satisfied after purchasing a season ticket but dissatisfied if a favourite team loses. Success may also be defined based on expectations (Gladden et al., 1998:6). If individuals expect a team win and their team does indeed win, then their
expectations will be positively confirmed, and vice versa. This infers that sport spectators’ game expectations may be confirmed or disconfirmed, and may be positively or negatively confirmed. For example, a team wins when expected to lose (positive disconfirmation) or the team loses when expected to win (negative disconfirmation) (Trail et al., 2003a:10).

Team successes and failures have a significant impact on individuals who are motivated to support a particular team because they want to be associated with successful others (Trail et al., 2003b:220). Team success may contribute to behavioural loyalty in that it tends to result in increased ticket sales, team-branded merchandise sales and donations. In addition, it tends to enhance the atmosphere at games and helps attract broadcast exposure and sponsorship deals (Gladden et al., 1998:6). Winning relates to the internalised positive self-definition, as well as internalised position in a social environment (Dionisio et al., 2008:23). Koenigstorfer et al. (2010:131) and Trail et al. (2003b:226) believe that fans want to see their team’s successes and to share in those successes.

Team success triggers a set of associations about the team brand in the consumer’s memory (Kaynak et al., 2008:352) and it is the most important determinant of the strength of a brand in a team sport (Koo, 2009:102; Bauer et al., 2005b:497). This serves to increase the sport team’s brand equity by helping to expand the team’s fan base and by increasing team identification and team brand loyalty of existing fans (Desbordes, 2007:134). This makes team success an important element of team brand image and brand loyalty over time (Gladden & Funk, 2002:57), one which attracts the attention and interest of not only spectators, but also the media and current and potential sponsors (Koenigstorfer et al., 2010:131).

3.4.3.1.1 Sport team success as a predictor of team identification

Sport team success may influence team identification (Bee & Kahle, 2006:109), in that it influences the decision of whether or not to follow a specific sport team (Funk & James, 2001:128). That is, an increase in team successes often results in increased commercial activity in the form of increased media coverage and sponsorship deals, which often make the team even more successful competitively. This, in turn, culminates in increasing fans’ emotional attachment to or identification with the team (Abosag et al., 2012:1246).
Sport fans use a team’s success as a source of identification (Theodorakis et al., 2009:459; Funk & James, 2001:128), where highly-identified fans are more likely to be affected by their team’s performance as they tend to translate these successes and failures into their own personal successes and failures (Kim & Kim, 2009:218). Individuals with high levels of identification to a team feel threatened by poor team performance, whereas fans of the losing team, who do not identify strongly with that team do not feel threatened when a team performs poorly, as the team is not a central element of their social identity (Wann et al., 2008:447). Owing to their low level of identification with a team, they do not receive vicarious gratification or pain from the performance of the competing team; hence, team success or failure is simply not that significant to such individuals and they neither bask in reflected glory nor cut off from reflected failure (Bristow & Sebastian, 2001:269).

Stronger team identification increases an individual’s susceptibility to the influence of other group members, which results in an individual vicariously experiencing the wins and losses of that group (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998:25). Fink and Parker (2009:214) suggest that when an individual has a high level of identification with the team, he or she is more likely to develop and experience a greater vicarious achievement (for example, Bask-In-Reflected-Glory) through a relationship with a team. Mahony et al. (2002:5) believe that vicarious team achievement is the most significant motivator for team identification and Fisher and Wakefield (1998:35) found that team success has a strong positive influence on professional hockey team identification in the USA. Trail and James (2001:122) found that team success, measured in terms of vicarious achievement, had a significant positive correlation with major league basketball team identification in the USA. Similarly, Carlson et al. (2009:379) report that perceived team success influences university basketball team identification via its influence on team prestige.

### 3.4.3.1.2 Sport team success as a predictor of team brand loyalty

Gladden et al. (1998:2) indicate that a sport team’s success record reflects the team brand’s perceived quality and, as such, is an important determinant of team brand loyalty. However, whilst the relationship between an identified fan and a team becomes closer through a team’s success record, this relationship does not necessarily deteriorate with that team’s failure (Kim & Kim, 2009:218; Sutton et al., 1997:16; Wann & Branscombe, 1990:105). It is perfectly feasible that fans continue to admire and support a team that
does not win the season, year after year (Bristow & Sebastian, 2001:262). In fact, sport fans who continue to follow and support their favourite team even during unsuccessful seasons or games are considered to be the most loyal (Choi, 2013:265; Mahony & Moorman, 1999:49). As indicated in Section 3.3.2, resistance to change is one of the measures of psychological commitment, and includes not changing one’s allegiance to a team even if they are losing. That is, when a favourite team has a losing game or even season, the brand-loyal fan will resist the temptation to switch to a more successful team (Neale & Funk, 2006:308).

It is the assertion of this study that team success influences psychological commitment to a team via its influence on team identification. While losing a game, a season or even a few seasons may not tempt fans to change their allegiance to a particular team (Choi, 2013:58; Kaynak et al., 2008:343; Neale & Funk, 2006:308; James et al., 2002:215), over time it remains a critical determinant of brand loyalty (Gladden & Funk, 2002:57; Gladden et al., 1998:2) as it affects the perceived prestige of that team and, hence, the proclivity to identify strongly with that team (Carlson et al., 2009:379).

A successful game or season serves to increase mutual trust, which fosters commitment to a long-term relationship with that team (Chen, 2006:204-205). Sari et al. (2011:194) report that fans of the Turkish professional soccer team, Fenerbahçe, which has a history of wins in its domestic market, exhibited significant psychological commitment, as well as overall brand loyalty towards the team. These scores were similar to a study conducted by Giray and Salman (2008:147) that reports high psychological commitment scores for Fenerbahçe’s fans, which the authors attributed to the team’s domestic leadership status and recent good performances in the league.

In the following section, the closely related brand image dimension of team delivery is discussed.

3.4.3.2 Team delivery

As indicated in Section 2.5.3.2, delivery on brand benefits refers to a brand’s performance in terms of its ability to deliver flawlessly on that which it promises to deliver (Lassar et al., 1995:130). A sport team’s delivery relates to the entertainment value it provides spectators in the form of the team’s on-field performance (Gladden & Funk, 2002:58).
Sport team delivery relates to what Keller (1993:4) labels ‘the experiential benefits derived from using a brand; that is, use of the brand satisfies an individual’s need for sensory pleasure, variety, and cognitive stimulation. It is essential to differentiate between team success and team delivery given that a team may lose a game despite delivering a good performance. From the spectators’ perspective, factors that contribute to the team’s delivery include the team members, the head coach and the team’s star players (Bauer et al., 2008:210).

Team delivery is conceptualised as the level of excitement, enjoyment and entertainment individuals derive from watching a particular sport team compete (Gladden & Funk, 2002:68). It relates to the team’s style of play (Funk et al., 2004:47), the excitement stemming from the uncertainty of the competitive outcome of the game (Bee & Havitz, 2010:145), and the aesthetic appeal of the team players’ athletic skill (Trail et al., 2003a:9). Madrigal (2006:270) explains that team skill performance consumption reflects the experiential elements of autotelism and appreciation, where autotelism includes the concepts of flow, fantasy and evaluation of performance and appreciation refers to an admiration of the aesthetics of the performance, the personalities of the players and the physical prowess and attractiveness of the players.

This concept of team delivery expressed in terms of delivering entertaining, exciting and enjoyable play (Gladden & Funk, 2002:68) is thought to be an important predictor of team identification (Funk & James, 2006:194) and team loyalty, in terms of both psychological commitment and behavioural loyalty (Funk et al., 2009:131).

3.4.3.2.1 Team delivery as a predictor of team identification

Spectator sports differ from competing sources of entertainment in that they tend to evoke high levels of emotional attachment and identification (Sutton et al., 1997:15). While Gau et al. (2009:78) argue that the entertainment value of a game is likely to be more important to individuals with low levels of team identification than those with high levels of identification, others suggest that team delivery is a salient predictor of sport team identification (Funk & James, 2006:194; Gladden & Funk, 2002:58). For example, Trail and James (2001:122) found that there was a significant association between the team performance dimensions of physical skill and aesthetics and team identification.
Gladden and Funk (2002:65) also found that there was a significant positive correlation between team delivery and team identification, which suggests that teams that deliver a more entertaining, exciting and enjoyable performance are more likely to enjoy greater fan allegiance. Funk and James (2006:205) also report that team delivery is a robust predictor of team identification.

### 3.4.3.2.2 Team delivery as a predictor of team brand loyalty

Doyle et al. (2012:7) found that team delivery had a significantly positive relationship with team attitudinal loyalty. The findings of the research conducted by Choi (2013:276) suggest that committed soccer fans are more interested in how a game is played by the team (team delivery), in terms of the sensory and experiential satisfaction they derive from watching a game, than in whether the team wins or loses the game. This is most likely because fans with a high level of attitudinal loyalty have a long-term expectation of the team and, as such, place greater importance on the contextual aspects of the team rather than on the match results. The findings from a study conducted by Uhrich and Benkenstein (2012:1751) confirm that perceptions of a high-quality team performance positively influence the fans’ affective responses to a sport team. Gladden and Funk (2002:64) found that the team delivery is one of the most important benefits that sport fans seek and Funk and James (2006:205) found that team delivery had a significant positive correlation with fans’ soccer-team loyalty. In this study, the assumption is that team delivery influences psychological commitment to a team via its influence on team identification.

The next section discusses the team relationship quality and the dimensions of team relationship trust and satisfaction.

### 3.4.4 Team relationship quality

Section 2.5.4 highlighted that an important relationship exists between the relationship quality dimensions of brand trust and brand satisfaction (Zhang & Bloemer, 2008:161; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002:236), and brand identification (He et al., 2012:655) and brand loyalty (He et al., 2012:655; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001:82; Oliver, 1999:42). Relationship quality is defined as the strength, durability and depth of the relationship bond between an organisation and its customers (Kim et al., 2011b:576). Several studies
(Kim et al., 2011a:255; Kim et al., 2011b:576; Kim & Trail, 2011:59; Kim, 2008:18; Fournier, 1998:344) suggest that gaining a better comprehension of relationship quality is crucial for both implementing and studying the concept of relationship marketing within the sport context for the following reasons. First, relationship quality is a key ingredient in building brand loyalty amongst sport fans. Secondly, it is a useful measure of the effectiveness of a sport organisation’s relationship marketing efforts. Thirdly, it may be used to discriminate between successful and unsuccessful relationships with sport fans (Kim et al., 2011b:576).

Sport has become more commercialised and professional, and sport brands face increasing competition, not only from other brands within the same sport but also from other sports and, indeed, other leisure offerings. As such, it has become necessary to adopt more progressive branding strategies, which include focussing on building and maintaining strong relationships with fans and other stakeholders, such as sponsors, in order to remain competitive (Bauer et al., 2005b:496-497). Such relationships are regarded as the key element of building brand loyalty (Bee & Kahle, 2006:108).

All sport team marketing activities involve a certain degree of relationship marketing (Bee & Kahle, 2006:102) that focuses on the development of the team brand, which is the most important asset of a sport team (Bauer et al., 2005b:497). Building strong relationships with sport fans is important for the development of a loyal fan base, which, in turn, helps to enhance the sport team brand (Mullin et al., 2007:174). In addition, these strong relationships along with a strong team brand aid customer retention efforts in the face of potential problems such as heightened competition, higher ticket prices, a greater number of entertainment options and the negative perceptions caused by certain players’ behaviours and lifestyles (Gray & Wert-Gray, 2011:275). In highly competitive markets such as the type that sport team marketers face, it is important to maintain existing fan loyalty by maintaining a high quality relationship with fans (Kim & Trail, 2011:57), and to allocate sufficient resources to strengthen those relationships (Bee & Havitz, 2010:142). As such, building, enhancing and maintaining strong relationships with sport fans may be viewed as one of the basic principles of sport marketing (Kim & Trail, 2011:63).

Bee and Kahle (2006:105) propose a three-stage framework to explain relationship development and maintenance in the sport context. The first stage is compliance, which
they indicate is superficial and temporary, and typically the result of a reaction to external influences such as friends, family, a sport team or a sport organisation. The second stage is identification, which relates to the self-esteem aspects of BIRGing and CORFing, as discussed in Section 3.4.1.1. The third stage is internalisation, which, according to the authors, is more enduring than identification as it involves fans’ behaviour being influenced by values that they perceive, which they share with the sport team.

Several constructs have been put forward in sport marketing and sport psychology literature as measures of relationship quality. These include intimacy, mutuality, trust and commitment (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008:385), trust, commitment, intimacy, self-connection and reciprocity (Kim & Trail, 2011:60; Kim et al., 2011a:258), trust, commitment, intimacy and identification, (Kim et al., 2011b:576) and bond, trust, communication, satisfaction and commitment (De Vries, 2012:17). Kim (2008:23) and Kim et al. (2011a:262) provide empirical support for a five-factor model of sport team relationship quality that includes the constructs of trust, commitment, reciprocity, self-connection, and relationship satisfaction. However, a number of scholars (De Vries, 2012:17; Kim, 2008:23; Farrelly & Quester, 2004:211; De Wulf et al., 2001:36; Tax et al., 1998:60; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999:71; Morgan & Hunt 1994:22) indicate that relationship satisfaction, trust and commitment are the most important indicators of relationship quality and key drivers of consumer loyalty (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008:383).

Following this line of reasoning, this study considers the influence of team relationship trust and team relationship satisfaction on team identification and team brand loyalty.

### 3.4.4.1 Team relationship trust

Trust is viewed as a prerequisite in all types of relational exchanges, including those that occur between a consumer and an organisation (Morgan & Hunt, 1994:23-24). The same holds true in the sport context, where trust is considered an all-important element of the fan-team relationship quality (Kim et al., 2011a:577). Trust is reliant on one party having confidence in the exchange party’s level of reliability and integrity (Morgan & Hunt, 1994:23). Team relationship trust relates to fans’ expectations concerning a sport team’s competency and reliability (Bee & Kahle, 2006:104). Harris and Ogbonna (2008:387-388) found evidence that trust is one of the essential components of successful fan-team relationships, where many fans describe their relationship with a sport team in terms of
trust. Tsiotsou (2013:462) theorises that when fans trust a sport team, they are likely to commit to a relationship with that team and are likely to be willing to sustain a long-term relationship with that team. Wu et al. (2012:177) indicate that this dimension of trust influences fans’ attitudes and behaviour towards forming a relationship with a sport team.

According to Harris and Ogbonna (2008:389), trust in a sport team is typically the result of information gleaned from mass media sources. To this end, Wu et al. (2012:188) suggest that sport marketers issue off-field behaviour guidelines to team members, provide fans with accurate and timely information and insure that the team fulfils all public promises made. Kim et al. (2011b:586) add that sport marketers need to identify the main determinants of team trust and design marketing strategies to create and enhance fans’ trust in the sport team. Related to Morgan and Hunt’s (1994:23) assertion that integrity is integral to trust, Harris and Ogbonna (2008:390) warn that a major cause of soccer team mistrust is the high level of commodification of soccer, in terms of both team owners and players. In order to counteract such perceptions, they suggest that the team publically demonstrate a more philanthropic side. This may include donating money to charities, playing charity games and supporting soccer initiatives in disadvantaged communities and schools.

### 3.4.4.1.1 Team relationship trust as a predictor of team identification

As presented in Section 2.5.4.1, He et al. (2012:656) found that relationship trust has a significant positive association with customer identification. While research into the influence of team trust on team identification is limited (Tsiotsou, 2013:461), team identification by its very nature entails a relationship (Lock et al., 2012:285) and given that trust is pivotal to any relationship (Morgan & Hunt, 1994:23-24), it stands to reason that team trust will influence team identification. Funk and James (2006:205) state that a fan that trusts a team and its management is more likely to form an allegiance towards that team; that is, team identification.

Wu et al. (2012:182, 183) found a significant positive association between the constructs of sport team trust and sport team identification in the Chinese Professional Baseball League. In addition, they ascertained that team trust is a significant positive predictor of team identification. Kim et al. (2011b:584) also report a significant positive relationship between team trust and team identification amongst fans of university football teams in
the USA. Similarly, Tsiotsiou (2013:465) found that team trust has a significant positive influence on soccer team identification amongst fans in a Southeast European country. However, the study also indicated that team trust directly influences team brand loyalty.

3.4.4.1.2 Team relationship trust as a predictor of team brand loyalty

As highlighted in Section 2.5.4.1, Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001:89) found that brand trust is a significant predictor of brand loyalty, in terms of both attitudinal loyalty and behavioural loyalty, across a wide range of product categories. Kim et al. (2011b:584) found that team trust was a significant predictor of team behavioural loyalty in terms of sport media consumption intentions and team licensed merchandise consumption intentions but not of game attendance intentions. Magnusen et al. (2012:516) also report that team relationship trust has a significant positive influence on game attendance intentions. Tsiotsiou (2013:465) found that team trust is a significant positive predictor of soccer team brand loyalty.

In this study, the assumption is that team relationship trust influences team brand loyalty via its influence on team identification.

3.4.4.2 Team relationship satisfaction

As indicated in Section 2.5.4.2, from a relationship quality perspective, consumer satisfaction refers to an individual’s overall affective evaluation of cumulative experience encounters with that brand (Zhang & Bloemer, 2008:163). In terms of sport team satisfaction, such an evaluation may be transactional-based, in that it is limited to a particular sport season; or it may be cumulative, in that it encompasses all previous games attended or watched (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2011:783; Matsuoka et al., 2003:245). Kim et al. (2011a:262) view team satisfaction as a relationship concept, which they define as the cumulative result of team trust, commitment, intimacy, self-connection and reciprocity. Hennig-Thurau et al. (2002:234) indicate that brand satisfaction, along with brand trust, is a key component of relationship quality and Wu et al. (2012:188) highlight the importance of researching the effect of fans’ satisfaction with a sport team based on their team identification levels. Theodorakis et al. (2001:432) highlight that despite the known importance of satisfaction to an organisation’s long-term prosperity, research into sport fan satisfaction is lacking. In an attempt to identify this gap in the literature, Sarstedt
et al. (2014:419, 434) developed the Fan Satisfaction Index, which they tested using soccer fans. According to their findings, satisfaction with the quality of the team in terms of team performance and successful games, as well as team management and fan-based support all contribute significantly to overall fan satisfaction. While they refer to fan-based support as face-to-face interactions between team members and team fans, this may be extended to digital platforms such as social media sites and mobile phone communication. Indeed, a study by Bevan-Dye (2012:41, 45) indicates that African Generation Y students, who represent the target population in the current study, are relatively heavy users of social networking sites and suggests that social networking site-brand communities are a viable way of targeting this segment. Sarstedt et al. (2014:434) also found that satisfaction with the team’s home stadium influenced fan satisfaction, which is a source of satisfaction that is external to the team.

Harris and Ogbonna (2008:396) argue that it is the sport team itself rather than external sources such as the stadium and event service quality from which soccer fans derive their team relationship satisfaction. Sarstedt et al. (2014:422) add that fans with a high level of team identification are likely to maintain a long-term relationship with that sport team and that their level of satisfaction is likely to be an integral aspect of that relationship. This suggests that relationship satisfaction is associated with team identification and, consequently, with team loyalty. Indeed, Kim et al. (2011a:262) report a strong positive relationship between satisfaction and team commitment.

### 3.4.4.2.1 Team relationship satisfaction as a predictor of team identification

Mael and Ashforth (1992:107) argue that satisfaction with an organisation leads to a sense of identification with that organisation, which, in turn, leads to having a sense of loyalty towards that organisation. Keh and Xie (2008:733) suggest that strong customer-organisation relationships occur when a customer identifies with an organisation that satisfies one or more of his/her key self-definitional needs in terms of self-continuity, self-distinctiveness and/or self-enhancement.

The benefits of forging a relationship with a sport team serve as antecedents of team identification, which is related to fan satisfaction (Bee & Kahle, 2006:107); that is, team identification by its very nature requires a degree of team relationship satisfaction for
fans. Whilst several studies have determined that fans’ transactional-based satisfaction correlates significantly with team identification (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2011:789; Theodorakis et al., 2009:465; Matsuoka et al., 2003:249), no prior research on the influence of team relationship satisfaction on team identification was found, despite suggestions that this warrants attention. For example, Kim et al. (2011a:267) highlight the need to research how team relationship satisfaction affects the team identification dimensions of BIRGing and CORFing.

3.4.4.2.2 Team relationship satisfaction as a predictor of team brand loyalty

As an antecedent of future intentions, customer satisfaction presents as a reliable indicator of customer loyalty (Javadein et al., 2008:4) in that loyalty is the way in which consumers express their satisfaction with the performance of a product or service (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2001:1239). Chandrashekaran et al. (2007:156) argue that satisfaction relates to loyalty but that its influence often depends on prior relational experience.

Kim et al. (2011a:262) report a strong positive association between team relationship satisfaction and team commitment. However, as is the case with the relationship between fan relationship satisfaction and team identification, there is a dearth of studies on the influence of team relationship satisfaction on the team brand loyalty dimensions of psychological commitment and behavioural loyalty. Most studies focus on fan satisfaction in terms of fan satisfaction with the game outcome and team performance (Matsuoka et al., 2003:249) or the event (Foroughi et al., 2014:189; Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2011:793). These studies all report a positive relationship between customer satisfaction and team brand loyalty. According to the findings of Bodet and Bernache-Assollant (2011:794-795), fan transaction–specific satisfaction influences attitudinal loyalty directly, as well as indirectly via its influence on team identification.

The current study focuses on team relationship satisfaction as opposed to transaction specific satisfaction and the assertion is that team relationship satisfaction influences team loyalty via its influence on team identification.
The following section presents the proposed measurement model derived from the literature review undertaken in this chapter.

### 3.5 PROPOSED MODEL OF THE DETERMINANTS OF PSL TEAM BRAND LOYALTY AMONGST BLACK GENERATION Y STUDENTS

In accordance with the literature reviewed in this chapter and against the background of the determinants of brand loyalty model presented in Chapter 2 in Figure 2.4, Figure 3.2 illustrates the proposed determinants of PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students in the South African context.

![Proposed model of the determinants of black Generation Y students’ PSL team brand loyalty](image)

**Figure 3.2:** Proposed model of the determinants of black Generation Y students’ PSL team brand loyalty

As indicted in Figure 3.2, this study hypothesises that soccer domain involvement, PSL team success, PSL team delivery, PSL team relationship trust and PSL team relationship satisfaction
satisfaction influences PSL team psychological commitment via their influence on PSL team identification, and that PSL team psychological commitment influences behavioural loyalty towards PSL teams.

3.6 CONCLUSION

The primary purpose of Chapter 3 was to propose a model of the determinants of PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students in the South African context in accordance with the literature and juxtaposed against the model presented in Figure 2.4 in Chapter 2.

In this chapter, it was concluded that the concept of branding is crucial in professional team sports in that it is a prerequisite of creating and maintaining team brand loyalty. For the purpose of this study and in accordance with the literature, team brand loyalty was conceptualised as a two-dimensional construct comprising psychological commitment and behavioural loyalty, where psychological commitment towards a sport team influences behavioural loyalty towards that team.

Using Figure 2.4 as a foundation, the focus of the chapter was on reviewing the literature pertaining to the determinants of sport team brand loyalty in terms of team identification, sport domain involvement, the team brand image dimensions of team success and team delivery, and the team relationship quality dimensions of team trust and team satisfaction.

Team identification, which refers to the intensity of connection a fan has with a sport team, was identified as the most influential determinant of team psychological commitment and consequent behavioural loyalty towards a team. While the literature identifies a number of factors that may influence team identification and team brand loyalty, sport domain involvement is a precursor to team identification in that it is unlikely that an individual would develop an allegiance to a particular team if he/she has no interest in that team’s sport. In addition to sport domain involvement, team brand image was identified as an important predictor of team identification and loyalty. The chapter focused to two brand image dimensions in particular, namely team success and team delivery. The reasoning here was that despite team identification and loyalty suggesting that fans will remain psychologically committed to a team even if it is unsuccessful (Heere & Dickson, 2008:232), the strongest sport team brands remain those
that are most successful on the field. Team delivery, which refers to a team’s ability to deliver entertaining, exciting and enjoyable play, is also identified in the literature as a brand image dimension that has a significant influence on team identification and team loyalty, in terms of both psychological commitment and behavioural loyalty. Furthermore, given that sport brands face increasing competition, it has become increasingly necessary to focus on building and maintaining strong relationships with fans as well as other stakeholders, such as sponsors, in order to remain competitive. In this chapter, relationship quality was conceptualised using the traditional dimensions of relationship trust and relationship satisfaction.

In the following chapter, Chapter 4, the research methodology followed in collecting and analysing the data used to test the model proposed in this chapter is described and the results of this analysis are reported in Chapter 5.
CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3 provided the theoretical underpinning of this study in terms of the concept of brand loyalty towards sport teams, as manifested by psychological commitment and behavioural commitment. In accordance with the primary objective of this study formulated in Chapter 1, Chapter 3 culminated in a proposed model of the determinants of sport-team brand loyalty among black Generation Y students, with specific reference to PSL teams in South Africa. The purpose of Chapter 4 is to explain the theory behind the research methodology followed in empirically testing this proposed model in Chapter 5.

Research methodology involves the application of scientific methods to the investigation of phenomena, involving the theory or model that is most likely to be appropriate for investigating a given object. Research methodology covers aspects such as the process of formulating hypotheses on the basis of the selected theory, the use of measuring instruments and data collection methods, as well as the methods applied in analysing the collected data and interpreting and reporting the resulting findings (Mouton & Marais, 1990:15). An essential first step in the research methodology process is to accurately define the problem (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:41; Mouton & Marais, 1990:192).

In this study, the problem was defined in Section 1.2 of Chapter 1. Once the problem has been defined, the typical steps in the research process dictate consideration of the research design, the research instrument, the sampling procedure and data collection method, the data preparation and the data analysis (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:31; Malhotra, 2010:41-42; Malhotra & Bricks, 2006:337). The empirical portion of this study was carried out in accordance with these steps, which are discussed in more detail throughout this chapter.

In Section 4.3, the research instrument used in the study is described. This is followed by Section 4.4 outlining the five step typically involved in the sampling procedure. The administration of the questionnaire is described in Section 4.5. Thereafter, the data
preparation is discussed in Section 4.6, followed by a description of the statistical analysis techniques used in the study in Section 4.7.

The following section, Section 4.2, describes the research design utilised in the study.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is the framework that defines the procedures that will be followed in gathering and analysing the required information (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:61; Mouton & Marais, 1990:32). The aim is to plan and structure a given research project to allow the maximised eventual validity of the research findings (Mouton & Marais, 1990:33). A research design may be either exploratory or conclusive in nature. In this study, a conclusive research design was followed (Malhotra, 2010:102). Conclusive research designs are further subdivided into descriptive research designs and casual research designs, with descriptive research designs involving single cross-sectional, multiple cross-sectional or longitudinal designs (Malhotra, 2010:103-104; Wegner, 2000:29). The selection of the appropriate research design should be guided by the research objectives of the study (Wegner, 2000:26).

In accordance with the empirical objectives formulated in Chapter 1, this study employed a descriptive research design, using the single cross-sectional approach. Descriptive studies are used to describe the characteristics of objects, individuals, situations, groups, organisations, interactions or environments (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:49; Mouton & Marais, 1990:43), and provide answers to the questions of who, what, why, when, where and how (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:49). As pre-planned and structured studies, descriptive studies are based on large representative samples and, typically, are quantitative in nature (Malhotra, 2010:106), with the response options within the research instrument being pre-defined and pre-coded (Wegner, 2000:29).

The cross-sectional study captures a snapshot of the variables under study at a single point in time from a sample of a target population (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:93). A single cross-sectional design entails obtaining information only once from one sample of participants drawn from a target population (Malhotra, 2010:108).
4.3 **RESEARCH INSTRUMENT**

In descriptive research designs, the required quantitative data may be gathered either through the observation method or the survey method, where the survey method involves the administration of a questionnaire (Malhotra, 2010:212, 334). This study utilised a self-administered survey questionnaire to collect data on the determining factors influencing South African black Generation Y students’ PSL team loyalty (refer to Appendix B).

The questionnaire design is discussed in the following section.

4.3.1 **Questionnaire design**

A poorly designed questionnaire negates a well thought out sampling plan, professional fieldwork and expert statistical analysis as it significantly influences the quality of the data collected (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:287). A questionnaire entails a formal set of questions (Malhotra, 2010:335), designed to gather the information required to resolve specified research questions (Tustin *et al.*, 2005:98). In essence, the design of the questions and response options provided in a questionnaire should be based on the research objective (Aaker *et al.*, 1995:290), and should be easily understood so as to extract the requisite data from the sample participants and allow their responses to be recorded in a tabulated form and translated into relevant findings and recommendations (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:288).

A well-designed questionnaire needs to translate the required data into a series of specific questions that participants are able and willing to answer in such a way as to minimise the occurrence of response error (Malhotra, 2010:335). Through the use of standardised wording and the ordering of questions, questionnaires impose uniformity onto the data-gathering process (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:287).

The questions included in the questionnaire utilised in this study were designed to gather the data necessary to address the empirical research objectives stipulated in Chapter 1. In addition, the questionnaire utilised plain English in order to facilitate comprehension. Furthermore, the questionnaire was made as interesting and concise as possible to encourage participation in the study.
4.3.2 Questionnaire content

In order to determine the required content of the questionnaire used in this study, the empirical objectives outlined in Chapter 1 were examined. This examination led to the inclusion of two screening questions - one related to race in order to ensure that the captured data only included responses from black Africans, and one related to interest in soccer in order to ensure knowledgeable responses. Given the use of convenience sampling in this study, demographic questions concerning gender, province of origin and home language were included as measures of the degree to which the sample was representative of the target population.

Through the literature review in Chapters 2 and 3, previously validated scales were identified as suitable for acquiring the necessary data to address the empirical objectives. As per the literature, sport-team brand loyalty was conceptualised as a two-dimensional construct comprising psychological commitment and behavioural commitment. Psychological commitment was measured using the four items that Bauer et al. (2008:225) selected from the psychological commitment scale developed by Mahony et al. (2000). Bauer et al. (2008:225) adapted these items to mitigate the need for reverse scoring. Sport team behavioural commitment was measured using the future behaviour six-item scale that Bauer et al. (2008:225) adapted from Fink et al. (2002:11). Team identification, as a manifestation of brand preference, was measured using Mael and Ashforth’s (1992:122) six-item uni-dimensional scale. Soccer domain involvement, which was used to conceptualise brand awareness, was measured using Fisher and Wakefield’s (1998:38) three-item uni-dimensional scale.

Scales from the Kim et al. (2011a:262) Sport-Team Relationship Quality Scale (STRQS) were utilised to measure the brand dimensions of trust (three items) and satisfaction (three items). The team brand image dimensions of team success (three items) and team delivery (three items) were measured using sub-scales from Gladden and Funk’s (2002:67-68) team brand image scale. One item in the team success scale was reworded into the positive.

The demographic questions were coded as dichotomous variables and one item (A5) was an open-ended question requiring participants’ age. The construct-related items were measured using a six-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 6 =
strongly agree. This non-comparative form of scaling is particularly suitable for measuring attitudes quantitatively, and offers the advantages of being easy to prepare, administer and interpret (Malhotra, 2010:308).

Given that this was a self-administered questionnaire, care was taken to ensure that clear instructions were given as to how the questionnaire should be completed.

Table 4.1 indicates which items were used to address each of the objectives set out in this study.

**Table 4.1: Items answering the empirical research objectives**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Empirical research objectives</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Determine black Generation Y students’ perceptions of their favourite PSL team’s brand image in terms of team success and team delivery.</td>
<td>B1-B6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determine black Generation Y students’ level of team identification with their favourite PSL team.</td>
<td>B7-B12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determine black Generation Y students’ domain soccer involvement.</td>
<td>B13-B15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determine black Generation Y students’ perceptions of the relationship quality offered by their favourite PSL team in terms of relationship trust and relationship satisfaction.</td>
<td>B16-B21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determine black Generation Y students’ psychological commitment towards their favourite PSL team.</td>
<td>B22-B25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determine black Generation Y students’ behavioural commitment towards their favourite PSL team.</td>
<td>B26-B31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following section discusses the questionnaire structure.
4.3.3 Questionnaire structure

The self-administered questionnaire used in this study (refer to Annexure A) contained two sections, namely Sections A and B. The questions in Section A were designed to collect the participants’ demographic information and to ascertain if they had an interest in soccer. The different subscales in Section B were designed to address the different empirical objectives (refer to Table 4.1).

A cover letter that stated the purpose of the study and provided an assurance of the confidentiality of the information participants supplied was affixed to the questionnaire. This letter also indicated the approximate time it would take to complete the questionnaire and provided the contact details of the researcher.

4.3.4 Pre-testing of the questionnaire

Once the choice of the method of data collection has been made (Malhotra, 2010:354), and the final managerial approval has been issued (in this case, approval from the study promoter and the University’s ethics committee), the questionnaire should be pre-tested (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:310) before the main survey commences (Tustin et al., 2005:99). It is generally advised that a questionnaire not be administered in the field survey prior to proper pre-testing (Malhotra, 2010:354). A pre-test refers to a small-scale study undertaken to identify and eliminate any potential problems participants may experience in answering a questionnaire (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:59; Malhotra, 2010:354; Mouton & Marais, 1990:95).

In a pre-test, all aspects of the questionnaire, from the content and wording to the layout and instructions, are tested (Malhotra, 2010:354) in order to ascertain whether participants encounter any difficulties in understanding the content of the questionnaire and whether there are any ambiguous or biased questions (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:302). The pre-test also assists in identifying potential misinterpretations of questions by participants, and their general experience in completing the questionnaire (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:310).

The participants selected to take part in such a pre-test should be similar to the target population of the main survey in order to obtain a true reflection of how the questionnaire is likely to perform under actual data-gathering conditions (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:302).
There are two basic procedures for pre-testing questionnaires - protocol analysis and debriefing. Protocol analysis entails requesting pre-test participants to vocalise their thoughts while they complete the questionnaire. Their comments are recorded and analysed. With the debriefing approach, pre-test participants first complete the questionnaire; thereafter, they are interviewed and asked to describe what they thought each question meant and to explain their response to each question. They are also asked to identify any problems they experienced while completing the questionnaire (Malhotra, 2010:354).

The pre-test should be done by personal interview (regardless of the mode of administration to be used) to enable the interviewer to watch how people answer the questions and to see where there is a confusion (Malhotra, 2010:354; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:224). If the results obtained from the pre-test indicate the necessity of significant design and question alterations, a second pre-test is required (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:310).

In this study, a pre-test using the debriefing approach was carried out on three different university students. This pre-test was done to ensure that the questionnaire was easy to understand by both English and non-English speaking participants. In the South African market, this is essential given the multilingual context of the country.

Once it was ascertained that the questionnaire was relatively easy to complete and that all questions were being decoded in the manner intended, the questionnaire was examined by two academics in order to evaluate its face or content validity.

The following section discusses the pilot testing of the questionnaire.

### 4.3.5 Pilot testing of the questionnaire

After making all required adjustments and refinements to the questionnaire, it was subjected to pilot testing. As with a pre-test, a pilot study involves administering a questionnaire on a small sample of participants who are similar to those in the target population (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:59).

The primary purpose of conducting a pilot test in this study was to assess the internal-consistency reliability of the scaled responses. The questionnaire was administered on a
sample of 50 Generation Y students not included in the main study and the internal-consistency reliability was measured using the Cronbach alpha (α) and average inter-item correlation values.

In the proceeding section, the sample design procedure followed in the study is discussed.

### 4.4 SAMPLING DESIGN PROCEDURE

Even though sampling forms an integral part of the research design, it is treated as a separate multi-step stage in the research process (Tustin et al., 2005:337). Sampling involves obtaining the required data from a subset (a sample) of a research project’s defined target population (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:326), where the population’s characteristics are estimated (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:312). Sample characteristics, which are referred to as statistics, are employed in order to make presumptions about the parameters of the population (Malhotra, 2010:371).

The selection of the sample is guided by the sample design procedure (Wegner, 2000:110), and the sampling process or procedure draws conclusions about a population based on the observation of a portion of that population (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:63). The ability to make inferences based on a sample of evidence depends on the sampling method used (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:282).

In Figure 4.1, the five steps typically involved in the sampling procedure are illustrated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th>Define the target population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>Identify the sampling frame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td>Select the sampling technique(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 4</td>
<td>Determine the sample size</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 5</td>
<td>Execute the sampling process</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.1:** Sampling design process

Source: Malhotra (2010:372)

The five steps illustrated in Figure 4.1 are discussed in the sections that follow.
4.4.1 Target population

A crucial step in the sampling procedure is to accurately define the population of interest (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:328). The population of interest, or target population, refers to the entire group of elements from which the sample will be drawn (Wegner, 2000:22). It comprises an aggregate of all the elements sharing a common set of characteristics, about which inferences are to be made (Malhotra, 2010:372).

In surveys, the issue of establishing whether a person falls into the defined target population is frequently handled using screening questions to qualify potential respondents (Malhotra, 2010:350). The population of interest is specified in terms of geographic area (for example, South Africa); demographic characteristics (for example, age and race); product or usage characteristics (for example, interest in soccer), (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:328-329), sampling units (for example, universities) and time (for example, 2013) (Malhotra, 2010:372).

The target population of this study encompasses black Generation Y students aged between 18 and 24 years, with an interest in soccer, who were registered at a public South African HEI in the year 2013.

4.4.2 Sampling frame

The next step is to identify the sampling frame, which is a list of the sample elements from which the actual sample is to be selected (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:317) or a set of directions for identifying the population of interest (Malhotra, 2010:373). Identifying the sampling frame for a study sometimes merely involves specifying the procedure to be followed in generating this list of sample elements (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:330). Given that there is a risk that such a list may include certain sample elements that are not part of the sampling frame, it is advisable to screen potential participants in order to take sampling frame error into account in the data-collection phase (Malhotra, 2010:373).

The sample frame selected for this study was a list of South Africa’s public registered HEI campuses situated in the Gauteng province. This province contains the highest number of South Africa’s registered public HEIs, as indicated in previous studies (Bevan-Dye, 2012:40; Bevan-Dye & Surujlal, 2011:50).
The questionnaire used in this study included three screening questions in order to take into account sampling frame error, one pertaining to race, one to age and one to interest in soccer.

### 4.4.3 Sample procedure

The alternative sampling methods are classified as being either probability or non-probability sampling methods (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:322; McDaniel & Gates, 2010:332). Probability sampling may be simple random sample, stratified (both proportionate and disproportionate) sample and cluster (both systematic and area) sample designs (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:285), and is used when highly accurate estimations of the target population are required (Malhotra, 2010:377). With probability sampling, each and every sample element of the target population has an equal probability of being selected to form part of the sample (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:322).

In the case of non-probability sampling methods, the probability of selecting sample elements from the target population for inclusion in the sample cannot be estimated (Tustin et al., 2005:344). The main types of non-probability samples are convenience samples, quota samples, snowball samples and judgmental samples (Malhotra, 2010:376).

In this study, judgmental sampling was employed to select the campuses of three HEIs. Churchill Jr et al. (2010:336) maintain that this sampling method relies on the personal judgement. As such, personal judgement was used to ensure that the sample in this study included participants from a traditional university, a university of technology and a comprehensive university. Thereafter, a convenience sample of students at each of the three campuses was taken. With this type of sampling technique, participants are selected because they happen to be in the right place at the right time. As such, convenience sampling is subject to possible selection bias and the findings of studies using this type of sampling need to be interpreted with care (Malhotra, 2010:377). That being said, convenience samples are still frequently used because, as is the case with this study, it is sometimes the only practical approach to gather the required data.

In order to alleviate some of the issues associated with non-probability samples, a number of demographic questions, including province of origin, age and home language, were
included in the questionnaire as a measure of the extent to which the sample was representative of the target population.

This study used sampling without replacement. That is, once a sample element is included in the sample, it no longer forms part of the sampling frame and, as such, cannot be selected again (Churchill Jr et al., 2010:336).

### 4.4.4 Sample size

Prior to engaging in the data collection process it is necessary to determine the appropriate sample size (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:312). There are several qualitative and quantitative factors that may be used to guide this decision (Malhotra, 2010:374). Decisions regarding the sample size involve consideration of how many sample elements need to be included in the sample in order to obtain sufficient, accurate and reliable answers that address the problem, without exceeding research resources (Churchill Jr et al., 2010:363).

Since there is no statistical formula for prior calculation of sample size of a non-probability sample (Martins et al., 1996:256), qualitative considerations such as resource limitations, intended statistical analysis techniques, the research design and the typical size of samples used in similar studies often guide the decision regarding the sample size (Malhotra, 2010:374).

The sample size selected for this study was 402 undergraduate students (134 per campus), which is consistent with past studies (Stevens & Rosenberger III, 2012:225; Kim et al., 2011a:581; Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2011:787; Ross et al., 2007:108). However, the final sample size obtained consisted of 289 respondents. Taking into account the intended statistical analysis techniques, this sample size was deemed sufficiently large to meet the 200 to 400 cases rule for structural equation modelling (Malhotra, 2010:731). In addition, given that there were 31 scaled-response items in the questionnaire, it was also large enough to meet the 5 to10 responses per scale item rule for factor analysis (Pallant, 2010:183).

In the following section, the administration of the questionnaire is discussed.
4.5 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Data collection or fieldwork involves the actual method employed to gather the required data, which, in the case of the survey questionnaire, may be electronically, telephonically, through the mail or through personal interviews (Malhotra, 2010:42). The factors that determine the choice of survey method to use include the degree of sampling precision, budget size, whether the respondents need to react to various stimuli or to perform a specialised task, the quality of the data required, the length of the questionnaire, and the time available to complete the questionnaire (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:143).

In this study, personal interviews using a self-administered questionnaire were used to gather the required data. A lecturer at each of the three campuses was requested to act as a custodian of the students. They were shown a copy of the questionnaire and the ethical clearance certificate. Once they agreed that the questionnaire did not breach any ethical standard, the questionnaire was administered.

Following the mall intercept form of personal interviews, three fieldworkers went to each of the three campuses in mid-2013 and distributed questionnaires to students between lectures. These students were told the purpose of the study and asked if they would be willing to take a few minutes of their time to complete the questionnaire. Those that agreed were then handed the questionnaire, which, once completed, they returned to the fieldworker.

4.6 DATA PREPARATION

The data preparation stage of the research process entails the editing, coding, capturing and cleaning of the gathered data (Malhotra, 2010:452).

4.6.1 Editing

The editing of returned questionnaires involves checking them for omissions, consistency and legibility (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:64). The purpose of the editing process is to increase the accuracy and precision of the collected data by identifying unclear, incomplete, inconsistent or ambiguous responses (Malhotra, 2010:453); that is, to enforce some minimum quality standards on the raw data (Churchill Jr et al., 2010:413).
In this study, the minimum quality standards imposed included discarding questionnaires where more than 10 percent of the responses were missing, as well as those with ambiguous responses (for example, two or more responses to questions that required a single response).

### 4.6.2 Coding

After questionnaires have been edited, responses are coded (Tustin et al., 2005:100). This entails transforming the raw data into symbols or numerals that can be tabulated and counted (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:351). The coding of structured questionnaires is relatively simple, in that they mostly contain questions that are closed-ended and pre-coded, which means that numeric codes have already been assigned to the various responses on the questionnaire (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:388).

The codes assigned in the questionnaire used in this study are presented in Table 5.2.

### 4.6.3 Data capturing

Once the questionnaires have been edited and coded, the next step is to capture the data, which refers to the process of converting the raw data into a form that can be read by a computer (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:391). This involves inputting the coded data from the questionnaires directly onto a computer (Malhotra, 2010:459).

In this study, data capturing was done by a statistician using the Excel program. The captured data was then imported into SPSS and AMOS for data analysis purposes.

### 4.6.4 Data cleaning

Regardless of which computer package is used, after entering and storing data from the questionnaires onto a computer for processing, a final error check of the data needs to be done in order to determine if and what type of data cleaning is necessary before commencing with the statistical analysis of the survey data (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:393).

Generally, data cleaning involves the treatment of missing values, which may be substituted in a number of ways, including using the variable’s mean or the mode value, or through substituting an imputed response using either casewise or pairwise deletion.
(Malhotra, 2010:461). In this study, missing values were substituted using the relevant variable’s mode value.

The following section discusses the statistical analysis techniques applied to the cleaned data set.

4.7 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The cleaned data in this study was analysed using IBM’s SPSS and AMOS (Version 22.0) statistical programs. The statistical methods applied to the data set included frequencies, exploratory factor analysis, evaluation of multicollinearity, reliability and validity tests, descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and structural equation modelling. These methods are elaborated upon in the sections that follow.

4.7.1 Frequency distribution

Data analysis typically begins with an assessment of the frequency distribution of the variables in a data set (Malhotra, 2010:484). In the case of categorical variables, such as those used to describe the demographic profile of a sample, only frequencies should be used (Pallant, 2010:55). A frequency distribution is a count of the number of responses for each value of a variable. Statistical tables, graphs, pictures, and maps may be used to provide clarity to a research study report (Malhotra, 2010:484, 765). For the purpose of this research study, frequency tables and pie charts are used to report on the frequency distributions.

4.7.2 Exploratory factor analysis

Factor analysis is a data reduction statistical method that may be used either for exploratory or confirmatory purposes (Pallant, 2010:181). In this study, exploratory factor analysis was conducted. Exploratory factor analysis is the process of identifying the underlying factors that explain the correlations between a set of variables (Malhotra, 2010:739). Factor analysis examines the entire set of interdependent relationships and determines the correlations between variables (Malhotra, 2010:635; Hair et al., 2010:102). It should be emphasised that the technique of factor analysis is limited to the identification of factors on the basis of the inter-correlations between indicators (Mouton & Marais, 1990:69-70).
Before exploratory factor analysis can be undertaken, it is necessary to ensure that the sample size is suitable. Larger sample sizes tend to yield better reliability and some researchers recommend 10 observations per scaled item (Pallant, 2010:182-183). As a rule of thumb, at least a five to one ratio is advised, which entails five observations for each item to be factor analysed (Hair et al., 2010:102). The Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy are used to assess the factorability of the data. When the KMO produces a value greater than 0.6 and the Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity is significant, the sample is adequate (Pallant, 2010:183).

4.7.2.1 Exploratory factor analysis method

In factor analysis, there are two basic approaches, namely common factor analysis and principal components analysis (Malhotra, 2010:643). This study used principle components factor analysis.

When using principal components analysis, it is assumed that all communalities are initially 1.0. As such, the total variance of the variables is accounted for by the factors or components, which indicates a no-error variance. This enables the optimal number of factors to be extracted that best depict the interrelations between sets of variables (Pallant, 2010:183). In determining the optimal factor solution, several methods are applied, which include specifying the number of factors in accordance with prior knowledge of the expected number of factors, determining the number of factors by only retaining those with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, and using the scree plot or considering the level of cumulative percentage of variance by the factors extracted (Malhotra, 2010:643).

Using the eigenvalue for establishing a cut-off is most reliable when the number of variables is between 20 and 50 (Hair et al., 2010:109). As such, this study used the eigenvalues to determine the optimal factor solution. In addition, consideration was given to the cumulative percentage of variance by those factors that were extracted using eigenvalues greater than one.

4.7.2.2 Factor rotation

Once the factors have been extracted, they are rotated in order to facilitate their interpretation. There are two main categories of rotation techniques, namely orthogonal rotation, which includes varimax, quartimax and equamax rotation, and oblique rotation,
which includes direct oblimin and promax rotation (Pallant, 2010:185). Varimax rotation is the most commonly used orthogonal rotation method (Malhotra, 2010:645) and was the rotation method applied in this study.

### 4.7.2.3 Assessment of factor loadings and communalities

After the factors have been rotated, it is necessary to examine the factor loadings and communalities. Items that cross load across more than one factor should be deleted, providing that its deletion does not contribute to the underlying theory of the factor significantly (Hair et al., 2010:119-120). Typically, factor loadings below 0.30 are indicative that an item does not contribute significantly to the factor (Field, 2009:644). Factor loadings between 0.30 and 0.40 are acceptable and those above 0.50 are indicative of both statistical and practical significance (Hair et al., 2010:118).

In addition to assessing the factor loadings, it is also important to look at the communalities, which indicate how much variance in each item is explained in the factor solution. Values below 0.30 suggest that an item does not fit with the other items in the factor solution (Pallant, 2010:198). According to Hair et al. (2010:122), items with communality values lower than 0.50 should not be retained in the analysis.

The following section reviews the steps followed in evaluating whether there was any evidence of multicollinearity between the factors extracted.

### 4.7.3 Collinearity diagnostics

The problem of multicollinearity arises when there are excessively high levels of correlation between variables, particularly between the independent variables (Pallant, 2010:151). In multivariate data analysis such as structural equation modelling, high levels of multicollinearity complicate interpreting the effect of any individual independent variable on the dependent variable(s) because of the interrelationships between these predictors (Hair et al., 2010:2).

There are several collinearity diagnostics available on SPSS, including the variance inflated factor (VIF), the condition indexes and variance proportions (Field, 2009:224). This study made use of the condition index and variance proportions. According to Weiner et al. (2003:134), there is evidence of multicollinearity if two or more of the
variance proportions for a variable are greater than 0.50 and if the last dimension has a condition index of 30 or more.

In the following section, the reliability and validity measures used to evaluate multi-item scales are explained.

### 4.7.4 Reliability and validity

When evaluating the appropriateness of a multi-item scale, its reliability should be assessed prior to assessing its validity (Hair et al., 2010:125). As such, the following section reviews the measures used to assess the scales used in this study.

#### 4.7.4.1 Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which a measuring instrument delivers consistent results when repeat measurements are made, whether it be across different samples of individuals or the same individual at different times (Malhotra, 2010:318; McDaniel & Gates, 2010:313; Mouton & Marais, 1990:79). It is the extent to which a measurement instrument is devoid of random error, which is the type of error that comes about due to random differences in study participants or measurement conditions.

The methods that can be used to assess the reliability of a summated scale include the alternative-forms method, the test-retest method and the internal consistency method (Malhotra, 2010:318). In this study, internal-consistency reliability was assessed. Pallant (2010:97) indicates that the Cronbach alpha coefficient and the average inter-item correlation value are typically used to assess internal-consistency reliability.

While scales that yield Cronbach alpha coefficients between 0.80 and 0.95 are considered to have very good reliability (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:364), the generally recommended value is 0.70 and above (Field, 2009:675), with values above 0.60 being considered acceptable (Malhotra, 2010:319).

An important caveat concerning the use of the Cronbach alpha coefficient is that its value tends to be influenced by the number of variables in the scale, artificially increasing/decreasing with an increase/decrease in the number of scale items (Malhotra, 2010:319; Pallant, 2010:97; Field, 2009:675). For this reason, it is often more suitable to
report the average inter-item correlation values for scales comprising fewer than 10 items (Pallant, 2010:97).

In addition to measuring the internal consistency reliability, the composite reliability of each factor was assessed by calculating these values in the measurement model in structural equation modelling (refer to Section 4.7.7). Malhotra (2010:733) defines composite reliability as “the total amount of true score variance in relation to the total score variance”.

### 4.7.4.2 Validity

The validity of a measurement instrument revolves around whether the instrument measures what it was designed to measure (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:318). For an instrument to be perfectly valid, it would need to be free of both random and systematic error. The types of validity that may be assessed include face validity, criterion validity and construct validity (Malhotra, 2010:320). In this study, face and construct validity were assessed.

Face validity or, as it is more formally known, content validity (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2010:257), refers to the extent to which the content of the measurement instrument covers the topic being researched (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:318). In other words, do the items in the scale adequately reflect the domain of the construct being measured? Content validity is determined through subjective evaluation (Malhotra, 2010:320). In this study, two academics who are knowledgeable about sport marketing and consumer behaviour ascertained the content validity of the questionnaire.

Construct validity refers to the extent to which a scale measures the relevant construct and not something else (Mouton & Marais, 1990:68). Assessment of the construct validity involves understanding of theoretical foundations underlying the obtained measurement, because a measure has construct validity only if it acts in accordance to the theory behind the prediction (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:319-320).

In order to establish construct validity, it is necessary to assess the convergent, discriminant and nomological validity of the measurement instrument (Malhotra, 2010:321). Construct validity necessitates that the measure used correlates with other measures designed to measure the same thing (convergent validity) but does not correlate
with measures from which it is meant to differ (discriminant validity) (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:320; Malhotra, 2010:321; Churchill Jr et al., 2010:416) and that the “scale correlates in theoretically predictable ways with measures of different but related constructs” (nomological validity) (Malhotra, 2010:321). In this study, nomological validity was tested using Pearson’s Product-Moment correlation coefficient (refer to Section 4.7.6) and convergent and discriminant validity were assessed by considering the factor loadings and average variance extracted in the measurement model in structural equation modelling (refer to Section 4.7.7).

The following section discusses the descriptive statistics computed in this study.

### 4.7.5 Descriptive statistical analysis

Descriptive statistics provide the summary statistics of a data set and include measures of central tendency, measures of variability and measures of shape (Malhotra, 2010:486).

#### 4.7.5.1 Measures of central tendency

The measures of central tendency indicate where the centre of a frequency distribution lies (Field, 2009:20). The three common measures of central tendency include the mode, mean and the median (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:505; Malhotra, 2010:486; Field, 2009:20). In this study, the mean and the mode were computed.

The mode is determined by obtaining the value occurring the most frequently (Malhotra, 2010:486; McDaniel & Gates, 2010:506); that is, the value that has the highest frequency in a frequency distribution (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:506), thereby representing the highest peak of the distribution (Malhotra, 2010:486). One limitation of the mode is that more than one mode may occur in a particular data set (McDaniel & Gates, 2010:506; Field 2009:21). In this study, the mode was used to substitute missing values during the data cleaning phase.

One of the most commonly used measures of central tendency for data collected using an interval or ratio scale is the arithmetic mean or average value (Malhotra, 2010:486). Calculating the mean involves simply adding up all the scores and then dividing that figure by the number of scores (Field, 2009:22). Despite the simplicity of the calculation,
the mean offers a robust measure that is not subject to major changes as data scores are added or deleted (Malhotra, 2010:486).

### 4.7.5.2 Measures of variability

Measures of variability quantify the dispersion of scores in a data set (Field, 2009:23) collected using interval or ration scales and include the range, inter-quartile range, variance, standard deviation and coefficient of variation are calculated on interval or ratio data (Malhotra, 2010:487). This study made use of the standard deviation.

The standard deviation is based on deviations about the mean, and whenever the mean is used as the measure of central location, the standard deviation must be quoted as the appropriate measure of spread (Wegner, 2000:264). The standard deviation is the square root of variance; that is, it is expressed in the same units as the data, rather than in squared units (Malhotra, 2010:487).

### 4.7.5.3 Measures of shape

The shape of any distribution is described by measures of the skweness and kurtosis (Hair et al., 2010:71). These measures of shape aid in understanding the nature of the distribution (Malhotra, 2010:488). The kurtosis and skewness of a normal distribution are given values of zero and the values above or below zero denote a departure from normality (Hair et al., 2010:71).

Kurtosis refers to the “peakedness” or “flatness” of the distribution compared with the normal distribution (Hair et al., 2010:71), and the kurtosis of a normal distribution is zero (Malhotra, 2010:488). Distributions more peaked than the normal distribution are termed leptokurtic, whereas a distribution that is flatter is termed platykurtic (Hair et al., 2010:71) and a moderately peaked distribution is called mesokurtic (Wegner, 2000:273). If the kurtosis is positive, then the distribution is more peaked than a normal distribution. If the kurtosis has a negative value, this indicates that the distribution flatter than a relatively peaked normal distribution (Malhotra, 2010:489).

Whereas the kurtosis refers to the peakedness of the distribution, skewness is used to describe the symmetry of the distribution, and if the distribution is unbalanced, it is
skewed (Hair et al., 2010:71). Skewness is the tendency of the deviations from the mean to be larger in one direction than in the other (Malhotra, 2010:488).

The following section describes correlation analysis.

### 4.7.6 Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis involves ascertaining the strength and direction of a linear association between two variables (Pallant, 2010:128), where the direction of the relationship is indicated by the +/- sign (Hair et al., 2010:148).

This study made use of Pearson’s Product Moment correlation coefficient to test for nomological validity between the pairs of variables before specifying the structural equation measurement model. The Pearson’s correlation coefficient, proposed by Karl Pearson and denoted by (r), is used to determine whether a linear relationship exists between two metric variables and is also known as simple correlation, bivariate correlation, or merely correlation coefficient. A relationship of minus one (-1) indicates a negative perfect relationship between variables, and a relationship of plus one (+1) indicates a positive perfect relationship between variables (Malhotra, 2010:563).

### 4.7.7 Structural equation modelling

Structural equation modelling is a statistical approach that tests hypotheses and reflects a theoretical network of manifest (observed) and latent (unobserved) factors (Hoyle, 1995:1; Bagozzi & Yi, 1988:74). It is a versatile and powerful method for addressing substantive and methodological issues (Chin et al., 2008:287). A sound model is theory based, and is derived from the literature, knowledge in the field, or from causes and effects among variables within the theory specified (Kline, 2016:10; Kline, 2013:3; Martinez-Lopez et al., 2013:139; Lei & Wu, 2007:35). Structural equation modelling represents an extension of general linear modelling (GLM) (Lei & Wu, 2007:33; Weston & Gore Jr., 2006:720) and is a multivariate technique that melds facets of factor analysis with multiple regression (Khine, 2013:4; Hair et al., 2010:629).

This study conceptualises and empirically tests a structural equation model in the context of sport-team brand loyalty. The process followed included specifying the measurement
model, assessing the reliability and validity of the model, assessing the goodness-of-fit indices, specifying the structural model and specifying competing models.

### 4.7.7.1 Measurement model specification

Prior to specifying the measurement model, the individual constructs need to be defined, which involves determining the variables that will be used to measure each construct (Khine, 2013:8; Lei & Wu, 2007:35; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988:414). Given that the measurement model is estimated using confirmatory factor analysis, it is essential that this structural equation modelling analysis be grounded in theory (Chin et al., 2008:288; Lei & Wu, 2007:35). Thereafter, the relevant observed variables or indicators are assigned to each latent factor, which are correlated (Kline, 2016:10; Kline, 2013:3). The parameters of the measurement model comprise the loading estimates, the error estimates and the between latent factor correlations (Khine, 2013:8-9; Weston & Gore Jr., 2006:729). The first loading on each of the latent factors are fixed at 1.0 (Khine, 2013:9; Weston & Gore Jr., 2006:729).

The next step is to check for any problems relating to model identification. The number of data points ((number of observed variables (number of observed variables+1)/2)) less the number of parameters to be estimated (Weston & Gore Jr, 2006:732). If the resulting degrees of freedom are positive, the model is said to be over-identified and, hence, of scientific use (Byrne, 2010:34). Once the over-identification has been established, it is necessary to check for any problematic Heywood cases, which are negative error estimates and standardised factor loadings above 1.0 or below -1.0 (Hair et al., 2010:706).

Thereafter, it is necessary to assess the reliability and validity of the model.

### 4.7.7.2 Reliability and validity of a measurement model

In structural equation modelling, the reliability and construct validity are assessed by considering the standardised loading estimates of each observed indicator, the average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR) of each latent variable, and the difference between the square root of the AVE values and the correlation coefficients between the latent factors (Fornell & Larcker, 1981:39). This use of CR and AVE emanates from the two-step procedure recommended in Anderson and Gerbing (1988:414).
CR values between 0.60 and 0.70 indicate acceptable reliability, whilst CR values of 0.70 and above indicate good reliability (Malhotra, 2010:734; Bagozzi & Yi, 1988:74; Bagozzi, 1984:11). Standardised factor loadings of 0.50 and above (but preferably above 0.70) and AVE values of 0.50 and above suggest convergent validity (Tseng et al., 2006:78; Hair et al., 2010:642; Fornell & Larcker, 1981:39-40). Discriminant validity is established when the square root of the AVE values exceed the correlation coefficients between the latent factors Fornell and Larcker (1981:40).

Once the reliability and validity of the measurement model have been established, attention is typically turned to the goodness-of-fit indices.

### 4.7.7.3 Goodness-of-fit indices

Goodness-of-fit indices need to be reported on for both the measurement model and the structural model, as well as for any competing structural models tested (de Carvalho & Chima, 2014:10; Martinez-Lopez et al., 2013:129; Khine, 2013:13; Malhotra, 2010:731; Lei & Wu, 2007:37; Weston & Gore Jr., 2006:741). The goodness-of-fit indices may be broadly classified into three main categories. The first category is the absolute fit indices, which include the goodness-of-fit indices of the goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and adjusted goodness-of-fit index, and badness-of-fit indices of the chi-square, the standardised root mean residual (SRMR) and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). In the case of the goodness-of-fit absolute indices, higher values signal better model fit, while the opposite is true for the badness-of-fit indices. The second category is the incremental fit indices, which include the normed fit index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker Lewis index (TLI) and the relative non-central index (RNI). For these incremental fit indices, higher values signal better model fit. The third category is the parsimony fit indices and includes the parsimony goodness-of-fit index (PGFI), the parsimony normed fit index (PNFI) (Malhotra, 2010:731), Akaike’s information criterion (AIC) and the consistent version of the AIC (CAIC). These fit indices, particularly the AIC and CAIC are used to compare competing models, where smaller values are indicative of better fit (Byrne, 2010:82).

In this study, the chi-square, the SRMR, the RMSEA, the IFI, the CFI, and the TLI were selected to measure model fit. In addition, the AIC and CAIC were considered for the competing structural models. It is worth noting that whilst it is usual to report on the chi-
square, it is well known that this statistic is highly sensitive to sample size (Byrne, 2010:76; Malhotra, 2010:732).

4.7.7.4 Structural model specification

As soon as it has been ascertained that the measurement model is reliable, valid and has acceptable fit, the structural model can be specified (de Carvalho & Chima, 2014:10; Khine, 2013:5; Lei & Wu, 2007:34). Whereas the emphasis in the measurement model was on the relationships between the latent factors and the observed indicators, the emphasis in the structural model is on the nature and strength of the relationships between the latent factors (Malhotra, 2010:735). As is the case in multiple regression analysis, this requires that a distinction be made between dependent and independent variables. In structural equation modelling, multi-item exogenous latent factors are the equivalent to independent variables and multi-item endogenous latent factors are the equivalent to dependent variables (Hair et al., 2010:637). The hypothesised influence of an exogenous latent factor on an endogenous latent factor is depicted by a single headed arrow and is tested at a 0.05 significance level (Khine, 2013:17).

Relatively few of the initially hypothesised structural equation models remain intact. Most initial models are modified; paths are added, deleted or both on the basis of global model fit or modification indices (Khine, 2013:16; Chin et al., 2008:291). Previous studies (Weston & Gore Jr., 2006:739; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988:417) suggest that necessary changes may be made to the measurement model when encountering problems with the model. This is called model re-specification (Khine, 2013:16). Structural equation modelling presents an opportunity for reflecting on and reconsidering the original nomological network of relationships, including the theory underlying the model (Chin et al., 2008:290). However, that being said, re-specification should at all times be based on theoretical and content considerations (Khine, 2013:16; Chin et al., 2008:290; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988:416), otherwise modifications would be data-driven and may, as such, lack in validity (Martinez-Lopez et al., 2013:124).

Khine (2013:17) suggests that the following steps be used in re-specifying a structural model, namely examine the estimates for the regression coefficients and the specified covariances. The ratio of the coefficient to the standard error is the same as a $z$ test for the significance of the relationship, with a $p < .05$ cut off of about 1.96. In examining the
regression weights and covariances in the model originally specified, it is likely that several regression weights or covariances will be found to be not statistically significant. Next, adjust the covariances or path coefficients to improve the model fit. Typically, this constitutes the first step in model fit improvement. Thereafter, the model should be re-run to see if the fit is adequate.

The fit of the competing model is compared with that of the proposed model in three ways: “(a) evaluate paths by examining significance of parameter estimates, (b) consider the change in explained variance for occupational considerations, and (c) test significant improvement in model fit with a chi-square difference test and improvement in other fit indices” (Weston & Gore Jr., 2006:746). Additional fit indices, determining which of the two or more competing models has the best fit, include the AIC and the CAIC as discussed in Section 4.7.7.3.

4.8 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to clarify the research methodology that was followed in obtaining and analysing the required data for the empirical portion of this study. A descriptive approach, utilising single cross-sectional design, was selected as the most appropriate design to follow in order to achieve the research objectives formulated in Chapter 1.

For the sample, three public registered HEI campuses, namely one from traditional university, one from comprehensive university and one from university of technology - were selected as being representative of the demographic population. The survey questionnaire was elected as the most suitable method for collecting the required data. A self-administered questionnaire was distributed to a convenience sample of 402 black Generation Y students across the three campuses. The final sample size comprised 289 responses. The captured data was analysed using the SPSS and AMOS programs. The statistical techniques applied included frequency analysis, exploratory analysis, collinearity diagnostics, reliability and validity analysis, descriptive statistical analysis, correlation analysis and structural equation modelling.
In the following chapter, Chapter 5, the research methodology described in this chapter is applied to the data set. Chapter 5 reports the empirical findings from the pilot and main study. Conclusions are then drawn based on the formulated hypotheses.
5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, Chapter 4, the research methodology followed for the empirical portion of this study was described. Against the background of Chapter 4, this chapter reports on the analysis and interpretation of the empirical findings of this study. This study set out to develop and empirically test a set of determinants of PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students. These findings are aimed at assisting sport marketers in understanding the influence of sport involvement, team success, team delivery, trust, satisfaction and team identification on this cohort’s PSL team loyalty, measured in terms of their psychological and behavioural commitment towards their favourite PSL team.

The chapter includes an overview of the results of the pilot test in Section 5.2 and a description of the data gathering process in Section 5.3. In Section 5.4, the preliminary data analysis is outlined and in Section 5.5, the demographic and sport domain interest analysis is discussed. Thereafter, in Section 5.6, the study outlines the exploratory principle component analysis undertaken, followed by Section 5.7, which discusses the evaluation of multicollinearity. Section 5.8 outlines the descriptive statistics of the study and Section 5.9, the correlation analysis. In Section 5.10, the various hypotheses for this study, as presented in Chapter 1, are outlined, which are tested using structural equation modelling, as highlighted in Section 5.11.

In order to perform the data analysis, SPSS and AMOS, Versions 22.0 for Windows, were used. The data analysis was conducted in two stages. The first stage involved analysing the results of the pilot testing of the questionnaire, and the second stage involved analysing the main survey’s findings. The next section, Section 5.2, discusses the data analysis procedures involved in the pilot phase.

5.2 RESULTS OF THE PILOT TEST

Following an initial pre-testing of the questionnaire conducted to ascertain face and content validity, the questionnaire was piloted on a convenience sample of 50 black
Generation Y students enrolled at a South African HEI that did not form part of the sampling frame of the main study. This was done in order to establish the reliability of the scales used in the questionnaire. Of the 50 questionnaires distributed, 49 completed questionnaires were returned in the pilot test.

In order to test the internal-consistency reliability of the scales used in the questionnaire, the Cronbach alpha (α) was computed, where the cut-off point was set at the recommended 0.70 or above on the overall scales and sub-scales (Field, 2009:675). As each of the sub-scales comprised fewer than 10 items, the average inter-item correlation values were also computed as an additional test of internal-consistency reliability (refer to Section 4.7.3.1). The Cronbach alpha coefficients and the average inter-item correlation values computed for each of the sub-scales are reported on in Table 5.1.

**Table 5.1: Summary of pilot test results**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Number of variables</th>
<th>Mean (SD)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Cronbach alpha</th>
<th>Average inter-item correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Success</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.06 (1.13)</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.886</td>
<td>0.738</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delivery</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.84 (1.11)</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.881</td>
<td>0.712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team identification</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.29 (1.16)</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.837</td>
<td>0.467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer involvement</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.15 (1.35)</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.803</td>
<td>0.575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.90 (1.03)</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.874</td>
<td>0.701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.14 (1.36)</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.908</td>
<td>0.768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological commitment</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.95 (1.24)</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.870</td>
<td>0.622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioural commitment</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.70 (1.16)</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.861</td>
<td>0.504</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results outlined in Table 5.1 provide a satisfactory indication of internal-consistency reliability, with Cronbach alpha values ranging from 0.803 to 0.908 and the average inter-item correlation values ranging from 0.467 to 0.768.
5.3 DATA GATHERING PROCESS

The self-administered questionnaire was used to gather the required data from black Generation Y students enrolled at the three HEI campuses that constituted the final sampling frame. A lecturer at each of the three campuses was asked to act as a custodian of the students. They were shown a copy of the questionnaire and the ethical clearance certificate. Once they agreed that the questionnaire was not in breach of any ethics, fieldworkers distributed the questionnaire to students at each of the three campuses.

The students were informed that participation was voluntary and that all information they provided would remain confidential, including the name of the HEI where they were registered. A combination of postgraduate, first, second and third year students were used in this study.

5.4 PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS

Before analysing a data set, it is recommended that a preliminary data analysis be conducted on the data set, which is done using coding and tabulation.

5.4.1 Coding

The questionnaire used in this study comprised two sections, namely Section A with eight questions designed to gather demographical data and Section B designed to measure sport team brand image dimensions of team success team delivery, and relationship quality dimensions of team trust and team satisfaction, soccer involvement, PSL team identification and the brand loyalty dimensions of PSL team psychological commitment and behavioural commitment. The questionnaire did not have any reversed item. The same questionnaire was administered to all the participants in the sample. Table 5.2 presents the variable codes and assigned values.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Value assigned to responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section A: Demographical data</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 1</td>
<td>A1</td>
<td>Name of Institution</td>
<td>Traditional University (1) University of Technology (2) Comprehensive University (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 2</td>
<td>A2</td>
<td>Year of study</td>
<td>First year (1) Second year (2) Third year (3) Post-graduate (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 3</td>
<td>A3</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Female (1) Male (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 4</td>
<td>A4</td>
<td>Race</td>
<td>Black African (1) Coloured (2) Indian/Asian (3) White (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 5</td>
<td>A5</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 6</td>
<td>A6</td>
<td>Province of origin</td>
<td>Eastern-Cape (1) Free-State (2) Gauteng (3) Kwa-Zulu Natal (4) Limpopo (5) Mpumalanga (6) Northern-Cape (7) North-West (8) Western-Cape (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 7</td>
<td>A7</td>
<td>Language</td>
<td>Afrikaans (1) English (2) IsiNdebele (3) IsiXhosa (4) IsiZulu (5) Sesotho sa Leboa (6) Sesotho (7) Setswana (8) siSwati (9) Tshivenda (10) Xitsonga (11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question 8</td>
<td>A8</td>
<td>Interest in soccer</td>
<td>Yes (1) No (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section B:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Team success</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 1</td>
<td>B1</td>
<td>Team success</td>
<td>Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Disagree somewhat (3) Agree somewhat (4) Agree (5) Strongly agree (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 2</td>
<td>B2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 3</td>
<td>B3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Team delivery</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 4</td>
<td>B4</td>
<td>Team delivery</td>
<td>Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Disagree somewhat (3) Agree somewhat (4) Agree (5) Strongly agree (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 5</td>
<td>B5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 6</td>
<td>B6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.2: Coding of questionnaire (continued...)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section B:</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Value assigned to responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item 7</td>
<td>B7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item 8</td>
<td>B8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item 9</td>
<td>B9</td>
<td>Team identity</td>
<td>Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Disagree somewhat (3) Agree somewhat (4) Agree (5) Strongly agree (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item 10</td>
<td>B10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item 11</td>
<td>B11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item 12</td>
<td>B12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item 13</td>
<td>B13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item 14</td>
<td>B14</td>
<td>Soccer involvement</td>
<td>Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Disagree somewhat (3) Agree somewhat (4) Agree (5) Strongly agree (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item 15</td>
<td>B15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item 16</td>
<td>B16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item 17</td>
<td>B17</td>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Disagree somewhat (3) Agree somewhat (4) Agree (5) Strongly agree (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item 18</td>
<td>B18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item 19</td>
<td>B19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item 20</td>
<td>B20</td>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Disagree somewhat (3) Agree somewhat (4) Agree (5) Strongly agree (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item 21</td>
<td>B21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.2: Coding of questionnaire (continued...)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Value assigned to responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item 22</td>
<td>B22</td>
<td>Team brand loyalty</td>
<td>Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Disagree somewhat (3) Agree somewhat (4) Agree (5) Strongly agree (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 23</td>
<td>B23</td>
<td>Team psychological commitment</td>
<td>Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Disagree somewhat (3) Agree somewhat (4) Agree (5) Strongly agree (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 24</td>
<td>B24</td>
<td>Team psychological commitment</td>
<td>Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Disagree somewhat (3) Agree somewhat (4) Agree (5) Strongly agree (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 25</td>
<td>B25</td>
<td>Team behavioural commitment</td>
<td>Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Disagree somewhat (3) Agree somewhat (4) Agree (5) Strongly agree (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 26</td>
<td>B26</td>
<td>Team brand loyalty</td>
<td>Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Disagree somewhat (3) Agree somewhat (4) Agree (5) Strongly agree (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 27</td>
<td>B27</td>
<td>Team brand loyalty</td>
<td>Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Disagree somewhat (3) Agree somewhat (4) Agree (5) Strongly agree (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 28</td>
<td>B28</td>
<td>Team psychological commitment</td>
<td>Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Disagree somewhat (3) Agree somewhat (4) Agree (5) Strongly agree (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 29</td>
<td>B29</td>
<td>Team behavioural commitment</td>
<td>Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Disagree somewhat (3) Agree somewhat (4) Agree (5) Strongly agree (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 30</td>
<td>B30</td>
<td>Item 26</td>
<td>Item 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item 31</td>
<td>B31</td>
<td>Item 28</td>
<td>Item 29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.4.2 Data cleaning

During this step, questionnaires completed by individuals falling outside of the defined target population, together with those where more than 10 percent of the responses were missing, were discarded. Missing values were also dealt with at this stage of the data analysis process.

Of the 402 questionnaires distributed, 289 useable questionnaires were returned, thereby providing a response rate of 72 percent. The response rate was deemed sufficient to meet the 200 to 400 cases rule for structural equation modelling (Malhotra, 2010:731). In addition, given that there were 31 scaled items in the questionnaire, 289 participants satisfies the factor/principle component analysis requirement of having between five and ten cases per item (Pallant, 2010:183). The mode value was used to substitute missing values in questionnaires where fewer than 10 percent of the responses were missing. Thereafter, the data was tabulated, as discussed in the following section.
5.4.3 Tabulation

Once the data is coded and edited, and the missing values substituted, the next step is to tabulate the data. Table 5.3 presents the frequency table for the scaled responses captured.

Table 5.3: Frequency table of responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale item</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly disagree</th>
<th>Slightly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B10</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B12</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B14</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B15</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B17</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B18</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B19</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 5.3: Frequency table of responses (continued...)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale item</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Slightly disagree</th>
<th>Slightly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B20</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B21</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B22</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B23</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B24</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B25</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B26</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B27</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B28</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B29</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B30</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B31</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section 5.5 provides an overview of the demographic and sport domain interest data collected in this study.

### 5.5 SAMPLE DESCRIPTION AND SPORT DOMAIN INTEREST

In this section, a description of the sample, together with their reported sport domain interest responses, is given.

#### 5.5.1 Sample description

This section provides a description of the sample of students that participated in the study in terms of the HEI they were registered at and their gender, age, province of origin and home language. The data reported in this section also serves to provide an indication of the extent to which the participants in the sample were representative of the specified target population.
Figure 5.1 illustrates the HEIs at which the participants were registered.

![Pie chart showing percentages of participants registered at different HEIs: 42% Traditional University, 18% Comprehensive University, 40% University of Technology.]

**Figure 5.1: Type of higher education institution**

As shown in Figure 5.1, 42 percent of the participants were registered at the traditional university, 18 percent at the comprehensive university and 40 percent at the university of technology.

Figure 5.2 illustrates the gender distribution of the participants.

![Pie chart showing gender distribution: 52% Male, 48% Female.]

**Figure 5.2: Gender**

Figure 5.2 shows that there were slightly more male (52%) than female (48%) participants.
Figure 5.3 outlines the age spread of the sample participants.

As illustrated in Figure 5.3, all of the seven age categories specified in the target population were represented in the sample, with the majority of the participants indicating being between 19 and 21 years of age (69 percent).

Figure 5.4 provides an indication of the participants’ province of origin in the study.

Figure 5.4: Province of origin
As shown in Figure 5.4, participants of eight of South Africa’s nine provinces made up the study’s sample. Most of the participants indicated their province of origin to be Gauteng (52%), followed by Limpopo (14%), Free State (8%) and Mpumalanga (8%). There were no participants from the Western Cape Province. Of the participants, seven (2%) failed to complete this question.

Figure 5.5 illustrates the participants’ home language.

![Home language chart](chart.png)

**Figure 5.5: Home language**

As illustrated in Figure 5.5, the sample comprised participants from each of South Africa’s 11 official language groups. Most of the participants indicated their home language as Sesotho (25%), followed by those who indicated IsiZulu (18%), Sesotho sa Leboa (15%) and IsiXhosa (12%). Of the participants, four (1%) failed to answer this question.

### 5.5.2 Interest in the domain of soccer

In addition to demographic questions, the questionnaire included one question designed to determine participants’ interest in the South African PSL teams. This question concerned participants’ willingness to consume the league and its products and was used as a screening question to help achieve the research objectives.
The following section describes the exploratory principle component analysis.

5.6 EXPLORATORY PRINCIPLE COMPONENT ANALYSIS

The construct-related items were included in an exploratory principle component analysis using varimax rotation. First, the Kaizer-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test of sampling adequacy and Bartlett Test of Sphericity were carried out. These two tests returned satisfactory results of a KMO value above 0.6 (KMO = 0.899) and a significant Bartlett test value (chi-square=4799.250; df=465; p=0.000<0.05) (Pallant, 2010:183).

The exploratory principle component analysis produced eight factors. Table 5.4 reports on the rotated factor loadings, communalities, variance extracted and Cronbach alpha values.

Table 5.4: Exploratory principle component analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
<th>Communalities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1   2  3  4  5  6  7  8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team success</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>.792</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>.892</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3</td>
<td>.827</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team delivery</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4</td>
<td>.822</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5</td>
<td>.858</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B6</td>
<td>.798</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.4: Exploratory principle component analysis (continued...)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
<th>Communalities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team identification</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B7</td>
<td></td>
<td>.752</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B8</td>
<td></td>
<td>.684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B9</td>
<td></td>
<td>.655</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B10</td>
<td></td>
<td>.683</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B11</td>
<td></td>
<td>.798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B12</td>
<td></td>
<td>.668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer involvement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological commit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B22</td>
<td></td>
<td>.537</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B23</td>
<td></td>
<td>.639</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B24</td>
<td></td>
<td>.716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B25</td>
<td></td>
<td>.762</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.4: Exploratory principle component analysis (continued...)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
<th>Communalities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioural commitment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B26</td>
<td>.558</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B27</td>
<td>.609</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B28</td>
<td>.695</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B29</td>
<td>.744</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B30</td>
<td>.706</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B31</td>
<td>.557</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentage variance: 33.472, 7.923, 6.415, 5.763, 4.689, 4.190, 3.859, 3.097

Cronbach alpha: .814, .841, .86, 855, .841, .776, .851, .858

Based on factors specified for extraction, eight factors explained 69.401 percent of the total variance. These factors aligned well with the constructs specified, in that the variables loaded as expected and had significant loadings that exceeded 0.50. Furthermore, each of the communalities exceeded 0.50, which indicates that a large amount of the variance in an item has been extracted by the factor solution. In terms of the internal-consistency reliability, satisfactory Cronbach alpha values ranging from 0.776 to 0.860 were returned on the factors extracted.

The following section reports on the evaluation of multicollinearity of this factor solution.

5.7 EVALUATION OF MULTICOLLINEARITY

When employing multivariate statistical analysis techniques, it is essential to check for multicollinearity between factors. An evaluation of multicollinearity was conducted using the SPSS Statistics Collin instruction, with the case number as the dummy dependent variable. The collinearity diagnostics output is reported on in Table 5.5.
Table 5.5: Collinearity diagnostics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>Condition index</th>
<th>Variance proportions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Constant F3 F4 F5 F6 F7 F8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.823</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.00 .00 .00 .00 .00 .00 .00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>11.707</td>
<td>.04 .04 .10 .05 .04 .00 .50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>12.225</td>
<td>.01 .04 .00 .03 .57 .00 .30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>15.718</td>
<td>.01 .52 .17 .04 .19 .07 .20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>17.489</td>
<td>.00 .34 .45 .22 .18 .10 .00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>19.552</td>
<td>.01 .05 .02 .39 .02 .81 .01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>.013</td>
<td>22.584</td>
<td>.94 .01 .26 .26 .00 .02 .01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent variable: Case number

As shown in Table 5.5, there is no evidence of multicollinearity between the independent variables of team identification (F3), team success (F4), team delivery (F5), soccer involvement (F6), trust (F7) and satisfaction (F8), given that the last root has a condition index below 0.30 and none of the factors have more than one variance proportion greater than 0.50 (Field, 2009:242).

The following section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated in the study.

5.8 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

As indicated in Chapter 4, descriptive statistics typically include measures of central tendency, dispersion and shape (Pallant, 2010:53). A six-point Likert scale was used in this study to measure the scaled responses, which ranged from 1=strongly disagree to 6=strongly agree. Therefore, higher mean values are associated with greater agreement.

In order to address the first empirical objective set out in Section 1.3.3, the descriptive statistics of the sample of black Generation Y students that participated in this study are set out in Table 5.6.
Table 5.6: Descriptive statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Valid N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychological commitment</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>-1.034</td>
<td>1.252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioural commitment</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>-1.178</td>
<td>1.459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identification</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>-.851</td>
<td>.293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>-2.369</td>
<td>6.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delivery</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>-.838</td>
<td>.805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer involvement</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>-.544</td>
<td>-.191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>-.822</td>
<td>.780</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>-.655</td>
<td>.302</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As is evident from Table 5.6, the data may be considered as normally distributed data since none of the skewness scores fall outside the -3 or +3 range. The negatively skewed values provide an indication of high scores in the distribution; that is, a distribution falling into the agreement area of the scale. The data distribution of the team success scale is more peaked than that of any of the other scales, indicating a greater concentration of data values around the central location on the sport team success scale. However, according to Field (2009:156), this is not an issue in larger sample sizes, such as those greater than 200, given the central limit theorem.

Mean scores above 4 were computed on all of the measuring scales. The highest mean values were computed for team success (mean=5.36), team behavioural commitment (mean=5.00), team psychological commitment (mean=4.94) and team delivery (mean=4.91), followed by team relationship trust (mean=4.8085), team identification (mean=4.53), soccer domain involvement (mean=4.35) and team relationship satisfaction (mean=4.20). This suggests that the black Generation Y students are brand loyal towards their favourite PSL team, exhibiting both psychological and behaviour commitment. Furthermore, this suggests that members of this cohort are involved with soccer, identify with their favourite PSL team, trust and are satisfied with their relationship with and the
delivery of their favourite team, and that the success of their favourite team is important to them.

The lowest standard deviations were recorded on team behavioural commitment (Std. Dev.=0.88), team delivery (Std. Dev.=0.88) and team relationship trust (Std. Dev.=0.92), indicating less dispersion in participants’ responses.

Prior to conducting the structural equation modelling, correlation analysis was carried out in order to establish the nomological validity of the proposed model, as discussed in the following section.

5.9 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Hair et al. (2010:710) indicate that constructing a matrix of construct correlations is useful in assessing the nomological validity of a proposed measurement model. In order to assess nomological validity and address the second empirical objective set out in Section 1.3.3, the Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficients between each pair of factors were computed and examined.

The correlation matrix is reported on in Table 5.7.
Table 5.7: Correlation matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>F1</th>
<th>F2</th>
<th>F3</th>
<th>F4</th>
<th>F5</th>
<th>F6</th>
<th>F7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychological</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>commitment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioural</td>
<td>.656**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>commitment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team identification</td>
<td>.440**</td>
<td>.478**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success</td>
<td>.445**</td>
<td>.446**</td>
<td>.278**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delivery</td>
<td>.284**</td>
<td>.392**</td>
<td>.328**</td>
<td>.270**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>.431**</td>
<td>.507**</td>
<td>.520**</td>
<td>.306**</td>
<td>.211**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>.491**</td>
<td>.489**</td>
<td>.497**</td>
<td>.292**</td>
<td>.421**</td>
<td>.397**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>.405**</td>
<td>.422**</td>
<td>.451**</td>
<td>.180**</td>
<td>.269**</td>
<td>.322**</td>
<td>.405**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

As shown in Table 5.7, at a significance level of $a = 0.01$, there is significant positive correlation between each pair of factors proposed for inclusion in the hypothesised measurement model specified in Chapter 3. This suggests that the proposed model is nomologically valid and, therefore, suitable for structural equation modelling.

The following section outlines the hypotheses formulated for testing, using structural equation modelling.

5.10 HYPOTHESES TESTING

Hypothesis testing was undertaken whereby the significance level was set at the conventional $a=0.05$ level and the decision rule applied was as follows:

If $P$-value $\geq \alpha$, then conclude $H_0$

If $P$-value $< \alpha$, then conclude $H_a$
In accordance with the relationships observed in the correlation analysis, the following six hypotheses were formulated:

**Ho1:** Determinants of PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students is not an eight-factor structure consisting of team success, team delivery, soccer involvement, team relationship trust, team relationship satisfaction, team identification, team psychological commitment and team behavioural commitment.

**Ha1:** Determinants of PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students is an eight-factor structure consisting of team success, team delivery, soccer involvement, team relationship trust, team relationship satisfaction, team identification, team psychological commitment and team behavioural commitment.

**Ho2:** The team brand image dimensions of team success and team delivery do not have a direct significant positive influence on black Generation Y students’ PSL team identification.

**Ha2:** The team brand image dimensions of team success and team delivery have a direct significant positive influence on black Generation Y students’ PSL team identification.

**Ho3:** The relationship quality dimensions of team relationship trust and team relationship satisfaction do not have a direct significant positive influence on black Generation Y students’ PSL team identification.

**Ha3:** The relationship quality dimensions of team relationship trust and team relationship satisfaction have a direct significant positive influence on black Generation Y students’ PSL team identification.

**Ho4:** Soccer domain involvement does not have a direct significant positive influence on black Generation Y students’ PSL team identification.

**Ha4:** Soccer domain involvement has a direct significant positive influence on black Generation Y students’ PSL team identification.
Ho5: Team identification does not have a direct significant positive influence on black Generation Y students’ PSL team psychological commitment.

Ha5: Team identification has a direct significant positive influence on black Generation Y students’ PSL team psychological commitment.

Ho6: Black Generation Y students’ PSL team psychological commitment does not have a direct significant positive influence on their PSL team behavioural commitment.

Ha6: Black Generation Y students’ PSL team psychological commitment has a direct significant positive influence on their PSL team behavioural commitment.

The following section discusses the structural equation modelling and path analysis undertaken to test these hypotheses in this study.

5.11 STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING

This section outlines the process undertaken to conduct structural equation modelling. In this section, the measurement model and structural model are tested using structural equation modelling.

5.11.1 Measurement model specification

The content of this section addresses the third empirical objective formulated in Chapter 1. In accordance with the literature review, the hypothesised measurement model is an eight-factor model. The model includes the eight latent factors of team psychological commitment (F1) (four indicators), team behavioural commitment (F2) (six indicators), team identification (F3) (five indicators), team success (F4) (three indicators), team delivery (F5) (three indicators), soccer involvement (F6) (three indicators), team relationship trust (F7) (three indicators) and team relationship satisfaction (F8) (three indicators).

This hypothesised measurement model is specified in Figure 5.6.
Figure 5.6: Specified measurement model
For model identification purposes, the first loading on each of the eight factors was fixed at 1.0. As such, there are 496 distinct sample moments, and 90 parameters to be estimated, which leave 406 degrees of freedom based on an over-identified model, and a chi-square value of 745.915 with a probability level equal to 0.000. The model was evaluated for any problematic estimates, such as negative error variances (known as Heywood cases) and standardised factor loadings above 1.0 or below -1.0 (Hair et al., 2010:706).

The standardised factor loadings and error variances are outlined in Table 5.8

Table 5.8: Standardised factor loadings and error variances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latent factors</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
<th>Error variances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychological commitment (F1)</td>
<td>B22</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B23</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B24</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B25</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioural commitment (F2)</td>
<td>B26</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B27</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B28</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B29</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B30</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B31</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team identification (F3)</td>
<td>B7</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B8</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B9</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B10</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B11</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B12</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.8: Standardised factor loadings and error variances (continued...)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latent factors</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
<th>Error variances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Team success (F4)</td>
<td>B1</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B2</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B3</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team delivery (F5)</td>
<td>B4</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B5</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B6</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer domain involvement (F6)</td>
<td>B13</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B14</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B15</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust (F7)</td>
<td>B16</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B17</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B18</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction (F8)</td>
<td>B19</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B20</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B21</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As is evident from Table 5.8, no negative error variances or factor loadings above 1.0 or below -1.0 were observed.

In order to assess model fit, the following indices produced by AMOS were applied in the study, namely the chi-square, the SRMR, the RMSEA, the IFI, the CFI and the TLI. The significant chi-square value (745.915 (df:406), p<0.05) suggests poor fit. Whilst this significant chi-square value suggests poor model fit, it is known that this particular statistic is highly sensitive to sample size (Byrne, 2010:76; Malhotra, 2010:732).

The other fit indices suggest an acceptable degree of fit between the measurement model and the data, with SRMR=0.0554, RMSEA=0.054, IFI=0.926, CFI=0.925 and TLI=0.914.

Following this, the reliability and validity of the measurement model were assessed.
5.11.2 Reliability and validity tests for the measurement model

The reliability and validity of the measurement model were assessed by computing the CR and AVE values. The following formulae, as provided by Malhotra (2010:733-734), were used to calculate the CR and AVE values for each of the seven latent factors:

\[
CR = \frac{(F_{l1}+F_{l2}+F_{l3}+...)^2}{(F_{l1}+F_{l2}+F_{l3}+...)^2 + (err_{l1}+err_{l2}+err_{l3}+...)}
\]

\[
AVE = \frac{(F_{l1}^2+F_{l2}^2+F_{l3}^2+...)}{(F_{l1}^2+F_{l2}^2+F_{l3}^2+...)+ (err_{l1}+err_{l2}+err_{l3}+...)}
\]

The CR and AVE values for each latent factor, together with the square root of the AVE values and the correlation matrix, are shown in Table 5.9:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latent factors</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>√AVE</th>
<th>F1</th>
<th>F2</th>
<th>F3</th>
<th>F4</th>
<th>F5</th>
<th>F6</th>
<th>F7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
<td>0.851</td>
<td>0.536</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2</td>
<td>0.845</td>
<td>0.500</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.790</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3</td>
<td>0.862</td>
<td>0.513</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.520</td>
<td>0.553</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F4</td>
<td>0.868</td>
<td>0.689</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.475</td>
<td>0.470</td>
<td>0.313</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F5</td>
<td>0.849</td>
<td>0.653</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.341</td>
<td>0.446</td>
<td>0.372</td>
<td>0.290</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F6</td>
<td>0.795</td>
<td>0.597</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.512</td>
<td>0.574</td>
<td>0.621</td>
<td>0.366</td>
<td>0.230</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F7</td>
<td>0.851</td>
<td>0.656</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.589</td>
<td>0.566</td>
<td>0.575</td>
<td>0.301</td>
<td>0.481</td>
<td>0.432</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F8</td>
<td>0.861</td>
<td>0.675</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.491</td>
<td>0.494</td>
<td>0.525</td>
<td>0.202</td>
<td>0.290</td>
<td>0.372</td>
<td>0.478</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 5.9, the CR values for each of the latent factors exceeded 0.70, thereby indicating reliability and suggesting convergent validity. Further proof of convergent validity is indicated by item loadings above 0.50 (23 of the 31 item loadings exceeded 0.70) in Table 5.8 and AVE values above 0.50 in Table 5.9. Discriminant validity is also evident given that the square root values of the AVE values in Table 5.9 exceed the correlation coefficients between the latent factors in all but one instance. The correlation coefficient value between team psychological commitment (F1) and team behavioural commitment (F2) exceeded the square root value of the AVE, which suggests that there is...
a lack of discriminant validity between these two latent factors. A similar situation occurred in the study by Bauer et al. (2008:217). However, given that these two factors represent the two dimension of the team brand loyalty construct, a high level of correlation is to be expected. Furthermore, the amount by which the correlation coefficient value exceeded the square root value of the AVE (0.08) was considered to be miniscule.

As such, the specified measurement model was deemed reliable, valid and exhibiting acceptable fit. This makes the model suitable for testing as a structural model. Therefore, the sample evidence implies that the null hypothesis, Ho1, be rejected and its alternative, Ho2, concluded. That is, the determinants of PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students is an eight-factor structure consisting of team success, team delivery, soccer involvement, team relationship trust, team relationship satisfaction, team identification, team psychological commitment and team behavioural commitment.

5.11.3 Structural model

In this section, the fourth empirical objective formulated in Chapter 1 is addressed. In the initial hypothesised structural model (Structural Model A), it was hypothesised that team success (F4), team delivery (F5), soccer involvement (F6), team relationship trust (F7) and team relationship satisfaction (F8) directly influence team identification (F3), which, in turn, influences team psychological commitment (F1), which has a direct positive influence on team behavioural commitment (F2). Structural Model A, presented in Figure 5.7, illustrates the regression path estimates.

Note that in order to improve visual comprehension, the covariance lines between the independent latent factors, the indicator variables of the latent factors and the residuals of the dependent latent factors have been omitted from the structural model figures. Refer to Annexure (C) for detailed diagrams of these models.
Whilst the chi-square (854.502 (df=412), p<0.05) remained problematic, Structural Model A delivered acceptable fit indices of SRMR=0.0944, RMSEA=0.06, IFI=0.904, CFI=0.903 and TLI=0.892.

Figure 5.7 shows that the brand image dimensions of team success (F4) (p=0.346>0.05) and team delivery (F5) (p=0.122>0.05) do not have a significant direct influence on team identification (F3), which infers that there is insufficient evidence to reject Ho2. In contrast, the relationship quality dimensions of relationship trust (F7) (p=0.000<0.05) and relationship satisfaction (F8) (p=0.000<0.05) do have a significant direct positive influence on team identification (F3), which infers that the null hypothesis Ho3 be
rejected at its alternative Ha3 concluded. Similarly, the brand dimension of soccer domain involvement (F6) (p=0.000<0.05) is a significant positive predictor of team identification (F3), which infers that Ho4 be rejected and Ha4 concluded.

While the literature on the influence of team relationship satisfaction on team identification is lacking (refer to Section 3.4.4.2.1), the findings of previous studies also indicate that team trust has a significant positive influence on team identification (Tsiotsiou, 2013:465; Wu et al., 2012:183; Kim et al., 2011b:584). Several other studies (Tsiotsou, 2013:465; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003:286; Fisher & Wakefield, 1998:35) have also found sport domain involvement to be a significant positive predictor of team identification.

Team identification (F3) (p=0.000<0.05), in turn, has a significant direct positive influence on team psychological commitment (F1). This infers that the null hypothesis Ho5 be rejected and the alternative Ha5 concluded. The significant positive influence of team identification on psychological commitment is in line with the findings of Koo (2009:172).

Furthermore, team psychological commitment (F1) has a significant direct positive influence on team behavioural commitment (F2), which infers that the null hypothesis Ho6 be rejected and the alternative Ha6 concluded. This significant positive influence of team psychological commitment on team behavioural loyalty echoes the findings of Bauer et al. (2008:220).

It was decided to test a revised model based on the original measurement model. Byrne (2010:82) insists that it is advisable to consider Akaike’s information criterion (AIC) and Bozdogan’s consistent version of the AIC (CAIC) when comparing two or more models. Smaller values are preferred and indicate better fit. In Structural Model A, the AIC equalled 1012.502 and the CAIC equalled 1381.150.

The hypothesised model was then revised to test whether the brand image dimensions of team success (F4) and team delivery (F5) have a direct positive influence on the team psychological commitment (F1), rather than an indirect influence via their influence on team identity (F3). That is, to examine whether black Generation Y students’ brand loyalty to the PSL soccer teams, as measured by their level of psychological commitment
and behavioural commitment, is directly reliant on team success and team delivery. It is worth noting that the findings from the Mahony and Moorman (1999:49) indicate that sport fans that are considered most loyal will follow the favourite team even when it is unsuccessful.

This revised structural model (Structural Model B) is presented in Figure 5.8.

![Figure 5.8: Structural Model B](image)

Figure 5.8: Structural Model B

In terms of model fit, the revised model (Structural Model B) appears to fit the data better. Structural Model B delivered slightly improved fit indices of chi-square=815.935 (df= 417), SRMR=0.0743, RMSEA=0.058, IFI=0.913, CFI=0.912, TLI=0.902, AIC=973.935 and CAIC=1342.583.

Unlike Mahony and Moorman (1999:49), the findings of this study suggest that team success (F4) (p=0.000<0.05) and team delivery (F5) (p=0.012<0.05) have a direct positive influence on PSL team loyalty in terms of team psychological commitment. This is similar to the findings of Gladden and Funk (2002:74), who indicate that product
delivery is a strong predictive attribute dimension of brand associations and relates to the team’s ability to entertain its consumers.

In conclusion, according to Structural Model B in Figure 5.8, the brand image dimensions of team success and team delivery have a direct positive influence on black Generation Y students’ psychological commitment towards their favourite PSL team. Furthermore, the relationship quality dimensions of team relationship satisfaction and trust, together with soccer involvement have an indirect positive influence on this psychological commitment and behavioural commitment via their influence on team identification.

The squared multiple correlation coefficient for team identification is 0.58, which indicates that team relationship satisfaction, team relationship trust and soccer involvement explain 58 percent of the variance in black Generation Y students’ team identification. The squared multiple correlation coefficient for team psychological commitment is 0.50, which indicates that team success, team delivery and team identification explain 50 percent of the variance in black Generation Y students’ team psychological commitment towards their favourite PSL team. The squared multiple correlation coefficient for team behavioural commitment is 0.69, which indicates that psychological commitment explains 69 percent of the variance in black Generation Y students’ PSL team behavioural commitment.

Table 5.10 provides a comparison of the fit indices of Structural Models A and B.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>Recommended value</th>
<th>Model A</th>
<th>Model B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>Non-significant</td>
<td>854.502</td>
<td>815.935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>≥0.90</td>
<td>0.903</td>
<td>0.912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFI</td>
<td>≥0.90</td>
<td>0.904</td>
<td>0.913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TLI</td>
<td>≥0.90</td>
<td>0.892</td>
<td>0.902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>≤0.50</td>
<td>0.0944</td>
<td>0.0743</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>≤0.80</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>0.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIC</td>
<td>Small positive values</td>
<td>1012.502</td>
<td>973.935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAIC</td>
<td>Small positive values</td>
<td>1381.150</td>
<td>13442.583</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Table 5.10, the fit indices for Structural Model B indicate an improved fit when compared to Structural Model A. There was an observed improvement in model fit in Structural Model B in terms of the Chi-square, CFI, IFI, TLI, SRMR and RMSEA. Most importantly, the AIC and CAIC indices for Model B are lower than those for Model A, indicating that the revised model fits the data better than the hypothesised model.

5.12 CONCLUSION

The objective of this chapter was to report on the empirical findings of the study. The results from the pilot test revealed Cronbach alphas and average inter-item correlation values above the recommended value, thereby providing an initial indication that the measuring scale exhibited reliable internal-consistency. In the main survey, the target population was well represented. As shown in Section 5.5.1, the sample contains a relatively even split of males and females, and included participants from each of the three categories of registered public HEIs in South Africa, as well as participants from each of the seven age categories specified in the target population. Furthermore, the sample comprised participants from each of South Africa’s 11 official languages and eight of the country’s nine provinces, with only Western Cape not being represented.

The exploratory factor analysis, reported on in Table 5.4, resulted in the extraction of eight factors, which explained 69.408 percent of the total variance. Each of the extracted factors aligned well with the constructs specified from the literature. Collinearity diagnostics were run on those factors that would constitute the independent variables in this study and the results revealed no evidence of multicollinearity.

Computation of the descriptive statistics revealed means above 4 on the six-point Likert scale, which infers that black Generation Y students are involved with soccer, identify with their favourite PSL team, trust and are satisfied with their relationship with and the delivery of their favourite team, and that the success of their favourite team is important to them. Moreover, they appear to have a strong psychological and behavioural commitment to their favourite PSL team.

Prior to conducting structural equation modelling, Pearson’s Product-Moment correlation analysis was carried out to ascertain that there were significant relationships between the extracted factors. The results indicated that at a significance level of \( a = 0.01 \), there was a
significant positive correlation between each pair of factors proposed for inclusion in the hypothesised measurement model specified in Chapter 3, which suggests that the proposed model is nomologically valid and, therefore, suitable for structural equation modelling.

Once it had been established that the proposed measurement model exhibited nomological validity, a measurement model comprising eight latent factors was specified. The measurement model returned satisfactory factor loadings, CR and AVE values, and goodness-of-fit values, thereby inferring that black Generation Y students’ PSL team loyalty is an eight-factor structure. Having established that the specified model was suitable for path analysis, the initial structural model (Structural Model A) was specified and reported on Figure 5.7.

In Structural Model A, it was hypothesised that team success, team delivery, soccer involvement, team relationship trust and team relationship satisfaction directly influence team identification, which, in turn, influences team psychological commitment, which has a direct positive influence on team behavioural commitment. The results of Structural Model A indicated that the brand image dimensions of team success and team delivery did not have a significant positive influence on team identification as originally hypothesised. As such, a revised model, Structural Model B, was specified, which hypothesised that team success and team delivery directly influence psychological commitment. Structural model B returned improved fit indices and all hypothesised paths were significant. That is, the brand image dimensions of team success and team delivery have a direct positive influence on black Generation Y students’ psychological commitment towards their favourite PSL team, while the relationship quality dimensions of team relationship satisfaction and trust, together with soccer involvement have an indirect positive influence on this psychological commitment and behavioural commitment via their influence on team identification.

The findings presented in this chapter, together with the literature reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3 inform the conclusions and recommendations presented in the following chapter, Chapter 6.
CHAPTER 6
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The three most popular spectator sports in South Africa are rugby, cricket and soccer, with the country’s top soccer league, the South African PSL, being mainly supported by black South Africans, a population group who, in 2015, made up a significantly large percentage of the population. Of the teams in the League, Kaizer Chiefs and Orlando Pirates are the two teams that enjoy the greatest amount of spectatorship support. These teams, along with Mamelodi Sundowners, were also ranked as South Africa’s three top PSL teams in Africa in 2015, with all three teams being based in the country’s Gauteng province. The League’s ability to attract lucrative broadcast deals and sponsorships is largely dependent on its teams’ ability to attract and maintain passionate and loyal fans. Branding and relationship marketing efforts are considered as being important ingredients in building and maintaining brand loyalty across a broad range of product categories, including professional sport teams.

South Africa’s PSL teams’ on-going success and survival depends on their ability to remain relevant to and to attract and retain the support of members of the Generation Y cohort, particularly black Generation Y university students who because of their tertiary qualification and consequent higher earning potential and social status are likely to influence the wider black Generation Y cohorts’ interest in and support of PSL teams.

This study identified a need to develop a model to empirically test the influence of relationship quality dimensions, brand image dimensions, sport domain involvement and team identification on South African PSL team brand loyalty amongst the country’s black Generation Y university students.

As the concluding chapter of this dissertation, Chapter 6 starts by providing an overview of the previous chapters. The chapter then continues with a description of the main findings of the study in terms of the empirical objectives set out in Section 1.3.3, which concludes with a model of the factors found to determine black Generation Y students’ PSL team loyalty. This is followed by a discussion of the recommendations of the study, which are based on the literature and the empirical findings. The chapter ends by
indicating the limitations of the study and providing suggestions for future research avenues on the topic, together with the concluding remarks of the study.

6.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

In Chapter 1, against the background of the introductory literature, the need to develop a model that included relationship quality dimensions, brand image dimensions, sport domain involvement and team identification as predictors of PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students was explained under the problem statement in Section 1.2. In line with this problem statement, the primary objective of this study, as indicated in Section 1.3.1, was to develop and empirically test a model of the determinants of South African PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students. In order to achieve the primary objective, 11 theoretical objectives and four empirical objectives were formulated in Sections 1.3.2 and 1.3.3 respectively. The four empirical objectives were then converted into six sets of hypotheses, as presented in Section 1.4 and repeated in Section 5.10. The chapter includes an overview of the research methodology followed in achieving these objectives (Section 1.5), where it was clarified that the study followed a descriptive research design using the single cross-sectional survey method for data collection. Thereafter, an explanation of the practical and theoretical contributions of the study (Section 1.6) is provided, as well as a description of the measures taken to ensure that data collection and reporting were conducted according to academic ethical standards (Section 1.7). Chapter 1 ends with a discussion on chapter classification in Section 1.8.

The aim of Chapter 2 was to address the first six formulated theoretical objectives set out in Chapter 1 in order to provide a theoretical framework to guide the discussion of the determinants sport-team brand loyalty in Chapter 3, as well as to describe the characteristics of the study’s target population, namely the Generation Y cohort. In this chapter, it was established that brand loyalty is a two-dimensional construct, consisting of psychological commitment or attitudinal loyalty and behavioural loyalty (Section 2.4). According to the literature reviewed in Chapter 2, the factors that influence this brand loyalty include brand identification (Section 2.5.1), brand awareness in terms of product category involvement (Section 2.5.2), the brand image dimensions of perceived brand quality and delivery on brand benefits (Section 2.5.3), and the relationship quality dimensions of brand trust and brand satisfaction (Section 2.5.4). Based on this review of
the literature, Section 2.6 presents a model of the determinants of brand loyalty, which
served as a framework to guide the literature review on the determinants of sport-team
brand loyalty in Chapter 3 and, ultimately, as the basis for developing a model of the
hypothesised determinants of black Generation Y students’ South African PSL team
brand loyalty. In terms of the selected target population of the study, Section 2.7 provides
the justification for focusing on black Generation Y students, together with an overview
of the attributes of this cohort, as per the literature. This section also includes a discussion
on the factors that influence the Generation Y sport consumption loyalty, with a particular
reference to the South African PSL.

The objective of the literature review in Chapter 3 was to address Theoretical Objectives
1.3.2.7 to 1.3.2.11. Section 3.2 covers why it is important to view professional sport
teams as brands. In Section 3.3, following Day’s (1969:30) advice of viewing brand
loyalty as a two-dimensional construct (Section 2.4), professional sport-team brand
loyalty is defined as comprising both attitudinal loyalty and behavioural loyalty, with
Figure 3.1 illustrating this conceptualisation of brand loyalty from both an attitudinal
deterministic and a behavioural stochastic perspective. Thereafter, using the model
developed in Figure 2.4 of Section 2.6 as a guide, the determinants of professional sport-
team brand loyalty are discussed in Section 3.4. This section includes a review of the
literature on sport team identification (Section 3.4.1), sport domain involvement and team
brand awareness (Section 3.4.2), team brand image (Section 3.4.1), with special reference
to team success (Section 3.4.3.1) and team delivery (Section 3.4.3.2), together with the
team relationship quality dimensions of team relationship trust (Section 3.4.4.1) and team
relationship satisfaction (Section 3.4.4.2). Based on this literature review and in
accordance with the model presented in Figure 2.4, a proposed model of the determinants
of sport team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students, with specific reference
to PSL teams in South Africa is presented in Figure 3.2 of Section 3.5. This model
hypothesised that soccer domain involvement, PSL team success, PSL team delivery, PSL
team relationship trust and PSL team relationship satisfaction influence PSL team
psychological commitment via their influence on PSL team identification, and that PSL
team psychological commitment influences behavioural loyalty towards PSL teams.

Chapter 4 focuses on explaining the theory behind the research methodology followed in
empirically testing Figure 5.3’s proposed model in Chapter 5. Section 4.2 explains that
Chapter 6: Conclusion and recommendations

The study followed a descriptive research design using a single cross-sectional design, which entailed obtaining information only once from one sample of participants drawn from a target population used in the study. The research instrument, which was a self-administered questionnaire that included scales validated in previous studies, is described in Section 4.3. This section also includes a discussion on the pre-testing (Section 4.3.4) and pilot testing (Section 4.3.5) of the questionnaire. Section 4.4 discusses the sampling design procedure that was followed in this study by making use of Figure 4.1 that highlights the five steps typically involved in the sampling procedure. This starts with Section 4.4.1, whereby the target population for the study is defined as full-time black Generation Y students, between the ages of 18 and 24 years, enrolled at South African registered public HEIs in 2013. The sampling frame for this study is described in Section 4.4.2. Section 4.4.3 outlines the sample procedure, while Section 4.4.4 justifies the sample size of 289 participants in terms of the statistical analysis techniques used on the data set collected. In Section 4.5, the administration of the questionnaire is outlined and in Section 4.6, the data preparation process is discussed. Thereafter, Section 4.7 discusses the statistical analysis techniques applied to the cleaned data set.

In accordance with the research methodology outlined in Chapter 4, Chapter 5 reports on the analysis and interpretation of the empirical findings of this study. The results presented in this chapter address the four empirical objectives (Section 1.3.3) formulated in Chapter 1 of the study. Chapter 5 includes an overview of the results of the pilot test in Table 5.1 of Section 5.2. A description of the data gathering process is outlined in Section 5.3 and in Section 5.4, the preliminary data analysis is explained, which included coding in Section 5.4.1 followed by data cleaning in Section 5.4.2 and tabulation in Section 5.4.3. Section 5.5 provides a description of the sample, together with the participants’ reported sport domain interest responses. Thereafter, in Section 5.6, a report of the exploratory principle component analysis undertaken is provided. Table 5.4 reports on the rotated factor loadings, communalities, percentage variance extracted and Cronbach alpha values of the eight factors that were extracted. This is followed by Section 5.7, which presents the assessment of multicollinearity, with the collinearity diagnostics output reported on in Table 5.5. Once it was established that there were no multicollinearity concerns concerning the exogenous factors, the summary measures of the data set were computed, as presented in Table 5.6 and discussed in Section 5.8. Thereafter, a correlation matrix was constructed (Table 5.7) to establish the nomological validity of the
proposed model, as discussed in Section 5.9. Given that there was significant positive correlation between each pair of latent factors proposed for inclusion in the model, the model was deemed suitable for structural equation modelling. In Section 5.10, the various hypotheses for this study, as presented in Chapter 1, are outlined, which are tested using structural equation modelling, which is presented in Section 5.11. This section includes measurement model specification (Section 5.11.1), the reliability and construct validity of the measurement model (Section 5.11.2), together with the results of the testing of the initial hypothesised structural model and revised structural model (Section 5.11.3).

In the following section, the main findings of the study are discussed.

6.3 MAIN FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

In this section, the main findings of the study are discussed. The discussion is structured according to the empirical objectives formulated in Section 1.3.3 of Chapter 1.

The first empirical objective was to determine black Generation Y students’ level of soccer domain involvement and attitudinal loyalty, behavioural loyalty and identification with their favourite PSL team, together with their perceptions of their favourite team’s success, delivery, trust and satisfaction. In order to address this objective, descriptive statistics were computed. Mean scores above four were computed on the six-point Likert scale of each of the constructs. Therefore, it appears that black Generation Y students are brand loyal towards their favourite PSL team, both in terms of psychological and behaviour commitment, that they are involved with soccer, identify with their favourite PSL team, trust and are satisfied with their relationship with and the delivery of their favourite team, and that the success of their favourite team is important to them.

The second empirical objective sought to determine the relationship between black Generation Y students’ PSL team attitudinal loyalty, team behavioural loyalty, team identification, team success, team delivery, soccer involvement, team trust and team relationship satisfaction in order to evaluate the nomological validity of the factors proposed for inclusion in the hypothesised measurement model. This objective was addressed by constructing a correlation matrix by computing the Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficients between each pair of factors. At a significance level of \( a = 0.01 \), significant positive correlation between each pair of factors proposed for inclusion
in the hypothesised measurement model were found, thereby suggesting that the proposed model is nomologically valid.

The third empirical objective focused on determining whether PSL team brand loyalty amongst black Generation Y students is an eight-factor structure consisting of team success, team delivery, soccer involvement, team relationship trust, team relationship satisfaction, team identification, team psychological commitment and team behavioural commitment. Addressing this objective required specifying a measurement model that included these eight factors and assessing the fit, as well as the reliability and validity of the model. Despite a significant chi-square value, the other computed fit indices suggested an acceptable degree of fit between the measurement model and the data. Furthermore, the computed CR and AVE values suggested that the model was reliable and exhibited both convergent and discriminant validity.

The fourth empirical objective was to determine the influence of team success, team delivery, soccer involvement, team relationship trust and team relationship satisfaction on team identification, and the influence of team identification on team psychological commitment, and the influence of team psychological commitment on team behavioural commitment. A structural model was specified in accordance with Hypotheses 2 to 6 set out in Sections 1.4 and 5.10. The relationship quality dimensions of trust and satisfaction were found to have a significant direct positive influence on team identification, and team identification was found to have significant direct positive influence on psychological commitment, which, in turn, was found to be a significant positive predictor of behavioural commitment, as hypothesised. However, the hypothesised paths between the two brand dimensions and team identification were not significant. As such, an alternative model was specified to test whether the team success and team delivery influenced psychological commitment directly, rather than via their influence on team identification. The revised structural model confirmed that while soccer involvement and the two relationship quality dimensions influence psychological commitment via their influence on team identification, the two brand image dimensions influence psychological commitment directly and that psychological commitment has a direct positive influence on behavioural commitment. The revised model also presented with improved fit indices, indicating an improved model. As such, the findings of this study infer that black
Generation Y students’ sport team brand loyalty may be explained in accordance with the model presented in Figure 6.1.

![Diagram](Image)

**Figure 6.1:** Model of the determinants of black Generation Y students’ PSL team brand loyalty

In the next section, the recommendations emanating from the findings are outlined.

### 6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

In accordance with the findings of the current study, this section outlines several recommendations concerning the marketing of South African PSL teams in order to create and maintain team brand loyalty within South Africa’s significantly sized black Generation Y cohort.
6.4.1 Use both attitudinal and behavioural metrics to measure PSL team brand loyalty

This study established that team psychological commitment, which is the attitudinal dimension of brand loyalty, has a direct positive influence on team behavioural commitment (refer to Figures 5.7 and 5.8). Unfortunately, all too often marketers focus on understanding brand loyalty purely in terms of behavioural commitment. The major problem of focusing only on behavioural measures of brand loyalty is that such measures do not differentiate between spurious loyalty that merely involves habitual repurchase of a brand and true loyalty that manifests as intentional commitment to a brand. For example, it does not distinguish the PSL spectator who follows his/her team continuously and has a strong positive attitude towards that team (psychological commitment) and the PSL spectator who regularly watches games without having any particularly strong attitude towards that team (habitual consumption). Even though behavioural loyalty without psychological loyalty may be fragile, it is equally important not to ignore behavioural commitment given that while attitudinal loyalty may suggest that consumers have favourable perceptions towards a brand, it is only an indication of their mental perceptions of the brand rather than their behavioural intentions towards that brand. A high level of psychological commitment towards a sport team in terms of affective loyalty and commitment, and resistance to change is likely to result in increased behavioural loyalty towards that team, which encompasses activities such as attending team games, watching team games on television, consuming team-related media, purchasing team merchandise, wearing the team’s colours or logo and participating in discussions about the team. As such, adopting an attitude-behaviour approach to brand loyalty, rather than merely an attitudinal or behavioural approach, will facilitate greater understanding of PSL team brand loyalty (refer to Sections 2.4 and 3.3).

6.4.2 Design brand strategies to enhance PSL team identification

The findings of this study indicate that team identification has a direct significant positive influence on team psychological commitment and influences behavioural commitment via its influence on attitudinal dimension of brand loyalty (refer to Figures 5.7 and 5.8). Funk and James’ (2001:119) four-stage model of awareness, attraction, attachment and allegiance explains the process of sport team identification and is a valuable tool for segmenting PSL spectators and designing brand strategies suitable for moving fans up
through the levels of team identification. For example, design advertisements that appeal to members of the black Generation Y cohort to foster awareness of the PSL teams. Continuously update the League table results on the PSL website and Facebook page, and post suggestion links to the PSL website on social networking sites, such as Facebook, to help form comparisons between teams and attraction towards specific PSL teams. Marketing efforts directed at promoting the symbolism of specific PSL teams such as its logo, history and traditions may be useful in moving a spectator from attraction to attachment to a specific PSL team. Efforts to foster team allegiance may be enhanced by providing platforms where fans can interact with members of the team, as well as other members. Digital platforms are particularly useful in this regard (refer to Section 3.4.1).

6.4.3 Direct marketing efforts at promoting the domain of soccer in South Africa

Typically, individuals with an interest in a particular sport are more likely to recognise and remember particular teams within that sport (refer to Section 3.4.2). In this study, soccer domain involvement was found to have a significant positive influence on PSL team identification (refer to Figures 5.7 and 5.8). In the realm of professional sport, the PSL competes for spectator support not only against South Africa’s other most popular sports (rugby and cricket) (refer to Section 1.1) but also against the European soccer leagues. This suggests that the League needs to promote the domain of soccer in South Africa, particularly local soccer. Hosting soccer clinics at schools and organising ‘meet-the-team’ events at universities may help in this regard. In addition, mass media campaigns may be used to highlight the ball skill involved in soccer. Such mass media campaigns may also be used to highlight the electric atmosphere created by the use of South African specific team-branded vuvuzelas, makarapas, apparel and face-paint tattoos.

6.4.4 PSL teams need to remain competitive on the field and deliver on experiential benefits during games

In the current study, the brand image dimensions of team success and team delivery were both found to have a significant direct positive influence on psychological commitment (refer to Figure 5.8). A sport team’s success is an important component of its brand image, with fans being more likely to develop a psychological commitment to successful
teams than to unsuccessful teams (refer to Section 3.4.3.1). Even though the psychological connections that occur when a fan exhibits a high level of team identification tend not to fluctuate from season to season and game to game (refer to Section 3.4.1), the strongest sport team brands remain those that continue to be the most successful on the field (refer to Section 3.4.3.1). Team success may be likened to the brand image dimension of perceived quality and the consequent prestige of a brand (refer to Section 2.5.3.1). In this regard, Gladden et al. (198:2) stress that the success record of a sport team is a reflection of that team’s perceived quality and is therefore an antecedent of its brand loyalty (refer to Section 3.4.3.1.2). Strategic game plans, frequent practice sessions, specially-designed fitness programmes, and optimal nutrition plans will all serve to make sport teams more competitive on the field. Utilising sport psychologists to enhance team cohesion is also important in fostering team competitiveness. Naturally, team leadership is an important aspect of creating a winning team. As such, an experienced head coach and team captain with strong leadership skills can play an important team motivational role.

Closely related to team success is team delivery, which refers to the excitement and entertainment value of a team’s on-field performance. This relates to the team’s style of play, the players’ athletic skill and the closeness of the outcome of the game (refer to Section 3.4.3.2). In line with the findings of this study, Uhrich and Benkenstein (2012:1751), as well as Choi (2013:276) found that attractive play positively influences attitudinal loyalty towards a sport team (refer to Section 3.4.3.2.2). The League can create more exciting games by pitting evenly matched teams against each other and by encouraging the use of team-branded vuvuzelas, makarapas, apparel and face-paint tattoos at games, all of which serve to create a more charged atmosphere. Players in the individual teams also need to be aware of the importance of delivering attractive and cohesive play. Many of the elements that aid in enhancing the success of a team on the field are likely to also contribute to team delivery.

6.4.5 Strengthen relationship quality with fans by building trust and satisfaction with the PSL team

According to the results of this study, the relationship quality dimensions of trust and satisfaction influence psychological commitment via their significant positive influence
Conclusion and recommendations

As sport becomes ever more commercialised, professional sport-team brands face increasing competition within a particular sport and from other sports, as well as from national and international sources, so it has become increasingly more important to develop and maintain strong relationships with fans (refer to Section 3.4.4). To this end, the relationship quality dimensions of trust and satisfaction are viewed as essential components of both brand identification and brand loyalty (refer to Section 2.5.4). In order to build greater relationship trust and satisfaction with fans, PSL teams need to look for opportunities to increase interaction between the team and its fans. Social media may prove to be especially valuable in encouraging interactions between members of the black Generation Y cohort and individual PSL teams. For example, each team should have its own Facebook page where fans can view results, comment on games and interact with other fans. In addition, individual players should be encouraged to have their own Facebook page and/or Twitter account, thereby enabling fans to identify more closely with individual players. Hosting charity events and supporting causes salient to the black Generation Y cohort, and organising soccer clinics and autograph signing events at schools and universities may also serve to strengthen relationship ties with members of this cohort. Supporting community-based projects may also be valuable in this regard. Given today's media-saturated environment and increasing celebrity status of professional athletes, PSL team players also need to be cautioned regarding their off-field behaviour in order to mitigate possible damage to the perceived integrity of the team and its players.

6.5 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES

The primary limitation of this study is that it involved a cross-sectional study that employed a non-probability sample of participants. While team identification and brand loyalty, especially attitudinal loyalty are thought to be relatively consistent and enduring, the antecedents that influence these dimension may change over time and in response to situational factors. This suggests that future research that employs a longitudinal study to determine the factors that influence black Generation Y students’ PSL team brand loyalty may offer greater insights. While this study employed non-probability sampling out of necessity, this obviously means that care needs to be taken in generalising the results to
the target population. The study also only focused on selected brand image and relationship quality dimensions. As such, future research into different brand image and relationship quality dimensions is suggested. This study also only focused on university students under the assumption that they are likely to influence the wider black Generation Y cohort’s involvement in and support of PSL teams in South Africa. Research testing the validity of this assumption by sampling the non-student portion of the South African black Generation Y cohort is advised. It would also be interesting to test the model proposed in this study in other sport domains, such as professional rugby and cricket.

6.6 CONCLUSION

The findings of the current study expand on previous research concerning the factors that influence brand loyalty in the team-sport context. The study tested the combined influence of team identification, sport domain involvement, brand image dimensions and relationship quality dimensions on black Generation Y university students’ PSL team loyalty within the South African context. As Generation Y consumers represent the future, it is important for marketers to understand these consumers’ team brand loyalty towards the PSL teams in order to develop appropriate sport-team brand loyalty strategies that will meet the needs of this consumer segment. The study has proposed a model of the factors that influence South African black Generation Y students’ sport-team brand loyalty towards PSL teams. These findings contribute to the literature on sport marketing and spectator psychology.


Dhurup, M. 2012. Victory may have a thousand supporters, but defeat may have none: effects of team identification on BIRGing and CORFing, satisfaction and future behavioural intentions. African journal for physical, health education, recreation and dance, 18(4/1):742-758.


DETERMINANTS OF PSL TEAM BRAND LOYALTY AMONGST GENERATION Y
STUDENTS

Dear Student

My name is Thabang Mofokeng. I am registered as a full-time student for a PhD in Marketing Management at the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus) under the supervision of Prof A.L. Bevan-Dye.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to research the Generation Y students’ attitudes towards PSL soccer teams in South Africa. Generation Y refers to people born between 1986 and 2005. For the purpose of this study, we are particularly interested in Generation Y students as people with a tertiary education often become trendsetters amongst their peers.

Please take a few minutes to assist me and complete the attached questionnaire. It should not take you longer than 30 minutes to complete. All responses are confidential and will merely be outlined in the form of statistical data in the analysis. All data will only be used for research purposes.

Thank you for your important contribution to this study.

Thabang Mofokeng
North-West University
Cell: 0785830182
Email: excellent.temofokeng.thabang@gmail.com

______________________________________________________________________________
### Section A: Demographic information
Please mark the appropriate block using a cross (X)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A1</th>
<th>Name of your institution</th>
<th>Traditional University</th>
<th>University of Technology</th>
<th>Comprehensive University</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A2</th>
<th>Year of study</th>
<th>1st year</th>
<th>2nd year</th>
<th>3rd year</th>
<th>Post graduate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A3</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A4</th>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Black/African</th>
<th>Coloured</th>
<th>Indian/Asian</th>
<th>White</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other (Please specify)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A5</th>
<th>Age at your last birthday</th>
<th>Years old</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A6</th>
<th>Province where you grew up</th>
<th>Eastern Cape</th>
<th>Free State</th>
<th>Gauteng</th>
<th>KwaZulu-Natal</th>
<th>Limpopo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mpumalanga | Northern Cape | North West | Western Cape |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A7</th>
<th>Your Mother Tongue language</th>
<th>Afrikaans</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>IsiNdebele</th>
<th>IsiXhosa</th>
<th>IsiZulu</th>
<th>Sesotho sa Leboa</th>
<th>Sesotho</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Setswana | siSwati | Tshivenda | Xitsonga |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A8</th>
<th>Are you involved/interested in soccer?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
### SECTION B:

Please indicate the extent to which you disagree/agree with each of the following statements by making a cross (X) in the appropriate box; 1 being strongly disagree and 6 strongly agree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>I care whether my favourite PSL team wins or loses</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>It is very important that my favourite PSL team reaches the post-season</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3</td>
<td>It is important that my favourite PSL team competes for the league championships</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4</td>
<td>My favourite PSL team’s games are exciting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5</td>
<td>My favourite PSL team’s games are entertaining</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B6</td>
<td>My favourite PSL team’s games are enjoyable</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B7</td>
<td>When someone criticises my favourite PSL team, it feels like a personal insult</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B8</td>
<td>I am very interested in what others think about my favourite PSL team</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B9</td>
<td>When I talk about my favourite PSL team, I usually say “we” rather than “they”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B10</td>
<td>My favourite PSL team’s successes are my successes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B11</td>
<td>When someone praises my favourite PSL team, it feels like a personal complement</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B12</td>
<td>If a story in the media criticised my favourite PSL team, I would feel embarrassed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B13</td>
<td>Soccer is very important to me</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B14</td>
<td>I think of soccer nearly all of the time</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B15</td>
<td>I watch soccer whenever I can</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B16</td>
<td>I trust my favourite PSL team</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B17</td>
<td>My favourite PSL team is reliable</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statement</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B18</td>
<td>I can count on my favourite PSL team</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B19</td>
<td>I am pleased with the relationship that I have with my favourite PSL team</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B20</td>
<td>My relationship with my favourite PSL team is favourable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B21</td>
<td>I am satisfied with my relationship with my favourite PSL team</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B22</td>
<td>I am committed to my favourite PSL team</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B23</td>
<td>There is nothing that could change my commitment to my favourite PSL team</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B24</td>
<td>I will not change my affiliation from my favourite PSL team to another PSL team in the future just because it is not successful anymore</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B25</td>
<td>I will not change my affiliation from my favourite PSL team to another PSL team in the future just because my friends try to convince me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B26</td>
<td>The likelihood that I will attend my favourite PSL team’s future games is high</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B27</td>
<td>The likelihood that I will watch my favourite PSL team’s future games on TV is high</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B28</td>
<td>The likelihood that I will track my favourite PSL team through the media (e.g. TV, radio, Internet) is high</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B29</td>
<td>The likelihood that I will purchase my favourite PSL team’s club-related merchandise is high</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B30</td>
<td>The likelihood that I will wear the colours/logo of my favourite PSL team is high</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B31</td>
<td>The likelihood that I will participate in discussions about my favourite PSL team in the future is high</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you very much for your participation!
DETERMINANTS OF PSL TEAM BRAND LOYALTY AMONGST GENERATION Y STUDENTS

Dear Student

My name is Thabang Mofokeng. I am registered as a full-time student for a PhD in Marketing Management at the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus) under the supervision of Prof A.L. Bevan-Dye.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to research Generation Y students’ attitudes towards PSL soccer teams in South Africa. Generation Y refers to people born between 1986 and 2005. For the purpose of this study, we are particularly interested in Generation Y students as people with a tertiary education often become trendsetters amongst their peers.

Please take a few minutes to complete the attached questionnaire. It should not take you longer than 30 minutes to complete. All responses are confidential and will merely be outlined in the form of statistical data in the analysis. All data will only be used for research purposes.

Thank you for your important contribution to this study.

Thabang Mofokeng
North-West University
Cell: 0785830182
Email: excellent.temofokeng.thabang@gmail.com
**Section A: Demographic information**

*Please mark the appropriate block using a cross (X)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Name of your institution</th>
<th>Traditional University</th>
<th>University of Technology</th>
<th>Comprehensive University</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Year of study</th>
<th>1st year</th>
<th>2nd year</th>
<th>3rd year</th>
<th>Post graduate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Black/Africa</th>
<th>Coloured</th>
<th>Indian/Asian</th>
<th>White</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Other (Please specify)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Age at your last birthday</th>
<th>Years old</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Province where you grew up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A6</td>
<td>Eastern Cape</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mpumalanga</th>
<th>Northern Cape</th>
<th>North West</th>
<th>Western Cape</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Your Mother Tongue language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Setswana</th>
<th>siSwati</th>
<th>Tshivenda</th>
<th>Xitsonga</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Are you involved/interested in soccer?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SECTION B:
Please indicate the extent to which you disagree/agree with each of the following statements by making a cross (X) in the appropriate box; 1 being strongly disagree and 6 strongly agree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree Somewhat</th>
<th>Agree Somewhat</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>I care whether my favourite PSL team wins or loses</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>It is very important that my favourite PSL team reaches the post-season</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3</td>
<td>It is important that my favourite PSL team competes for the league championships</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4</td>
<td>My favourite PSL team’s games are exciting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5</td>
<td>My favourite PSL team’s games are entertaining</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B6</td>
<td>My favourite PSL team’s games are enjoyable</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B7</td>
<td>When someone criticises my favourite PSL team, it feels like a personal insult</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B8</td>
<td>I am very interested in what others think about my favourite PSL team</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B9</td>
<td>When I talk about my favourite PSL team, I usually say “we” rather than “they”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B10</td>
<td>My favourite PSL team’s successes are my successes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B11</td>
<td>When someone praises my favourite PSL team, it feels like a personal complement</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B12</td>
<td>If a story in the media criticised my favourite PSL team, I would feel embarrassed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B13</td>
<td>Soccer is very important to me</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B14</td>
<td>I think of soccer nearly all of the time</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B15</td>
<td>I watch soccer whenever I can</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B16</td>
<td>I trust my favourite PSL team</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B17</td>
<td>My favourite PSL team is reliable</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statement</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Somewhat Disagree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Somewhat Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B18</td>
<td>I can count on my favourite PSL team</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B19</td>
<td>I am pleased with the relationship that I have with my favourite PSL team</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B20</td>
<td>My relationship with my favourite PSL team is favourable</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B21</td>
<td>I am satisfied with my relationship with my favourite PSL team</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B22</td>
<td>I am committed to my favourite PSL team</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B23</td>
<td>There is nothing that could change my commitment to my favourite PSL team</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B24</td>
<td>I will not change my affiliation from my favourite PSL team to another PSL team in the future just because it is not successful anymore</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B25</td>
<td>I will not change my affiliation from my favourite PSL team to another PSL team in the future just because my friends try to convince me</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B26</td>
<td>The likelihood that I will attend my favourite PSL team’s future games is high</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B27</td>
<td>The likelihood that I will watch my favourite PSL team’s future games on TV is high</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B28</td>
<td>The likelihood that I will track my favourite PSL team through the media (e.g. TV, radio, Internet) is high</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B29</td>
<td>The likelihood that I will purchase my favourite PSL team’s club-related merchandise is high</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B30</td>
<td>The likelihood that I will wear the colours/logo of my favourite PSL team is high</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B31</td>
<td>The likelihood that I will participate in discussions about my favourite PSL team in the future is high</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you very much for your participation!
ANNEXURE C

STRUCTURAL MODELS
Structural Model A
Structural Model B