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Social Identity Complexity and Sports Fans

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the relationship between levels of social identity complexity and tolerance. Social identity complexity refers to the nature of the subjective representation of multiple group identities and is postulated to be made up of two underlying sub-constructs, namely overlap complexity and similarity complexity. Tolerance is assumed to be constructed of dimensions including ethnic/religious tolerance, sexual tolerance, social deviance, cultural pluralism and affirmative action principles. In addition, gender and age groups are assumed to be potential moderators of the underlying relationships between the various construct measures.

The study used Blue Bulls supporters as the sample to be investigated. A quantitative study of 102 Blue Bulls supporters was conducted using a combination of an online survey and personal interviews at the Blue Bulls stadium. The data determined the social identity complexity levels of these supporters and their various tolerance levels. The results were then analysed using descriptive statistics and various other statistical analysis to determine differences and relationships between the social identity measures and tolerance constructs.

The results showed the average Blue Bulls supporter to own average social identity complexity levels and were more tolerant towards out-groups than previous literature had proposed for sports fans. Age showed certain trends in relation to social identity complexity and tolerance levels. However, age and gender made no significant differences to the measures and constructs.

Understanding that a sports supporter is more than just an individual who supports a team on one social identity level but possesses multiple social identities is important to understand for many stakeholders within the sports business. Decisions around marketing campaigns, the management of the fan base online and in the stadium and how to get supporters to be more loyal revolves around this understanding of supporters being a sports fan on one dimension, but either a mother or a lawyer on another. The way that these supporters manage their perceptions of out-group members may influence how a brand manages its advertising campaigns or communicates with its fan base.

KEYWORDS

Social identity complexity; group membership; tolerance; sports marketing

DECLARATION

I declare that this research project is my own work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration at the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University. I further declare that I have obtained the necessary authorisation and consent to carry out this research.

Student name: Dirk Meyer

Signature:

Date: 10 November 2014

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1.1   The Research Problem

This study explores the concept of social identity complexity and aims to establish how sports fans manage the complexity of their various social identities in multiple groups. Roccas and Brewer (2002) described social identity complexity as "a new theoretical construct that refers to the nature of the subjective representation of multiple group identities" (p. 88-89).

All individuals have social identities, such as one's gender, race, ethnicity, language, religious affiliation, nationality, sexual orientation or sports teams followed. The literature on social identity and social identity complexity has not focused on the understanding and management of these multiple social identities in the environment of the sports fan, or how these multiple social identities may impact the sports fans' decisions around their consumption of sport. Research has rather focused on the role social identity and team identity plays in the level of support for a team on single in-group/out-group categorisations and not on multiple group categorisations (Dimmock, Grove, & Eklund, 2005; Heere & James, 2007; Underwood, Bond, & Baer, 2001; Wann & Branscombe, 1993).

Social identity complexity is related to various other identity constructs, hence it is important to understand personal identity, social identity theory and self-categorisation theory in the analysis of sports fans and their social identity complexities. Brewer (1991) described personal identity as the "individuated self - those characteristics that differentiate one individual from others within a given social context" and social identity as "categorizations of the self into more inclusive social units that depersonalise the self-concept" (p. 476).

Previous research on social identity complexity has identified tolerance levels and intergroup attitudes to vary based on the level of identity complexity per individual or group (Brewer, Gonsalkorale, & van Dommelen, 2013 ;Brewer & Pierce, 2005; Schmid, Hewstone, Tausch, Cairns, & Hughes, 2009). Research conducted by Brewer and Pierce identified individuals who included a sports identity as being important to them possessed lower complexity levels in comparison to other social identities. This research intends to determine the social identity complexity levels of sports fans and measure them against

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levels of tolerance and intergroup attitudes, to determine whether these variables correlate with this specific group of individuals.

1.2   Motivation for investigating the research problem

1.2.1   The business of sports fans and social identity

The business environment requires an understanding of one's consumer in order to become profitable and successful. Professional team sport has become a very marketable product, and through globalisation and technological advances such as satellite television and the internet, the potential marketplace of sports teams has expanded. PwC projected potential revenues from the global sports market by 2015 to reach over $145 billion (PWC, 2011).

Sport has the ability to cultivate passionate supporters, but what is it exactly that builds the powerful relationships between these consumers and the product – sport? The answer may be found in social identity theory, which allows sports consumers to define others and categorise themselves in a specific area in their social world (Smith & Stewart, 2010).

Fans want to be better understood and in the social media age have opportunities to converse directly with their supported team and fellow fans far easier than before. Fans have a deep sense of ownership for their team and want to be seen as being involved in the decisions around them. A strong team identity has been shown to impact positively on the consumption behaviour of fans, resulting in increased merchandise sales, ticket sales and media revenue (Heere & James, 2007).

Various techniques have been derived for the measurement of sports fans support, from Wann and Branscombe's (1993) paper on measuring sports fans' degree of identification with their team, to Funk and James' (2001) Psychological Continuum Model and Underwood, Bond and Baer's (2001) 'social identity – brand equity' model. Each discusses techniques which can be used to measure sports fans potential value.

Underwood et al.'s 'social identity – brand equity' model states that "characteristics of the services marketplace" are important to strengthen a fans identification with that service provider. Stronger social identity leads to greater customer-based brand equity. The study showed that in the sports marketplace, the characteristics that are salient to sports fans' identification are the group experience, history/tradition, role of physical facility and rituals.

Further studies on social identity and brand equity by Boyle and Magnusson (2007) lend credibility to the notion that social identity helps shape brand loyalty among fans. Their study was based on three distinct fan groups, namely current students, alumni and the general public, and the results showed strong support for the effect of social identity on brand equity. How social identity was formed differed per group however, with team history being significant for alumni and the public, whereas students were more influenced by how the programme was part of the local community (Boyle & Magnusson, 2007).

By having a greater understanding of sports fans' social identities and how they manage them at multiple levels of categorisation, it can help brand managers market their brands better to these fans and create a better product to service their fan base. Sports marketing and branding have been closely linked (Burnett, Menon, & Smart, 1993) and it is the fan community that adds value to a brand, so knowing how fans manage their multiple identities as in-groups and out-groups will assist brand managers with ensuring that fans maintain their community as an in-group. Greater consumption of the team by these fans and an increased ability to show corporate customers the benefit of sponsorships or advertising to this fan base will lead to increased revenues.

Corporate sponsors need to know their clientele and the understanding of how sports consumers manage their multiple social identities will ensure better decisions are made in terms of where sponsorship money is spent. It is the responsibility of management to enhance their brand equity through their marketing efforts. Events such as the Olympic Games or the recently held FIFA World Cup in Brazil highlight the closely held relationships between business, sports and marketing (Marber, Wellen, & Posluszny, 2005).

Media planners need to know how to reach their audiences; understanding that a fan may only watch the sports they play may require management of the two social identities of being a sports supporter and a sports participant in a specific way when it comes to access, such as via television or through traditional print media (Burnett et al., 1993).

Finally, sports organisations may want to work on trying to amend their fans' behaviours to fit the values and morals the organisation wants to project. By knowing their fan base's social identity complexity levels, and in turn tolerance levels, they may be able to focus on creating environments that reflect the morals and values they would like to present.

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1.2.2   Research contribution to current literature

Roccas and Brewer (2002) proposed the theory of social identity complexity in their paper entitled *Social Identity Complexity*. The underlying principle states that individuals possess multiple in-groups of which they are simultaneously a member. The degree of overlap individuals perceive there to be between their different groups gives a simple or complex rating to their social identity structure. An individual with a simple structure may group two of their identities together to form one single identity and in-group.

Brewer and Pierce (2005) tested social identity complexity and out-group tolerance, where 79 individuals in their sample acknowledged sports identities as salient identities. The authors speculated that sports identities are inclusive identities which cross cut differences in cultural backgrounds or political or religious ideologies. These individuals had significantly lower identity complexity (high overlap) scores compared to those who did not include sports as a salient identity. Roccas and Brewer (2002) tested for tolerance levels and proposed that individuals with low social identities (high overlap scores) are less tolerant of individuals in any out-group on a single category level. Sports fans see their fellow fans as being relatively similar and when tested against tolerance levels, Brewer and Pierce (2005) speculated they would be less tolerant of out-group members.

This research intends to contribute to the theory on social identity complexity and tolerance levels of sports fans. It is based on literature from the theory and methods used in this literature were used to test the complexity levels of sports fans and their levels of tolerance.

1.3   Business rationale for conducting the research

Global sports revenue is expected to reach $145 billion by 2015. This amount is made up of sponsorships, gate revenues, media rights and merchandising (PWC, 2011).

A report by AT Kearney determined that the global sports industry was growing faster than the GDP rates around the world as of 2009, with significant growth predicted for the future. Football had the largest share of the global sports market in 2009 at 43%, but one of the fastest growing sports globally is rugby union, with a growth rate of over 17% since turning professional in 1995 (Zygband, Collignon, Sultan, Santander, & Valensi, 2011).

Sponsors have shown that they are willing to spend more money on sports, but as these revenues increase their returns on investment will have to be more tangible, thus more

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sophisticated techniques will be required to measure these returns. This will require a better understanding of what exactly is being measured and what sponsors are spending their money on (PWC, 2011). Even though tough economic times have shown that support for sports teams does not decline substantially, as corporate sponsors demand returns on their investments, the understanding of the consumer, a seemingly homogenous group that is broken into multiple segments, becomes more important (Burnett et al., 1993).

Fans have various social identities including citizenship, sports teams they support and the sports they play. A Manchester United fan in the early 2000s may have included within their spread of identities – 'Manchester United Fan', 'soccer supporter' and 'Englishman'. In the summer of 2003 it was announced David Beckham had been bought by Real Madrid on a $31.6 million four year contract. In the first season the sales for David Beckham's number 23 Real Madrid jersey accounted for $24.5 million and 50% of the replica sales for Real Madrid that season. The interesting aspect to the sales of Beckham's Real Madrid jersey was that it became the highest selling non-domestic jersey in England, going up 350 percent on the year before (Gannon, 2012).

This may show that as an English Manchester United fan, the fact that Beckham had gone to a Spanish soccer team did not matter as much as being a 'soccer supporter' and a 'David Beckham fan' as those two social identities combined to form the in-group. Having an understanding of fans' salient social identities, how they handle the multiple identities and which may be more salient at given times, may be a predictor for fan behaviour and perhaps consumption habits.

In the case of Barcelona, which intended to sign a €171 million shirt sponsorship deal with the not-for-profit Qatar Foundation, fans did not agree with this and thousands signed a petition for the deal to be dropped. Criticism for food and alcohol sponsors have also drawn criticism from fans who see sports as a "healthy" pursuit (PWC, 2011). Linking their personal identities to the team they support shows the importance individuals place on decisions made by the team they support.

Hansa Pilsner is a beer manufactured by SAB Miller in South Africa which has recently become the official beer sponsor of the Barclays Premier League clubs Manchester City and Arsenal in South Africa ("Hansa sponsor Manchester City, Arsenal," 2014). The deal will give Hansa the ability to market on behalf of these premier league teams and offer match tickets and autographed official merchandise to their clients and fans of the teams.

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The Hansa brand manager has shown an understanding that being a South African, and perhaps a local, soccer supporter does not prevent fans from supporting other non-local teams in England. Individuals possess multiple team identities, which is not necessarily restricted by the fact that these teams may not match up to their other social identities – such as being a South African.

A Manchester City supporter in South Africa may see his support for a premier league team and the fact that he is South African as being important. These two identities may make up a particular in-group which needs to be acknowledged by brand managers and catered for appropriately. A further case in point with regards to non-local fans are the All Black supporters in South Africa. Their support is historically based but one can argue that 20 years after the end of apartheid in South Africa, the history may only play a small part in this narrative. These individuals who are South African citizens but support the All Blacks may view their South African citizenship and All Black support as one group identity and see no problem with it. By understanding that, it can create opportunities for the way stadiums manage these individuals and how team brand managers can create value from non-local fans.

Proctor and Gamble (P&G) is a multinational consumer goods company which embarked on a campaign in South Africa in 2012 called "Thank you Mom", using its new sponsorship of the Olympics to change its marketing approach. Traditionally it had marketed its products individually, but this campaign saw the corporate brand being marketed next to their individual products. Mothers of South African Olympians Cameron Van der Burgh, Caster Semenya and Khotso Mokoena were taken to London as brand ambassadors for this campaign. The campaign intended to appeal to the consumer – mainly women – in their roles as mothers and caregivers (Mokgata, 2012). Linking the campaign to their Olympic sponsorship, P&G acknowledged the power of sports marketing but came up with a campaign that appealed to the social identities of its consumer base. The campaign continued with the Sochi Winter Olympics in 2014 and the YouTube video entitled " P&G Thank You, Mom | Pick Them Back Up | Sochi 2014 Winter Games" has so far garnered over 19 million views (ProctorGamble, 2014).

All of these examples show a deeper understanding of the sports fan and that each fan has multiple identities that need to be catered for and identified in order to deliver a product that can be related to by the consumer. Each campaign uses sports as the

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foundation to build on but brings into play other social identities that the consumer will identify with – for example the mother who is also a sports fan or athlete.

1.4 Research scope

There are three main sporting codes in South Africa – soccer, rugby and cricket. Rugby has the second largest following out of the three with nine million fans (BMI Sport Info, 2013). For South African rugby fans, the game is a serious matter which borders on religious proportions. The South African national team is known as the Springboks and the sport has displayed its ability to change a country, as seen when the Springboks won the 1995 IRB Rugby World Cup (Morgan, n.d.). The body controlling rugby in South Africa, SARU, is facing challenges on how to transform the game and retain its market share while competing against all other sports in the country and internationally.

Rugby as a sporting code is the subject of this research, which is principally centred on the supporters of the Blue Bulls rugby team based in Pretoria. Formerly known as Northern Transvaal, the Blue Bulls has the largest rugby support in South Africa with over 2,4 million fans, which has been the case for the last five years (BMI Sport Info, 2013). They are the second most successful Currie Cup team with 23 wins and the most successful South African Super Rugby team with three wins since 2007 ("Currie Cup Winners down the years," 2013; "SA Rugby Stats," n.d.).

1.5 Summary

All individuals own social identities, some of which are used in specific contexts or at different times. Individuals self-categorise themselves into specific social identities – some are obligatory (gender or race) while others are by choice (sports team supported) - and these social identities can be determined to be either part of one's in-group and members not in these groups are out-group members. Social identity complexity is a theory on the subjective representation of an individual's multiple in-groups. Having various levels of social identity complexity have shown to impact individuals perceptions towards out-group members with varying levels of tolerance. This study intends to investigate the social identity complexity levels of sports fans and test it against these sports fans' tolerance levels. The findings will add to the small but growing literature on this theory.

The profitability of the sports environment has shown considerable increases in the last couple of decades. These revenues come from sponsorships, gate revenues, media rights

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and merchandising. Rugby has shown tremendous growth year on year since it turned professional in 1995. Stakeholders in this environment such as brand marketing managers, sponsors and team owners need to remain profitable to be sustainable in a globalised economy with increased leisure options and competition from other sports to the consumer. Knowing the consumer better will assist these stakeholders in making better business decisions and increase support and in turn revenues. Various other studies have proposed and tested the relationship between social identities and consumption of sport with various models measuring levels of support for teams.

Social identity complexity allows these stakeholders in the sports environment to view the consumer as not just a team supporter but as an individual who combines social identities such as being a sports supporter and a mother at the same time. These multiple social identities impact the way these individuals react to marketing campaigns, merchandise being offered and the stadium experience and by understanding this intimately, these individuals can be leveraged to increase support of the team and increase consumption of the sports product.

Chapter 2   - Literature Review

Intergroup behaviour studies show that individuals develop two principle identities – a personal self and a collective self. The personal self encompasses distinctive, individual information about themselves whereas the collective self incorporates information about the groups to which they below (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

Social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982) and self-categorisation theory (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987) are two group constructs that theorise about intergroup behaviour and the social identity of the group itself (Hogg & Reid, 2006). Social identity complexity can be seen as a cousin to these theories and presents how individuals manage the multiple groups that they identify with (Roccas & Brewer, 2002). The theory proposes individuals do not just manage their social identities on one dimension but on multiple cross-cutting dimensions such as being a sports supporter and a citizen of a country. Both these social identities may be important in certain contexts when combined and not just as a sports supporter in one environment and a citizen in another. These overlapping social identities will reflect an individual's subjective representation of his or her social identity environment and will incorporate a level of how much the individual perceives there to be an overlap between these social identities.

This literature review will explain social identity theory, and self-categorisation theory and then investigate social identity complexity around multiple cross-cutting group memberships, group characteristics, and the relationship between social identity complexity and tolerance.

2.1   Social Identity Theory

Social Identity Theory was a model introduced by Tajfel and Turner (1986) as a way to explain intergroup behaviour. They defined a person's social identity as the sum total of all his or hers social identities. Further, they described social identity theory as "the individual's knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him of the group membership" (Tajfel & Turner, 1986, p. 18). Brewer (1991) presented social identity schematically as concentric circles made up of an individual's social identities surrounding their personal identity (figure 1).

Figure 1 - Personal identity and social identities (Brewer, 1991, p. 476)
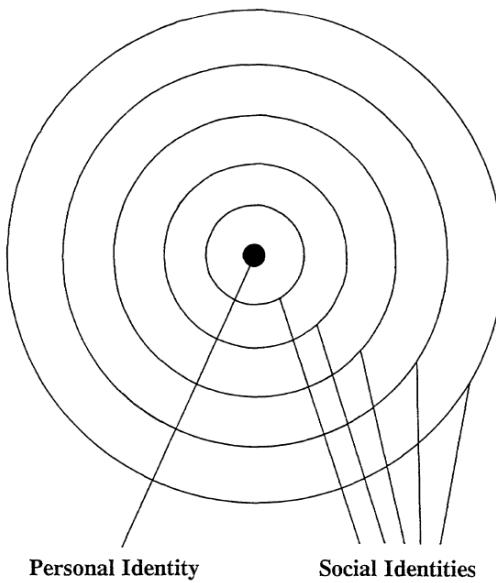
Personal Identity   Social Identities

Brewer (1991) described personal identity as the "individuated self - those characteristics that differentiate one individual from others within a given social context" and social identity as "categorizations of the self into more inclusive social units that depersonalise the self-concept" (p. 476). Social identity is the link between the psychology of the individual and the structure and function of social groups (Brewer, 2001).

The theory focuses on discrimination and prejudice, as well as intergroup behaviour such as conflict, cooperation, social change and social stasis (Hogg & Reid, 2006). Ellemers, Kortekaas and Ouwerkerk (1999) stated that based on Tajfel's definition of social identity, it is made up of three components: a cognitive component (self-categorisation); an evaluative component (group self-esteem) and an emotional component (affective commitment).

2.2   Self-Categorisation Theory

Self-categorisation theory explains an individual's categorisation as a member of a particular social grouping; self-categorisation is the precondition for all other dimensions of collective identity. One will either self-categorise into a specific social identity, or one is put into a social category by birth – such as one national identity. In order to able to be proud of being in a particular group one has to place oneself in that category first (Ashmore, Deaux, & McLaughlin-Volpe, 2004). Turner and Oakes (1986) described how self-

categorisation occurs at three levels of abstraction: self-categorisation as a human being; categorisations by in-group and out-group differentiations (the self as a social category) and personal self-categorisation. This research is interested in self-categorisation in terms of multiple groups and the saliency of the various social identities identified. Context is important with regards to social identities being mutually exclusive in self-categorisation, and if one single social identity is salient in a specific setting, then social categorisation will dominate self-categorisation and the categorisation of others with regards to the group in that situation (Roccas & Brewer, 2002).

The more an individual identifies with a salient group, the more the individual will view themselves and other members as the group as standard with regards to the group prototype – a process known as depersonalisation (Hornsey & Jetten, 2004). Prototypes are attributes such as attitudes, behaviours and characteristics that define one group from another. These category representations accentuate the similarities and differences between groups (Hogg & Reid, 2006).

Individuals use the prototypes of the group to view other members of the group through the same lens and are represented in terms of how well they embody the prototype. Social categorisation thus depersonalises one's perception of people in that they are not seen as individuals but are viewed in terms of the group's attributes. Individuals will also comply with group norms as specified by the group's prototypes (Hogg & Reid, 2006).

2.2.1 National identity

Individuals possess multiple identities, which include a national identity. National identity and feelings towards one's nationality can be related to many items, including a country's political system, its influence in the world, its economic standing, its cultural and scientific achievements, its history and its sporting prowess. National pride is related to feelings of patriotism and nationalism, with patriotism being one's allegiance and love towards one's country and nationalism being a strong devotion to one's country that places it above others (Smith & Jarkko, 1998).

There are related positive effects to national pride and an individual's national identity with success in the sports arena. One only has to look at the investment countries put into achieving Olympic medals and featuring on the medal index to see what sporting success means to a country and its citizens (Hilvoorde, Elling, & Stokvis, 2010). Dauncey and Hare (2014) elaborated on Anderson's (1983) *Imagined Community*, which explains nationalism

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as being carried by stories, images, symbols and rituals that represent shared meanings of nationhood. The rituals include moments like elections, major disasters, and commemorations, making individuals see the world in terms of "them" and "us". Sporting events like the Olympics, football matches and major league baseball have incorporated patriotic rituals like national anthems, flags and uniforms to engage this patriotism (ibid).

2.3   Sports identity and social identity

Social identity refers to defining oneself in terms of various social categories, which includes identifying with a sport or sports team. Wann (2006a) investigated the causes of team identification and found three general causes of team identification: psychological, environmental and team-related. Psychological is predominantly within individuals and has a need for belonging and affiliation as factors for team identification. The need to be a member in a distinctive group, the need for belonging and the opportunity to affiliate with others is also salient when identifying with a team. The socialisation process is important in the environmental process of team identification, and one's parents, siblings and friends can be important in the team identification process. There are three types of causes in the team-related section – organisational characteristics, team performance and player attributes (Kerr & Emery, 2011; Wann, 2006a;).

The degree to which a fan identifies with a team will influence their behaviour, loyalty and attitudes toward their adopted teams. A highly identified fan will have more positive expectations concerning future team performances, will invest more time and money in watching the team play, are more likely to believe that fellow fans of the team possess special qualities, and will generally have much more involvement with the team. (Dietz-Uhler & Murrell, 1999; Kerr & Emery, 2011; Wann & Branscombe, 1993;). Highly identified fans are more likely to attend their team games, monitor them in the media, purchase team merchandise and recognise and purchase products from team sponsors (Kerr & Emery, 2011).

Being highly identified with a team has consequences for sports followers' self-worth (Wann, 2006a) and psychological health (Wann, 2006b). Sports fans identify with their team to the extent that they often see the team as an extension of themselves and the team's failures as their own, just as the team's success is their own success. Four characteristics of the sports environment are proposed to promote social identity: the group experience, history and tradition, the role of the physical facility, and the ritual. By

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building awareness, image and loyalty, sports brands could increase their financial goals not just through win/loss ratios alone (Underwood et al., 2001).

By building on these strong emotional connections, service brands can be developed by connecting with fans whose core values are reflected in the brand itself. Underwood et al.'s (2001) paper discussed the role social identity can play in the brand building process within a sports environment, which is seen as a high commitment and high involvement industry. A successful sports organisation recognises the power a distinct image has on its fans and its success as a brand. By cultivating this amongst their emotionally laden fans, its brand identity is enhanced (Underwood et al., 2001).

There have been several studies relating to the measurement of sports fans levels when it comes to identification with a sports team and social identity. Wann and Branscombe (1993) proposed the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS), Underwood et al. (2001) created the 'social identity – brand equity' model (SIBE), Dimmock, Grove and Eklund (2005) devised a two dimensional construct (affective-cognitive and evaluative), and a multi-dimensional construct on team identity was shaped by Heere and James (2007).

The 'social identity brand-equity' model depicted by Underwood et al. (2001) proposes relationships between characteristics of the service market place – such as the group experience, history/tradition, the physical facility and rituals – will serve as levers to strengthen customers' identification with the service provider, and in turn a stronger social identity leads to greater customer-based equity. Heightened group identification creates the boundaries between in-groups and out-groups to allow categorisation of us vs. them or we vs. them. This self-categorisation process within the sports environment differentiates fans from spectators. A fan's categorisation process ensures a degree of order is placed within this area of their social environment and they view themselves as members of the group (Underwood et al., 2001).

2.4   Social Identity Complexity Theory

The Roccas and Brewer (2002) study, which introduced the concept of social identity complexity, is the seminal article for this research. Stated as "a new theoretical construct that refers to the nature of the subjective representation of multiple group identities" (p. 88-89), the theory explains how an individual who has many in-group identities identifies with not only the individual identities independently, but how the different identities are subjectively combined to provide an inclusive representation of the individual's in-group

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memberships. Hence individuals may see their range of social identities as overlapping, whereby only individuals who share memberships across the sum of the identities are seen as in-group members, and those that share none or only a few are out-group members (Schmid et al., 2009).

Subsequent to Roccas' and Brewers (2002) research, the study of groups has dealt predominantly with single in-group and out-group categorisations, but little has been said about categorisation with reference to multiple identities in in-group and out-group structures. There is a small but growing body of research on social identity complexity, which includes studies on social identity complexity levels and how they relate to out-group attitudes (Brewer & Pierce, 2005; Miller, Brewer, & Arbuckle, 2009); tolerance (Brewer & Pierce, 2005); in-group bias (Schmid et al., 2009) and diversity (Brewer, Gonsalkorale, & Dommelen, 2013; Knifsend & Juvonen, 2013; Schmid, Hewstone, & Ramiah, 2013).

Social identity complexity states that multiple group memberships vary with levels of complexity and the theory is conceptually divided into two related subcomponents – overlap complexity and similarity complexity (Schmid et al., 2013). An individual perceives his range of social identities to overlap and the complexity levels refer to the degree of overlap between these multiple group memberships. When one's representation is low in complexity, one perceives a high degree of overlap between the characteristics of the individual's groups and that of the group membership. High complexity is the opposite, with the representation of each in-group being distinct from each other in terms of characteristics and membership. For example an individual may self-categorise himself in terms of social identities as being a rugby supporter and white. If this individual only regards people who are rugby supporters and being white as part of his in-group, then it is assumed that his social identity is reasonably simple. However, some individuals may recognise that not all white people are rugby supporters and not all rugby supporters are white, and that other people will hold in-group membership on some categories but not others. These individuals will thus have a more complex social identity structure (ibid).

Similarity overlap refers to the degree to which an individual perceives different groups to be interrelated due to the prototypical attributes of the groups being categorised. Group prototypes are the attributes such as attitudes, behaviours and characteristics that define one group from another; for example a white individual might think that most white people are rugby supporters and that being white means more or less the same as being a rugby supporter. Hence a high similarity complexity and the perception that these categories are

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similar leads to a low social identity complexity, compared to other individuals who perceive less similarity convergence between the categories (Crisp & Hewstone, 2007; Roccas & Brewer, 2002; ; Schmid et al., 2009).

2.4.1 Antecedents and consequences of Social Identity Complexity

Roccas and Brewer (2002) hypothesised that three factors affect an individual's representation of multiple group identities - experiential factors, personal attributes (motivational factors) and situational factors. Experiential factors relate to the structure of society and similarity between in-groups. We are generally surrounded by people similar to ourselves (Miller et al., 2009), and are usually exposed to people, from our parents and friends at school to the people in our neighbourhood, who are like us. These experiences frame our degree of social identity complexity. A person's immediate social environment is less complex than that of societies as a whole; this local structure encourages a structure of high similarity and overlap between in-groups, and thus a simple social identity. Different or special conditions are necessary to create the awareness of one's identity complexity (Roccas & Brewer, 2002).

Research shows that social identity complexity is more complex in neighbourhoods that are highly diversified culturally compared to a monoculture or stratified society (Schmid et al., 2013). However, even living in a multi-cultured environment does not immediately lead to a highly complex social identity. The societal norms concerning multi-cultural societies may mitigate complexity levels due to groups in this society being more dominant and influencing the way individuals self-categorise themselves or perceive their multiple in-group boundaries. Distinctiveness of groups may influence complexity levels, for example immigrants or status levels in in-groups may influence the manner in which members may self categorise and lead to simple representations (Roccas & Brewer, 2002).

Individuals who are able to be open to experiences beyond their own personal ones and tolerate some ambiguity in defining in-group and out-group boundaries are likely to develop a more complex social identity representation. An individual's beliefs, values and intellect function in tandem to determine social identity complexity levels (Miller et al., 2009). Situational factors such as distinctiveness, cognitive load, stress, mood and in-group threat, as tested by Roccas and Brewer (2002), influence individuals' social identity complexity. Schmid et al. (2009) examined the extent to which contact and distinctiveness

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threats serve as antecedents to social identity complexity and their results confirmed a correlation between the factors.

2.4.2   Multiple cross-cutting group memberships

Individuals belong to many social groups as well as to groups of different types. There are four different types of groups – intimacy groups, task groups, social categories, and loose associations (Lickel et al., 2000). These vary along a number of dimensions. A study by Deschamps and Doise (1978) was the first to examine crossing two orthogonal category dimensions with the category differentiation model.

Crossed categorisation refers to the crossing of a set of categories – A/B by a second set X/Y. Hence an individual may have other people's group membership in common in one group, but simultaneously belong to another group according to another categorisation. This cross-cutting membership will result in individuals possessing four groups – the membership group (in-group on both dimensions – II); a double out-group and two crossed conditions – in-group / out-group (IO) and out-group / in-group (OI). The strongest discrimination has been found against the double out-group (OO) (Hewstone, Islam, & Judd, 1993).

As per self-categorisation theory, this acknowledgement of multiple identities and the cross categorisation thereof leads to the depersonalisation of one's singular identities and the group identities being salient in certain conditions.

Group identities vary by group size and level of the bonds to the in-groups. It is through these collective identities that individuals become more connected to the group than through their own personal relationships. Social identity theory applies to large collective in-groups and it is these large, collective in-groups that are representative of the theory of social identity complexity (Roccas & Brewer, 2002). Social identity complexity is underlined by this chronic awareness of cross categorisation of one's own social group memberships.

2.4.3   Multiple In-group memberships: objective vs. subjective representations

The social categories of an individual vary considerably with overlaps between those categories of which they are simultaneously a member. Some are embedded (all cricket players are sportsmen), some are orthogonal (Catholics and females) and others overlap slightly (corporate executives and women) (Roccas & Brewer, 2002).

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The overlap between groups will vary from being extensively overlapped to only partially overlapped. For instance where the in-group and the out-group are measured with the same categorisations, such as Catholics and residents of the Vatican, the identification is seen as being simple, whereas where the overlap is only partial then the social identification may be more complex. Social context may create situations where individuals' social identities in relation to multiple, non-convergent social identities are perceived differently. For instance a white individual who is also a manager may have his professional identity as a manager emphasised in certain social contexts. In other situations his manager in-group membership may be perceived as an out-group membership while his race may be emphasised. An individual's subjective representation of their multiple in-group memberships may vary in relation to the objective in-group overlapping memberships. For example a white rugby supporter may perceive all rugby supporters to be white, whereas objectively this may not be the case. In this situation, by reducing their subjective inclusiveness of both of these in-group memberships they reduce the inclusiveness of their multiple identities and maintain a simplified social identity structure. Shared memberships and shared group characteristics is discussed in more detail later in the paper (Roccas & Brewer, 2002).

Intergroup relations literature has discussed the link between multiple in-group representations and the different patterns of crossed categorisation. Hewstone, Islam and Judd (1993) tested six models of crossed categorisation with two experiments involving religion and nationality. These theoretical models of crossed categorisation were examined and compared each against each other in order to better understand this theory. Doises' (1978) category differentiation model states that categorising two people into two mutually exclusive groups will lead to an emphasis on the apparent similarities and differences in the groups. As a result, in-group and out-group membership will be clearly defined and lead to social categorisation and intergroup discrimination. The crossing of the two categorisations lead to convergence between the categories and divergence within each category. The prominence of apparent similarities within one category (Category A) will be counteracted by the noticeable differences, due to the fact that category A contains two different subgroups. The four groups will be composed of a double in-group (II); a single in-group and out-group (IO); a single out-group and in-group (OI) and a double out-group (OO). Therefore intergroup discrimination can be reduced or eliminated.

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Social identity theory argues that social categorisation arouses self-evaluative processes, which show that individuals within groups attempt to achieve positive self-esteem and hence promote their in-group status and discriminate against out-group members. This stems from individuals needing to have a positive social identity and this may lead to individuals discriminating against out-group members, The model, when tested, showed that discrimination against the double out-group members was most prominent, with no discrimination against the single out-group members (Hewstone et al., 1993).

Both models are limited, however, by the fact that the crossed categorisation dimensions are of equal salience in the tests. Outside the laboratory, dimensions will not be of equal proportions due to differences in status, numerosity and power. To deal with this other models have been proposed (Hewstone et al., 1993):

Equivalence Pattern – this model proposes that all four target groups are evaluated equally (II = IO = OI = OO) (Urban & Miller, 1998).

Category Dominance – a single categorisation will dominate and the subordinate category will be ignored. This model is also evaluated on two levels – a dominant category (I or O) and a non-dominant category (i or o). All targets with the dominant category as the in-group are evaluated positively, whereas all categories with the out-group as the dominant dimension is evaluated negatively (Urban & Miller, 1998).

Additivity – the two distinct categories are combined additively and judged together. The double in-groups are rated positively and the double out-groups are rated negatively. The crossed groups cancel each other out and are rated neutrally (Urban & Miller, 1998; Hewstone et al., 1993).

Category Conjunction – an individual will only share category membership if they are an in-group on categories. On any level where they are an out-group member, if only on one level, then they are an out-group member (Hewstone et al., 1993). Urban and Miller (1998) showed this as two models with category conjunction dissimilarity and category conjunction similarity. In the dissimilarity case, the double in-group is rated positively, whereas the double out-group and the single out-group categories are both rated equally negatively. In the similarity case, the in-groups are measured positively on both double in-group and single in-group categorisation. The double-out group categorisation is rated negatively.

Hierarchical pattern – this construct describes the interaction between two category dimensions, but the categorisation takes into consideration the effect of one category distinction being dependent on the second. Category dimensions vary in terms of dominance in this construct. The double in-group may be made up of a dominant in-group (I) and a secondary in-group (i). This will also be so for the double-out group (Oo). The single categories may be constructed of a dominant in-group and a secondary out-group (Io) or vice versa (iO). The evaluations on these dimensions will be affected by these dimensions (Urban & Miller, 1998).

Roccas and Brewer (2002) stated that individuals use four models to manage their perceptions of their in-groups when group identities do not converge: intersection, dominance, compartmentalisation and merger.

Intersection

(a) B A

A ∩ B

This model defines the in-group as the intersection of multiple group memberships. For instance a female lawyer defines her profession and gender as one single, unique social identity and this compound identity is the in-group . Anyone who does not share the shared identity is the out-group. This is similar to the "conjunction/dissimilarity" pattern as previously described by Urban and Miller (Roccas and Brewer, 2002).

Dominance

(b) A B|A

A ∪ B|A
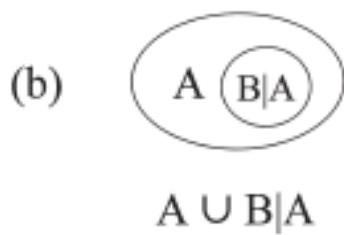
In this structure an individual adopts one primary group identity to which all other potential group identities are secondary. The in-group is defined as those who share membership in this primary in-group category; all other category memberships are basically not social identities but simply characteristics of the self as a member of the primary group. A female lawyer who assigns her profession as her primary identity will view female accountants as part of the out-group. In addition she will be closer to male lawyers than to females of other professions. This corresponds to the

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"category dominance" pattern or "hierarchical" pattern mentioned previously (Brewer, Ho, Lee, & Miller, 1987; Roccas and Brewer, 2002; Urban & Miller, 1998).

Compartmentalisation
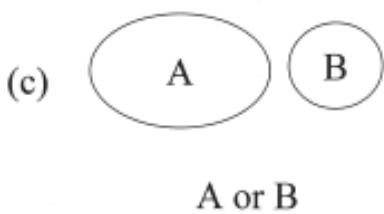
This model states social identities are context or situation specific. In certain contexts, one group membership becomes the primary basis of social identity, whereas other group identities become primary in other situations. For instance at the office one's professional identity is more important than the fact they are a sports fan outside of work. Self-categorisation theory assumes social identities are context specific and therefore mutually exclusive. A social identity salient in a specific situation will dominate self-categorisation. In situations where both identities may be seen as salient, then social identity theory predicts an additive pattern of evaluation of others in contrast to the other group memberships (Roccas and Brewer, 2002; Urban & Miller, 1998).

Merger
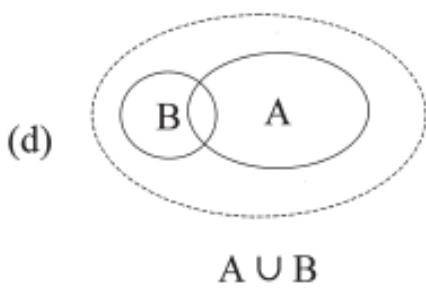
This model is one in which non-convergent group memberships are simultaneously recognised and embraced in their most inclusive form. In-group identification is extended to others who share important social categories. "Social identity is the sum of one's combined group identifications" (Roccas & Brewer, 2002, p. 91). The female lawyer allows both her professional title and her gender to overlap and both are important and relevant in all situations. This representation is similar to the equivalence pattern of evaluating others with multiple group memberships (Roccas and Brewer, 2002; Urban & Miller, 1998).

Individuals may assume diverse styles of identity representation at different times; an individual's current mental or emotional state or period of time in life may influence this. An individual who may be in a highly stressed environment who normally maintains and

merges representation of their social identity may resort to a dominant model to deal with the situation (Roccas & Brewer, 2002).

Table 1 - Patterns of crossed categorisation

Pattern	Diagram	Similar Pattern	Evaluative Ordering	Empirical Evidence
Intersection	(a) B A / A∩B	Conjunction Dissimilarity	II>IO=OI=OO	Vanbeselaere (1987)
Dominance	(b) A (B|A) / A∪B|A	Category dominance	Ii=Io>Oi=Oo	Arcuri (1982)
			iI=oI>iO=oO	
		Hierarchical	Ii>Io>Oi=Oo	Brewer, Ho, Lee and Miller (1987)
			Ii=Io>Oi>Oo	
Compartmentalisation	(c) A B / A or B	Additivity	II>IO=OI>OO	Vanbeselaere (1991)
Merger	(d) B A / A∪B	Equivalence	II=IO=OI=OO	Vanbeselaere (1987)
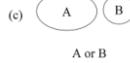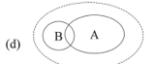
2.4.4 Complexity: Group characteristics and group membership

The above four models may have varying levels of complexity, but generally dominance and intersection are low-complexity representations and intersection and merger are high complexity representations. Individuals with low complexity social identities have multiple identities subjectively grouped and embedded together under one single in-group representation. Those with high complex social identities acknowledge the differences between in-group categories (Roccas & Brewer, 2002).

Having a complex social identity is reliant on two factors: having awareness of there being more than one in-group categorisation and that multiple in-group categories do not converge. Social categories can be represented by the prototypes or characteristics of the group or they can be represented in terms of the category boundaries that determine who are considered group members (Brewer & Pierce, 2005).

"Individuals differ in the extent to which they perceive the prototypes of the groups of which they are simultaneously members as similar to each other and featuring the same characteristics" (Roccas & Brewer, 2002, p. 94). Prototypes can be seen as the abstracted representations of the central tendency, average or typical values of the members of a category. They are attributes like attitudes and behaviours that define one group from another, and accentuate intragroup similarities and differences. Prototypes obey the metacontrast principle, where the perceived ratio of differences in in-group characteristics are less than the differences between the collection of other differences (Hogg & Reid, 2006; Brewer & Pierce, 2005).

An example is male and American groups. The characteristics attributed to them might overlap even though the groups within these social identities are orthogonal (only half of Americans are male), therefore an individual with this social identity may perceive other members such as an American woman as having the same characteristics, such as physical courage and autonomy, irrespective of them being a female. They see the multiple group identities as one homogenous social identity; an individual with this view will have a less complex social identity (Roccas & Brewer, 2002).

Social categories can also be viewed in terms of category boundaries (Brewer & Pierce, 2005). An individual may perceive all members in the different groups they are part of as containing the same members, for example Italians may view all Italians as Catholics. Objectively this is not necessarily true, but this high degree of perceived overlap may warrant that the different in-groups are viewed as one single, united social identity. Therefore when an individual perceives a high overlap between the members of their groups they will have a less complex social identity (Roccas & Brewer, 2002)

Both dimensions – group characteristics and group memberships – can be seen as indices in terms of whether multiple in-groups are seen as single social identities or as the union of group identities (Roccas & Brewer, 2002).

2.4.5 Tolerance

Studies done by Roccas and Brewer (2002), Brewer and Pierce (2005), Miller et al. (2009), and Schmid et al. (2009) postulated that a high complex social identity construct leads to a greater tolerance of out-group members. Tolerance is made up of multiple constructs, but in the context of this study the following definitions are considered but the sub constructs are representations of these definitions.

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Ferrar (1976) explored three definitions of tolerance:

1. Flexible examined attitudes toward groups, beliefs or practices which permit non-categorical evaluation of particular individuals, believers or practitioners.
2. Approval of a wide range of beliefs and practices.
3. Allowance of a wide range of rights and privileges.

Esmer (2010) defined tolerance as the "acceptance of differences (religious, ideological, physical, cultural and so on) without in any way judging them and without implying a hierarchy" (p. 134). The neighbour test by Esmer tested for tolerance of three groups - ethnic and religious tolerance, sexual tolerance and socio deviance tolerance.

The plural society was first noted by Furnival, an economist in the colonial Far East. His plural society was centred on the plural economies of the Far East, but this was simply an aspect of social pluralism. He noticed that the many different people in the East – European, Chinese, Indian – mixed but did not combine; each group maintained its own religion, culture and language. Cultural pluralism is therefore used when smaller groups in society maintain their cultural identities and are accepted by society as a whole in the presence of a dominant culture (Smith, 1960).

Individuals with a high social identity complexity are more aware that out-group members on one dimension are in-group members on another dimension. An individual may be less likely to favour their in-group when realising that in-group memberships may overlap partially with other in-groups, which will lead to increased tolerance of out-groups (Roccas & Brewer, 2002).

Previous research on intergroup relations (Brewer, 1979; Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner, Brown, & Tajfel, 1979) showed that simply categorising individuals into groups is sufficient to arouse intergroup bias. Bias due to categorisation reflects a more pro in-group orientation than anti out-group orientation. Out-group members based on single dimensions may be regarded positively, but in-group members are treated more favourably and regarded in a more positive manner (Brewer, 1979).

Multiple cross-cutting relationships add another dimension to intergroup relations and influence intergroup attitudes and behaviours that reduce bias and discrimination. When categories crosscut, intracategory assimilation and intercategory contrast counteract each other (Vanbeselaere, 1991), so differences between groups are reduced and potentially

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eliminated. This undermines the cognitive basis of in-group bias (Brewer & Pierce, 2005). Multiple relationships have the effect of reducing the importance of any one social identity and therefore the need to belong and self-definition is fulfilled. This in turn reduces in-group bias (Brewer & Pierce, 2005; Vanbeselaere, 1991).

When in-groups and out-groups have overlapping membership, principles of cognitive balance also factor into the equation, as an individual who is a member of an in-group on one dimension and an out-group member on another experiences cognitive inconsistency, as they are evaluated positively on the one dimension but negatively on the other. This inconsistency will lead to individuals in the out-group, as well as the in-group, being judged more positively overall (Brewer & Pierce, 2005). For this reason cognitive and motivational factors should lead to individuals with a high social identity complexity (low overlap) to have increased tolerance, reduced favouritism to in-groups' members and more positivity toward out-group members.

2.5   Conclusion

Social identity theory, self-categorisation theory and social identity complexity are constructs that are used by individuals to manage their own self concepts within and between groups. Individuals have many social identities, some of which are more salient in certain social contexts. Social identity theory describes how an individual perceives their memberships in certain groups, and thus these different memberships constitute an individual's social identities; they judge the groups they associate themselves with in terms of in-group and out-group status (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

Social identity complexity is a construct which refers to an individual's subjective representation of multiple group identities. The level of complexity based on various dimensions can determine the tolerance individuals may have of out-group members (Roccas & Brewer, 2002).

Chapter 3   Research Objectives

Social identity complexity is the subjective representation of an individual's multiple group identities. This study intends to test overlap and similarity complexity levels of rugby fans and their various dimensions of tolerance. Brewer and Pierce's (2005, p. 436) study made reference in their notes to respondents who referred to one of their identities as being a sports fan. They stated that the mean overlap between their sport in-group and other groups was high compared to other types of group memberships. In addition, sports fans had the highest mean overlap (lowest complexity) score of any subsample that they studied. This suggests that sports fans are less tolerant of out-groups (Brewer & Pierce, 2005).

Tolerance is made up of various sub constructs and individuals may have different levels of tolerance towards them. The manner in which an individual represents his or her subjective multiple cross-cutting social identities may predict the tolerance levels of individuals or groups within these tolerance sub constructs. Age and gender may be moderators in the level of tolerance and complexity levels. Finally, each of the sub constructs are related and the correlations between the variables will show the strength and direction of each construct and complexity level.

3.1   Research objective one

Research objective one is to measure the extent of social identity overlap complexity and levels of tolerance amongst rugby supporters.

Social identity complexity is measured using subcomponents of overlap and similarity complexity. In order to answer this objective, the average construct measures of each variable will be calculated and tested to see if each construct deviated significantly from the midpoints. One sample T-tests will be employed to determine the difference from the midpoints.

The overlap and similarity complexity scores represent an individual's subjective representations of the interrelationships among his or her multiple group identities. These can be scored as being high or low in relation to the scales midpoint, which will show an individual's social identity complexity as being low or high and the significance of the deviation from this midpoint. Tolerance is constructed of five dimensions where each is

measured on a scale. The midpoint of each scale is assumed as the point at which an individual will be seen as less or more tolerant in the context of each dimension.

Roccas and Brewer (2002), Brewer and Pierce (2005), Miller et al. (2009), and Schmid et al. (2009) hypothesised that a high complex social identity construct leads to a greater tolerance of out-group members.

Hypothesis 1: The average social identity overlap construct measure differs significantly from the mid-point measures.

$H1_0$: Social identity overlap complexity mean = 50
$H1_1$: Social identity overlap complexity mean ≠ 50

Hypothesis 2: The average social identity similarity construct measure differs significantly from the mid-point measures.

$H2_0$: Social identity similarity complexity mean = 50
$H2_1$: Social identity similarity complexity mean ≠ 50

Hypothesis 3: The average ethnic and religious tolerance construct measure differs significantly from the mid-point measures.

$H3_0$: Ethnic and religious tolerance mean = 6
$H3_1$: Ethnic and religious tolerance mean ≠ 6

Hypothesis 4: The average sexual tolerance construct measure differs significantly from the mid-point measures.

$H4_0$: Sexual tolerance mean = 6
$H4_1$: Sexual tolerance mean ≠ 6

Hypothesis 5: The average socio deviance construct measure differs significantly from the mid-point measures.

$H5_0$: Socio deviance mean = 6
$H5_1$: Socio deviance mean ≠ 6

Hypothesis 6: The average cultural pluralism construct measure differs significantly from the mid-point measures.

$H6_0$: Cultural pluralism mean = 3
$H6_1$: Cultural pluralism mean ≠ 3

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Hypothesis 7: The average affirmative action attitude construct measure differs significantly from the mid-point measures.

$H7_0$: Affirmative action attitude mean = 3
$H7_1$: Affirmative action attitude mean ≠ 3

3.2 Research objective two

Research Objective 2 is to investigate significant differences between demographic groups as moderators of construct measures

Age and gender may be moderators in the relationship they hold with the various constructs of social identity complexities and tolerance. Brewer and Pierce (2005) marginally correlated age with overlap complexity, but Miller et al. (2009) showed no correlation between age, ethnic diversity and overlap complexity.

Brewer et al. (2013) provided results showing a gender main effect, with males' rating overlap scores being higher than females, although Brewer and Pierce (2005) provided no significant difference between genders in mean complexity ratings. Rugby is a male dominated sport with 66% of supporters being male (BMI Sport Info, 2013), which may be the reason for gender moderating the tolerance levels of rugby fans. "Moderator variables affect the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable" (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1171).

The following hypothesis is proposed to investigate the differences age and gender may have on the various constructs.

Hypothesis: The average construct scores differ between males and females, as well as age groups.

Gender
H_0: $x_1 = x_2$
H_1: $x_1 \neq x_2$

Age
H_0: $x_1 = x_2 = x_3$
H_1: $x_1 \neq x_2 \neq x_3$

3.3 Research objective three

Research objective 3 is to investigate the underlying linear relationship between construct measures

A correlation is the measurement of the relationship between two variables, which is measured in terms of strength of relationship from strong to small, and direction - negative or positive. There may also be no significant relationship shown. Being high in social identity complexity is said to be associated with a more tolerant and positive view of out-groups (Roccas & Brewer, 2002; Brewer & Pierce, 2005) and the following hypothesis tests this assertion. The relationships between tolerance constructs and the moderators of age and gender are also tested.

Hypothesis: There is significant linear correlation between construct measures.

H_0: r = 0
H_1: r ≠ 0

3.4 Conceptual Theoretical Model

In relation to the three objectives, the following diagram aims to summarise the overall objective of the study. The social identity complexity measures composed of overlap and similarity complexities are to be calculated with tolerance constructs. The relationships between the two are investigated and tested in order to determine if the one group affects the levels of the other. In addition to this, age and gender are postulated to be moderators to these relationships. These two demographics will be tested to determine if they make any difference to the variables.

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Figure 2 - Social identity complexity, tolerance and moderator's theoretical model
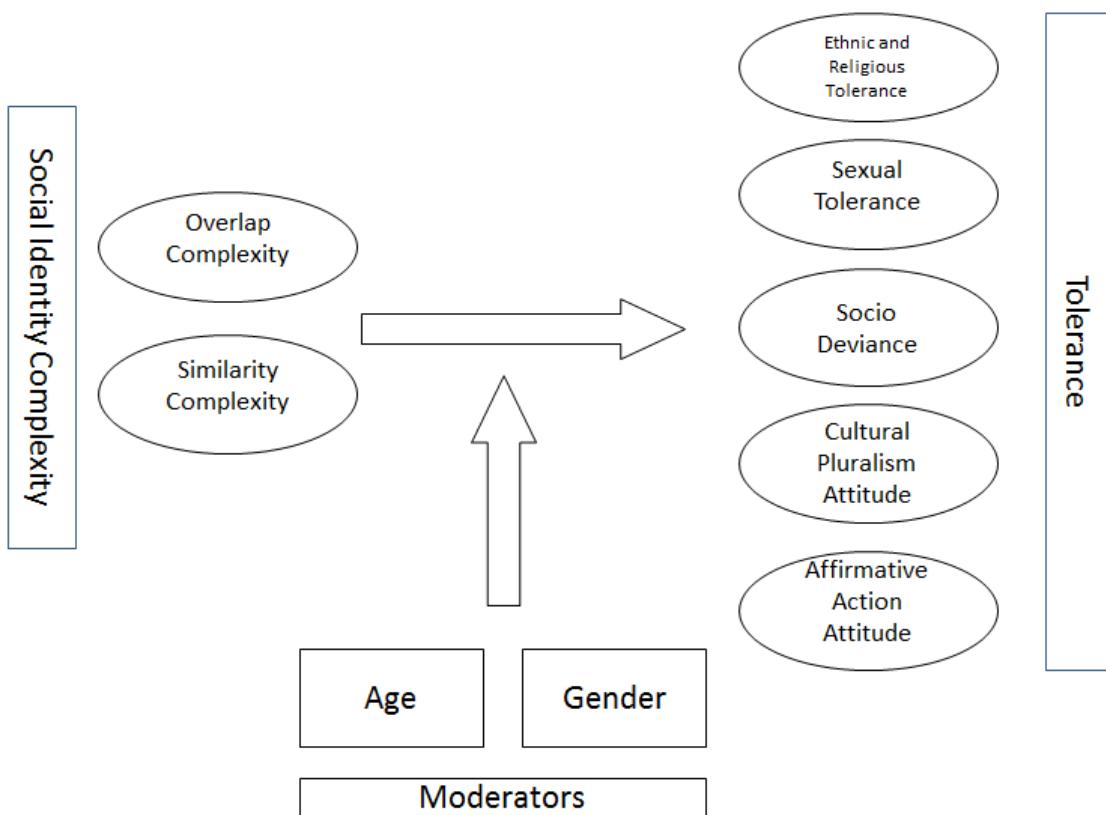
Chapter 4   - Research Methodology and Design

4.1   Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to detail the research methodology and process followed by the author to gather and analyse the data, and test the questions set out in Chapter 3. These questions were derived from the construct surrounding social identity complexity and the way sports fans manage their complexity levels. The chapter will look at the research philosophy, research approach and the design of the study, and the sampling frame and population will be defined and described. The data collection process will also be defined and the technique and instrument used for this is elaborated on. The limitations of this research are then listed.

Saunders and Lewis (2012) used an onion as a metaphor for the route researchers should take in order to construct and design a research paper. They divided the research into various layers that need to be completed, which include research philosophies, research approaches, research strategies, choices, time horizons and finally the techniques and procedures used for data collection and analysis.

4.2   Research philosophy

Research philosophy relates to "the development of knowledge and the nature of the that knowledge in relation to research" (Saunders & Lewis, 2012, p. 104). Within the philosophy selected there are important assumptions that influence the choice of research design. The main strands of research philosophy relate to positivism, realism, interpretivism and pragmatism. The author intended to investigate the social identity complexities of individuals and how they relate to their environments as sports fans – specifically rugby fans - hence the philosophy for this study was interpretive in nature.

Interpretivism relates to having a concern about the complexity of the general organisational environment as a critical realist and the study of social phenomena in its natural environment. In order to understand what is going on in the organisation one needs to conduct research among its "social actors". The various roles individuals need to play daily relate to the different social identities and values one individual may possess, and the way they manage these potentially differing identities at any one given time was of interest to the author. The interpretation of the various roles played by these social actors is therefore interpreted according to one's own definition. For this reason the researcher's

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own values played a part in how the research and its results were conducted and interpreted. This may be seen as a limitation which a researcher needs to be aware of (Saunders & Lewis, 2012).

4.3   Research approach

There are different approaches to research, namely deduction and induction. Induction is a "bottom up approach" and involves the development of a theory through the analysis of gathered data. As this study intended to explain causal relationships between variables based on general theory, the approach was deductive. Saunders and Lewis (2012) stated that this is done in a five step process:

1. Questions from general theory
2. Operationalising these questions
3. Seeking answers to these questions
4. Analysing results to support the theory
5. Confirming the initial general theory or modifying it based on the findings.

4.4   Research type

Further to the method used, Saunders and Lewis (2012) stated that there are three differing types of studies – exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. Exploratory is research that aims to seek new understandings through the asking of new questions and seeing topics in a new light; a descriptive study is when research involves the explanation of certain events or phenomena; and explanatory research looks to explain "a particular occurrence through the discovery of causal relationships between key variables" (Saunders & Lewis, 2012, p. 113). An explanatory research design is characterised by several common characteristics, including:

- The correlation of two or more variables
- The collection of data at one point in time
- The participants are analysed as one group
- At least two scores for each variable are collected from each individual
- Correlation statistical data is reported on
- The data is interpreted and analysed from the test results (Creswell, 2011).

Based on these characteristics and the requirements for the answering of the research questions, the examination of how sports fans manage their social identity complexities

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called for an explanatory study, as the researcher was determining the social identity complexity levels of individuals studied and testing variables with these complexity levels to confirm the research questions.

4.5 Research strategies

The strategy chosen by a researcher must be relevant to the research objectives and answer the questions or hypotheses being asked. Numerous different strategies that can be used include an experiment, a survey, a case study, action research, grounded theory, ethnography, archival research and either combining methods or using a mixed methods design (Saunders & Lewis, 2012).

Differing strategies have been used in the literature on social identity complexity. Brewer et al. (2013) stated that a two part study is best to elicit the information for this type of study, however Roccas and Brewer (2002) and Brewer and Pierce (2005) used an initial questionnaire to narrow down the participants by asking items around specific social identities. Those participants whose social identities were relevant to the second part of the questionnaire were chosen and their relevant social identities were used in the second part of the study. The second part of the survey was then gathered using a personalised questionnaire which analysed the variables being studied.

In the research of Miller et al. (2009), all three of the studies in the paper used software called MediaLab™ in order for the participants to give their responses in one sitting. Brewer et al. (2013) used a similar method in their research; however this software is expensive and was not within this researcher's budget. In order to gather the data required, a more affordable online survey software called SurveyMonkey was used, as well as a hard copy version on Microsoft Excel. Each served its own purpose, with the hard copy version being used for the manual gathering of data with the respondents in person, and the online version being used for the electronic gathering of data from respondents. The sample and sample frames used for these different approaches are discussed later in the chapter.

4.6 Research design

Research can be quantitative, qualitative or a mixture of both. Different research designs are used for various studies that have certain requirements. Qualitative research has a

certain purpose and is best suited when a research problem needs to be addressed and the variables are not necessarily known. Its major characteristics include:

- Exploring a problem and having an understanding of a central phenomenon
- Collecting data based on words from a small number of participants so that their opinions are obtained
- Having the literature review play a minor role but justify the problem
- The research questions and purpose of the research is very general and broad so as to help describe the participants' experiences.
- The data is analysed using text analysis and the larger meaning of the findings is interpreted as such
- The report is written with emerging structures and evaluative criteria and it includes the researcher's subjective reflexivity and bias (Creswell, 2011, p. 16).

With quantitative research, the research problem is identified using trends in the field or the need to explain as to why something happens. Its major characteristics include:

- The description of a problem through trends or relationships between variables
- The literature plays a major guiding role in the determination and justification of the research questions or hypotheses
- Purpose statements, research questions and hypotheses are specific, narrow, measurable and observable
- The collection of data from a large number of people using surveys and questionnaires as the instruments of choice
- The statistical analysis involves trend analysis, the comparison between groups and variables, and comparing them to prior research (Creswell, 2011, p. 13).

Figure 3 shows the comparisons between each approach and guides researchers as to which research approach should be used to achieve their research objectives.

Figure 3 – Types of quantitative and qualitative research designs and their primary uses (Creswell, 2011, p. 20)
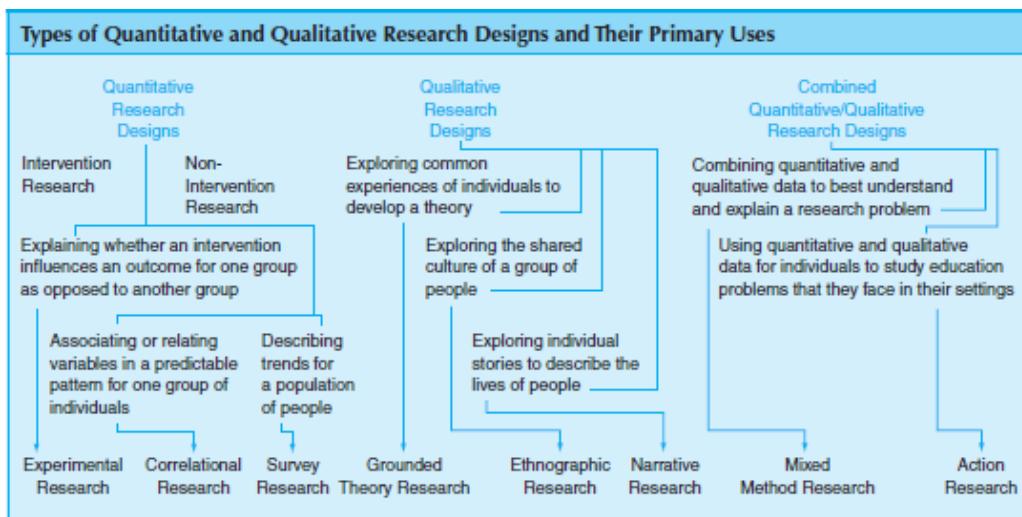
Based on the comparisons and the literature on social identity complexity, the researcher felt that a quantitative research design was the best approach as he aimed to compare trends with a specific population based on previous studies. The analysis of the social identity complexity of sports fans was compared against previous research and the questions from Chapter 3 analysed accordingly. In addition, this is non-intervention research involving the description of trends through data collected with a survey.

4.7   Time horizons

A cross sectional study is when one studies a particular topic at a particular time and a longitudinal study is the study of a topic over an extended period of time (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). Creswell (2011) broke up longitudinal studies into trend, cohort and panel studies. The studies over a period of time with the same population involve changes in a cohort group or subpopulation, or changes in a panel group over a period of time. A cross sectional study involves collecting data at one point of time. These studies are designed in several ways including examining current attitudes, beliefs, opinions or practices; and the comparison of two or more educational groups with regards to their attitudes, beliefs, opinions or practices (Creswell, 2011).

The current study involved surveying sports fans and specifically rugby supporters, collecting data at a specific point in time and determining specific levels of identity complexity. The researcher then tested variables surrounding social identity complexity and tolerance, hence this study is cross sectional in nature.

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4.8   Unit of analysis

The unit of analysis in this research will be the individuals included in the sample evaluated.

4.9   Population and sampling

4.9.1   Population of interest

Creswell (2011) defined the population as a group of individuals with the same set of characteristics. The population for the research was sports fans and specifically rugby supporters. Quantitative researchers generally sample from lists or people who are available.

A 2013 report on rugby fans in South Africa revealed that there were over nine million supporters, with it being the second most popular sport just behind soccer and ahead of cricket. The Blue Bulls rugby team had the most supporters, with over 2,4 million fans (BMI Sport Info, 2013).

4.9.1.1   Sample size

The sample size for the initial online saturation survey was the 8000 members of the Blue Bulls supporters club. The personal interviews sampled anyone at the stadium who was a Blue Bulls supporter, and the final sample was based on the researcher's judgment on who he knew were Blue Bulls supporters. They in turn also passed the survey on to known supporters.

4.9.1.2   Sample frame and sample point

Saunders and Lewis (2012) described the sampling frame as a complete list of members of the population of interest, however it was not possible to list all the sports fans in South Africa due to budgetary and time constraints. Due to this challenge, an initial sample frame consisted of members of the Blue Bulls fan club which was managed by their marketing company - Blue Label Engaged – which facilitated the use of the supporter database.

Data was then gathered at a sample point when a professional data gathering company went to the stadium of the Blue Bulls – Loftus Versfeld – and conducted personal interviews using hard copy versions of the questionnaire. The interviewer only asked individuals who were visibly supporters of the Blue Bulls.

A third sample point was used where the researcher emailed the online survey to known Blue Bulls supporters, who were in turn asked to pass the survey on to other known Blue Bulls supporters. A summary of these sample frames and sample points is listed in table 2 below.

Table 2 - Sample frames and methods

Test	Sample Frame	Sample Point	Sample Method	Instrument	Limitations
1	Blue Bulls supporters club (8000 members)		Electronic saturation survey	Online self administered survey	Non response bias high. Researcher was not able to resend questionnaire to non respondents.
2		Loftus Versfeld (Blue Bulls Rugby Stadium)	Convenience sampling at central venue interview using personal interview	Personal interview (hardcopy of questionnaire)	Non response bias. Interviewer demographics may influence responses.
3		Known supporters	Judgement basis leading to snowball sampling usining electronic	Online self administered survey	Variance will be skew compared to others as snowball sampling leads to like associating with like.

4.9.1.3 Sample method

Researchers employ two types of sampling approaches – probability and non-probability sampling. The methods chosen are based on the rigour of testing required, the characteristics of the target population and the availability of participants. Probability sampling is the most rigorous form of testing as the researcher selects individuals from the population who are representative of that population (Creswell, 2011).

Often a researcher is not able to gain access to a list of the entire population, in which case non-probability sampling needs to be employed (Saunders & Lewis, 2012, p. 138).

As the initial part of this study had access to the sampling frame, probability sampling was employed and the survey was sent to all members of the Blue Bulls supporter's database through the marketing company employed by the Blue Bulls Company.

The researcher then employed Qualitative Quarter, a marketing research consultancy, to gather data at a Currie Cup game between the Blue Bulls and the Sharks at the Blue Bulls stadium – Loftus Versfeld. Convenience sampling was employed by the research assistants in choosing the respondents to interview around the stadium, where they approached those supporters who were visibly seen as being Blue Bulls supporters.

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The researcher at this point realised a relevant sample size was not going to be reached and he sent the online survey to known Blue Bulls supporters to complete, and then in turn asked these supporters to pass the survey on to other Blue Bulls supporters. The researcher used his own judgement to choose the respondents to send the survey to and in turn the respondents employed snowball sampling to pass the survey on (Saunders & Lewis, 2012).

4.10   Data collection process

4.10.1   Assumptions

The following basic assumptions underlie the proposed research study. It is assumed that:

- Overlap complexity and tolerance are measurable constructs that can be attained through a quantitative stufy.
- A self-administered structured questionnaire and validated scales can be used to gather the necessary data needed for measuring the constructs.

4.10.2   Instrument

A self-administered online questionnaire was created to direct at the sample frame. A hard copy version was created for those individuals who were tested in person. The questionnaire was sent to all members of the sample frame with a known email address (Saunders & Lewis, 2012, p. 149). The hard copy version was administered to individuals fulfilling the sample frame outside the Blue Bulls stadium – Loftus Versfeld – just before a major Currie Cup rugby game. In addition the online questionnaire was sent to Blue Bull supporters known to the researcher and these individuals were asked in turn to send the questionnaire to fellow supporters.

Using the method described in Brewer et al.'s (2013) study, the researcher discovered the respondents' three most important social identities by asking for various identities at the start of the questionnaire. These identities included gender, sports supported, rugby teams supported, recreational sports/activities, language spoken, profession, citizenship, political affiliation, religion, racial/ethnic group and any other salient identities not covered by the previous questions. The individuals were then asked further questions based on these identities, asking how many of identity x are identity y, and in reverse how many identity y are identity x. These answers determined the extent of the overlap between the different memberships which enabled the researcher to establish the overlap complexity of the

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respondents. Other questions around the individuals' social identities and the management of these identities within groups and between in- and out-groups were asked.

4.10.3   Questionnaire and data collection

The researcher emailed Dr. Marilynn Brewer who shared the questionnaire that was used in her study in 2005 (Brewer & Pierce, 2005). The researcher added in some additional items sourced from other literature, the details of which is disclosed in the following pages. The initial questionnaire was constructed in Microsoft Excel. It was then tested and once finalised it was set up on SurveyMonkey. The questionnaire was spilt into two parts with various items testing different variables. A summary of the questionnaire is outlined in Table 3 below.

Table 3 – Questionnaire summary

Number	Question
1	Gender
2	Age
3	Sports supported
4	Rugby teams supported
5	Recreational sports / hobbies
6	Language
7	Profession
8	Citizenship
9	Political Affiliation
10	Religion
11	Racial/Ethnic Group
12	Other social identities
13	List of salient social identities
14	Overlap complexity
15	Similarity overlap
16	Neighbour test
17	Cultural pluralism and afffirmative action questions

4.10.3.1   Items on social identities

Questions 1 through 12 of the questionnaire required the respondents to answer questions around their various social identities, such as age, gender, political affiliation and religion, which uncovered the basic demographics and descriptive information of the sample.

4.10.3.2   Items on social identity complexity

The second section (questions 13 and 14) narrowed down each individual's social categories using an adapted version of the questionnaire used by Brewer and Pierce (2005). This section elicited the most important social groups for the respondents and at the end they were required to list their three salient social identities.

In order to establish the complexity overlaps the individuals were asked to state how many of their salient social identities in group 1 would be in their self-selected group 2, and then in reverse how many members of 2 would be members of 1. This part of the questionnaire was preceded by a statement adapted from the Brewer et al. paper (2013, p. 534).

> *We would like to understand what percentage (1% to 100%) of people in each of your chosen three groups you think are probably also members of the other groups. We are not looking for an exact or correct number, just your perception. So if your first two groups above were South African Citizen and Blue Bulls; what percentage of South African Citizens do you think are Blue Bulls supporters, and what percentage of Blue Bulls supporters do you think are South Africans?*

4.10.3.3   Items on similarity

The respondents were then asked in the next section to state how similar the social identities they had chosen were to each other. This similarity test was based on Roccas and Brewers' test (2002) and the respondents were asked the following:

> *We would like to understand how similar you think the typical person in one of your chosen three groups is to the typical person in another one of your chosen three groups. Please rate the similarity on a scale of 1% (not similar at all) to 100% (very similar). So if your first two groups above were South African and Blue Bulls, how similar do you think the typical South African is to the typical Blue Bulls supporter?*

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4.10.3.4　Items on tolerance and intergroup relations

The next section involved measuring dimensions of tolerance. Tolerance was tested using the neighbour question and four items were measured using a Likert-type response format.

Notably people were asked to state whether they would object to having the following individuals or groups of people as neighbours - drug addicts, people of a different race, people who have AIDS, immigrants/foreign workers, homosexuals, people of a different religion, heavy drinkers, unmarried couples living together, people who speak a different language, people who support their sports team and people who support the opposition sports team (Esmer, 2010)

The items were broken up into scales of social factors and measured. The socio deviance scale consisted of two items - heavy drinkers and drug addicts. The ethnic and religious tolerance scale consisted of four items - people of a different race, immigrants/foreign workers, people of a different religion and people who speak a different language. The sexual tolerance scale consisted of three items – people who have AIDS, homosexuals and unmarried couples living together. The final two items measured in-group and out-group bias as tested by Schmid, Hewstone and Ramiah (2013).

In the final section of the questionnaire respondents were asked a series of questions adapted from the paper by Brewer and Pierce (2005), discussing tolerance measures but more specifically individuals' attitudes towards social issues such as cultural pluralism and affirmative action. Two items were asked regarding cultural pluralism and another two regarding affirmative action principles. Each question required a rating along a Likert scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree".

4.10.4　Pretesting Questionnaire

The initial questionnaire was distributed to eight fellow MBA students of the researcher and feedback asked of their experience with the questionnaire once they had completed it. Based on the feedback, amendments were made to some of the questions and it was simplified as much as possible. The general feedback was that the questionnaire did get complicated and was not easy to understand. The researcher simplified this area to the best of his ability without compromising the integrity of the questionnaire and what it was

trying to achieve. Basic typo errors and the layout of the questionnaire was altered slightly too. These responses were eliminated from the final data set.

4.10.5   Data collection

The first phase of data collection involved the online questionnaire being sent out to a database of 8000 members of the Blue Bulls supporters club which is managed by Blue Label Engage. These responses were gathered into a specific folder on SurveyMonkey.

The second phase involved the manual gathering of responses with personal interviews at the Blue Bulls stadium on a Saturday just before a rugby game. The interviewers used a printed copy of the questionnaire to gather results on and only asked individuals who they could see where supporters of the Blue Bulls rugby team. There were 4 interviewers (1 male and 3 females) between the ages of 30 and 40 who conducted the personal interviews. Once the results were gathered they were manually entered into SurveyMonkey under a separate response file.

The final phase the researcher emailed the online survey to known Blue Bulls supporters and they in turn sent the link to other Blue Bulls supporters. This was also saved on a separate file in SurveyMonkey.

4.10.6   Editing and coding

Once the data collection phase had been completed, the raw data was extracted from SurveyMonkey in the format required by the data analysis tool. The results were analysed and those that were incomplete or where the responses were nonsensical were eliminated from the final data set. Answers that were completed but needed to be cleaned up (i.e. those responses where individuals had included a % sign next to their answer) were edited appropriately. Five point Likert scale answers that ranged from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' were coded from 1 to 5 respectively. The question around affirmative action principles - *Hiring and university admissions should not give any preference along racial lines* – was reverse scored.

4.10.7   Data description and analysis

Once the data had been edited and coded, the researcher needed to analyse the data. The data analysis involved the calculation of basic frequency and descriptive statistics with the aims of firstly, inspecting the proportional distribution of responses related to categorical variables. Secondly, to inspect central measures of dispersion including means

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and standard deviations. The following section describes the various tests and calculations done in order

4.10.7.1   Calculation of complexity indices

The quantitative data was analysed by sorting the responses and determining an index of overlap complexity per individual or complexity index. This was created by "calculating the mean rating of proportion of overlap between in-groups where high values indicated greater overlap and less complexity in the representation of multiple identities" (Brewer et al., 2013, p. 531). By determining the overlap complexity of each individual surveyed, the researcher was able to determine whether the individual possessed a low (high overlap) or high (low overlap) social identity complexity.

For instance if a respondent stated that two of his social identities were Blue Bulls supporter and South African citizen, they were asked to respond subjectively to state this as a percentage.

How many Blue Bulls supporters are South African, and

How many South Africans are Blue Bulls supporters?

If the respondent stated 80% and 60% to each question, then the overlap complexity was calculated by finding the average of the responses (80% + 60% / 2 = 70%). This average is the overlap complexity score.

Based on question 13 in the questionnaire, the similarity test determined how similar each individual's salient social identities were to each other and a similarity complexity score was calculated. The mean similarity ratings across the various pairs were then computed.

As per the overlap complexity score, if a respondent stated that three of his social identities were Blue Bulls supporter, South African citizen and his race (white), they were asked to respond subjectively to state as a percentage:

How similar are Blue Bulls supporters to South Africans, and

How similar are South Africans to whites, and

How similar are Blue Bulls supporters to whites?

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If the respondent stated 80% ,60% and 70% to each question, then the overlap complexity was calculated by finding the average of the responses (80% + 60% + 70%/ 3 = 70%). This average is the similarity complexity score.

4.10.7.2   Tolerance dimension scores

The tolerance dimension scores were determined by two sets of items. The first 11 were based on an 11 point rating scale neighbour test and the second set consisted of four items answered on a Likert-type response format.

The neighbour test was based on an 11 point rating scale per "neighbour". Eleven different individuals or groups of individuals were listed and the respondents were asked to rate on the 11 point scale as to whether the respondent would mind or not mind having the listed individual or group as a neighbour, with 1 being "you would not like to have them as your neighbour" and 11 being "there is no problem having them as a neighbour". Six might indicate they neither mind nor did not mind.

Each score per group was averaged and a tolerance score per item allocated. The first nine items identified three dimensions of tolerance: Ethno/religious tolerance, sexual tolerance and socio-deviance tolerance. These were grouped and the mean calculated for each, and this score per group was used in the analysis. The final two listings of individuals – "people who support your sports team" and "people who support the opposition sports team" gave an in-group / out-group rating and tested in-group bias.

The final question asked about other dimensions of tolerance with cultural pluralism and affirmative action principles. Each was rated 1 to 5 (1 being strongly disagree to 5 being strongly agree), and from the responses being averaged out a multi-culturalism score was determined with high values indicating a greater acceptance of cultural diversity. The two questions on affirmative action principles were dealt with similarly, with the one item - Hiring and university admissions should not give any preference along racial lines – being reverse scored. Low values indicated a greater acceptance of diversity principles. Each item was grouped per scale and the responses averaged to show a tolerance score per group.

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4.10.7.3 Cronbach's Alpha

Reliability was tested using Cronbach's Alpha coefficient; ideally the coefficient of a scale should be above 0.7 (DeVellis, 2003). This represents the consistency with which an assessment instrument measures a given performance of behaviour. An instrument or scale that shows reliability will provide a consistent result if an individual is measured repeatedly under identical or similar conditions. The number of items in a scale may impact the Alpha values and with short scales (less than 10) one may find low Cronbach's Alpha values. In these cases it is appropriate to report the mean inter-item correlation. The optimal range for inter-item correlation is between 0.2 and 0.4 (Pallant, 2011).

4.10.7.4 Correlation

Correlations show the degree one variable has to another in terms of their relationship and the correlation coefficient describes the statistical measure of covariation between the two variables. The Pearson's product moment correlation is used when attempting to determine the relationships between continuous variables. Correlations are measured between -1 and +1 with a number closer to + or - 1 showing a strong relationship (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2009). This research measured the relationships between the various social identity complexity constructs and the tolerance dimensions.

4.11 Research limitations

The initial research involved All Black supporters who were South African and after a first visit and research gathering at an All Black supporters meeting, the respondents were not comfortable about sending the questionnaire to other members based on some of the items in the questionnaire. This required the researcher to find another sample of sports fans to survey which proved to be challenging. The sensitivity of some of the questions were still a potential challenge but were mitigated to a certain extent by putting constant reminders in the questionnaire that the study was confidential.

In order to extract the necessary results for the study, certain items were complicated and could not be simplified any further without altering the integrity of the study. This contributed to the response rate. In addition a high percentage of the respondents were Afrikaans and the questionnaire was in English, which may have contributed to the response rate and the understanding of some of the questions. The items on cultural pluralism showed low reliability in the results which may have impacted on the findings.

Even though the population was rugby supporters, the sample was focused on the rugby team with the largest support base being the Blue Bulls, but they may not have represented all rugby supporters. The sample was also skewed in terms of race and language due to the primary supporter of the Blue Bulls at the stadium and the supporters' club being dominated by one race and language.

The Blue Bulls supporters' club database is managed by a marketing company and the researcher did not have direct access to this database, so he was reliant on the marketing company to send the survey out and there was no opportunity to follow up with potential respondents after the survey had been sent out. In addition, the marketing company often offered prizes to respondents such as a rugby jersey. For academic research this was not possible, so when the questionnaire was distributed the supporters saw there was no incentive to participate like previous questionnaires so may have ignored the survey based on this lack of incentive.

The personal interviews conducted by Qualitative Quarter, a marketing research consultancy, were conducted by interviewers and the demographics of these interviewers may have impacted on the responses.

The research focused on the measurement of tolerance levels as there was little literature or validated questionnaires on the measurement of tolerance. The researcher eventually settled on a neighbour test which may need to be further validated in order to create a more robust measurement of tolerance.

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Chapter 5 – Results

Chapter five is a presentation of the results achieved using the methodology from chapter four. The purpose of this research is to investigate sports fans' social identity complexities and the management of the multiple cross-cutting social identities of these fans. The management of these identities are established in relation to various tolerance constructs and these relationships are tested to see how they may impact each other.

The data gathered was downloaded from the SurveyMonkey website in Excel format. This discussion will explain the data cleansing and review process as well as the data demographics, and give an overview of the results per research objective.

5.1 Data cleansing and review

The raw data was saved in Excel and any responses which were not completed in full were removed. There were a few responses where the individuals completed the complexity scores with one number (e.g. 50) for all the answers and these were removed as well. The non-response bias was a concern for the online surveys as the pre-test questionnaire feedback had alluded to certain questions being difficult to understand, which may have caused respondents not to answer them.

In total 117 responses were received - 47 from personal interviews and 70 from the online survey. All 47 personal interviews were received completed. Of the 70 online surveys, 15 were incomplete and were removed from the total sample, leaving 55 complete online surveys and therefore 102 total responses as shown in Table 4 on page 47.

Table 4 - Data collection methods and response rates

Instrument	Location	Sample Method	Complete	Incomplete	Total
Online self-administered survey	Blue Bulls Supporters Club	Electronic saturation survey	47	14	33
Online self-administered survey	Personally known supporters to the researcher	Judgment basis leading to snowball sampling using electronic survey	23	1	22
Total Online Survey Results			*70*	*15*	*55*
Personal interview (hardcopy of questionnaire)	Blue Bulls Stadium	Convenience sampling at central venue using personal interview	47	0	47
	Total		**117**	**15**	**102**

Initially the survey was sent to a database of 8,000 Blue Bulls supporters from which 47 responses were received – a response rate of 0.59%. Response rates to online surveys have been shown to be between 2% and 60% on average (Nulty, 2008). This low response rate may have been due to the fact that the researcher did not have direct access to the original database and the marketing company historically offered prizes or memorabilia in order to encourage response rates. The researcher was not able to provide an incentive which may have affected the response rate, as the supporters may have expected an incentive to participate. Being able to send follow up requests to the database and offering incentives for survey completion have both shown to increase response rates with online surveys (ibid)

5.2   Salient social identities

The respondents were asked to specify their various social identities in items 1 through 12. They then chose their three strongest identities and the breakdown of those chosen are shown in Table 5 on page 48. This showed the most salient identity as being the national rugby team, which was supported at 27.5%. Citizenship was the second most salient identity at 18.3% and religious affiliation third at 9.2%.

Some respondents listed both a provincial team and the national team as being important social identities. These responses were isolated into three identities: 'national rugby team supported', 'provincial team supported 1' and 'provincial team supported 2'.

Table 5 – Salient social identities

Salient Social Identity	% of total choices (n=306)	% of sample (n=102)
National Rugby Team Supported	27.5%	82.4%
Citizenship	18.3%	54.9%
Religious Affiliation	9.2%	27.5%
Profession	8.5%	25.5%
Language	8.2%	24.5%
Provincial Team Supported 1	8.2%	24.5%
Sports/Hobbies Played	7.5%	22.5%
Sports Watched	5.6%	16.7%
Racial/Ethnic Group	2.9%	8.8%
Political Affiliation	2.3%	6.9%
Gender	0.7%	2.0%
Provincial Team Supported 2	0.7%	2.0%
Other Salient Identity	0.7%	2.0%

Table 6 on page 49 shows the various cross-cutting social identities chosen by the respondents in the sample. The table is divided into number of responses per cross-cutting identity on the bottom half and the top half consists of the percentage of the sample (n=102) that chose per cross-cutting social identity. As each individual chose three salient social identities, each cross-cutting identity had 102 chances of being chosen, hence the totals are calculated as a percentage of the 102 and therefore will total more than 100%.

The highest cross-cutting social identities were 'national rugby team supported' and 'citizenship', which were chosen together by 41.2% of the respondents. 'National rugby team supported' and 'provincial team supported 1' were the second most chosen cross-cutting social identities at 24.5%. Both 'religious affiliation' and 'language' overlapped with 'national rugby team supported' 21 times, making up 20.6% each.

Table 6 – Cross-cutting social identities

Salient Social Identities	National Rugby Team Supported	Citizenship	Religious Affiliation	Profession	Language	Provincial Team Supported 1	Sports/Hobbies Played	Sports Watched	Racial/Ethnic Group	Political Affiliation	Gender	Provincial Team Supported 2	Other Salient Identity
National Rugby Team Supported	0	41.2%	20.6%	18.6%	20.6%	24.5%	12.7%	8.8%	6.9%	4.9%	2.0%	2.0%	2.0%
Citizenship	42	0	8.8%	10.8%	9.8%	9.8%	12.7%	6.9%	2.9%	3.9%	1.0%	0.0%	1.0%
Religious Affiliation	21	9	0	4.9%	5.9%	2.0%	2.9%	4.9%	1.0%	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Profession	19	11	5	0	1.0%	3.9%	5.9%	3.9%	2.0%	0.0%	0.0%	3.9%	0.0%
Language	21	10	6	1	0	2.0%	2.9%	2.0%	2.0%	0.0%	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Provincial Team Supported 1	25	10	2	4	2	0	1.0%	2.9%	0.0%	1.0%	0.0%	2.0%	0.0%
Sports/Hobbies Played	13	13	3	6	3	1	0	2.0%	2.0%	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.0%
Sports Watched	9	7	5	4	2	3	2	0	0.0%	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Racial/Ethnic Group	7	3	1	2	2	0	2	0	0	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Political Affiliation	5	4	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Gender	2	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0%	0.0%
Provincial Team Supported 2	2	0	0	4	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0%
Other Salient Identity	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0

*% taken as of sample (n=102)

5.3   Data demographics

Of the 102 respondents, 29 (28%) were female and 73 (72%) were male, as shown in table 7 below. According to the AMPS data 2013 (Repucom, 2014), 34% of females and 66% of males are interested in rugby, suggesting the sample was consistent with rugby supporters in South Africa. The Blue Bulls have the same demographic breakdown as per the 2013 BMI report, with 66% male and 34% female fans (BMI Sport Info, 2013).

Table 7 - Gender

Gender	Total
Female	29
Male	73
Total	**102**

The survey resulted in a spread of age groups between the ages of 19 and 80, with the majority of respondents being between the ages of 30 and 39 as shown in table 8 below. The average age of the sample was 37.1 years. As per the Blue Bulls marketing company, Blue Engage, the age breakdown for the Blue Bulls fans is 44% under the age of 35 years and 56% over 35 years. The sample gathered had 41% of supporters under the age of 35 and 59% over 35 which is close to the overall supporter population.

Table 8 – Age groupings

Age Groupings	Number per group
10-19	1
20-29	19
30-39	44
40-49	27
50-59	9
60-69	1
70-80	1
Grand Total	**102**

The most popular language in the sample was Afrikaans, making up 69% of the respondents as shown in table 9 below. English was the second most spoken language at 18% and other languages compromised the remaining 13%.

Table 9 - Language

Language	Count of Language	Count of Language (%)
Afrikaans	70	69%
English	18	18%
isiXhosa	1	1%
isiZulu	2	2%
Other	1	1%
Sesotho	3	3%
Sesotho sa Leboa	3	3%
Setswana	4	4%
Grand Total	**102**	**100%**

The sample showed a large response by white supporters (86%) as shown in table 10 on page 51. Black supporters made up 16% and coloured 2%. The BMI report on rugby supporters showed 33% of whites were both SA rugby and Blue Bulls rugby supporters.

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Black individuals made up the most rugby supporters with 43% of the SA rugby supporters and 49% of Blue Bulls supporters.

This discrepancy between the sample and the BMI data may be due to the makeup of the supporters club being predominantly white, and the personal interviews at the stadium reflected the bias in terms of the fact that primarily white supporters attend games. In addition, the snowball sampling showed like-for-like occurrences where the survey was initially presented to known white supporters who in turn passed the survey onto other known white fans.

Table 10 – Racial / ethnic group

Racial Group	SA Rugby Supporters (BMI info)	Blue Bulls Supporters (BMI Info)	Research Sample
Black	43%	49%	16%
White	33%	33%	82%
Coloured	21%	16%	2%
Asian	3%	2%	0%

Source: BMI Sport Info (2013)

Politically the respondents showed greater support for the DA at 52%. The ANC returned fans of 15% and 27% of respondents chose not to respond to the question.

Table 11 – Political affiliation

Political Party	Count	Count (%)
ANC	15	15%
EFF	2	2%
DA	53	52%
PA	1	1%
VF Plus	3	3%
Non Applicable	28	27%
Grand Total	**102**	**100%**

The question regarding religious affiliation showed the respondents were primarily Christian at 88%.

Table 12 – Religious affiliation

Religion	Count	Count (%)
African Traditional Religion	3	3%
Christian	90	88%
Non-religious	6	6%
Other	3	3%
Grand Total	**102**	**100%**

The respondents were asked to state which sports they watched and played (tables 13 and 14). The top watched sports were Rugby union, rugby league and cricket. Interestingly more respondents watched athletics at 35% than football at 32%. Music (34%) and golf (30%) were the most played or followed sports or hobbies.

Table 13 – Sports watched

Sports	Count	Count (%)
Athletics	36	35%
Basketball	11	11%
Boxing	10	10%
Cricket	51	50%
Cycling	13	13%
Football	33	32%
Golf	28	27%
Motor sports	27	26%
Rugby League	58	57%
Rugby Union	68	67%
Swimming	17	17%
Tennis	24	24%
Other Sports Watched	12	12%

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Table 14 – Sports and hobbies played

Values	Count	Count (%)
Golf	31	30%
Running	26	25%
Hunting	23	23%
Bowling	2	2%
Dancing	13	13%
Music	35	34%
Cricket	20	20%
Football	14	14%
Gardening	15	15%
Cycling	11	11%
Mountain Biking	11	11%
None	8	8%
Other Sports Played	21	21%

The respondents were required to allocate 100 "fan points" to the rugby team or teams they supported. The South African national team and the Blue Bulls were the most followed teams with 49.9% and 38.2% of the support respectively as shown in table 15 on page 54. All the other teams followed were negligible to report on but interestingly the 3rd and 4th most followed teams were the New Zealand rugby team and the Blues, a Super Rugby side from New Zealand, making up a combined total of 5.3%.

Table 15 – Rugby teams supported

Rugby Team	Count	Count (%)
Argentina	10	0.1%
Australia	85	0.8%
England	30	0.3%
France	10	0.1%
Ireland	10	0.1%
New Zealand	315	3.1%
Samoa	0	0.0%
Scotland	40	0.4%
South Africa	5085	49.9%
Wales	23	0.2%
Blues	220	2.2%
Brumbies	0	0.0%
Bulls	3900	38.2%
Cheetahs	125	1.2%
Chiefs	0	0.0%
Crusaders	40	0.4%
Force	0	0.0%
Highlanders	0	0.0%
Hurricanes	0	0.0%
Lions	78	0.8%
Rebels	0	0.0%
Reds	3	0.0%
Sharks	108	1.1%
Stormers	98	1.0%
Waratahs	20	0.2%

5.4   Reliability test – Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's Alpha provides an overall reliability coefficient for a set of variables and a score of 0.7 or higher is an acceptable level of internal consistency. Of the scales employed in the questionnaire, the scores were above 0.7 apart from socio-deviance, cultural pluralism and affirmative action principles as shown in table 16. In the case of socio deviance and affirmative action principles, with ten or less items it is appropriate to measure using the inter-item correlation score which may be between 0.2 and 0.4, of which both scores were 0.41 and hence reflected internal consistency (Pallant, 2011).

Although the two items used to measure cultural pluralism reported both low reliability and an unacceptable mean inter-item correlation score, previous studies using these items by Brewer and Pierce (2005) have demonstrated the reliability of these measures.

The items underlying the affirmative action construct as proposed by Brewer and Pierce (2005) revealed a negative correlation (*r* = -0.408; p=0.000). As per Pallant (2011), a negative correlation score may require the item to be reverse coded. As item two in the scale was reverse coded already as required by the literature from where the scale was sourced, the researcher concluded that the two items were not measuring the same entity and the scale was removed from further analysis.

Table 16 – Cronbach's Alpha scores

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
Overlap Complexity	0.71	6
Similarity complexity	0.76	3
Socio deviance	0.56 (0.411)*	2
Ethnic and religious tolerance	0.82	3
Sexual tolerance	0.75	3
Cultural pluralism attitude	0.26 (0.013)*	2
Affirmative action attitude	-0.408	2

* Mean inter-item correlation score

5.5 Affirmative action attitudes

As shown in the reliability test, the two items making up the affirmative action scale were discarded from the study as they did not to measure the same underlying principle. The two items are shown below:

Item 1: Having multiple people of different races and ethnic backgrounds in the workplace benefits our country.

Item 2: Hiring and university admissions should not give any preference along racial lines [reverse scored].

Table 17 on page 56 show the results. The mean for the total scale is below the midpoint and the literature suggests that this shows a less tolerant attitude towards affirmative action principles. Item one on the scale shows a mean score of 3.83, which highlights that the respondents in the sample generally agree with the question that having people of different races and backgrounds in the workplace benefits the country. Item two asks whether individuals of a different race should not be given preference and the respondents largely agreed with this. These two items reveal the general attitude towards affirmative action principles but only one item tested the affirmative action attitude of the sample.

Table 17 – Affirmative action construct breakdown

	Affirmative Action - Total	Item 1	Item 2
N	102	102	102
Mean	2.81	3.83	1.80
Std. Deviation	0.54	1.01	0.98
Midpoint	3	3	3

5.6 Results pertaining to research objectives

5.6.1 Research objective one

Research objective one was to measure the extent of social identity overlap complexity and levels of tolerance amongst rugby supporters. In order to answer this objective the average construct measures of each variable were calculated and a one sample T-test was run to determine whether each construct deviated significantly from the midpoints. In order to use a one sample T-test one needs to assume the sample is normally distributed. As per the central limit theorem which states that where samples are large (>30), the sampling distribution has a normal distribution with the mean equal to the population mean (Field, 2009). For each construct the midpoint was assumed as the mean and a null hypothesis derived from that assumption.

Hypothesis 1: The average social identity overlap construct measure differs significantly from the mid-point measures

H_0: Social identity overlap complexity mean = 50
H_1: Social identity overlap complexity mean ≠ 50

Hypothesis 2: The average social identity similarity construct measure differs significantly from the mid-point measures

H_0: Social identity similarity complexity mean = 50
H_1: Social identity similarity complexity mean ≠ 50

Hypothesis 3: The average ethnic and religious tolerance construct measure differs significantly from the mid-point measures

H_0: Ethnic and religious tolerance mean = 6
H_1: Ethnic and religious tolerance mean ≠ 6

Hypothesis 4: The average sexual tolerance construct measure differs significantly from the mid-point measures

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H$_0$: Sexual tolerance mean = 6
H$_1$: Sexual tolerance mean ≠ 6

Hypothesis 5: The average socio deviance construct measure differs significantly from the mid-point measures

H$_0$: Socio deviance mean = 6
H$_1$: Socio deviance mean ≠ 6

Hypothesis 6: The average cultural pluralism construct measure differs significantly from the mid-point measures

H$_0$: Cultural pluralism mean = 3
H$_1$: Cultural pluralism mean ≠ 3

In order to determine an overlap and similarity complexity score per individual, the mean of the percentage overlap scores given by each individual for their three salient social identities were calculated. This was created by "calculating the mean rating of proportion of overlap and similarities between in-groups where high values indicated greater overlap and less complexity in the representation of multiple identities" (Brewer et al., 2013, p. 531).

The measurement of tolerance was determined through a "neighbour test" and the two items on cultural pluralism deriving tolerance and multicultural attitude scores. The scale for the neighbour test was between 1-11 and the Likert style items were scaled between 1 and 5. The 11 neighbour test items were grouped into three scales:

- The socio deviance scale (heavy drinkers and drug addicts)
- The ethno-religious tolerance scale (people of a different race, immigrants/foreign workers, people of a different religion and people who speak a different language)
- The sexual tolerance scale (people who have AIDS, homosexuals and unmarried couples living together)

The results of the means, standard deviations and independent t-tests for each construct are presented in table 18 on page 58. Overlap complexity (M = 48.21, SD = 18.06) and similarity complexity (M = 50.38, SD = 21.55) were near the midpoints, with the overlap complexity being below the median and the similarity complexity being on the median.

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Of the tolerance measures, all of the various scale means apart from socio-deviance (M = 2.94, SD = 2.27) were above the midpoint of the scales used.

Table 18 – Means and p values for social identity and tolerance constructs (n=102)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Test Value (midpoint)	p value	Mean Difference
Overlap Complexity	48.21	18.06	50	0.320	-1.79
Similarity Complexity	50.38	21.55	50	0.859	0.38
Ethnic and Religious Tolerance	7.37	2.34	6	0.000	1.37
Sexual Tolerance	7.16	2.55	6	0.000	1.16
Socio Deviance	2.94	2.27	6	0.000	-3.06
Cultural Pluralism Attitude	3.69	0.79	3	0.000	0.69

The hypotheses results for each statement are stated in table 19 below. The social identity complexity p values are greater than 0.05 and hence the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis for both complexity tests. For all the tolerance dimensions the p values are less than 0.05 and hence the null hypothesis is rejected.

Table 19 – Research objective one result

	Mean	p value	Null Hypothesis	Decision
Overlap Complexity	48.21	0.320	$H1_0$: Social identity overlap complexity mean = 50	Fail to reject the null hypothesis
Similarity Complexity	50.38	0.859	$H2_0$: Social identity similarity complexity mean = 50	Fail to reject the null hypothesis
Ethnic and Religious Tolerance	7.37	0.000	$H3_0$: Ethnic and religious tolerance mean = 6	Reject the null hypothesis
Sexual Tolerance	7.16	0.000	$H4_0$: Sexual tolerance mean = 6	Reject the null hypothesis
Socio Deviance	2.94	0.000	$H5_0$: Socio deviance mean = 6	Reject the null hypothesis
Cultural Pluralism Attitude	3.69	0.000	$H6_0$: Cultural pluralism mean = 3	Reject the null hypothesis

5.6.2 Research objective two

The second objective investigated age and gender as moderators to social identity complexity and tolerance. In order to test this, the following hypothesis is stated:

Hypothesis: The average construct scores differ between males and females, as well as age groups.

Hypotheses

Gender

$Hg_0: \bar{x}_1 = \bar{x}_2$
$Hg_1: \bar{x}_1 \neq \bar{x}_2$

Age

$Ha_0: \bar{x}_1 = \bar{x}_2 = \bar{x}_3$
$Ha_1: \bar{x}_1 \neq \bar{x}_2 \neq \bar{x}_3$

An independent samples T-test was run to determine whether gender is a moderator while an ANOVA was run to test whether age is a moderator. Table 20 on page 60 reflects the results of each construct in terms of males and females. The sample contained 73 males and 29 females and in each construct, when testing for a significant difference, all the p values were above 0.05. There was thus no statistically significant difference between males and females and the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis. There were also no observable trends in the data between the different genders and constructs, therefore one can conclude that age has no discernible impact on the variables.

Table 20 – Means and levels of significance of constructs in relation to gender

		n	Mean	Std. Deviation	p value	Mean Difference
Overlap Complexity	Female	29	47.96	16.85	0.93	-0.353
	Male	73	48.31	18.63		
Similarity Complexity	Female	29	52.47	19.14	0.539	2.923
	Male	73	49.55	22.50		
Ethnic and Religious Tolerance	Female	29	7.81	2.45	0.23	0.619
	Male	73	7.19	2.29		
Sexual Tolerance	Female	29	7.51	2.30	0.395	0.478
	Male	73	7.03	2.64		
Socio Deviance	Female	29	3.14	2.95	0.575	0.282
	Male	73	2.86	1.96		
Cultural Pluralism Attitude	Female	29	3.60	0.82	0.484	-0.123
	Male	73	3.73	0.79		

The ages of respondents were assembled into three groups of the same approximate range for the analysis – up to 32; 33 to 40; and 41 and over – as shown in table 21 on page 61. The tests showed that the p values were all above 0.05, therefore the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis and age does not have a significant impact on the social identity constructs.

Even though there were no significant results from the tests, there were some trends observed in certain constructs per age grouping. Overlap complexity mean scores of the 'up to 32' age group (M = 47.01, SD = 17.88) had lower scores compared to the '41 and over' age group (M = 51.22, SD = 16.90), showing a trend towards the older respondents having higher overlap scores and therefore a lower social identity complexity. Similarity complexity mean scores of the 'up to 32' age group (M = 48.73, SD = 22.01) had lower scores compared to the '41 and over' age group (M = 56.52, SD = 22.57).

The ethnic and religious tolerance, sexual tolerance and socio deviance tolerance means showed a trend where younger supporters were slightly more tolerant in these sub constructs compared to the older supporters. There was little difference in the mean scores of the different age groups for cultural pluralism.

Table 21 - Means and levels of significance of constructs in relation to age

		n	Mean	Std. Deviation	P Values
Overlap Complexity	<= 32	34	47.01	17.88	0.526
	33 - 40	36	46.67	19.35	
	41+	32	51.22	16.90	
	Total	102	48.21	18.06	
Similarity Complexity	<= 32	34	48.73	22.01	0.137
	33 - 40	36	46.48	19.48	
	41+	32	56.52	22.57	
	Total	102	50.38	21.55	
Ethnic and Religious Tolerance	<= 32	34	7.65	2.16	0.473
	33 - 40	36	7.47	2.38	
	41+	32	6.96	2.50	
	Total	102	7.37	2.34	
Sexual Tolerance	<= 32	34	7.44	2.48	0.453
	33 - 40	36	7.31	2.61	
	41+	32	6.70	2.56	
	Total	102	7.16	2.55	
Socio Deviance	<= 32	34	3.47	2.20	0.123
	33 - 40	36	2.97	2.72	
	41+	32	2.33	1.62	
	Total	102	2.94	2.27	
Cultural Pluralism Attitude	<= 32	34	3.63	0.89	0.779
	33 - 40	36	3.76	0.83	
	41+	32	3.67	0.64	
	Total	102	3.69	0.79	

5.6.3   Research objective three

Research objective three was to investigate the underlying linear relationship between construct measures. Correlations explore the association between pairs of variables, with the Pearson product-moment correlation being designed for interval (continuous) variables. The research objective was to investigate the linear relationships between the various social identities and tolerance constructs. The correlations between constructs are shown in table 22 below.

Hypothesis: There is significant linear correlation between construct measures

H_0: r = 0
H_1: r ≠ 0

Table 22 – Correlation matrix

	Overlap Complexity	Similarity Complexity	Ethnic and Religious Tolerance	Sexual Tolerance	Socio Deviance	Cultural Pluralism
Overlap Complexity	1					
Similarity Complexity	0.704*	1				
Ethnic and Religious Tolerance	-0.055	-0.084	1			
Sexual Tolerance	-0.06	-0.07	0.806*	1		
Socio Deviance	-0.051	-0.002	0.12	0.275*	1	
Cultural Pluralism	-0.216*	-0.221*	0.308*	0.288*	-0.17**	1

*p<0.05

**p<0.1

The results show a strong positive correlation between the overlap complexity and the similarity complexity in the sample (*r* = 0.704, p<0.05). The relationships between the overlap complexity, the similarity complexity and the tolerance constructs show small negative relationships. The strongest significant correlations shown are between cultural pluralism and the overlap complexity (*r* = -0.216, p<0.05), and cultural pluralism and similarity complexity (*r* = -0.221, p<0.05).

The relationships between tolerance constructs were also tested and certain results showed stronger relationships than others, for example there was a strong positive

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correlation between sexual tolerance and ethnic and religious tolerance (r = 0.806, p<0.05). Cultural pluralism and ethnic and religious tolerance showed a moderate positive correlation (r = 0.308, p>0.05), while cultural pluralism and sexual tolerance showed a small positive correlation (r = 0.288, p>0.05). Cultural pluralism and socio deviance also showed a small negative correlation (r = -0.17 p>0.1), as did socio deviance and sexual tolerance (r = 0.275, p>0.05).

Included in the matrix in table 23 below are the Pearson correlation coefficients for age and gender.

Table 23 – Correlation matrix: Age and gender

	Age	Gender
Overlap Complexity	0.145	0.009
Similarity Complexity	0.169**	-0.061
Ethnic and Religious Tolerance	-0.056	-0.12
Sexual Tolerance	-0.088	-0.085
Socio Deviance	-0.216*	-0.056
Cultural Pluralism	0.016	0.07
Age	1	0.298*
Gender		1

*p<0.05

**p<0.1

There was a small positive correlation between age and gender (r = 0.298, p<0.05) and age and similarity complexity (r = 0.169, p<0.1). There was also a small negative correlation between age and socio deviance (r = - 0.216).

The relationships between age and ethnic and religious tolerance, sexual tolerance and socio deviance were all negatively correlated, albeit they were small. This may show a trend that the older a respondent, the less tolerant he or she is in relation to the three constructs.

5.7   Conclusion

The data for this study were gathered using an online self-administered survey and personal interviews. The different methods and challenges are stated in table 2 on page 36. Non-response bias was a challenge with the online surveys which may have been caused by the fact the researcher could not send follow up requests to the sample and the sample may have expected an incentive to participate.

The data collected in SurveyMonkey were extracted into Excel and analysed using descriptive statistics and other statistical tests. The top three salient social identities were 'national rugby team supported', 'citizenship' and 'religious affiliation'. The most common cross-cutting social identities were 'national rugby team supported' and 'citizenship', which showed the nationality of these sports fans to be important in conjunction with their support for the national team. This is further discussed in chapter 6. The sample was dominated by white respondents and these individuals were primarily Afrikaans speaking. The gender demographics were in-line with the national demographics of rugby supporters, with more male respondents than female.

The Cronbach's Alpha tests showed reliability for four of the complexity and tolerance constructs – overlap complexity, similarity complexity, ethnic and religious tolerance, and sexual tolerance. Socio deviance and cultural pluralism attitudes relied on the inter-item correlation scores to show their internal consistency. The affirmative action attitude construct did not show internal consistency and was removed from further analysis.

Objective one measured the extent of social identity complexity and levels of tolerance amongst rugby supporters. This required the various constructs scores to be calculated by the calculation of the means and standard deviations of each construct. These scores determine whether the individuals displayed high or low complexity scores or tolerance levels. One sample T-tests were then run to determine if the various constructs' scores deviated significantly from the midpoints. The results found the complexity scores did not deviate significantly from the midpoints and the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis. The tests on the tolerance constructs rejected the null hypothesis.

Objective two investigated the differences between demographic groups – specifically age and gender – as moderators of construct measures. An independent T-test was run to determine if gender was a moderator and an ANOVA was run to test if age was a moderator. For the gender test, the results showed there were no significant differences

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between gender and the constructs thus the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis. The tests for the differences between age groups showed p values were all above 0.05 and therefore the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis and therefore age does not have a significant impact on the social identity constructs. However, there were trends observed in the age results that may suggest older respondents are less tolerant than younger respondents.

Objective three investigated the underlying linear relationships between the construct measures. Pearson product-moment correlations were run to test the relationships. Significant relationships were observed between overlap complexity and similarity complexity (r = 0.704, p<0.05), overlap complexity and cultural pluralism (r = -0.216, p<0.05), similarity complexity and cultural pluralism (r = -0.221, p<0.05), ethnic and religious tolerance and sexual tolerance (r = 0.806, p<0.05), ethnic and religious tolerance and cultural pluralism (r = 0.308, p>0.05), sexual tolerance and socio deviance (r = 0.275, p>0.05), sexual tolerance and cultural pluralism (r = 0.288, p>0.05) and socio deviance and cultural pluralism (r = -0.17 p>0.1).

There was a small positive correlation between age and gender (r = 0.298, p<0.05); age and similarity complexity showed a small positive correlation (r = 0.169, p<0.1) and there was a small negative correlation between age and socio deviance (r = - 0.216).

Chapter 6   - Results

6.1   Introduction

Chapter 6 presents a discussion of the results from Chapter 5 and answers the research objectives in Chapter 3 using the literature from Chapter 2 to provide context in the interpretation of the results.

This study asked 102 Blue Bulls supporters for their salient social identities and then calculated their overlap and similarity complexity levels. Tolerance levels and their sub constructs were determined per individual. The sample demographics, salient social identities, cross-cutting social identities, and the three objectives are discussed in this chapter in relation to social identity complexity, tolerance and rugby fans. Finally, a model is introduced to summarise the research findings.

6.2   Sample demographics

As shown in table 10 on page 51, the sample was dominated by white supporters (82%) and did not represent the overall South African rugby supporter demographic of 33% white supporters. This may have had an impact on the results but this skewed sample in terms of race can be explained by the fact that the supporters used for the online survey were predominantly white and the supporters at the stadium were predominantly white. A challenge, the Marketing Director of the Blue Bulls Company explained, is the fact that while they have a large black support base, they do not come to the stadium to watch games. The history of the Blue Bulls when it was Northern Transvaal and seen as a white Afrikaner rugby team seems to have been overcome when looking at the number of black supporters, but the legacy and challenges of this history lives on in the stadium. The results regarding the tolerance levels of this predominantly white sample are discussed later in the chapter, but there does appear to be an increased level of tolerance and acceptance of other races and other tolerance constructs.

The gender split in the sample of 72% male and 28% female is in-line with data from BMI Sport Info, but this demographic is an area that could be focused on by rugby unions and their marketing managers. Creating more female supporters and getting these female supporters to the stadium may be a challenge for the rugby teams in South Africa to address, however.

6.3   Social Identity Theory and Self-Categorisation

Social Identity Theory explains intergroup behaviour while Tajfel and Turner (1986) defined a person's social identity as the sum total of all his or her social identities. The theory focuses on discrimination, prejudice and intergroup behaviours such as conflict, cooperation, social change and social stasis (Hogg & Reid, 2006). An individual applies the knowledge that he or she has some emotional connection to the group and adds value to their group membership. It is in their interests for their group to succeed and in order to experience positive emotions they would want to associate with the group (Ashmore et al., 2004). Self-categorisation theory explains an individual's categorisation as a member of a particular social grouping. This research required the respondents to self-categorise themselves and then indicate their most salient social identities.

The survey assisted the respondents to choose their various social identities through the initial items in the survey. The respondents then listed their top three social identities. As per table 5 on page 48, the national rugby team followed was the most salient social identity, which makes sense considering the sample was of rugby supporters (36%). The respondents felt citizenship (18%), religious affiliation (9%), profession (9%) and language (8%) were their other most important social identities. The sports affiliated social identities (sports watched, rugby teams supported and sports/hobbies played) together made up 49% of the total social identities chosen. The fact that sports played a major role in the study justifies the usefulness of the sample to move towards and self-categorise in these particular social groups.

The self-categorisation process by the respondents was the first necessary step in establishing the complexity levels of the individuals. This self-categorisation process within the sports environment differentiates fans from spectators. A fan's categorisation process ensures a degree of order is placed within this area of their social environment and they view themselves as members of the group (Underwood et al., 2001). Although it provided some interesting insights into what social identities these supporters grouped themselves into, the results only provided details on one dimension and in order to provide further insight, the cross-cutting relationships needed to be established.

6.4   Cross-cutting social identities

Crossed categorisation refers to the crossing of a set of categories – A/B by a second set X/Y. An individual may have a group membership in common in one group, but

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simultaneously belong to another group according to another categorisation. This cross-cutting membership will result in individuals' possessing four groups – the membership group (in-group on both dimensions – II); a double out-group and two crossed conditions – in-group / out-group (IO) and out-group / in-group (OI) (Hewstone et al., 1993).

As per self-categorisation theory, this acknowledgement of multiple identities and the cross categorisation thereof leads to the depersonalisation of one's singular identities and the group identities being salient in certain conditions.

Of the 102 respondents, 42 (41%) put both the 'national rugby team supported' and 'citizenship' as being salient social identities, as shown in table 6 on page 49. This may show that patriotism underlies the most salient multiple cross-cutting in-group of being a Blue Bulls supporter and being South African; these individuals are proud provincial supporters but their national identity is important too. A Blue Bulls supporter is also a South African and these combined social identities can be used to further promote fan loyalty. This may be especially true in the southern hemisphere competition, Super Rugby, which involves 15 rugby teams from South Africa, New Zealand and Australia, where the Blue Bulls play against other international provincial teams and patriotism may be important in this context.

As stated by Dauncey and Hare (2014), sporting events can bring a shared group identity closer and rituals or specific moments can enhance this nationalism and ultimately the support for an event or team. Underwood et al. (2001) stated that the sports environment can be used to promote the social identities of its supporters through the promotion of the group experience, history and tradition, the role of the physical facility and the ritual. This creation of a "them" and "us" environment through sport is further enhanced by promoting rituals such as team anthems, national anthems, the team uniform, its history and the stadium the team plays in.

'National rugby team supported' and 'religious affiliation' were chosen together by 21% of the sample, and 'national rugby team supported' and 'language' were chosen by 7.86% of the sample. These results give some further insight into the multiple social identities that may be important to these supporters. Their 'religious affiliation' is a salient social identity in conjunction with 'national rugby team supported', hence certain values held in their religious identity may be carried forward into how they support their team. They may see their players' and role models' actions in the same way that their religious beliefs may

state they are required to. In addition, the language in which they are communicated to by the team and perhaps at the stadium is also important to the individuals.

6.5   Group prototypes

The identification with specific groups will incorporate the acceptance of the group prototypes and the more an individual identifies with the group prototype, the more depersonalised the individual's identity will become (Hornsey, 2008). The group characteristics and attitudes of the sample are clearly dominated by sport but the other salient social identities' characteristics and attitudes associated with the respondents - religious affiliation, profession and language - are also important. These social identities and their characteristics represent Blue Bulls supporters who are passionate, but their religious and professional identities and the characteristics and attitudes that come with those identities may influence their behaviour.

The fact that racial and ethnic identities and political affiliation identities were not chosen as salient social identities in comparison to the sports, national and religious identities show that the perceptions of Blue Bulls supporters' characteristics may be misinterpreted by other supporters and the general public. The characteristics of white individuals are not as important as the characteristics of the team supporters and their religious values and beliefs.

6.6   Affirmative action attitude

As shown in chapter 5, the affirmative action construct was removed from further analysis due to a lack of validity of the scale. However the author believes it relevant to report on the findings of the two items, where the first question discussed tolerance towards other races and ethnicities, whereas the second item asked if affirmative action principles are fair and just. The respondents showed a more tolerant viewpoint on the first item (M = 3.83, S.D = 1.01) compared to a supposed less tolerant response on the second item (M = 1.80, S.D = 0.98). Brewer and Pierce (2005) introduced the scale and two items and the researcher questions the soundness of this construct to test affirmative action principles and in turn tolerance.

The results show that as per the first item, the sample is tolerant of other races and people from different ethnic backgrounds, but they disagree with the principle that these individuals should be given preference over others in terms of hiring and university

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admissions. In the context of South Africa and its history, this is an interesting finding as individuals are showing tolerance but would like fairness in policies around affirmative action.

6.7 Research objective one

Research objective one was to measure the extent of social identity overlap complexity and levels of tolerance amongst rugby supporters.

In order to answer this objective, the average construct measures of each variable were calculated and tested to see if each construct deviated significantly from the midpoints, the results of which are in table 19 on page 58. One sample T-tests were employed to determine the differences in the constructs.

Social identity complexity states that an individual may have two social identities that may be salient at any point in time or at a given time or place (Roccas & Brewer, 2002). These multiple social identities may be the in-group and even though other individuals may fulfil the category in one dimension, if the individual is not an in-group member on both dimensions they are an out-group member. The overlap complexity level of the sample was slightly below the mean (M = 48.21) but the similarity complexity level a little above the mean (M = 50.38).

These results show that the Blue Bulls supporters neither have a simplified nor a complex social identity complexity, but if one has to consider that as a percentage, the sample believes that on average 50% of their one social identity are members of their other social identity groups, it can be seen as being simplified. One has to consider that Blue Bulls supporters make up 26% of the rugby supporters in South Africa and only 5% of the total South African population (BMI Sport Info, 2013), yet the respondents on average subjectively stated that almost 50% of South African are Blue Bulls supporters. As per Roccas and Brewer (2002), individuals with a complex social identity acknowledge that in-group members may be out-group members on other dimensions. The fact that Blue Bulls supporters perceive that almost half of their multiple in-groups overlap or are similar may provide a case for a more simplified social identity complexity level.

Brewer and Pierce (2005) and Roccas and Brewer (2002) proposed that individuals with a high social identity complexity level may be more tolerant towards out-group members. Tolerance was defined by Ferrar (1976) as "flexible, examined attitudes toward groups,

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beliefs or practices which permit non-categorical evaluation of particular individuals, believers or practitioners; approval of a wide range of beliefs and practices and the allowance of a wide range of rights and privileges" (p. 63). This study tested multiple sub constructs of tolerance and each test rejected the null hypothesis where it was asked if each would equal the test value mid-point. Ethnic and religious tolerance (M = 7.37, SD = 2.34) and sexual tolerance (M = 7.16, SD = 2.55) had mean values above the mid-point, suggesting that Blue Bulls supporters were more tolerant in these tolerance categories in comparison to socio deviance tolerance (M = 2.94, SD = 2.27), where the supporters are completely intolerant of these individuals. The socio deviance scale consisted of heavy drinkers and drug users, so the intolerance shown is understandable. Cultural pluralism is the acceptance of minority groups within a society dominated by one culture; the attitude score (M=3.69, SD=0.83) shows the individuals in the sample to be more tolerant towards these minority groups. A Blue Bulls supporter is likely to be more accepting of the smaller sub cultures within their support base.

These results may show that even with a semi simplified social identity complexity number, tolerance towards out-group members by sports fans is higher than what previous literature may have suggested. In their study on social identity complexity and out-group tolerance, Brewer and Pierce (2005) revealed that individuals whom stated a sports identity as salient compared to individuals who did not, showed a higher overlap score (lower complexity levels) and therefore perceived their in-groups to be less inclusive and complex. These results in comparison to the semi simplified social identity complexity levels of these Blue Bulls supporters may suggest by isolating sports fans and their particular sport different results may surface.

6.7.1   Summary of objective one

The average Blue Bulls supporter is a white, male, Afrikaans speaking South African who has been shown to value his religious principles, his profession and enjoys playing or watching sports in general. His overlap and similarity scores show that he is likely to see his salient multiple social identities depersonalised as per self-categorisation theory and his in-groups may be a combination of the social identities. For instance he may be a religious national team supporter who values the fact that the national team may pray before a game. This understanding may influence his support for the team more than the teams' racial composition, as his own ethnicity did not feature as a more important social identity compared to his other salient identities.

His social identity complexity score may also dictate his attitude towards out-groups. As his overlap and similarity scores are neither high nor low, his understanding is that at least 50% of his other in-groups are part of his other in-groups. With an average social identity complexity score, the average supporter should be indifferent in terms of his tolerance levels. The study has shown his tolerance levels in terms of other ethnicities and religions, sexual tolerance and cultural pluralism to be more tolerant than not, but does not show exceptional tolerance levels. The study also shows he is not very tolerant of socio deviant activities such as extreme drinking and drug use. This does not come as a surprise but it does show that tolerance cannot be grouped into one grouping, and as the study shows, tolerance towards one area does not mean an individual is tolerant towards everything.

6.8   Research objective two

Research objective two was to investigate significant differences between demographic groups as moderators of construct measures.

Age and gender were shown to have mixed impact on social identity complexity levels in previous studies. In their study, Brewer and Pierce (2005) discussed the differences between females and males in terms of overlap complexity means and the correlation between overlap complexity and age. They found no significant difference between males and females in terms of overlap complexity means and there was a marginally significant relationship between age and overlap complexity, with older respondents tending to have higher social identity complexity scores. Miller et al. (2009) found that age was not significantly correlated with overlap complexity, while Brewer et al. (2013) found that there was also a significant gender main effect, with males having a higher overlap rating compared to females but the difference was small.

The second objective of this study was to investigate the differences between age and gender, complexity constructs and tolerance constructs, and determine if they were moderators of these constructs. "Moderator variables affect the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable" (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1171). In order to test this, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis: The average construct scores differ between males and females/age groups

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As per tables 20 and 21 (pages 60 and 61), the null hypotheses were both accepted and neither gender nor age significantly explains the variation in the data. In the case of gender, there were no differences between males and females and the various constructs.

Age did not affect the variation in the data either, but trends observed showed that the older respondents may have lower social identity complexities, making them less accepting of out-group members. The tolerance constructs involving ethnic and religious tolerance, sexual tolerance and socio deviance showed trends where younger respondents were more tolerant than older respondents.

6.8.1 Summary of objective two

This data shows that age and gender does not moderate the relationship between social identity complexity and tolerance. The average Blue Bulls supporter is likely to be a male between the ages of 30 and 39. The fact that he is male does not impact his perception of his social identities and their cross-cutting relationships. However, trends in the data show his older Blue Bulls supporters may reflect lower social identity scores (higher overlap and similarity scores) and are less tolerant towards out-group members. This older supporter's in-groups are likely to be at a multiple cross-cutting level, such as being a Blue Bull and South African is very important; a Blue Bulls supporter from Namibia is thus more than likely an out-group member.

6.9 Research objective three

Research objective three was to investigate the underlying linear relationship between construct measures. Overlap complexity and similarity complexity were strongly significantly related. This is in comparison to Schmid et al. (2009), who found a significant small positive correlation between overlap and similarity complexity measures. These two measures asked individuals to determine how many of their one social identity were of their other social identities and how similar they were. Self-categorisation theory guides individuals to categorise themselves into their salient groups, but by asking them to compare groups they are now evaluating these social identities on multiple groups and dimensions. By doing so, individuals' in-groups may be categorised by two social identities and create a challenge around accepting that by doing so other out-group members on a single dimension may be in-group members at this multiple cross-cutting level (Urban & Miller, 1998). This process leads to a depersonalisation of these singular identities and the group identity being salient in certain conditions.

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By deconstructing tolerance into multiple constructs, the theories by Roccas and Brewer (2002) and Brewer and Pierce (2005), which stated that individuals with low complexity levels are more tolerant, was tested in more depth than before. Tolerance as per Esmer (2010) is the acceptance of individuals' differences such as their religious beliefs, ethnicity, their culture and physical attributes without judging them and applying a hierarchy. By testing the constructs of tolerance in relation to social identity complexity, the strength and direction of these relationships can guide how these groups can be catered for in a sports marketing environment.

Even though not significant, the trend that both overlap complexities have small but negative relationships to the various tolerance constructs adds some credence to the theory that as complexity levels increase, tolerance levels across the various constructs will decrease. Cultural pluralism displayed the strongest significant relationships with the complexity scores, which may show how accepting the dominant white Afrikaans supporters in the sample are of smaller, less dominant cultures in their society.

When comparing the relationships between the tolerance constructs, the relationships between all constructs were positive with some showing significant but small correlations. This suggests that even though tolerance was deconstructed, if combined under one tolerance construct they will reflect the same results as shown by the study. An individual who is tolerant towards the sexual behaviours in the study, will also be tolerant towards others of a different ethnicity or religious background. The one anomaly is the negative small relationship between socio deviance and cultural pluralism. Although these individuals may be accepting of smaller cultures in society, they do not appreciate individuals who drink heavily or take drugs.

6.9.1   Summary of objective three

The average Blue Bulls supporter who believes his salient social identities are similar to other social identities also believes these salient social identities will overlap each other most of the time. For instance he will perceive the other Blue Bulls supporters he associates with to be South African citizens, and in turn both of these identities will have similar characteristics and abide by the same values.

This Blue Bulls supporter will be more tolerant towards other less dominant cultures within the supporter base as per his weak but significant relationship with cultural pluralism principles. This relationship is inversely related and thus another fellow Blue Bulls

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supporter with lower complexity scores will have less tolerance towards these less dominant cultures. His relationship with other tolerance levels is weak but also inversely related, showing that he will be less tolerant in general if his complexity score was lower. This supporter's age and the fact he is male does not impact on his relationships between complexity and tolerance constructs.

## 6.10   Social identity and tolerance conceptual theoretical model

The following conceptual theoretical model attempts to graphically display the findings of this study. On the left are the social identity measures and on the right are the tolerance constructs. Age and gender are comprised of the moderators at the bottom. The various measures and constructs are connected and the relationships between them are shown. The strength and direction of each relationship are noted on the connectors between constructs. Each construct and measure contains its own tolerance or complexity scores being the means and standard deviations.

By observing the model, one can see that the relationships between the three tolerance constructs that come from the neighbour test have weak, insignificant relationships with the complexity measures. The neighbour test may be a weak instrument to test tolerance measures. These tolerance constructs themselves have significant relationships between them, but may need to be improved or another set of items found to test tolerance levels.

Cultural pluralism, on the other hand, shows small significant relationships with the complexity levels. Even though the Cronbach's Alpha scores returned a low internal reliability, the literature justified its use and the significant relationships shows it may be a more valid construct to rely on in terms of tolerance levels. The small but significant negative relationships with the complexity measures show that as complexity levels increase, cultural pluralism levels decrease.

Age and gender were proposed as moderators but the test results from the second observation determined that neither significantly explains the variation in the data. However trends observed in terms of age and complexity measures and tolerance constructs suggest there may be some more insights that can be gathered in that area through a larger sample.

Figure 4 - Social identity complexity and tolerance theoretical model
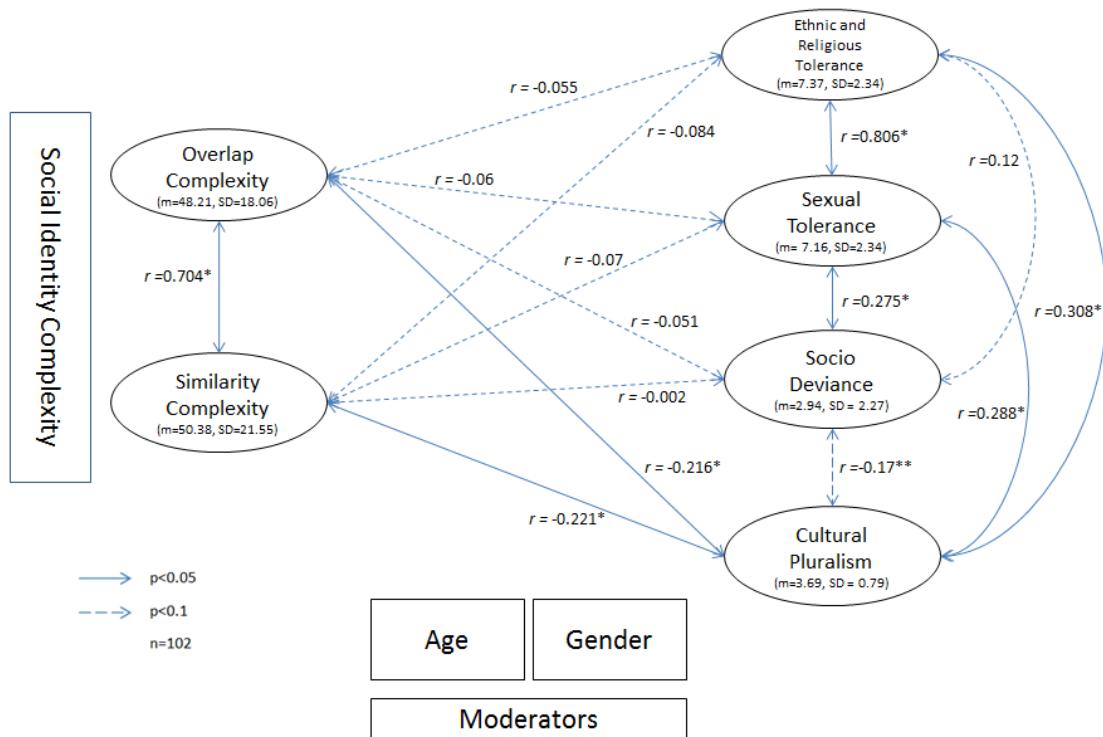
Chapter 7   - Conclusion

7.1   Introduction

All individuals possess social identities such as gender, race, the team we support, the language we speak, the school we attended or from where we come from in terms of our geographical home or our nationality. Some identities we are born with while others we self-appoint, and we will label each with our own subjective level of importance. By self-categorising ourselves into these groups we create our own interpretation of what are our in-groups and out-groups.

In certain situations, these social identities may be combined and we represent ourselves with two or more social identities in a specific context or over a period of time. Being a female lawyer at work may be important but while at home being a mother who plays sport may be important in that context. In each of these environments, other individuals may be an in-group or out-group member depending on one's own representation of the multiple in-groups at that time. Understanding that one may then perceive another individual as an in-group member on one category but not on another category or at another time, requires an individual to understand one's own representations. The magnitude and direction that an individual puts on their multiple cross-cutting identities also impacts how these individuals perceive other in-group members, out-group members and tolerance levels towards these individuals. Social identity complexity is a theoretical construct that refers to the manner in which an individual manages these multiple social identities.

Understanding that a sports supporter is more than just an individual who supports a team on one social identity level but possesses multiple social identities is important to understand for many stakeholders within the sports business. Decisions around marketing campaigns, the management of the fan base online and in the stadium and how to get supporters to be more loyal revolves around this understanding of supporters being a sports fan on one dimension, but either a mother or a lawyer on another. The way that these supporters manage their perceptions of out-group members may influence how a brand manages its advertising campaigns or communicates with its fan base.

This research intended to survey a sample of rugby supporters through a questionnaire in order to firstly determine their social identity complexity scores and compare them to various tolerance constructs. In addition, it was proposed that age and gender were

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moderators between the constructs. Through various types of analysis a final model of social identity and tolerance was presented (figure 4), which summarises the project.

7.2   Findings of the study

These results have added to the growing body of literature on social identity complexity, specifically to tolerance and its sub constructs in relation to social identity complexity levels around rugby fans, by showing that the complexity tests as per Roccas and Brewer (2002) can be replicated in a sports environment. Previous research by Brewer and Pierce (2005) stated that individuals in their study who stated sports as being one of their salient identities possessed a higher than the sample overlap score, which proposed that sports individuals may be less tolerant of out-group members. The results of this study showed Blue Bulls supporters to possess a moderate social identity complexity score. The complexity measurements were further enhanced by the strong relationship between overlap complexity and similarity complexity.

The study utilised a 'neighbour test' to examine tolerance measures. The neighbour test was broken up into three scales – namely sexual tolerance, socio deviance, and ethnic and religious tolerance. Previous studies by Brewer and Pierce (2005) utilised the cultural pluralism scales and affirmative action attitudes to test for tolerance. This study utilised these both but the affirmative action scale was determined to be unreliable. Cultural pluralism provided the most significant relationships with the complexity constructs. The other tolerance constructs provided insignificant relationships to the complexity scores. Based on the cultural pluralism scores, the study showed that higher social identity scores by individuals lead to increased tolerance with regards to cultural pluralism – the acknowledgment and acceptance of minority cultures in a society dominated by one culture.

Age and gender were proposed as potential moderators but this was not the case and the analysis of these identities showed they had no effect on the other variables. There were noted trends with the various age groupings where older individuals were slightly less tolerant than younger members and also had a lower social identity score.

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7.3   Recommendations for stakeholders

7.3.1   Implications for a provincial rugby union and marketing administrators

By understanding the social identity complexity levels and tolerance levels of one's support base, it will assist a marketing manager in making better decisions because they will have better insight into the different social identities a supporter may find important and how they manage these social identities with regards to their various out-groups. Supporters who may be less tolerant of out-group members or other team supporters may appreciate the creation of a 'them' and 'us' environment, with marketing campaigns aimed at demeaning other teams, whereas a support base that is more tolerant of out-group members may not appreciate a demeaning campaign but would rather look inwards and would prefer a marketing campaign aimed at the team itself and being made to feel proud of the team.

The supporters in the sample showed their national identity as being important in addition to the social identity of being a Blue Bulls supporter. This shared in-group can create opportunities in increasing support at games if one was to perhaps make the national identity as important as the Blue Bulls identity. Americans are exceptionally passionate about their country and certain rituals such as having the flag at any sports game and playing the national anthem before the game starts creates a source of pride and increased fervour with its supporters, even though both teams are from the same country. Taking these examples, the Blue Bulls may look at playing the national anthem before games and having the national flag feature prominently on the Blue Bulls gear and at the stadium. This could combine the supporters' national pride with that of being a local supporter and create a great atmosphere in the stadium. The creation of a 'them' and 'us' environment can heighten a sports fans support and loyalty towards a team.

The cross-cutting group memberships provided further insight into the salient groups the supporters actually value. The second highest cross-cutting group membership was that of the 'national rugby team supported' and the 'provincial team supported'. There are some provincial supporters who value the support of their national team higher than that of their local team, but in conjunction both social identities are important. As the provincial union, by displaying and celebrating the national rugby players in the team more it may increase the support of certain supporters. The current national rugby team players could have posters of themselves in their national uniforms and provincial uniforms displayed

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strategically in the stadium. This may create a sense of ownership of the provincial team for certain supporters who may value their national support higher than that of their provincial support.

The survey showed individuals valued their religious affiliation and the national rugby team supported highly, therefore their religious values and principles may also be important to them as a rugby supporter. This expectation may influence the manner in which the team advertises themselves in order to maintain these values and principles too. If a large portion of the support base does not subscribe to certain methods of advertising or the content of advertisements, these individuals may be isolated and either change their support or their consumption habits. A feature of any modern game is the presence of cheerleaders, but this finding may bring into question the use of them to promote the team as it may compromise certain supporters' values as a rugby supporter and someone who values their religious principles.

The trends with regards to age and the tolerance constructs show that even though age does not show significant differences to the data, the awareness of the trends may influence the manner in which a marketing manager may approach a marketing activation. Knowing the age demographics of their fan base, activations may be targeted at a specific age bracket, but being aware of the other age brackets' tolerance levels or salient social identities, the activation can be designed so as not to offend the other supporters. In this way, the activation targets the correct market segment by age but ensures the brand maintains other supporters.

The results on affirmative action principles were removed from the study in the analysis of social identity complexity and tolerance, but the results from the two items used may be important to note in that these supporters may not mind players of colour in their team, but they need to be in the team based on merit. A rugby union may lose supporters and in turn revenue if they implement affirmative action principles in their team selections. In the current South African climate where pressure is being placed on rugby teams to be more representative, it may be in a union's interest to be more proactive in their development of players of colour at the grass roots level so in the future they can feed into the provincial team.

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7.3.2   Implications for sponsors

Any corporate sponsor needs to ensure their brand is aligned with another brand in the sports environment that will reflect the brand's core identity and values and not bring their name into disrepute. If sponsors know the core social identities and tolerance levels of any support base it may give them better insight into the market they will be targeting, and the market that might be representing them. Supporters who may have a reputation of being uncouth and disrespectful may reflect these characteristics when their core social identities and tolerance levels are tested. A sponsor may then be able to make better decisions regarding whether to sponsor a team or not.

In addition to this, by understanding the supporters' cross-cutting social identities, the marketing campaigns by the sponsors may be better focused at the social identities these supporters find most important, for example combining advertising campaigns acknowledging that a woman with a career is also a mother at home may be more impactful than just appealing to women in general.

7.3.3   Implications for broadcasters

Language was a salient social identity for 25% of the sample. Broadcasters do provide multilingual commentary which is important to a large portion of the support base and this needs to be maintained. Knowing that these supporters also place some importance on their religious affiliations in conjunction with their support for a rugby team may encourage them to maintain certain values carried by both these social identities in the manner in which they broadcast during the game, for example by not focusing on the cheerleaders all the time and not promoting behaviours opposing their beliefs.

7.4   Future research recommendations

The study on social identity complexity levels of specifically sports fans in relation to tolerance levels touched the surface of the variations in this area of study and the many ways it can assist marketing practitioners, not only in the sports arena but with any market segment. Better understanding the people you are trying to convince to buy or do something increases your ability to successfully do so.

This study did not test the objective and subjective representations of individuals' in-groups and out-groups in terms of how they position their multiple social identities at a specific time and the strength of each social identity compared to the other, therefore the

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crossed-categorisation model the respondents used to represent their multiple social identities could not be identified. The salient social identities were important but not ranked and the strength of the overlaps between cross-cutting social identities were not measured either. A future study could look at finding out these rankings and strength of the overlaps to determine which crossed-categorisation models a group predominantly uses.

Future research could focus on not only a specific rugby team, but other rugby teams too. Not all rugby supporters are the same, so testing complexity levels at other rugby teams will enhance the knowledge of that particular rugby team's supporters, while increasing knowledge on social identity complexity. In addition to rugby teams, one could survey other sports teams and other sports in general, such as soccer or cricket.

This study was a cross-sectional study on the social identity complexity levels of sports fans at a point in time. A longitudinal study over a certain amount of time, such as a season, and the comparison of results at different times, such as when the team is winning or losing, may make for some interesting research. Levels of complexity could also be tested if the team is involved in off field challenges, such as a key player leaving or arriving at the team.

This study had a few challenges with the methodology and collection of surveys. Firstly, the demographics of the sample were predominantly Afrikaans speaking individuals and the questionnaires were in English. Future research may incorporate different languages into the interview so as to ensure a better understanding of what is actually being asked. The different methods of collection – online and personal interviews – may have had an impact on the results and future studies should look at collecting the data using one method only.

The items and scale on affirmative action principles were rejected due to issues with the validity of the items. Future research would incorporate a more robust scale on affirmative action principles as this would be interesting to study in conjunction with social identity complexity levels, especially in a South African context.

The survey could have incorporated an item on education levels so the researchers could test those against social identity complexity levels of sports fans. In addition, the study focused on tolerance of sports fans which focuses on out-groups. Future research could focus on in-groups and the bias shown to in-group members by sports fans.

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Appendix 1 – Questionnaire

Rugby Fans Questionnaire

As a rugby fan myself, I am doing research on sport fans and their support for their favourite teams. This research will help sport teams better understand their fans and contribute to improving the fan experience. The questions in this survey are aimed at understanding the groups that you identify with and should take no longer than 10 minutes to complete. Your participation is voluntary and you can withdraw at any time without penalty. All gathered data will be anonymous and reported in the aggregate so that your identity will be fully protected. By completing the survey, you indicate that you voluntarily participate in the research. If you have any concerns, please contact me or my supervisor. Our details are provided below:

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This survey is about the social groups that you belong to or identify yourself with. Belonging to a group does not require formal membership. It simply means that you consider yourself to be part of the set of people who make up that group. For instance, being male or female makes you part of the group of "women" or "men," even if you do not belong to a formal organization. In this questionnaire we will be asking you about the groups of various types that you feel you are a part of.

1. Which sports are you a fan of (Tick all those applicable)

☐ Athletics ☐ Cycling ☐ Rugby League

☐ Basketball ☐ Football ☐ Rugby Union

☐ Boxing ☐ Golf ☐ Swimming

☐ Cricket ☐ Motor Sports ☐ Tennis

☐ Other

(1/15)

2. Next to each of the following rugby teams, please allocate up to 100 "fan support points". You can allocate as many points to each team as you want, as long as the total adds up to 100. For example, if you support the Cheetahs and Samoa, you might allocate 70 points to the Cheetahs and 30 to Samoa. Or if you support Scotland, the Brumbies and the Sharks, you might allocate your points as Scotland 50, Brumbies 10, and Sharks 40.

National		*Super Rugby Teams*	
Argentina		Blues	
Australia		Brumbies	
England		Bulls	
France		Cheetahs	
Ireland		Chiefs	
New Zealand		Crusaders	
Samoa		Force	
Scotland		Highlanders	
South Africa		Hurricanes	
Wales		Lions	
		Rebels	
		Reds	
		Sharks	
		Stormers	
		Waratahs	

Please ensure that the total weights allocated add to 100

(2/15)

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3. Recreational sports/hobbies

Which, if any, of the following recreational sports or hobbies are you involved in? (Tick all those applicable)

☐ Running   ☐ Music   ☐ Gardening
☐ Hunting   ☐ Cricket   ☐ Cycling
☐ Bowling   ☐ Golf   ☐ Mountain Biking
☐ Dancing   ☐ Football   ☐ None

☐ Other (Specify) _____

(3/15)

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4. Language

State your home language

○ Afrikaans   ○ isiZulu   ○ siSwati
○ English   ○ Sesotho sa Leboa   ○ Tshivenda
○ isiNdebele   ○ Sesotho   ○ Xitsonga
○ isiXhosa   ○ Setswana

○ Other _____

(4/15)

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5. Profession

5a. What is your professional status? (ie Student, engineer, farmer, accountant etc)

_____

5b. If you belong to a union or similar work organization, which one do you identify most with?

_____

(5/15)

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6. Citizenship

Choose from the below list of citizenships

☐ South African   ☐ Mozambican
☐ Namibian   ☐ Matswanan (Person from Botswana)
☐ Zimbabwean
                             ☐ Other (Specify): _____

(6/15)

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7. Political Affiliation

Generally speaking, do you usually think yourself of being aligned with which political party

○ ACDP   ○ DA   ○ UDM
○ AL J   ○ EFF   ○ VF Plus
○ ANC   ○ ICOSA   ○ Other
○ COPE   ○ PA   ○ Non Applicable

(7/15)

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8. Which, if any, of these religions or organizations do you belong to or identify with

☐ African Traditional Religion   ☐ Islam
☐ Buddhism/Chinese Folk   ☐ Judaism
☐ Christianity   ☐ Non Religious
☐ Hinduism   ☐ Other (Specify): _____

(8/15)

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9. Racial/Ethnic Group

What racial or ethnic groups do you consider yourself part of?

☐ Asian   ☐ Indian

☐ Black   ☐ White

☐ Coloured   ☐ Other _____

(9/15)

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10. Other Social Identities

Having identified key social identities in the previous questions - are there any other identities you feel are important to you that may not have been covered in the above questions (ie. Where you live (geographical location); being a mother or father; pysical attributes):

_____

(10/15)

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11. Please look back at the groups you selected in questions 1 to 9 above. From your selections, please chose the 3 groups that are most important to you. For example, your 3 could be something like Namibian Citizen, Engineer and Highlanders (Note if you choose a rugby team - choose the team you rated highest in question 2 or the team who you identify most with)

Write in each box your options

1   (1) _____

2   (2) _____

3   (3) _____

(11/15)

Question 12.

We would like to understand what percentage (1% to 100%) of people in each of your chosen 3 groups, you think are probably also members of the other groups. We are not looking for an exact or correct number, just your *perception.* So, if your first two groups above were **South African Citizen** and **Blue Bulls;** what percentage of **South African Citizens** do you think are **Blue Bull supporters,** and what percentage of **Blue Bull supporters** do you think are **South Africans**

How many South African Citizens are Blue Bull supporters	30%	
How many Blue Bull Supporters are South African Citizens	90%	

How many		are			%
How many (1) _____		are	(2) _____		%
How many (2) _____		are	(1) _____		%
How many (1) _____		are	(3) _____		%
How many (3) _____		are	(1) _____		%
How many (2) _____		are	(3) _____		%
How many (3) _____		are	(2) _____		%

(12/15)

Question 13.

We would like to understand how similar you think the typical person in one of your chosen 3 groups is to the typical person in another one of your chosen 3 groups. Please rate the similarity on a scale of 1% (not similar at all) to 100% (very similar). So, if your first two groups above were South African and Sharks, how similar do you think the typical South African is to the typical Sharks supporter.

South African Citizen to Blue Bulls supporter	60%	

How similar are (1) _____	to	(2) _____	%
How similar are (1) _____	to	(3) _____	%
How similar are (2) _____	to	(3) _____	%

(13/15)

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Question 14.

Rate the various groups as to whether you would like to have them as your neighbour
(Use a scale of 1 - 11 with 1 being "you would not like to have them as your neighbour" and 11 being "there is no problem having them as a neighbour.
6 might indicate you neither mind nor don't mind)

REMEMBER THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IS CONFIDENTIAL AND ANONYMOUS

Drug addicts	
People of a different race	
People who have AIDS	
Immigrants/Foreign Workers	
Homosexuals	
People of different religion	
Heavy drinkers	
Unmarried couples living together	
People who speak a different language	
people who support your sports team	
People who support the opposition sports team	

(14/15)

Question 15.

1. It is better for the country if racial and ethnic groups adapt and blend into the large society

2. It is better for the country if racial and ethnic groups maintain their distinct customs and traditions

3. Having multiple people of different race and ethnic backgrounds in the workplace benefits our country

4. Hiring and university admissions should not give any preference along racial lines

(15/15)

Thank you for participating in the survey.

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