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Motivation and consumption substitution by South African football fans

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A Research Report submitted to the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master in Business Administration.

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Abstract

The economic and social importance of attendance at football matches is well documented, however there is lack of consensus on the factors affecting declining attendance.

This study aims to understand association between motivation and consumption behaviour using the Socialization, Performance, Excitement, Esteem and Diversion (SPEED) scale developed by Funk, Filo, Beaton and Pritchard (2009). This research studies the role that motivation plays in the decision of fans to substitute attendance at stadiums with television viewing. Lastly, this study aims to determine whether preference in mode of consumption is a factor in fans' decision to support international teams in favour of domestic teams.

Quantitative data from a sample of 254 fans in South Africa was collected through online and self-administered surveys. The methodology differed from previous research in that it focuses on direct input from fans on preferences of consumption and behaviour.

Results indicate that the SPEED scale is a reliable tool to understand motivation of fans in South Africa. Socialization, Performance and Diversion variables were found to be influential in the consumption behaviour of fans, whilst Excitement and Esteem were not influential on consumption behaviour. Further to this, motivation could not be shown to be associated with consumption substitution behaviour. Finally, a significant difference was found between the preferred modes of consumption of fans and preference to support international teams over local teams.

The study provides sports marketers with insight into fan motivation and behaviour, allowing them to improve marketing strategies to increase fan attendance at stadiums. This study has shown the applicability of the SPEED scale in a South African context and adds to the academic body of knowledge of consumption substitution behaviour of football fans.

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Keywords

Football, motivation, substitution, attendance, television

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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 authorization and consent to carry out this research.

_____ _____

Yaeesh Moosa **Date**

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Chapter 1

Introduction

World football revolves around one group of people, the fans (Repucom, 2014). Fans fuel the machine that is football clubs and football events, and it is the fans that influence every cheque written and decision made. Sloane (1989) describes fans as those who are persistent, engaged and active followers of the sport and willingly invest resources into the sport over a prolonged period. Large following and viewership has evolved football clubs into sponsorship vehicles with vast amounts of money being spent to increase the popularity of teams.

The importance of fans in a sporting context is analogous to the magnitude of consumers in retail businesses (Moreno, Prado-Gasco, Hervas, Nunez-Pomar, & Sanz, 2015). Without the fans, the sporting contest will remain a simple sporting contest between the individuals on the pitch. The more successful a team is on the pitch, the greater would be its ability to attract fans and to grow financially and economically. However, the business of sport has evolved over the past few decades with sport across all spectrums also becoming a key factor in a nation's economic growth, inclusivity and employment opportunities (KPMG, 2016). Therefore, for football clubs to achieve successful growth and longevity, it is essential that they attract as many fans as possible. In order to achieve this, football clubs need to understand the motivation and provocation behind fans' love for and their active following and engagement of the sport.

1.1 Problem Statement

1.1.1 Declining Live Attendance at Football Stadiums

Stadium attendance by fans to watch football at the Premier Soccer League (hereafter PSL) matches, South Africa's domestic football league, is in crisis, as it ranks outside that of the top 250 soccer leagues worldwide (Transfsrmarkt, 2017). The PSL averages 6,621 seats filled per game accounting for only 25% of the stadium capacity (Transfsrmarkt, 2017). A detailed breakdown of the total and average football attendance at South African league football is presented in Table .1.

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Table 1.1: Premier Soccer League Attendance Data

Season	Total Attendance		Average Attendance	
06/07	1 566 353		7 300	
07/08	1 460 767	*-6,7%*	6 458	*-11,5%*
08/09	1 777 807	*21,7%*	7 452	*15,4%*
09/10	1 943 830	*9,3%*	8 099	*8,7%*
10/11	1 983 001	*2,0%*	8 321	*2,7%*
11/12	1 684 306	*-15,1%*	7 120	*-14,4%*
12/13	1 505 652	*-10,6%*	6 664	*-6,4%*
13/14	1 593 822	*5,9%*	6 648	*-0,2%*
14/15	1 534 225	*-3,7%*	6 623	*-0,4%*
15/16	1 382 512	*-9,9%*	6 621	*0,0%*

Source: http://www.transfermarkt.com/absapremiership/besucherzahlen/wettbewerb/SFA1/plus/?saison_id=2015

The data reveals that as starting point in 2006, South Africa already had a low average of 7,300 per game in comparison to average attendances of above 18,000 in European leagues and that of around 37,700 in German leagues as seen in Figure 1.1. Additionally, attendance at PSL league games declined by 9.9% over the past year with an overall decline of 45% since 2010.

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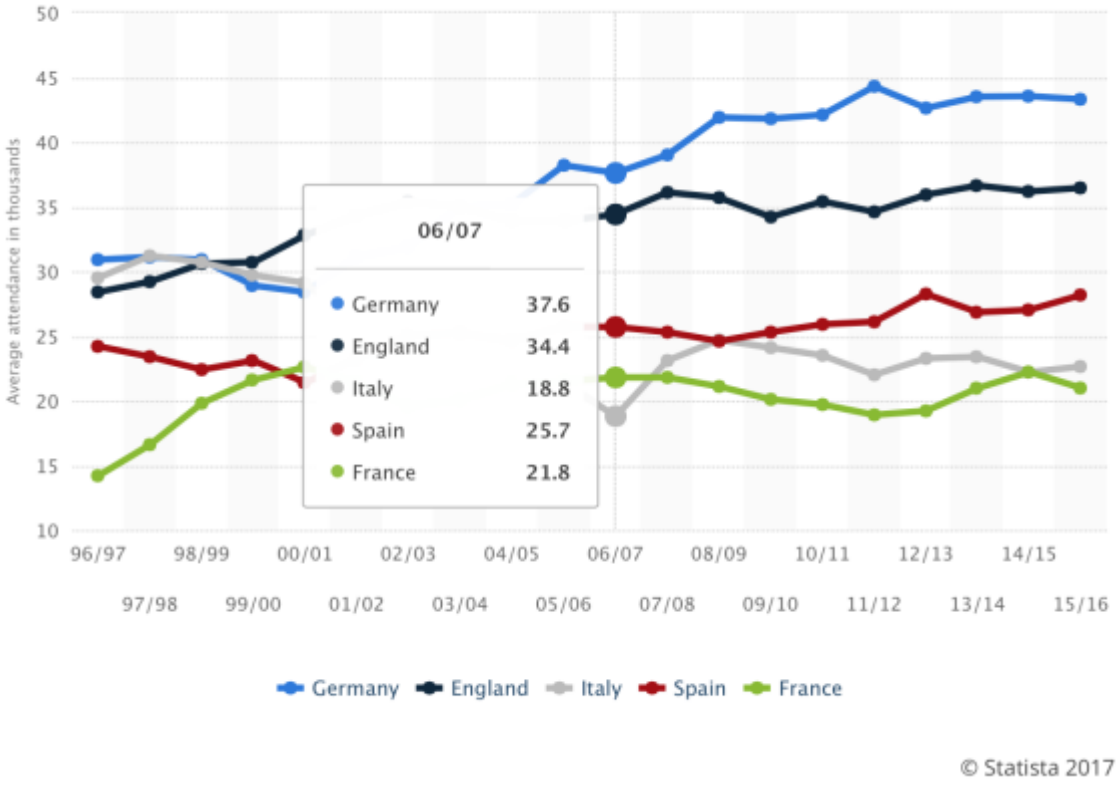

Figure 1.1*:* European Attendance Data

Source: https://www.statista.com/statistics/261213/european-soccer-leagues-average-attendance/

The period between 2008 and 2011 could be deemed as an anomaly and influenced by the South Africa's hosting of the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (hereafter FIFA) World Cup in 2010. The average attendance shows an upward trend around the period of the World Cup in 2010. South Africa was going through what can be called 'World Cup Fever', during which time the excitement and interest in the global spectacle created hype around the sport. Cornelissen, Bob and Swart (2011) identify that the sporting impact of mega-events such as the football world cup include a growth in interest in the sport, particularly fuelled by new facilities and a change in local sporting culture. In addition, Mitchell and Stewart (2015) noted that large sporting events made people feel happy and proud, further attracting them to the game. Post-2011, the hysteria diminished and the trend reverted to that of a steady decline in attendance figures. However, this anomaly highlights the potential that exists for football consumption through live match attendance in South Africa.

Poor attendance by fans at the stadiums in South Africa must be contextualised in terms of the popularity of the sport. South Africa ranks in the top fifteen in the world (66% of the population) in terms of interest in football and in the top three in the world (45% of the population) in terms of

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participation in football (Nielson Sports, 2016). Stander, de Beer and Stander (2016) reported that 54% of the entire adult population in South Africa actively consumes football through supporting a favourite professional team, following their progress, and investment of time and finances in football related products. South Africa also ranks as the leading African nation in terms of expenditure in sport through formal corporate sponsorships which in 2012 exceeded USD135 million (Stander & van Zyl, 2016). This far exceeds any other nation in Africa and is five times the value of second placed Egypt.

Undoubtedly, football is the country's premier sport in terms of popularity and evokes great emotion and passion amongst supporters and fans. Contextually this high interest ranking in football amongst the general population and a nation that claim to be great fans of football, begs the question as to why South Africans do not attend live matches at the stadiums to watch the local variant of the sport.

1.1.2 The economic impact of declining live attendance at soccer stadiums

Attendance by fans at stadiums is important for football teams as it is their main source of income (Allan & Roy, 2008; Kim & Trail, 2010; Leach & Szymanski, 2015). Income in this instance, includes direct gate revenues (payment for entering the stadium) as well as indirect match day concessions such as the sale of food, drinks and promotional clothing as well as parking fees at the stadium.

Attendance numbers also has a direct impact on the performance of the home team (Smith, & Groetzinger, 2010) as well as the perceived popularity of the teams amongst football fans. Poor performance and lack of popularity negatively affects the club's ability to gain and retain sponsors, another key source of revenue (Russel, Sneath, & Finney, 2007; Positivity Global, 2016).

Low attendance of fans at stadiums has resulted in many South African domestic football clubs being cash-strapped and having to be dependent on grants from the South African Football Association (hereafter SAFA) (Gleeson, 2016). This lack of financial capacity and independence results in teams being unable to acquire and retain talent on and off the pitch and hence further reducing their performance and popularity, resulting in a vicious never-ending cycle.

Football also contributes towards tourism and to general leisure sectors. The demand for sports tourism is applicable as many fans travel great distances (either within the country or to other countries) at personal expense to watch their favourite team compete. It is often combined with some form of tourist activity. Stander and van Zyl (2016) identified that sport also has and continues to provide meaningful experiences and social interactions to a large number of South Africans. Both

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factors are associated with increased popularity of the club and subsequently influences the income potential of the club.

It is evident that from an economic perspective, football significantly contributes, both directly and indirectly, to the Gross Domestic Product (hereafter GDP) of the country. The overall sustainability of the business is largely dependent on increased live attendances of the matches at the stadiums.

1.1.3 The impact of television on live attendance at soccer stadiums

There are some popular assumptions that, whilst rapid technological advances and television have played a significant role in the development and growth in sport (Baimbridge, Cameron, & Dawson, 1996; Zhang, Pease, & Smith, 1998), it may also have affected attendances at stadiums. Broadcasters are able to produce a high quality product as well as distribute the content around the world, making it appealing and more preferable to watch on television. The cumulative television audience of South African domestic football has risen by 23% over the 2015/2016 season, with a peak viewership of 4.5 million for a single match (PSL, 2016). Football matches featuring the country's top two teams in terms of supporter base, *Kaizer Chie*fs and *Orlando Pirates*, regularly feature amongst the top watched television programmes on both terrestrial (free-to-air) and pay television channels (BRCSA, 2017). The demand for television-based consumption of domestic football is also supported by the R1.5 billion paid by local pay-television producer, *Multichoice*, for the exclusive broadcast rights of PSL games (Botlhokwane, 2016). There appears to be a trend for South Africans fans to prefer watching the matches on television rather than live at the stadiums.

The disparity between attendance at stadiums and television audiences may be accounted for by the existence of the phenomenon of 'substitution' in the modes of consumption of football. This concept has been the focus of many studies. Early studies by Iso-Ahola (1986) on media substitution when the originally intended activity was not possible and reported that people's willingness to consider an alternate activity was most impacted upon by their perception of choice. The concept of media as a substitute was later applied to leisure activities in general as studied by Jeffres, Neuendorf and Atkin (2003). In their review on leisure activity and the impact on attendance, they found that whilst the media is a provider of large amounts of information relating to sport, the media consumption does not act as a substitute for leisure activities which included pastimes such as hobbies, live entertainment etc. In fact the review found that media is an enabler to growth in interest in sport rather that of a substitute. The theory was subsequently applied to sports specifically by Pritchard and Funk (2006), who focused on baseball fans in the United States, and reported some understanding of the different types of consumption volume and level of involvement by fans. There have been subsequent studies on other sports such as rugby (Baimbridge, Cameron,

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& Dawson, 1995; Carmichael, Millington, & Simmons, 1999), football (Kuypers, 1996; Baimbridge, Cameron, & Dawson, 1996; Garcia & Rodriguez, 2002; Forrest, Simmons, & Szymanski, 2004; Allan, 2004; Cox, 2012; Buraimo, 2008), basketball (Zhang & Smith, 1997) and hockey (Zhang, Pease, & Smith, 1998) with similar findings.

Larkin, Fink and Trail (2015) defined substitution as the choice made by sports consumer to consume via alternate sources, other that live attendance, whilst still deriving the same benefits. These benefits include, amongst others, an appreciation of quality of the game; skill mastery of the players; team aesthetics, identification and achievement (Trail & James, 2001). Sports leagues in Europe and North America, having recognised this phenomenon of substitution, have for many years imposed restrictions on the number of games as well as the times that broadcasting is allowed in order to manage this. In North America, blackouts are imposed when ticket sales are not adequate (Solberg & Mehus, 2014). However, in South Africa, there have not yet been any restrictions, on sport broadcasting and this may be a factor in the low attendances at stadiums

The ease of access to global sports in South Africa via television and online media, through substitution has not only resulted in a change in the method of consumption, but also a change in terms of the support and following of both local and international football clubs and leagues. This demand and potential of this segment of the market is evidenced by the fact that pay-television producer, *Multichoice*, paid R6 billion for the right to broadcast European Premier League (hereafter EPL) football matches in sub-Saharan Africa. This is four times the amount paid for the PSL broadcast rights (My Broadband, 2016). In 2014, a fan park initiative by EPL sponsors Barclays attracted 24,000 fans to watch live games on a big screen in Johannesburg (BBC Sport, 2014). This is four times the average attendance at local football matches (PSL, 2016). The success of the event has resulted in a second event being held in Cape Town in 2016 (Supersport, 2016). Anecdotal evidence indicates a large fan base of European clubs across Africa, choosing to congregate in pubs and bars to watch international games on television, whilst stadiums remain empty (Anderson, 2016). This preference for fans to support international teams has a direct impact on African football stars looking for opportunities in Europe to further their careers. Consequently, they take a large proportion of the domestic support and following with them. The ‘talent drain’ of African footballers to Europe further perpetuates the problem (Thibault, 2009). The substitution of support from local teams toward international football leagues and teams amongst South African fans may also have a direct impact on attendances at local stadiums.

Another negative impact of the growth in television broadcasting may be the spiralling inequality in terms of revenue. The income from television broadcast rights is unequally shared with bias toward the already successful clubs, resulting in further disparity (Baimbridge *et al*., 1996). As previously

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discussed, this results in these clubs being better positioned over less successful clubs, in their ongoing ability to attract better talent that is more expensive and therefore remain popular and attract larger attendances at stadiums.

1.2 State of Current Published Research

The problem of low attendance has been acknowledged by sports management professionals and academics alike and there has been much research into the subject. However, there are some criticisms about the published studies and highlights the need for new studies with different approaches to the problem. There is a large time gap within the published studies, which seems to overlook the rapidly evolving modern sporting environment. The rapid growth in technology and associated media access opportunities and relationships needs to be considered in order to determine whether these patterns are consistent over time (Jeffres, Neuendorf, & Atkin, 2003). There is also a large geographical spread of the currently available literature in this area. The bulk of the research has focused on professional and semi-professional sports in the United States and Europe, which are economically developed areas with established sporting organisations. Studies outside of these areas, and in particular in developing or emerging economies are lacking. Allan and Roy (2008) attribute this to an absence of knowledgeable researchers in these locations. Finally, existing research looks at the subject from an economic perspective in that the substitution of attendance through media is in fact a financially beneficial phenomenon.

Research into the impact of television broadcasting on live attendance at sports has also grown over the last three to four decades. Initial studies in the United States were prompted by a United States court ruling allowing the deregulation of broadcasting of college football (Kaempfer & Pacey, 1986; Bennet & Fizel, 1989). These studies provided mixed results on the effect of deregulation and were inconclusive as to whether live broadcasting had any effect on attendance. It is assumed that media promotes sports and at times even promotes attendance at live events. However, the various studies on this assumption are inconsistent in their findings. Furthermore, these studies looked primarily at the motivation behind the decision to attend or not to attend and whether access to media escalates the involvement in sport. Studies have indicated that the financial losses through low match-day attendance income may be offset by income from television broadcasting rights. However, the overall impact on the support and fan base of the club and long-term viability is largely ignored. Finally, much of the research has focused on direct substitution i.e. consuming the same product via a different medium and not on substitution from local to international clubs.

Despite all the valuable research and relevant findings, no solutions have yet been identified to change the status quo in South Africa. Part of this lack of action may be attributed to insufficient

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understanding of the football fans in South Africa, their behaviours and motivation behind participation and consumption in the sport, therefore the value of this research is critically important.

1.3 Proposed research goals

The proposed research is intended to add to the business context by providing further insights into the phenomenon of declining stadium attendances in South Africa. The aim is to investigate the underlying reasons for football fans making a conscious decision of consumption of football via television as a substitute to live attendance. Furthermore, the study aims to identify whether the phenomenon of substitution promotes a shift of support away from domestic football toward international football.

It is envisaged that this research will provide sport marketers and practitioners with new understandings about the behaviour of South African football fans with respect to the ways that they consume football, and the underlying reasons behind football fans' decisions. This will in turn enable sports marketers to better position South African football to grow both in terms of the local fan base and support as well as economically and competitively as a sport.

1.4 Summary

Sport has shown to play a significant role commercially, economically and socially in the context of the larger nation. Football, being undoubtedly the most popular sport in South Africa should thus be given attention in terms of its potential contribution to the country and the people of South Africa. A key indicator of the health of the fandom of a football club is the attendance at live games. Attendance is a source of income, both directly and indirectly thorough advertising and sponsorships. The declining trend of attendance in South Africa warrants concern for practitioners.

This research paper aims to identify if the phenomenon of live football broadcasting, both local and international plays a role in this trend, as well as to identify if the underlying motivation of fans' plays a role in the decision of the mode of consumption. This will be useful to practitioners in sport marketing insofar as it provides insights into the key component i.e. the fan. The study adds to existing academic literature by furthering the research into the impact of media on live attendance with a specific focus on South Africa, as well as by attempting to link motivation theory to modes of consumption.

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1.5 Layout of the dissertation document

The research paper began with an introduction, which highlighted the gap that this research would fill, which will be followed by an in-depth literature overview in Chapter 2, highlighting the areas of study that have been covered, the limitations and shortcomings of these studies as well as the areas that have not been covered. The literature review aims to provide a theoretical background to the field of research, as well as an in depth analysis of the outcomes of the research. The literature review serves to guide the research hypotheses of this research study, which are provided in Chapter 3.

The proposed research methodology is outlined in Chapter 4. This includes an indication of the type of study to be conducted as well as the methodology of data collection and analysis.

The data is provided in Chapter 5. This section provides a descriptive analysis of the data as well as statistical analyses in line with the hypotheses.

Chapter 6 serves to discuss the findings of the data gathering and analyses providing insights into the findings as well as the implications to business and academia.

The report concludes with Chapter 7. Additional information and resources are provided in the appendices at the end of the document.

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Chapter 2

Theory and Literature Review

2.1 Consumers of Sport

Recently, the demand for sport has attracted a great deal of attention by sports marketing and economists (Leach & Szymanski, 2015). In professional sports, the main product is the game itself and the competition between the teams involved. Sutton and Perret (1992) stated, “the core product is defined as the game itself and whatever takes place on the field of play including the manner in which the contest is conducted, the style and strategy employed and the interpretation of understood laws, rules, regulations and historical precedents”. South Africa ranks in the top fifteen in the world (66% of the population) in terms of interest in football and in the top three in the world (45% of the population) in terms of participation in football (Nielson Sports, 2016). Stander, de Beer and Stander (2016) reported that 54% of the entire adult population in South Africa actively consumes football through supporting a favourite professional team, following their progress, and investment of time and finances in football related products. Football is clearly the country’s premier sport and there is a demand for this sport amongst the general population.

Mason (1999) reported that there are four distinct groups that are the purchasers of the league product namely; firstly, the fans, secondly, television and other media, thirdly, communities that construct facilities and support local clubs and finally corporations that interact with the leagues and teams. The fan underpins the sports products, who according to Mason (1999) are driven by the uncertainty of the outcome. Each of the above groups is interested in the league product for very different reason. Problems may arise with regards the marketing of the product especially when each party develops marketing strategies that conflict with those of other parties. Sports leagues, corporate partners, and the networks that televise the events work together to ensure that their independent needs are met, and that sport continues to maintain its popularity and demand in people's lives throughout the world (Borland & Macdonald, 2003).

The fan is at the centre of the network, being the driver of direct demand, whilst the other purchasers are a form of derived demand. Derived demand includes all forms of marketing by large corporations and governments associated with the sport. It includes television advertising and associated programming such as analysis shows, branding and brand associations, merchandising, stadium marketing and sponsorships and associated events and economic growth opportunities for example global sporting events and tourism opportunities (Borland & Macdonald, 2003). The fan

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consumes directly via live attendance and paying for tickets, concessions, parking, other game day related purchases and pay-per-view live consumption such as television. It is the experience at the stadium that creates loyalty which in turns builds commitment within the fan. The game day experience is also targeted at non-fans who seek to have the same experience.

Insights into the nature and determinants of demand by fans are one of the important issues in the analysis of sports marketing. Relevant stakeholders can make important decision with knowledge of the current demand for sports and the factors that motivate this demand.

2.2 Determinants of Sport Consumption

The ultimate product in professional sport is the sporting contest with the essence of demand being 'fan interest' (Borland & Macdonald, 2003). Fans are attracted to sports to meet certain internal desires. The list of potential motivational factors for fans is quite extensive, with a myriad of psychological factors coming in to play.

Trail and James (2001) are widely cited for their work in the development of the Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (hereafter MSSC) to understand the consumption motivation of fans. The scale looked beyond just simply the demand for sports of previously published scales. The scale identified nine constructs that influence the motivation behind consumption namely: Achievement, Knowledge, Aesthetics, Drama, Escape, Family, Physical attraction, Physical Skills and Socialising (Trail & James, 2001). The scale fails to distinguish between the fan and the observer and is limited in terms of being influenced by short-term variables such as the current economic situation and ticket pricing and other socio-demographic factors such as population, promotions and residual preferences like accommodation availability (McDonald, Milne, & Hong, 2002). The scale does however provide insights into the underlying psychology of the fan and the internal influences behind fan behaviour.

The Motivations of the Sport Consumer (hereafter MSC) model of McDonald et al. (2002) also looked beyond the demand focus of previous studies to identify motivation behind consumer behaviour. The model utilises themes from Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (Maslow, 1943) to identify internal fulfilment desires. This model identified the following motivational constructs namely: Risk taking, Stress reduction, Aggression, Affiliation, Social facilitation, Self-esteem, Competition, Achievement, Skill mastery, Aesthetics, Value development and Self-actualisation. Risk taking refers to the individual's natural need to create a certain level of stress and sport creates a socially acceptable manner to achieve this. Stress reduction occurs because sport creates a distraction from the stressful issues of daily life. Affiliation, self-esteem, social facilitation, self-

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actualisation, value development and achievement all link to a sense of belonging to both a team and a group of supporter. Pleasure is derived from this sense of belonging and the success of the team in their endeavours. The group of constructs including Aesthetics, Skill mastery and Competition relate to the technical aspects of the sport and the admiration of the athletes and their performances. An interesting inclusion is the factor of Aggression, which is defined as the “infliction of aversive stimuli on one person by another”. Aggression in some ways, creates drama and passion, and contributes to the entertainment value of sport (James & Ross, 2004). In addition to the twelve constructs above, this model goes a step further than others in that it also includes participation in sport through the thirteenth construct of Physical fitness. The study also identified differences in underlying motivation of fans of different sports. Social facilitation, esteem and competition were found to have no significant differences across sporting preferences whilst golf, a sport that is played individually, is linked with motivational factors such as aesthetics and skill mastery.

In their review on the typologies of sports consumers and the evolution in the understanding of sports consumers and fans, Stewart, Smith and Nicholson (2003) reported that fans are multidimensional and that a multitude of social and psychological factors affect the ways in which fans consume sport. The authors cluster these in terms of underlying motivations, emotional attachment, economic and financial attachment, Identity, loyalty, connective focus, overt experiences and frequency of attendance at games, as summarised in Table .2.1.

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Table 2.1: Multi-Dimensional Approach to Sports Consumption

Cluster Type	Differentiating Behaviours
Underlying Motivations	• Escape • Esteem • Social interaction
Emotional Attachment	• Obsessive attachment and strong commitment • Moderate attachment and conditional commitment • Slight attachment and fragile commitment
Economic Attachment	• High value, strong financial commitment • Moderate value, intermediate financial commitment • Low value, weak financial commitment
Identity	• Team used to confirm self-concept • Team used to confirm civic and community pride • Team used to confirm social or cultural identity
Loyalty	• Loyalty through game attendance • Loyalty through displaying team colours • Loyalty through chatting and conversation
Connective Focus	• Team is primary connection • Sport or league is primary connection • Player is primary connection
Overt Experiences	• Rational: strategic analysis • Symbolic: gestures, ceremonies, rituals • Social: play and integration
Attendance At Games	• Frequent • Moderate • Low

Source: Stewart et al., 2003

In seeking to better segment fans, Wann, Grieve, Zapalac and Pease (2008) developed the Sport Fan Motivation Scales (hereafter SFMS) which identifies eight motives to be common among fans

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namely: Escape, Economics, Esteem (excitement), Self-esteem, Group affiliation, Entertainment, Family, and Aesthetics. Escape reflects a departure from the individual's current life leading to a sense of change, a movement away from monotony and temporary elimination of pain and suffering. In a South African context with high levels of poverty and inequality, escape could be deemed a major contributor behind the demand for sport. Economic motives, in general, refer to the opportunity to benefit financially through sports betting. This form of motivation may be seen as detached from sport fandom as the sport is merely a means to this activity. Esteem (excitement) and entertainment can be linked because these motives reveal enjoyment and affinity to the sport as a form of stimulation. The level of quality of domestic football played, the atmosphere within the stadiums and the build-up to sporting events influence excitement and entertainment desires and ultimately stadium attendance. Aesthetics is linked to the above motivating factors in that internal satisfaction is derived when the sport is a showcase of skill and talent and is visually appealing. Group affiliation and family, may be linked together as they reflect the social aspect of either watching directly, or being involved in discussions and conversations around sport. They promote inclusivity and human interaction which have been identified as one of the main drivers behind attendance at sporting events. The authors conclude that Eustress, Self-esteem, Group affiliation, Entertainment, and Family motivations were significantly predominant motivational factors in relation to team sports. It is recommended that the marketing of football, for example, should focus on these motives in order to increase consumption and attendance.

Expanding on the work of Wann et al. (2008), Funk, Filo, Beaton, & Pritchard (2009) and other researchers, synthesized the motivational factors to Socialization, Performance, Excitement, Esteem, and Diversion (hereafter SPEED). Socialisation refers to the perceived opportunity to use attendance at sports events for the purposes of interacting with family, friends and other spectators. The motivation is to pursue sports attendance and experiences in order to create or enhance human interactions and relationships. Grace, skill and artistry of athletic movements describe the desire for performance and the associated beauty, excellence and creativity of the performance. Excitement includes emotional involvement of drama and uncertainty of outcome. It can be linked with intellectual stimulation, mental action and exploration. The desire for a particular outcome and the inherent uncertainty can be stimulating. Vicarious achievement and a heightened sense of accomplishment provide esteem when one's team wins and satisfies the need for personal competency. Esteem creates an internal sense of belonging and mastery, albeit through a collective medium. Escape or diversion is a means to 'get away' from daily hassles, routines and problems. It represents a means of mental well-being and is an attempt to remove oneself from the aspects that create stress in one's life. The SPEED factors were found to be significant identifiers of fan motivation. An interesting phenomenon was that performance, excitement and esteem correlated

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significantly with past attendance behaviour. Socialisation and diversion were found not to be significant predictors of attendance intention. This can be attributed to the fact that these motives could be achieved through means other than sport attendance. This study provided a frugal instrument for measuring motivation behind game attendance, and showed that a simpler and more concise method of data collection could be reliably used. The benefit of the SPEED model of motivation is its simplicity in that it utilises a two-question per construct survey. This allows surveys to be kept short, improving response rate and accuracy of data (Galesic & Bosnjak, 2009).

Team involvement and the level of this involvement also have an impact on attendance behaviour. Funk, Ridinger and Moorman (2004) in their study on Involvement included attraction, self-expression, centrality to lifestyle and risk as significant factors. The authors reported that all involvement factors excluding centrality to lifestyle could be related to attendance behaviour. The fewer games that one attended, the less likely one was to consider the games exciting, entertaining or being a wholesome environment.

The consumer theory model has also been utilised to understand consumption from an economic view. Borland et al.(2003) identified five categories of determinants of demand through application of the consumer-theory model namely: Consumer preference, Economic price, Quality of viewing, Sporting contest and Supply capacity. The authors identify that consumer preferences with respect to consumer theory can be more complex than standard goods and services. Aspects such as loyalty and bandwagon effects may be stronger in sports attendance than other forms of purchases. Economic price includes opportunity costs of attendance and costs of alternates or substitutes, which affect demand. The social aspect of sports may override economic costs, as sports are often a means of socialisation especially for the unemployed. Sporting contest and the related uncertainty of the outcome of the event is a distinguishing factor in relation to the other economic decisions that consumers make. In most other economic decisions the consumer wishes to have certainty over the quality and contents of a purchase, however, in sports a good contest with uncertainty of the outcome is a key driver behind the consumption motivation (Buraimo & Simmons, 2015). This was reported further by Buraimo and Simmons (2015) that the quality of viewing, the sport stars on show and the level of entertainment play a far greater role in attendance motivation. Supply capacity is affected by the time and place at which the event must occur, the availability of tickets and stadium capacity. The ability of the fans to attend sporting events is influenced by these factors. Historically attendance has been seen as the representation for demand; however, the authors conclude that fans will consume sport in the manner that most suitably fits all the above mentioned categories.

Funk, Ridinger and Moorman (2004) identified two major problems in our current understanding in the area of sport consumption namely: lack of a comprehensive list of consumer motives and a lack

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of understanding of the relationship between motivation and behaviour. The numerous studies mentioned previously, whilst having overlap in the design, are unique in many aspects. Comparison of studies and having full confidence in the comprehensiveness of the listed consumer motivational factors is often difficult. There also needs to be more research on the link between motivational factors and some form of behavioural action such as purchasing of merchandise or attending matches is one that will enable the full usage of knowledge of fans motives.

From this review of the literature it is evident that there are many different consumers of sports and that the fan, as the main consumer, is pivotal to an understanding of the demand for sport. Numerous factors influence the demand for sports amongst consumers. Published reports agree that apart from the fulfilment of personal desires, motivating factors include the family and social interaction associated with the sport and the economic cost are important drivers of demand. The review also reveals that there are many tools that can be utilised to identify these motivational determinants, however a simple tool with two-question per construct, targeted to fans directly, is cost effective and more likely to produce the desired information. Hence, the methodological approach adopted by this study.

2.3 Modes of Sport Consumption

There are essentially two current modes of consumption of sports namely: live attendance at stadiums and watching the sport on television or other media (Jeffres, Neuendorf, & Atkin, 2003). As discussed in the previous chapter live attendance at games by fans is critical to the sustained demand for sport and is motivated by the fulfilment of personal desires and family and social interaction. Rapid technological advances has recently played a significant role in the further development and growth in sport and in television as a mode of consumption (Bainbridge, Cameron, & Dawson, 1996; Zhang, Pease, & Smith, 1998). Jeffres, Neuendorf, & Atkin (2003) postulated that media could be used as an escalator tool to provide information and provoke interest in and ultimately attendance at sporting events. The escalator concept states that an individual's involvement with sport grows with increased involvement. An introductory point to this involvement can be via media such as television, which eventually grows to attendance as the preferred form of consumption (Dwyer, Mudrick, Lecrom, & Drayer, 2015).

This concept is grounded in the hierarchy of effects theory, which is an advertising and marketing tool that has gone through many developments and iterations over the years, contends that consumers pass through five stages i.e. Awareness, Knowledge, Liking, Preference and Purchase. In essence, the theory states that there is a progression of psychological attachment and commitment in the purchasing process (Barry, 1987). In his paper of the historical development of

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the hierarchy of effects model, Barry (1987) explains the process and progression in which initially, there is no awareness and desire to change. Awareness is created through some form of marketing, advertising or word of mouth. Subsequently knowledge is gained through basic information at first and if the individual is intrigued, further knowledge is often sought. Based on the availability of information and the knowledge gained, there is either a favourable attitude towards the product or a dislike. The degree of favour over other products could create a preference. This is where product differentiation is important. Finally there is action whereby the buying decision is made and acted upon. In a sporting context, Funk and James (2001) developed the Psychological Continuum Model (hereafter PCM) which is loosely based on the hierarchy of effects. The PCM model is described in Table 2.1, below. The model identifies the psychological characteristics at different stages of connection to a sport or a sporting team. Awareness and attraction promote extrinsic characteristics. Awareness is the acknowledgement of the existence of the sport, and attraction is acknowledgement of support and a favoured team. Attachment, the first stage of intrinsic connection, represents strength in association both physically and emotionally. Allegiance is the consistent and durable behaviour aligned to both sport and team.

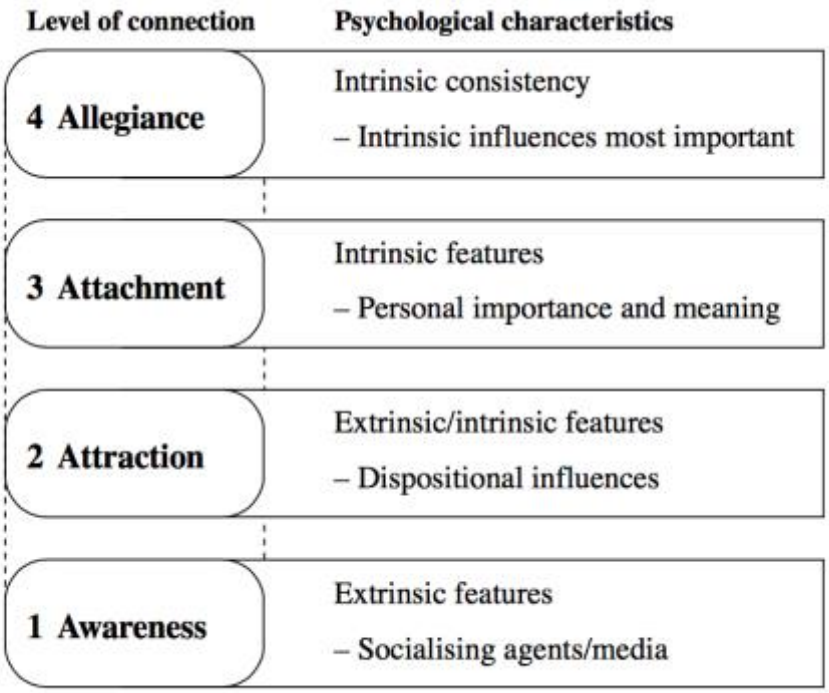

Figure 2.1: The Psychological Continuum Model (PCM)

Source: Funk & James, 2001

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The criticism of this theory, from a sports consumption view, is that it assumes that attendance is always preceded by television and media, and that the two are not comparable forms of consumption. Pritchard & Funk (2006) proposed an opposing view in that television and media can serve as a substitute to attendance by providing an alternate means of consumption. Pritchard and Funk (2006) analysed the consumer from the perspective of mode and volume of consumption via a framework called the dual-route framework (hereafter DRF). The study identified that there are different types of consumers namely; light, media dominant, event-dominant and heavy. They also reported that there are two relationships between media use and attendance namely: symbiosis and substitution. Figure 2.2 below shows the modes of consumption plotted against the volume of consumption with the relationship trajectories. The model states that each consumer can be classified based on two dimensions, namely their attendance at stadiums to watch and support their team and the use of media to follow and support their team.

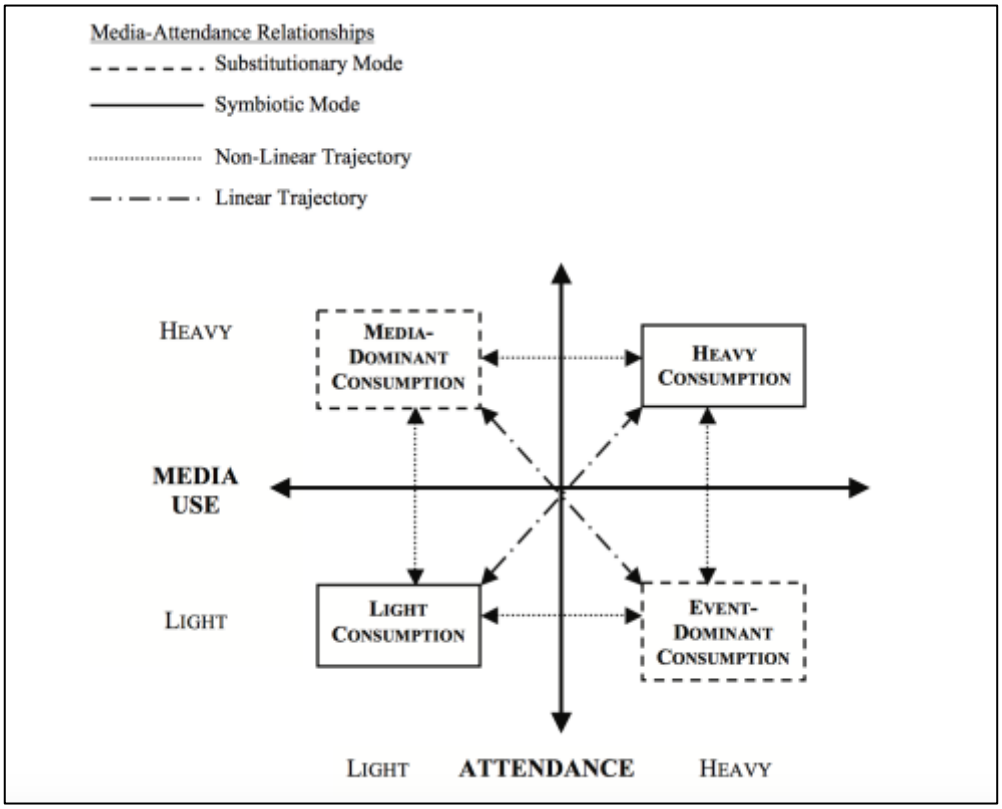

Figure 2.2: Modes and Trajectories of Consumption

Source: Pritchard & Funk, 2006

Symbiotic modes are those that are heavy or light on both types of consumption and they do not diminish from the other. Movement between these consumption types is linear as the individual is likely to increase consumption in both types simultaneously. Substitutionary modes are those that

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have an imbalance in the type of preferred and observed consumption. One may either be heavy in media or attendance but not both. The shift between the two types may also be linear but the volume of consumption remains the same. Media and live attendance do not always work together and the one may be substituted in place of the other. Pritchard and Funk (2006) go on to identify further that that the motives behind the different types and volumes of consumption will vary in terms of the experience that the fan desires from the sports product. The motivation and desire of fans attributed to these choices can be a form of differentiating fans (James & Ross, 2004) with respect to their consumption preferences and behaviour.

Building on the Pritchard and Funk (2006) study, Larkin, Fink, and Trail (2015) examined the consumer behaviour in terms of motivators to home viewing and the constraints to live attendance. The authors identified motivators to home viewing to be comfort, safety, ease, technological attributes, access to fantasy sports and enhancement. These motivators are specific to home viewing and exclude other forms of public viewing such as sports clubs, bars or fan parks and thus the other identified motivators of consumption such as of atmosphere and socialisation are not applicable. The authors noted that the applicability of the study is contingent on the presence of such creature comforts at home and where these comforts are not present, as is the case for large parts of South African population, the study has some limitations. The constraints to live attendance include location, costs; no interest from significant others, parking, weather, lack of success and company to attend. Larkin et al. (2015) concluded that the motivators to consume from home via television play a larger role in fans decision than the constraints to live attendance. A further limitation is that the study assumes that there is always a choice available by the consumer to attend sport or to watch at home. This is not always the case where access to transport and public infrastructure is limited, which directly affects this choice.

2.4 Substitution: Television Viewing Over Live Attendance

Stadium attendance by fans to watch football at the PSL matches, South Africa's domestic football league, ranks outside that of the top 250 soccer leagues worldwide (Transfsrmarkt, 2017). The PSL averages 6,621 seats filled per game accounting for only 25% of the stadium capacity (Transfsrmarkt, 2017). As a starting point in 2006, South Africa already had a low average of 7,300 per game in comparison to European leagues with average attendances of above 18,000 and 37,700 in the German leagues. Furthermore, attendance at league games declined by 9.9% over the past year with an overall decline of 45% since 2010.

The poor attendance by fans at the stadiums in South Africa must be contextualised in terms of the popularity of the sport. South Africa ranks in the top fifteen in the world (66% of the population) in

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terms of interest in football and in the top three in the world (45% of the population) in terms of participation in football (Nielson Sports, 2016). Stander, de Beer and Stander (2016) reported that 54% of the entire adult population in South Africa actively consumes football through supporting a favourite professional team, following their progress, and investment of time and finances in football related products. South Africa also ranks as the leading African nation in terms of expenditure in sport through formal corporate sponsorships which in 2012 exceeded USD135 million (Stander & van Zyl, 2016). This far exceeds any other nation in Africa and is five times the value of second placed Egypt. Undoubtedly, football is the country's premier sport in terms of popularity and evokes great emotion and passion amongst supporters and fans. In the context of this high ranking of interest in football amongst the general population and a nation that claim to be great fans of football, live attendance at stadiums is declining.

By contrast, the cumulative television audience of South African domestic football has risen by 23% over the 2015/2016 season, with a peak viewership of 4.5 million for a single match (PSL, 2016). Football matches featuring the country's top two teams in terms of supporter base, *Kaizer Chiefs* and *Orlando Pirates*, regularly feature amongst the top watched television programs on both terrestrial (free-to-air) and pay television channels (BRCSA, 2017). The demand for television-based consumption of domestic football is also supported by the R1.5 billion paid by local pay-television producer, *Multichoice*, for the exclusive broadcast rights of PSL games (Botlhokwane, 2016). This disparity between attendance at stadiums and television audiences could be partly attributed to the existence of the previously discussed phenomenon of 'substitution' in the modes of consumption of sports. Substitution refers to the choice made by the consumer to consume via alternate sources, other that live attendance, whilst still deriving the same benefits (Larkin, Fink, & Trail, 2015).

Early notable studies were conducted on a variety of sports and the impact of television on attendance at stadia. Kaempfer and Pacey (1986) in their study found on United States college football found that television served to increase awareness of the sport and a resultant increase in stadium attendance. In contrast, Fizel and Bennet (1989) in an empirical study analysing stadia attendance and television audience data, found that television served as a substitute form of consumption with resultant lower stadium attendances. The emergence of satellite and cable television prompted further studies in the mid 1990's, particularly in Europe. Baimbridge, Cameron, and Dawson (1995) reported that televising live rugby league games negatively impacted the attendance figures. Carmichael, Millington and Simmons (1999) taking an economic approach to the phenomenon, found that the impact on attendance was significantly negative on games broadcast outside of the regular Sunday afternoon fixtures, yet were negligible on the regular Sunday fixtures. Zhang and Smith (1997) in their study on United States basketball (National

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Basketball Association), similarly concluded that television negatively impacted attendance at home games, yet positively impacted attendances at away games. The concept of substitution of attendance at stadia through consumption by television was becoming evident to sports leagues. Some leagues reacted by placing restrictions on the number of games allowed to be broadcast live as it appeared to result in overexposure leading to reduced interest by fans and attendance at stadiums (Baimbridge, Cameron, & Dawson, 1996; Simmons & Buraimo, 2005).

The focus of research increasingly shifted to stadium attendance and substitution on football as a sport. This is not surprising due to the global reach of the sport as well as the financial growth of football in the last few decades. Early research into television substitution was inconclusive. Baimbridge *et al.* (1996) found a significant negative impact whilst Kuypers (1996) indicated that television had little to no impact on attendance. Both studies highlighted that the financial implications were negligible as the income through broadcast rights offsets the loss due to gate receipts. Kuypers (1996) introduced the idea of opportunity costs in that the opportunity cost of watching football on television is low. This applies to pay-television channels, since there are monthly subscriptions etc., which have sunk costs. This opportunity costs serve as a key driver behind substitution intention. Forrest, Simmons and Szymanski (2004) whilst reporting no relationship between attendance and broadcasting highlight certain limitations in the general field of study. They posit that cost of broadcasting is the reason that games have to be scheduled across the weekend to maximise viewership. If no broadcasting were included, all games would be played on a Saturday, which would question certain outcomes of previous studies. Forrest, Simmons and Szymanski (2004); Buraimo (2008) and Buraimo, Paramio and Campos (2010) followed similar research methodologies and including a multi-country element to their research contradict previous studies and reported a significant negative impact of television broadcasting on attendance. A significant factor was the atmosphere and excitement created by television. Whilst most of the studies have been on major leagues, a single team study in the premier league by Allan (2004) also provided similar result showing a significantly negative impact of television viewing on stadium attendance. A review by Cox (2012) of some of the published studies is summarised in Table 2.2, below:

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Table 2.2: Magnitude of the effect of broadcasting in existing studies

Source: Cox, 2012

Effect Of Broadcasting	Author(S)	Data Set
15.8% to 21.4%	Forrest and Simmons (2006)	1999–2000 to 2001–2002
31% to 46%	Garcia and Rodriguez (2002)	1992–1993 to 1995–1996 (La Liga)
4.8%	Buraimo *et al.* (2009)	1997–1998 to 2003–2004
up to 31.9%	Allan and Roy (2008)	2002–2003 (Scottish Premier League)
4.1% to 17.7%	Buraimo (2008)	1993–1994
7.6%	Buraimo and Simmons (2006)	1997–1998 to 2003–2004
9.1% to 12.9%	Forrest *et al.* (2004)	1992–1993 to 1997–1998
15.6%	Baimbridge *et al.*(1996)	1993–1994
7.75%	Allan (2004)	1995–1996 (Aston Villa only)

Cox (2012) concluded that the results are consistent over time and that television broadcasting served as a substitute to match attendance.

In an attempt to understand the motivating factors associated with substitution, Zhang and Smith (1997) added a qualitative approach to their research. They reported a difference in the motivation behind consumption modes of different types of fans. Fans that are motivated simply by the contest of sport, tend to substitute via television whenever possible. Television offered enhanced viewing as well as the access to other forms of media whilst at home. Fans that wish to experience the event of sport tend to use media to complement their attendance consumption as a source of information about leisure activities or options. This notion of different groups or types of fans was supported by Mongeon and Winfree (2012) in a later study that also focused on National Basketball Association (hereafter NBA). Zhang, Pease, and Smith (1998) subsequently conducted a study into

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minor league hockey in the United States. They reported that more frequent sport consumers choose to substitute more often. Fans that follow the games and the sport in general more often, attend more games and tend to substitute if the opportunity was available. Those that attend games less often, attend more for the social aspect and tend not to substitute. Following on the approach of Zhang and his colleagues other researchers also looked into some of the motivating factors influencing modes of consumption. Jeffres et al. (2003) reported conspicuous display and self-expression/self-affirmation as part of the difference in consumption motivation. Buraimo and Simmons (2009) reported that fans inside the stadium are less motivated by outcome uncertainty and prefer a one sided game, as opposed to television audiences who prefer a close contest. Allan and Roy (2008) reported differences between the motivation of pay-at-the-gate supporters and season ticket holders. The authors found that there is a distinct difference between season ticket holders and pay-at-the-gate spectators in their sensitivity to match-day characteristics. This is in part, due to the fact that the season tickets are paid for upfront hence there is an economic incentive to attend. Pritchard and Funk (2006), in classifying consumers based on volume and type of consumption, stated that heavy consumers are more likely motivated by the performance and athletic aspects than casual consumers are. Light consumers are more likely motivated by social aspects as excitement. A study by Dawson and Downward (2009) into the relationship between participation, spectatorship and media coverage in sport has identified the subtle differences in outcomes of different modes of consumption. Whilst watching sport on television and live attendance both increase participation in sport, television viewing in general decreases attendance (Dawson & Downward, 2009). This subtle nuance means that there is a balancing act between consumption by television having a positive impact on attendance and a negative impact on participation in general.

One of the major limitations of the published literature is that the focus has largely been on European, and to a small extent American, sports. Although, Garcia and Rodriguez (2002) did report that attendance is significantly negatively affected by television broadcasting in Spanish football as well. A criticism of some of the studies mentioned above relate to the time scale adopted. By only analysing data from a single season on league competition, the results are limited and could be affected by other economic effects. Another criticism is the capacity constraint issue. Major English league teams' attendance demand is constrained by capacity of stadiums (Simmons & Forrest, 2005). A decrease in attendance demand may not necessarily see a decrease in ticket sales, as current demand exceeds current supply. Trail, Robinson and Kim (2008) taking into account structural constraints to attendance found that television broadcasting played little to no role in affecting attendance. In this case, it should be noted that the level of broadcasting was fairly low. Another issue to consider is the problem of 'endogeneity'. The concept that attendance and

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television audience are symbiotic to some extent reveals that one cannot simply conclude causality. It is logical to assume that popular games will have large attendances, and at the same time will be selected by broadcasters for live television.

There is a growing body of literature on the impact of televised sport on gate attendances but there does not seem to be a consensus with respect to their findings. The factors that might be associated with substitution by television as a mode of consumption are many and diverse. Attendance by fans at stadiums is important for football teams as it is their main source of income (Allan & Roy, 2008; Kim & Trail, 2010; Leach & Szymanski, 2015). Income in this instance includes direct gate revenues (payment for entering the stadium) as well as indirect match day concessions such as the sale of food, drinks and promotional clothing as well as parking fees at the stadium. Attendance numbers also has an impact on the performance of the home team (Smith, & Groetzinger, 2010) as well as the perceived popularity of the teams amongst football fans. Poor performance and lack of popularity negatively affects the club's ability to gain and retain sponsors, another key source of revenue (Russel, Sneath, & Finney, 2007; Positivity Global, 2016). As a direct result of substitution of the mode of consumption to that of television, the financial losses through low match-day attendance income is generally offset by income from television broadcasting rights. However, a negative impact of the growth in television broadcasting may be the spiralling inequality in terms of revenue. The income from television broadcast rights is unequally shared with bias toward popular and successful clubs, resulting in further disparity (Bainbridge *et al*., 1996), with the popular clubs being better positioned in their ongoing ability to attract better, more expensive talent and to remain popular and attract larger attendances at stadiums.

Despite the extensive research done in this field, the problem of low attendance still persists and the findings of the various studies still leaves no clear understanding of the problem or solutions.

2.5 Substitution: Fan support from Local Teams to International Teams

Access to global sports via television and online media substitution has not only resulted in a change in the mode of consumption, but also a change in terms of the support and following of local football clubs to that of football clubs of International leagues, further accentuating the economic woes of local clubs.

This form of substitution of support and viewership was first identified by Forrest, Simmons and Szymanski (2004). They reported that the broadcasting of games between the popular non-local teams, especially in the middle of the week, was found to have a significant impact on the live attendance of games of less popular local teams. Solberg and Mehus (2014) in their study analysing

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the impact of television broadcasting on attendance in Norway, also reported that football fans in smaller communities prefer the consumption of league games of popular international teams via television as an alternative to attendance of live games between local league teams. Fans of international clubs that are most featured on television tend to attend the least number of live local games. This study is one of few that were done outside of the more popular leagues in England and Spain. A similar trend is evidenced in South Africa. pay-television producer, *Multichoice*, paid R6 billion for the right to broadcast EPL football matches in sub-Saharan Africa. This is four times the amount paid for the PSL broadcast rights (My Broadband, 2016). In 2014, a fan park initiative by EPL sponsors Barclays attracted 24,000 fans to watch live international games on a big screen in Johannesburg (BBC Sport, 2014). Research points towards a large fan base of European clubs across Africa, with supporters choosing to congregate in pubs and bars to watch international games on television, whilst stadiums remain empty (Anderson, 2016). Sports leagues in Europe and North America, who have recognised this phenomenon of substitution, have for many years imposed restrictions on the number of games that are allowed to be broadcast as well as the times that broadcasting is allowed in order to manage this. In North America, blackouts are imposed when ticket sales are not adequate (Solberg & Mehus, 2014). However, in South Africa, there are, as yet, no restrictions on sport broadcasting and this may be a factor in the low attendances at stadiums

Published literature proposes possible reasons, which might account for this phenomenon. Communities tend to identify with a team that originates from that community, which in turn leads to support of that team and consumption of their games. The support by the community of their local team takes preference over all other forms of sport consumption (Tainsky & Jasielec, 2014). This could take the form of direct consumption (live attendance) of the team's games or consumption of rival team games because it may have an impact on overall competition and their local team's outcomes. This identification and loyalty to local teams is the biggest driver of support.

In addition, product differentiation is a factor that impacts the choice of consumption (Hansen & Gauthier, 1989). Superior quality of individuals and the sporting contest play a role in differentiating teams that are more successful and hence in attracting fans. Compared to local teams, international teams tend to exhibit a higher quality of game; skill mastery of the players; team aesthetics and achievement (Tainsky & McEvoy, 2011). International teams are made up of the best multinational players and exhibit great skills and who have a positive impact in promoting the teams to foreign markets. The marketing of international clubs has also been a factor is the shift toward international team support. Larger clubs with multinational squads are far more effective at advertising and marketing and have been effective in growing support in overseas markets (Solberg & Mehus, 2014). Success is another key factor in growing and retaining support. When local teams fail to satisfy the fans aspirations and enjoyment of the sport, even loyal supporters are inclined to shift

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their support to international teams. A study by Richelieu and Desbordes (2009) on the global expansion of football teams identified that a clear and concise strategy is required for international expansion. The larger European teams have embarked on global branding strategies that aim to grow support globally. Strategies such as pairing with other teams internationally, purchase of international start players and building a unique emotional experience for fans have been successful strategies to grow global awareness and support.

Tainsky and McEvoy (2011) also reported that in geographical locations that did not have local teams and patriotic or loyalty aspect of home team support was absent, the community tended to watch broadcasted games involving teams from International leagues over that of local games. In domestic football in South Africa, teams do not own stadiums, but rather have to rent them. South Africa has a myriad of world class stadiums built for the FIFA World cup in 2010 and there is pressure to utilise these stadiums optimally. The owners of the stadiums pay teams to host their matches at these matches outside of their traditional geographic area with the condition that gate revenues are shared by the teams (Matshe, 2012). The result is that teams no longer have a symbolic home and there is a lack of loyal local community support and fan identification. The length of time that a team is present in a particular area has shown to have a positive impact on the levels of support and attendance at stadiums (Hansen & Gauthier, 1989). Consequently, consumers of football are forced to watch the games on television. When there is competition on television to watch local games versus games involving teams from other International Leagues, the latter tends to prevail because of the reasons of quality, discussed previously.

2.6 Conclusion

This review of the literature highlights the fact that despite the growing demand for sports consumption, there is a decline in live attendances at stadiums. Fans are the ultimate consumers of sport and there is consensus that apart from the fulfilment of individuals personal desires, motivating factors for live attendance include the family and social interaction and cost. Constraints to live attendance include location, costs; no interest from significant others, parking, weather, lack of success and no one to attend with. Many tools nave been utilised to identify these motivational determinants, however a simple tool with two-question per construct, targeted to fans directly, is cost effective and more likely to produce the desired information.

The advance in technology has resulted in a shift in the mode of consumption of sport to that of television viewing. Studies suggest that the increasing television viewership can be seen as either being symbiotic and increasing the popularity and demand for live attendances at stadiums or substitutionary and resulting in lower attendances. This field of study is not saturated and published

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studies have proved inconclusive with different time, location and type of sport included in these studies serving as confounders in the interpretation of these results. The motivators to consume from home via television play a larger role than the constraints to live attendance at stadiums. Access to global sports via television has not only resulted in a change in the method of consumption, but also a shift in terms of the support and following of local football clubs to that of football clubs of International leagues.

This review provides valuable insight into the knowledge, as well as the gaps in and our understanding of sports consumption. There is a paucity of studies into the local South African fans. It exposes a research opportunity to focus on the fan directly, using a simple data collecting tool and to not only look at the motivational factors and constraints for live attendance but to expand the research into understanding the drivers for substitution as a mode of consumption. Hence, the need for this study and the methodological approach of using a simple questionnaire directed to fans. The study aims to add to the existing knowledge on sports consumption and to provide further insights into the motivational factors behind consumption of local football and the phenomenon of substitution.

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Chapter 3

Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses will be tested:

Hypothesis 1

The SPEED motivation variables are positively associated to the consumption behaviour of football fans.

Hypothesis 2

There is a difference between the consumption motivational constructs (SPEED) of fans who prefer consumption through stadium attendance and fans that prefer consumption through television.

Hypothesis 3

There is a difference in the preference of consumption of international football over local football between fans who prefer consumption through stadium attendance and those who prefer watching on television.

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Chapter 4

Research Methodology and Design

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methodology and processes that were adopted for this research. The fundamental objective was to gather and analyse data in order to test the hypotheses defined in Chapter 3. The hypotheses were derived from the constructs of sports attendance, substitution with television, motivation and constraints behind fans' consumption behaviour and the impact of substitution on consumption. The process that was adopted in the methodology was in line with that proposed by Saunders and Lewis (2012) whereby the metaphor of the research onion was utilised to contextualise and describe the research process. Thus, this chapter will cover the research philosophy, research approach, unit of analysis, population and sampling techniques, the measurement instruments and lastly the data collection methodology. Finally, time horizons and limitations of the methodology are commented on.

4.2 Research Philosophy

The research philosophy describes the manner in which new knowledge or information will be developed and how that development will align with the development of current and future research. Saunders and Lewis (2012) describe research philosophy as relating to "the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge in relation to research". The current study has undertaken a positivist approach to quantitative research. This is a framework that combines a deductive approach together with precise measurement of data to aid in understanding and predicting human behaviour (Struwig & Stead, 2013).

4.3 Research Approach

The aim of the proposed research was to link theory to the behaviour of football spectators in South Africa with relation to the mode of consumption of football. Statistics have shown that there is a decrease (or at least stagnation) in football attendance and an increase in football consumption through television, both locally and internationally (BRCSA, 2017; PSL, 2016). The research aimed to understand if the changing consumption methods could be attributed to substitution theory. Thus, the approach can be described as deductive whereby existing theory was used to describe an observed phenomenon.

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A pragmatic approach to the research was taken by allowing the methodology to be guided by the research hypotheses (Kothari, 2005; Saunders & Lewis, 2012). The purpose of the study was to identify patterns and relationships between the variables under consideration, which lends itself to a non-experimental, quantitative analysis (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). Quantitative research is a form of conclusive research involving a large representative sample with structured data collection processes (Struwig & Stead, 2013). By undertaking a correlational study, one may also be able to include predictions of future behaviour (Christensen, Johnson, & Turner, 2015). The limitation with this type of study is that it's allowed correlation, but not causation to be inferred.

The research methodology followed the approach taken by Solberg and Mehus (2014) whereby spectators have been identified and surveyed regarding their perceptions and views on the subject. The method differs from other forms of research on the subject of substitution and symbiosis, which focuses on empirical data, collected relating to attendance statistics and television audiences. The individual responses and type of questionnaire creates a cross-sectional study giving a snapshot of the constructs. This method may be influenced by recent events such as a big win for one's favourite club or an unpleasant experience at a recent game attended. This method was selected, in part, due to the lack of available attendance data from clubs and stadiums in South Africa.

The study does not advance itself to an alternate, quantitative methodology. Qualitative studies are best used when seeking further insights and attempting to develop theory or relationships at a micro-level (Kelly, 2008). Adopting a qualitative approach would require too long a period to obtain the volume of interviews that would be required to enable the results to be generalizable.

4.4 Research Strategy

Different approaches to research have been taken in literature to understand the phenomenon of attendance and substitution. Where data has been available, researches have taken the approach to use secondary data such as attendance figures at matches, whether the match was broadcast or not as well as other information relating to constraints such as weather and ticket prices. In the current context, data is not readily available, with specific attention made to attendances. Since many clubs have no standing home ground, there is no control of data (Matshe, 2012).

4.5 Unit of Analysis

In quantitative research, the individual is the focus of the empirical study (Struwig & Stead, 2013). The unit of analysis in the study was the opinion of the individual football consumer. This unit is appropriate since the study aims to identify the behaviours, perceptions and motivation of individuals relating to sport consumption behaviours. Football consumers were to be identified by

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indicating their interest in the sport. The degree to which interest was present within the individual will be assessed by the volume of participation in football. Individual responses were then aggregated to form overall measures for the sample.

4.6 Population of interest

The study population included all individuals who identify themselves as fans of football, currently residing in South Africa. Participation could take the form of consumption through watching games, following team progress, purchase of merchandise etc. Individuals did not need to identify as fans or supporters of any particular teams to be considered participants in the study. The sample size of the total population was difficult to determine, as there was no existing mechanism or data to identify all participants in football. Whilst there is no definitive number, Nielson Sports (2016) quotes the interest in football to be 55% of the total population, equating to 308 million individuals. Out of these, it is not known which individuals consider themselves fans, and which consider themselves as merely observers.

4.7 Sampling and Data Collection

Being a fan of football is not a conspicuous trait that is made public knowledge. Instead, it is certain behaviours and actions that identify one as a fan. These include attendance at matches and match screenings, being part of supporters clubs and forums and purchasing and displaying of football club merchandise.

The phenomenon of hidden or inaccessible population is common. In particular, Dusek, Yurova, & Ruppel (2015) cite issues such as time and relevance as issues impacting on responses. Their case study, which investigated the use of social media for data collection, found that a snowball technique and the use of social media were useful tools when time and costs are constraining factors in research. In order to achieve the intended outcomes successfully, the data collection process should clearly stipulate the research intentions. This aids in the response rate as individuals were found sympathetic to the academic nature of the research. Further to this, their study also found that validation of the individual's membership within the targeted population is crucial. As one has no control over who accesses the survey in a snowball approach, there are risks that the unintended respondents could undermine the validity of data. Lastly their study found that careful consideration needed to be given in understanding if the correct population was accessible at all via social media as their study, which investigated aspects in the hospitality industry in Russia, found that certain geographic areas has no presence of social media at all.

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The first sampling method that was adopted in this study was to make contact with domestic football clubs. This was done via telephone and email, as well as various social media platforms such as *Twitter* and *Facebook*. The basic details of the research were explained and a request was made to clubs to assist with distribution of a survey questionnaire. Unfortunately, the response rate from football clubs was zero and no clubs were willing to participate or assist in any way. This in itself highlighted the lack of urgency or desire by football clubs to gain insights into the fans consumption behaviours. As a result, three alternate sampling methods were adopted in order to collect data.

Firstly, contact was made with personal acquaintances with request to firstly complete the survey and secondly for further distribution to known football fans, thus taking a snowball sampling element. Saunders and Lewis (2012) describe this technique as 'a type of non-probability sampling in which, after the first sample member, subsequent members are identified by earlier sample members'. By engaging with known football supporters and fans, researchers were able to reach the first respondents. It was then hoped they would pass the survey onto their contacts to add further participants in the study. Two conditions were applied to the survey in terms of who should respond: Firstly, being a resident in South Africa: The study was focussed on the South African domestic football league and hence the decision was made to segment the population. The reason behind this was that only residents in South Africa have a realistic opportunity to attend live matches regularly. Secondly, self- identification as a football fan. This distinction was made to ensure that focus of the research remained on fans of the game and not mere spectators. Anecdotal evidence identified that many individuals such as spouses and families of fans attended many games, though had no interest in the sport itself. Whilst this is itself an interesting phenomenon it fell outside the scope of this research.

The second sampling method was the distribution of the survey via various electronic channels such as email and social media. Establishing the contact through personalised e-mail and providing the questionnaire in an online format combines the advantages of e-mail and web-based surveys and optimizes the use of on-line data collection (Ilieva, Baron , & Healey, 2001). South Africa currently has 28,580,290 internet users, representing 52% of the population. Users are defined as individuals who have access on any form of device (Internet Live Stats, 2016). *Twitter* has become a widely used tool by football clubs to communicate and engage with fans and supporters. A total of 4,990,711 are followers of PSL teams in South Africa (Fanbase Analytics, 2017), which could also prove to be a useful avenue for access to football participants. The risk to validity of the electronic mode of data collection is the uncertainty as to the access to electronic communication by the population, hence an unrepresentative data set, as social media provided a suitable method of identifying sports fans through elements such as supporters fan pages and forums. As with the

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first method, individuals were encouraged to share the survey and respondents were limited to South African residents and football fans.

The first and second methods of data collection had the advantage of allowing for a larger geographic spread of respondents. As time and opportunity to travel were general limitations of the research, these methodologies were employed in an attempt to counter these limitations.

The third sampling method was through personal interviews conducted outside of a football stadium on game day using hard copy versions of the survey. Individuals were questioned if they were attending the game and if they were willing to participate in the survey. Sampling was targeted and convenience based on the researcher's perception of approachability of the fans. The method was limited as the local stadium management prohibited the collection of data within the stadium precinct. The game in question was the *Carling Black Label Cup* held in August in Johannesburg. The cup is a once off event held between Soweto rivals *Orlando Pirates* and *Kaizer Chiefs*. A match between these two rivals is considered a derby, has the feature of having the highest attendance of any domestic games reaching as high as 90,000 spectators. Further to this, these two teams have the largest support bases in South Africa both in terms of number of fans and geographic spread.

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The three survey points and methods are summarised in Table 4.1. below.

Table 4.1: Sampling Points And Methods

Test	Sample point	Sample method	Instrument	Limitations
1	Known fans	Judgment basis leading to snowball sampling	Online self-administered survey distributed via email and social media	Variance and demographics may be skewed due to network effect and similarities within networks
2	Social media supporters clubs and forums	Targeted sampling of all respondents within the fan page.	Online self-administered survey	Unknown response bias due to it being unknown how many people are active on the social media platforms.
3	Attendees at carling black label cup	Convenience method focus on personal perception of approachability of individuals.	Personally administered survey questionnaire.	One of the largest games on the domestic schedule that is often sold out. Unrepresentative attendance figures when compared to domestic league.

4.8 Measurement Instrument

The selected instrument for this research was a self-administered questionnaire. This was selected in order to allow for ease of data capture as well as to remove any bias that may be included in a questionnaire administered by the researchers. The survey was broken down into five sections namely qualification questions, demographics, consumption motivations, consumption behaviour, perceptions, and constraints to attendance. It should be noted that the sections were not explicitly labelled as such on the questionnaire. This was done to prevent any bias or preconceived perceptions influencing the respondents. The online survey tool *Survey Monkey* was utilised for the data capturing where possible. When electronic modes could not be used, a printout of the survey was used and the data was later captured on *Survey Monkey* manually by the researches. The various sections are described further below:

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Part One: Qualification Questions

1. I live in South Africa (Yes/No)
2. I am a fan of football/soccer (Yes/No)

Qualification questions are required to ensure that respondents fall within the desired population. If the answer to either question is no, the respondent will not continue any further.

Part Two: Demographics

1. Location (Province)
2. Location (City/Town)
3. Gender
4. Age
5. Race
6. Employment Status
7. Income Range

Demographics are important to understand for numerous reasons. In a South African context, where poverty, inequality and spatial divides are a norm, choices behind consumption modes are not always a choice for individuals. Many individuals could not afford transport, ticket and associated attendance costs. Lack of infrastructure also means that even if costs were not a constraint, practicality of logistics may prevent attendance. Demographics are also required in order to determine if the sample is representative of the population in question.

Part Three: Consumption Motivation Factors

1. Socialisation
2. Performance
3. Excitement
4. Esteem
5. Diversion

The motivation factors have been adopted by Funk et al.(2009). The validity of the constructs and the two-question scale has been shown to be positive and hence has been simply replicated here. The SPEED model was selected due to its parsimony and simplicity in that it utilises a two-question per factor model. This minimises the length of the survey and aids is ensuring that surveys are completed in full and that respondents provide accurate data. These motives have been proven

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accurate constructs, which explain consumer behaviour in relation to attendance at sporting events (Funk et al., 2009).

Part Four: Consumption Behaviour

1. Name of favourite local team
2. Number of games watched live at the stadium in the past three months
3. Number of games watched live on television in the past three months
4. Rating of preference for attendance over television consumption

The fourth area of interest was in terms of the consumer preferences concerning modes of consumption. Thus, it is to be identified if the consumer prefers consuming football via live attendance or via television. In order to ensure that accurate data is gathered, consumers have been asked to make a choice behind which form of consumption in preferred i.e. live attendance or watching through television. In order to gain further insights, this will be supplemented by data on behaviour about the number of games watched live over a three-month period, and the mode of consumption. The three-month period has been selected to ensure that consumers are able to recall the information and not have to guess or estimate.

The full survey is presented in detail in Appendix A.

4.9 Data Gathering Process

Electronic surveys were to be developed via online survey software. This methodology has been selected due to low cost and fast response rate. It also allowed for geographically wide distribution. Electronic data also has the advantage of simple transfer to analysis software. A disadvantage of the approach is that the actual response rate will be unknown.

Secondly, personal interviews at live matches were conducted. Where safety and security of researcher's personal electronic devices could be guaranteed, respondents were encouraged to complete the survey electronically. When this was not the case, questions were verbally conveyed and responses recorded manually on a printout of the survey.

4.10 Analysis approach

To understand the relationship between the motivational profiles of fans and the consumption behaviours, the variables of the SPEED motivation scale developed by Funk et al. (2009) was utilised. The five constructs were given scores based on the average of the scores of the two questions per variable. Spearman correlation coefficients were calculated for each variable with the

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total consumption, television consumption and attendance consumption variables respectively. Spearman's correlation was selected due to its robustness and appropriateness when data many not be normally distributed (Bishara & Hittner, 2012; Mukaka, 2012).

In order to determine if differences existed between two groups i.e. those who prefer consumption through attendance and those who prefer consumption through television, independent samples t-test were performed. The two tests that were performed included the difference in motivation and the difference in preference of international over local football. The independent samples t-test was selected due to the seeking of differences in means between two distinct groups.

4.11 Reliability and Validity of Research

4.11.1 Reliability

In the survey design, an existing set of questions was used that was developed by Funk et al. (2009). The authors proved the reliability of the scale and the number of questions used per construct. Administration of the test was done, as far as possible, impersonally with no influence by the researchers to prevent any administration or motivation bias. It should be noted that certain questions such as the number of games watched over the last six months relied on the respondents' memory, which may affect the accuracy of data. No control was taken over the environment and conditions under which the respondents completed the survey, although no time restrictions were stipulated nor did any questions force the respondents to answer should they not know how to answer.

In order to determine the reliability of the data in this particular study, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were determined for the consumption motivation factors tested. This test is useful for determining internal consistency of variables when a Likert scale is used and time to complete the survey is not constrained (Struwig & Stead, 2013).

A pilot study was conducted to ascertain the weaknesses, if any, of the survey design. Kothari (2005) identifies the need for a pilot study as an attempt to understand the validity and appropriateness of the survey as applied to the research question. The pilot study should also be a learning process for the process of data gathering to ensure that the process is reliable and repeatable. In this particular study, the questions and validity used have been proven by the original authors Funk et al. (2009). The pilot study consisted of only five participants (because of time constraints) who provided feedback on the structure of the questionnaire although a larger pilot study would have improved reliability.

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4.11.2 Validity

Validity refers to the truth and trustworthiness of the findings in both the construction of the questionnaire as well as the statistical hypothesis testing. External validity refers to the ability to generalise the findings to other populations, settings, conditions, treatments or measurement devices. The current study focussed on football fans in South Africa. Two qualification questions were asked at the start of the questionnaire, which ensures that only those that fit within the population are included in the study. The questions could be modified to apply to other populations. One shortcoming could be the explanation of what is a “fan”, although it was initially envisaged that self-identification, as a fan was sufficient.

In order to ensure internal validity, the length of the questionnaire was kept to a minimum to prevent respondent ‘drop out’. The cross sectional nature of the study prevented communication between participants and maturation. In addition, the random sampling method prevented bias in terms of respondents’ selection. It should be noted that the study was conducted in-between league seasons and hence memory of previous seasons as well as the performance of favourite clubs may have an impact on the responses. This could not be avoided.

Face validity was ensured by explaining up-front the purpose of the study i.e. the motivation behind consumption and the various modes of consumption. Content validity was tested through Cronbach’s alpha tests as well as with existing, previously validated survey questions (Funk et al., 2009).

4.12 Ethical Considerations

The questionnaire had the following features to ensure ethical data collection. Respondents were made aware of the purposes of the survey and the research as a whole. The respondents were assured of confidentiality and no identifying questions were asked. All respondents were made aware the participation as voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time. Respondents were asked if they understood the purposes of the research, providing informed consent. The questionnaire was submitted to the Gordon Institute of Business Science (GIBS) ethical board that approved the questionnaire to be used for the study. The details of the questionnaire and the informed consent are provided in Appendix A.

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4.13 Limitations of the Methodology

The lack of understanding of the size of the overall population creates uncertainty as to the validity of the study, in terms of generalising the results. There would be no way of determining what proportion of the population has provided input into the study.

The method of data gathering limits the validity of the final data set as it may exclude individuals with no access to electronic communication channels i.e. email and social media. Mainly using social media websites to post the questionnaire may also be seen as a biased sample towards affinity towards media usage. Although attempt was made to mitigate this effect through personal interviews at stadiums, the time limitation meant that personally rendered questionnaire only form a small proportion of the responses.

The study was conducted as a quantitative cross-sectional study. The cross-sectional nature of the research means that it will provide insight at a snapshot in time. This may limit the ongoing validity of the study. In contrast, this type of study has the advantage of cutting through age and generational gaps, in terms of the data and will eliminate the effect of age-cohorts (Christensen, Johnson, & Turner, 2015). This is particularly applicable in this field of study due to the rapid changes in technology, and hence consumer behaviour over time.

The survey questionnaire allows for limited room for discovery and insights as specific questions do not allow respondents to elaborate on responses.

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Chapter 5

Results

5.1 Introduction

The following section includes the presentation of data collected as described in Chapter 4. The data is described to give insight into the nature of the sample and the generalisability thereof. The reliability of the measurement instrument is then assessed and lastly statistical analysis of data is presented in line with the hypotheses presented in Chapter 3 previously.

5.2 Sample Description

296 responses were obtained in the data collection period. Of these, 42 responses were omitted due to undesired responses on the qualification questions. four responses were omitted due to lack of acknowledgement of informed consent. five responses were obtained and excluded from individuals not currently residing in South Africa. A further 33 responses were excluded due to individuals lack of self-identification as a football fan. The result was a sample of 254 useful responses. Due to the nature of the sampling methods, it was not possible to determine the true response rate.

Of the useful responses, 83% were males (n=210) (Table 5.1 below). The gender demographics of this study population is not representative of the country's population in general. South Africa has a gender makeup of 49% male and 51% female. However, previous studies by Stander and van Zyl (2016) and Stander et al. (2016) have both produced samples of male predominance similar to this study. This suggests a male dominance in the makeup of the football fans in South Africa.

Table 5.1: Sample Description by Gender

Gender	N	%
Male	210	83
Female	44	17

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Approximately half (44%; n=112) of the respondents were between the age group of 25 and 34 years, followed by 35 to 44 year age group (29%; n=74) and 45 to 54 year age group (12%; n=29) as indicated in Table 5.2, below. It is expected that these age groups would be the primary consumers of football due to interest and financial access to consume and particularly attend football matches.

Table 5.2: Sample Description by Age

Age	N	%
Under 18 years old	3	1
18-24 years old	20	8
25-34 years old	112	44
35-44 years old	74	29
45-54 years old	29	12
55 and older	16	6

The respondents were 57% Black, 29% Indian, 9% White, 4% of other race (Table 5.3 below). The racial make-up of the respondents is skewed with a disproportionately high Indian content. The snowball sampling method of original respondents referring to known contacts and acquaintances could have resulted in this skewing.

Table 5.3: Sample Description by Race

Race	N	%
Black	146	58
Coloured	8	3
Indian	74	29
White	23	9
Other	3	1

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The majority of respondents reside in the Gauteng province (92%; n=234) as indicated in Table 5.4, Although electronic methods were used to share the survey questionnaire in an attempt to get a geographical spread, this was unsuccessful as most of the respondents were from the province where this study was conducted.

Table 5.4: Sample Description by Location

Location	n	%
Gauteng	234	92
Kwa-Zulu Natal	5	2
Limpopo	6	2
Mpumalanga	2	1
North West	3	1
Western Cape	4	2

The majority (77%; n=195) of the respondents reported a monthly household income of above R20, 000 (Table 5.5 below). This segment of the population is able to afford both pay television as well as attendance at matches. This result would eliminate cost as a factor with respect to constraints to attendance and consumption of football matches.

Table 5.5: Sample Description by Income

Income	N	%
More than R20 000	195	77
R11 000-R19 999	31	12
R8 000-R10 999	6	2
R5 000-R7 999	7	3
R2 500-R4 999	4	2
R1 400-R2 499	3	1
R800-R1 399	7	3
UP TO R700	1	0

The demographics of the sample population may result in a limitation of the validity of the study, as it may not be representative of the general population.

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The most successful source of data (45%) was the social media platform and in particular *Facebook* posts (Figure 5.1), which was the main focus in the method of this study. Snowball sampling methods took the form of instant messaging and email requests and yielded 38% of respondents. Primary data collection, which included approaching individuals at stadiums and in general public spaces to complete the survey, accounted for the remaining 17% of responses.

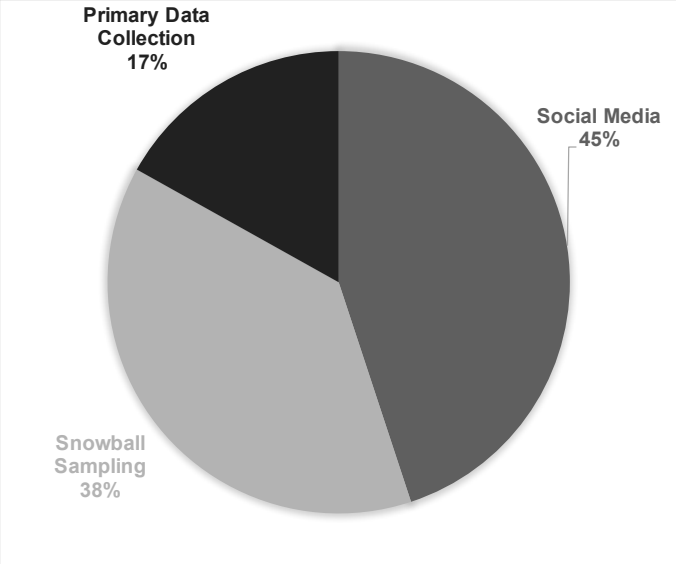

Figure 5.1: Sources of Data

5.3 Description of the Data

5.3.1 Consumption Behaviour

Modes of consumption was measured using four variables; firstly, consumption of local football through attendance, secondly, consumption of local football through television, thirdly, consumption of international football through attendance and finally, consumption of international football through television.

The data was collected as numerical data with individuals indicating the number of matches consumed in the various modes. Due to the large range (0-130 matches consumed), the data was then stratified as described in Table 5.6 below, allowing for a more meaningful analysis. It also caters, to some degree, for the impact of individuals estimating the number of games consumed when the exact number was not known or recalled. This is still a limitation of the findings as the categorisation does not completely eliminate the impact of estimation.

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Table 5.6: Consumption Behaviour Categorisation

Category	Number of Matches Consumed
1	5 or less
2	6-10
3	11-15
4	16-20
5	more than 20

Analysis of the consumption behaviour, using descriptive statistics (mean, medians, modes, and standard deviation) was calculated on the coded data (Table 5.7). Consumption of international games through television had the largest mean at 3.15 (SD=0.72) (indicative of 10 -15 games consumed), followed by consumption of local games through television at a mean of 2.08 (SD=1.55) (indicative of 6 - 10 games consumed). The mean score of consumption by attendance of local games and consumption by attendance of international games was 1.17 (SD=0.61) and 1.12 (SD=1.64) (indicative of 5 or less games consumed) respectively. The median score of all categories was 1 (5 games or less consumed), except for consumption by television of international games which was 3 (11-15 games consumed). The mode for consumption by television of international games was equal to 5 (indicating that the largest proportion of respondents had consumed more than 20 such games in the last six months).

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Table 5 7: Consumption Behaviour Descriptive Statistics

Description of Data	Consumption of Local Football by Attendance	Consumption of Local Football by Television	Consumption of International Football by Attendance	Consumption of International Football by Television
Mean	1,17	2,08	1,12	3,15
Median	1	1	1	3
Mode	1	1	1	5
Standard Deviation	0,72	1,55	0,61	1,64
Kurtosis	19,79	-0,59	29,63	-1,64
Skewness	4,50	1,06	5,47	-0,09
Count	254	254	254	254

The standard deviations for the attendance were low. This is due to the large proportion of respondents at the lower end of the scale (5 or less games consumed). This is further highlighted in the skewness coefficients of 4.50 and 5.47 for local attendance and international attendance respectively. The standard deviations for television were found to be high indicating a much larger spread of responses across the scale. The value of the standard deviation for local and international television consumption were 1.55 and 1.64 respectively. Considering that this is a five-point scale, the deviation is up to 30% of the entire scale indicating that there is no strong trend evident.

Tests for normality were conducted through statistical tests (Table 5.8) as well as graphical means and shown as histograms (Figure 5.2). The Shapiro-Wilks test was used as the sample size was less than 2000 (Pallant, 2007). The data could not be classified to be normally distributed in any of

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the four cases ($p<0.05$). This is significant as it has an impact on the type of statistical tests that can be utilised (Saunders & Lewis, 2012).

Table 5.8: Test for Normality - Attendance Behaviour

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	statistic	df	sig. (p)	statistic	df	sig. (p)
Local Attendance	.524	254	.000	.254	254	.000
Local Television	.354	254	.000	.677	254	.000
International Attendance	.533	254	.000	.190	254	.000
International Television	.229	254	.000	.816	254	.000

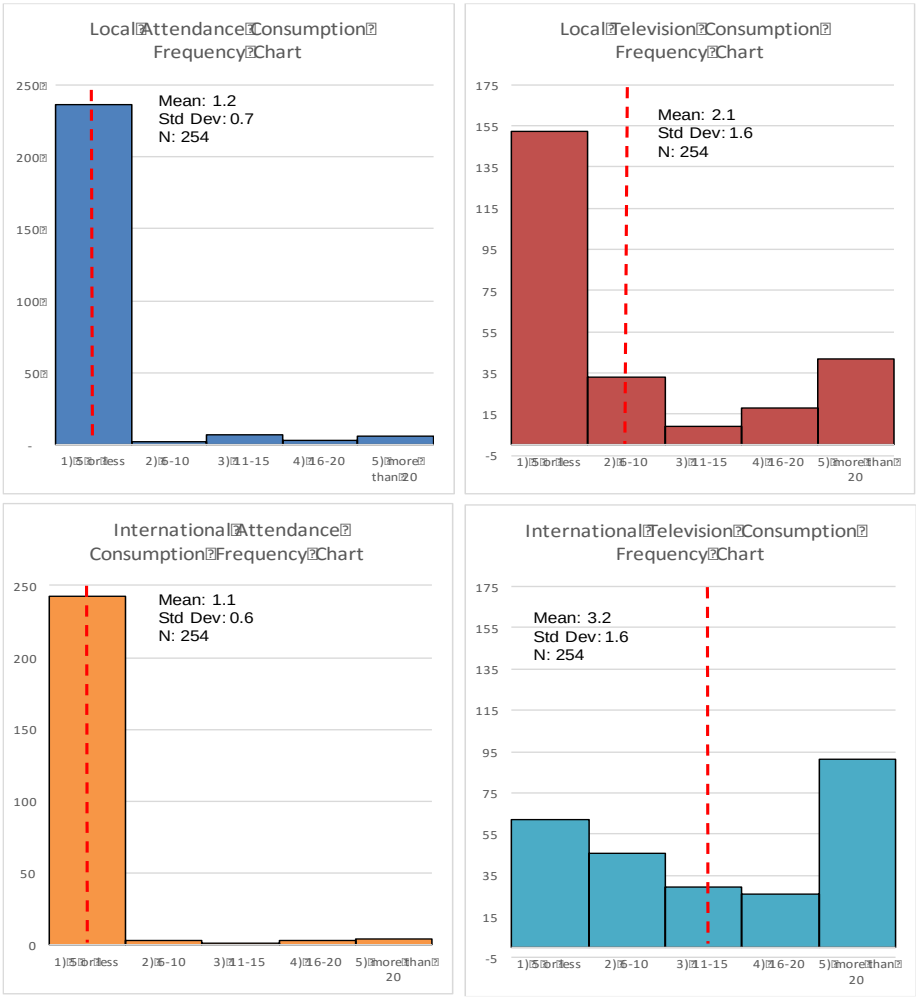

Figure 5.2: Histograms of Consumption Behaviour

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The study sample was further grouped in accordance with the respondents' stated preferred mode of consumption i.e. consumption by attendance and consumption by television. Figure 5.3 details the frequency of actual consumption behaviour (consumption by attendance and consumption by television) for each of the groups.

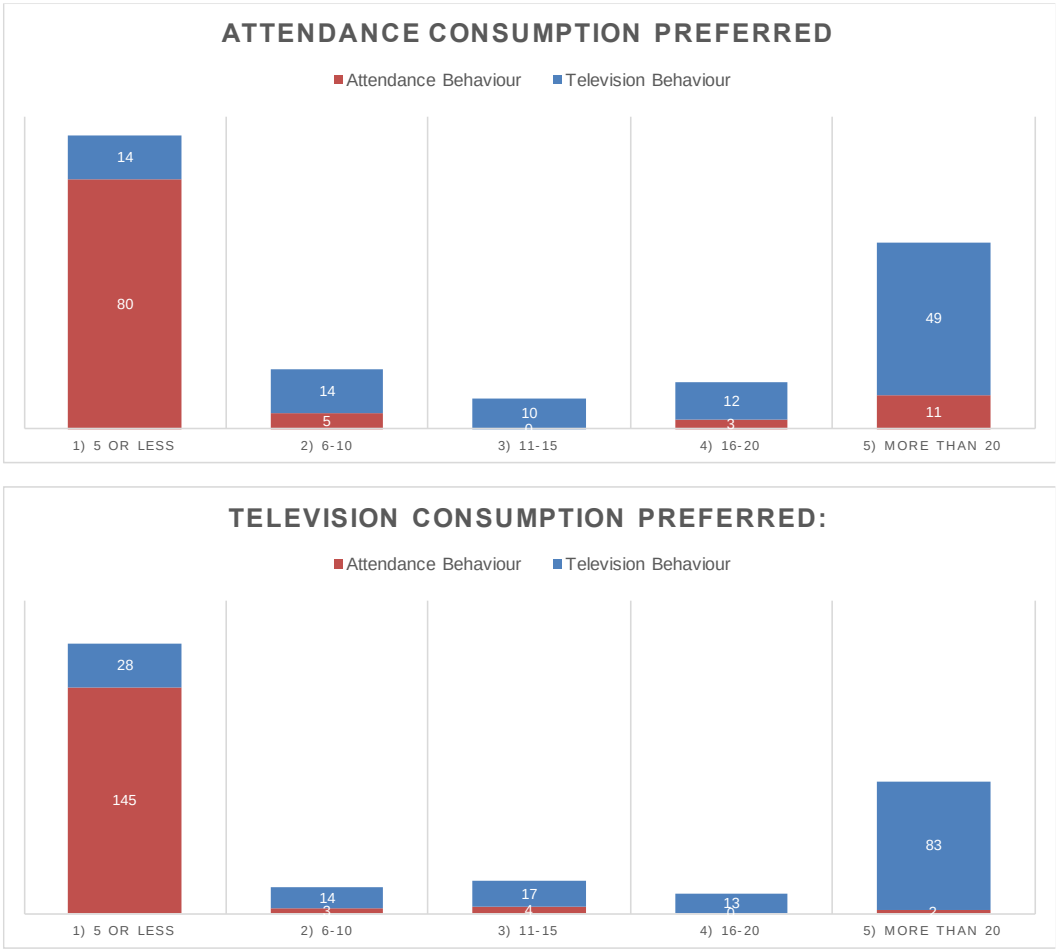

Figure *5.3*: Consumption Behaviour Segmented by Preference in Mode of Consumption

Of a total of 254 responses, 99 (39%) preferred consumption through attendance and the remaining 155 (61%) preferred consumption through television. Within the group that preferred consumption by attendance, the majority (81%; n=80) actually attended only 5 or less games and only 11 (11%) actually attended more than 20 games. Within the same group the majority (49%; n=49) actually watched more than 20 games on television

Within the group that preferred consumption by television, the majority (54%; 83) actually watched more than 20 games, whilst 94%; (n=145) actually attended 5 or less games.

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5.4 Research Hypotheses Testing

5.4.1 Instrument Assessment

Reliability and Validity

The current study aimed to identify amongst others, the link between motivation and consumption behaviour. The instrument used to measure motivation is the SPEED motivation scale. The scale was tested for reliability and internal consistency. The results of the internal consistency testing are provided in Table 5.9 below.

Table 5.9: Internal Consistency Analysis

Scale/Construct	N	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Scale Reliability	Inter Item Correlation
Socialization	254	2	0,867	Good	0,765
Performance	254	2	0,785	Acceptable	0,658
Excitement	254	2	0,812	Good	0,703
Esteem	254	2	0,846	Good	0,732
Diversion	254	2	0,789	Acceptable	0,657

Factor Correlations

Spearman's correlation coefficients were calculated between the five motivation constructs. The Spearman's coefficient was selected due to the fact that it could not be shown that the data was normally distributed. Each construct was calculated by taking the average score of the two questions in the questionnaire. The results of the Spearman's correlation test is shown in Table 5.10 below.

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Table 5.10: Spearman Correlation Coefficients

	Socialization	Performance	Excitement	Esteem	Diversion
Socialization	1.000				
Performance	.042	1.000			
Excitement	.031	.489(**)	1.000		
Esteem	.306(**)	.315(**)	.467(**)	1.000	
Diversion	.176(**)	.081	.157(*)	.392(**)	1.000

****. Correlation Is Significant at The 0.01 Level (2-Tailed).**

***. Correlation Is Significant At The 0.05 Level (2-Tailed).**

The correlation tests reveal that not all variables correlate significantly. Esteem correlates with all the other variables with coefficient values between 0,306 and 0.467. These are weak correlations. The best correlation value found was between excitement and performance (0,489). The results show a range of weak to moderate correlations between variable. When assessing different variables, it is desired to have weak to no correlations as strong correlations around 0.90 could result in multi-collinearity, type I and type II errors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Scale Dimensionality

Factor analysis was conducted on the data to determine the dimensionality of the scale (Table 5.11). In assessing the total variance explained using factor analysis, the results indicate that in each case of socialization, performance, excitement, esteem and diversion the first factor is significantly larger than the second. It is also shown that the % of variance for the first factor is large (above 80%) relative to the second (below 20%). This is an indication that there is unidimensional in the scale items are unidimensional (SGS, 2017).

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Table 5.11: Factor Analysis Results

Variables	Initial Eigen Values	
	Total	% of Variance
Socialisation 1	1.765	88.3
Socialisation 2	0.235	11.7
Performance 1	1.658	82.9
Performance 2	0.352	17.1
Excitement 1	1.703	85.1
Excitement 2	0.297	14.8
Esteem 1	1.732	86.6
Esteem 2	0.268	13.4
Diversion 1	1.657	82.8
Diversion 2	0.343	17.2

Each construct was found to have a Cronbach's alpha value above 0.7. Accordingly, the instrument used to determine motivation was deemed reliable (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). In addition, the inter item correlation showed positive associations above 0.6 in all constructs. Cohen and Swerdlik (2005) reported that the ideal correlation scores should lie between 0.2 and 0.4. This provides a reasonable correlation between the constructs resulting in homogeneity, and sufficient dimension so as not to be isomorphic. This means that the variables are linked providing some coherence to the tool, yet not overlapping in that the same variables are repeated. A limitation of the current scale is that there is only two dimensions of each construct was assessed.

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5.4.2 Hypothesis One

The SPEED motivation constructs are associated with the consumption behaviour of local football fans.

This hypothesis seeks to identify if a relationship exists between the behaviour of fans, represented in this study, as the consumption of football, is associated with the underlying motivation behind the consumption, represented through the five SPEED motivation variables. In order to determine if there is a relationship between the consumption behaviour and the motivation variables, a correlation test between the number of games consumed and the level of motivation was conducted. The two questions for each variable were averaged to provide a single score for each variable of the motivation scale. This data is described in Table 5.12 below.

Table 5.12: Motivation Descriptive Statistics

Description of Data	Socialisation	Performance	Excitement	Esteem	Diversion
Mean	4,15	5,53	6,18	5,50	5,00
Median	4,50	6,00	6,00	6,00	5,50
Mode	5,00	6,00	7,00	6,00	6,00
Standard Deviation	1,85	1,38	1,04	1,46	1,56
Kurtosis	-1,17	2,09	10,22	0,77	-0,15
Skewness	-0,28	-1,42	-2,64	-1,09	-0,79
Count	254	254	254	254	254

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A test for normality of the data was conducted by determining the Shapiro-Wilks test for normality is the appropriate test as the number of data points is less than 2000 (Pallant, 2007). As can be seen in Table 5.13 below, the $p<0.05$ in the case of all five motivation variables hence none can be considered normally distributed. A graphical inspection of the motivation data leads to the same conclusion. The graphical data is presented in and Figure 5.4 below.

Table 5.13: Test for Normality - Motivation Variables

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			**Shapiro-Wilk**		
	Statistic	Df	Sig. (P)	Statistic	Df	Sig. (P)
Socialisation	.158	254	.000	.923	254	.000
Performance	.194	254	.000	.846	254	.000
Excitement	.224	254	.000	.703	254	.000
Esteem	.178	254	.000	.875	254	.000
Diversion	.166	254	.000	.913	254	.000

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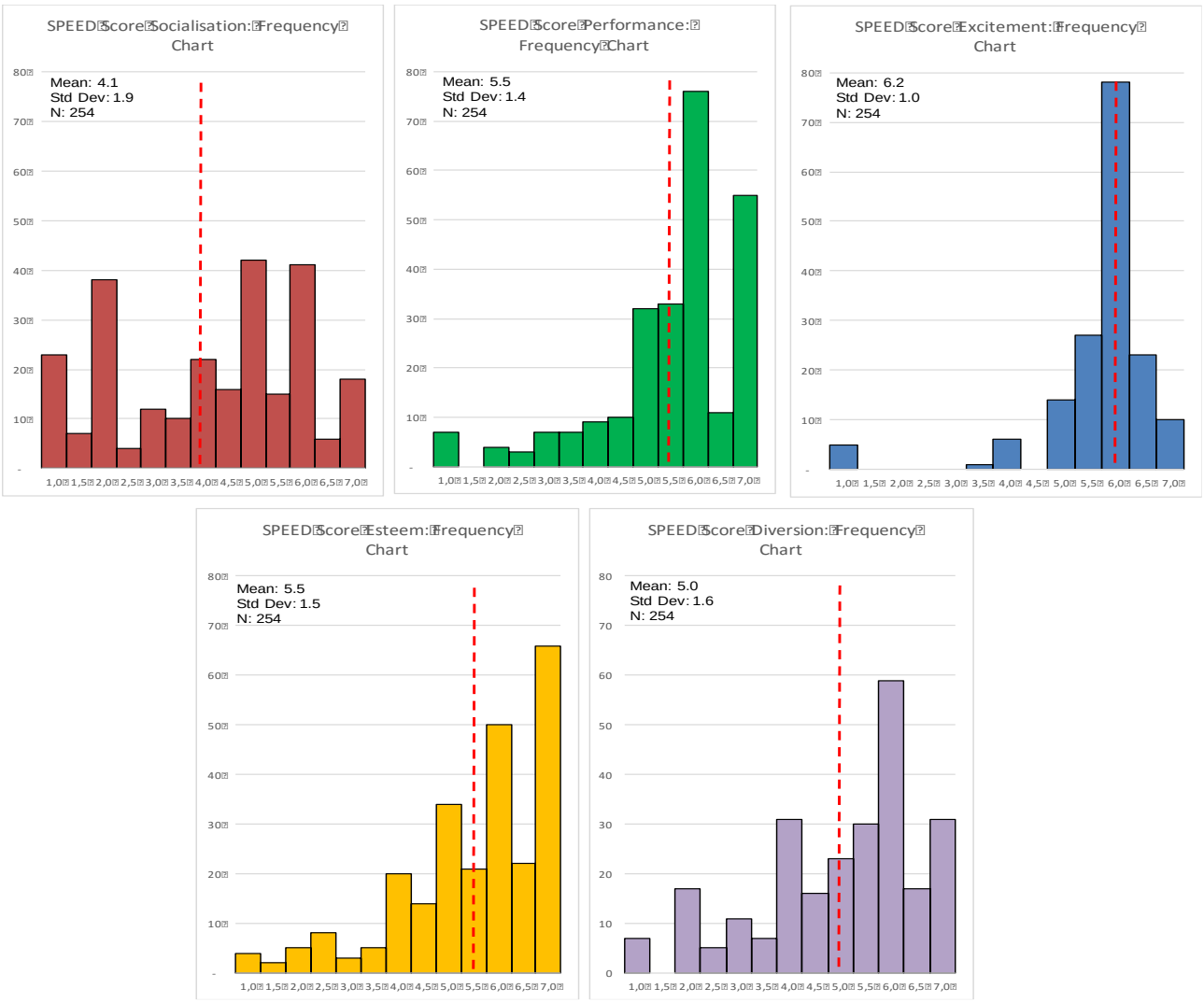

Figure 5.4: Histograms of Motivation

As the data could not be classified as normally distributed, a Spearman's Rho coefficient was calculated in order to determine if any significant associations or correlations were present. This was deemed the appropriate test as the data was not continuous but ranked ordinal data (Hauke & Kossowski, 2011). A 95% confidence level was utilised for this test although a 99% confidence level results are also shown. The results of the correlation tests are presented in Table 5.14 below.

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Table 5.14: Consumption Behaviour and Motivation Correlations

		Socialization	Performance	Excitement	Esteem	Diversion
Total Consumption All Football	Correlation Coefficient	-.035	.297 (**)	.258 (**)	.191 (**)	.048
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	.576	.000	.000	.002	.449
Total Consumption Television	Correlation Coefficient	-.062	.299 (**)	.296 (**)	.233(**)	.065
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	.325	.000	.000	.000	.299
Total Consumption Attendance	Correlation Coefficient	.052	.148 (*)	.162 (**)	.130 (*)	.045
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	.413	.019	.010	.038	.476

Correlation Is Significant At The 0.01 Level (2-Tailed).

Correlation Is Significant At The 0.05 Level (2-Tailed).

Significant associations were found between total football consumption and performance (r_s=0.297, p=0.000), excitement (r_s=0.258, p=0.000) and esteem (r_s=0.191, p=0.002). The relationships, although statistically significant, were weak associations. No significant relationships were found with socialization (r_s=-0.035, p=0.576) and diversion (r_s=0.048, p=0.449).

The consumption data was further broken down into consumption of football through television and consumption through attendance at the stadium. Significant associations were found between television consumption and performance (r_s=0.299, p=0.000), excitement (r_s=0.296, p=0.000), and esteem (r_s=0.233, p=0.000). The relationships, although statistically significant were also weak associations. No significant relationships were found with socialization (r_s=-0.062, p=0.325) and

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diversion (r_s=-0.065, p=0.299). Significant associations were found between attendance consumption and performance (r_s=0.148, p=0.019), excitement (r_s=0.162, p=0.010), and esteem (r_s=0.130, p=0.038). The relationships, although statistically significant were also weak associations. No significant relationships were found with socialization (r_s=-0.052, p=0.413) and diversion (r_s=-0.045, p=0.476)

5.4.3 Hypothesis Two

There is a difference between the consumption motivational constructs (SPEED) of fans who prefer consumption through stadium attendance and fans that prefer consumption through television.

The preference for the method of consumption was measured through a categorical scale. Respondents selected a preferred consumption mode resulting in two groups namely, television and stadium.

Of the sample of 254 responses, 155 (61%) preferred consumption through television and 99 (39%) preferred consumption through attendance. A comparison between the two preferred modes of consumption and the mean motivation score per SPEED category is presented in Figure 5.5 below.

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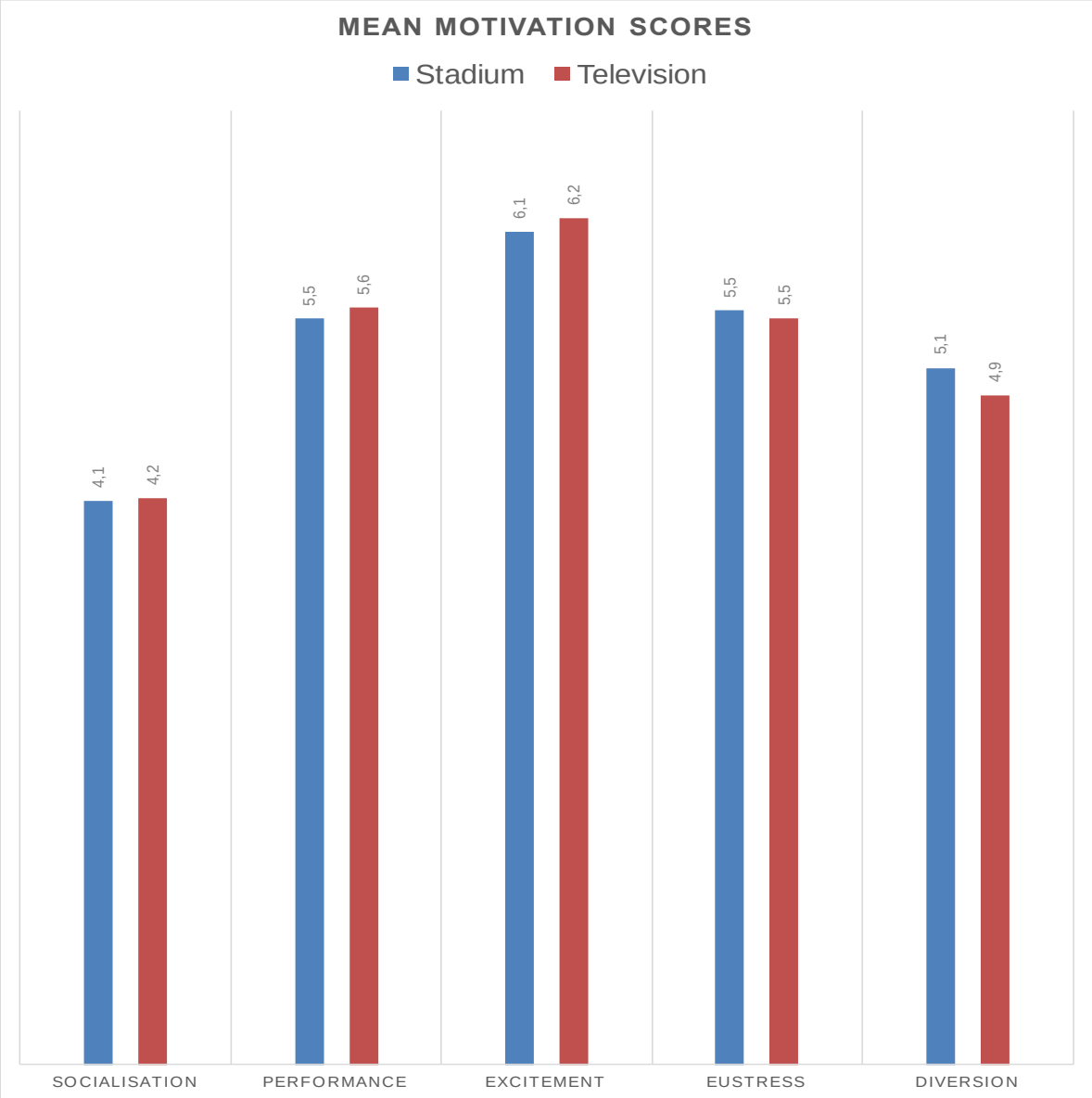

Figure 5.5: Motivation Scores Comparison Between Consumption Modes

The data indicates that there is a higher motivation score for socialisation, performance and excitement for those who prefer television. In contrast, those who are more motivated by diversion prefer attendance at stadiums. Esteem scores equally in both groups.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to determine if differences existed in the motivation factors between two groups of fans (Figure 5.15). Although the data is not normally distributed, the size of the sample allows for its use to test the differences in means (Lumley, Diehr, Emerson, & Chen, 2002).

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Table 5.15: Independent Samples t-test for Motivation factors

	Consumption Preference	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	Sig. (2-Tailed)
Socialisation	Television	155	4.155	1.8678	.056	.955
	Stadium	99	4.141	1.8253		
Performance	Television	155	5.555	1.2710	.432	.666
	Stadium	99	5.475	1.5392		
Excitement	Television	155	6.213	.8900	.672	.502
	Stadium	99	6.116	1.2430		
Esteem	Television	155	5.477	1.3703	-.309	.758
	Stadium	99	5.535	1.5848		
Diversion	Television	155	4.916	1.5256	-.993	.321
	Stadium	99	5.116	1.6254		

From amongst the five motivation variables tested, homogeneity of variances was assumed only for socialisation, esteem and diversion. For the other cases Lavene's test showed equal variances could not be assumed. The results of the independent samples t-test revealed that there were no significant differences between the motivation between fans that preferred consumption through attendance at stadiums and those that preferred consumption through watching on television

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The results of the statistical tests indicate that there is no significant difference in the motivation behind fans consumption of football and the preferred mode of consumption. Thus, the motivation scale cannot serve as an indicator of the preferred mode nor can motivation, as determined in this study, be used as an indicator of preference of mode of consumption.

5.4.4 Hypothesis Three

There is a difference in the preference of consumption of international football over local football between fans who prefer consumption through stadium attendance and those who prefer watching on television.

On average, respondents preferred international football over local football with a mean score of 5.42 (SD =1.84). The mode was recorded at 7, which means that most respondents felt that they strongly agree that international football is preferred. As a result, data was skewed to the right. The data is described in Table 5.16 below.

Table 5.16: International Preference Descriptive Data

Description of Data	International Football Preference	International Football is of Better Quality	International Football is More Entertaining
Mean	5,42	5,87	6,10
Median	6	6	6
Mode	7	7	7
Standard Deviation	1,84	1,50	1,21
Kurtosis	0,02	2,84	3,94
Skewness	-1,10	1,81	1,86
Count	254	254	254

Tests for normality were conducted through statistical tests as well as graphical means. The Shapiro-Wilks test was used, as the sample size was less than 2000 (Pallant, 2007). In all tests, p values were less than 0.05, hence the data could not be classified as normally distributed. The test results are presented in Table 5.17 and the graphical representation are shown in the histograms in Figure 5.6 below. The finding of non-normally distributed data is significant as it has an impact

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on the type of statistical tests that can be utilised (Saunders & Lewis, 2012) in that non-parametric test are to be used.

Table 5.17: Test for Normality - International Support Preference

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig. (P)	Statistic	Df	Sig. (P)
International Football Preference	.265	254	.000	.797	254	.000

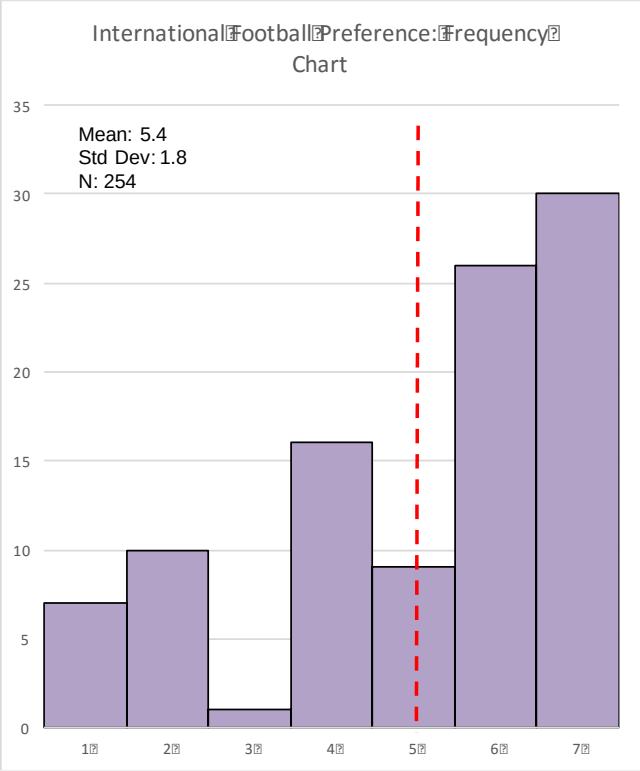

Figure 5.6: Histogram of Preference of Football Support

An independent samples t-test was conducted to determine if differences existed in the preference of international football of local football between two groups of fans, firstly, those that preferred consumption through attendance at stadiums and secondly, those that preferred consumption through watching on television. Although the data is not normally distributed, the size of the sample

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allows its use to test the differences in means (Lumley, Diehr, Emerson, & Chen, 2002). The results of the test are provided in Tale 5.18 below.

Table 5.18: Independent Samples t-test for Consumption Preference

	Consumption Preference	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	Sig. (2-Tailed)
Preference of International Football	Television	155	5.6258	1.75125	2.235	0.026
	Stadium	99	5.1010	1.93515		

The results show that there is a significant difference between the support patterns of those that prefer television consumption to those that prefer consumption through attendance at the stadium. However, it should be noted that the mean score for both variables is above 4, meaning that both groups tend to prefer international football above local.

The data was then further stratified to exclude all respondents who were neutral about their preference for international football (11%, n=27). Respondents who agreed to any degree (all scores above 4) (74%, n=188) were grouped as international preference and those that disagreed to any degree (all scores below 4) (15%, n=39) were grouped as local preference. The chi-square test for independence or test of association was used to determine if there was any relationship between these two categorical variables. Results of the test indicate that there was no significant difference in the preference of international football over local football between the groups who prefer stadium attendance and those that prefer television ($\chi(1) = 1.867$, $p = .172$).

A significant positive association was found between international football preference and international football quality (r_s=0.731, p=0.000) as well as international football and entertainment (r_s=0.587, p=0.000) (Table 5.19).

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Table 5.19: Support Preference and Quality and Entertainment Perceptions Correlations

		International football has better quality	**International football is more entertaining**
International football has better quality	Correlation Coefficient	.731 (**)	.587 (**)
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	.000	.000

Correlation Is Significant At The 0.01 Level (2-Tailed).

Correlation Is Significant At The 0.05 Level (2-Tailed).

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Chapter 6

Discussion of Results

Current published literature indicates that there are a large number of football fans in South Africa and that consumption of this sport is indeed high. However, analysis of the consumption indicates that actual attendance at football stadia are low and declining. International studies have reported a shift towards television viewing as a mode of consumption and has prompted researchers to investigate the motivating factors that influence this preference. The results to date have been diverse and largely inconclusive. It could be hypothesised that a similar situation exists in South Africa; however, there is a paucity of research done amongst the local population to support such an assumption. The aim of this study was to provide more insight into the consumption behaviour and the motivations thereof of South African football fan with the view to making recommendations to address the problem of low attendance at stadiums.

6.1 The Socialization, Performance, Excitement, Esteem, and Diversion Scale (SPEED)

The fan is at the centre of the football network as the fan consumes directly via live attendance and paying for tickets, concessions, parking, other game day related purchases and pay-per-view live consumption such as television. Insights into the nature and determinants of demand by fans are one of the important issues in the analysis of sports marketing. The list of potential motivational factors for fans is quite extensive, with a myriad of psychological factors coming in to play. Many tools have been used to measure these factors and include: Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC) (Trail and James (2001); Motivations of the Sport Consumer (MSC) (McDonald *et al.* (2002); Sport Fan Motivation Scales (SFMS) (Wann, Grieve, Zapalac and Pease (2008); and the Socialization, Performance, Excitement, Esteem, and Diversion Scale (SPEED) (Funk, Filo, Beaton, & Pritchard (2009). The SPEED scale provides a simple tool for assessing the motivation behind the behaviour of fans and has been shown to be reliable and valid in terms of assessing the attendance behaviour of fans. The benefit of the SPEED model of motivation is its simplicity and compactness. It utilises a two-question per construct survey in relation to other three and four question per variable designs. This allows surveys to be kept short, improving response rate and accuracy of data (Galesic & Bosnjak, 2009). This study utilised the SPEED scale to investigate its objectives expanding the use of the tool to apply SPEED motivation constructs to both attendance behaviour as well as behaviour of consumption through television in a South

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African context. Since it had not previously been used in this population, the validity and reliability of the results were first determined.

The Cronbach's alpha scores for the five variables were all found to be above 0.75 resulting in an acceptable to good scale reliability. The factor analysis revealed that the scale was unidimensional. The use of two questions per variable was sufficient to provide internal reliability and the variables of socialisation, performance, excitement, esteem and diversion correlates but do not excessively overlap. These findings are similar to that of Funk et al.(2009), the creators of the research tool.

One of the criticisms of South African football and the management thereof is the lack of information. Most of available data has been obtained through traditional means of ticket sales, stadium attendance and television viewing figures. The data is often limited because football clubs and television companies are unwilling or unable to share information about their fans. An alternative and more reliable approach is to target the fans directly in order to gain first-hand insights and information. However, some of the challenges in this approach are the ability to gather sufficient data effectively (Kothari, 2005); use of a survey design and tool to gather data that not only targets willing respondents but also ensures that respondents complete the survey in full. The data desired is not only quantitative but also qualitative as it includes information on the factors that motivate fans' consumption behaviour

Overall this study found that the SPEED tool was reliable and valid in a South African population, which was not unexpected as the SPEED motivation variables have been developed through adaptation of previously developed tools to explain sports consumer behaviour (Funk et al., 2004; Trail & James, 2001). The SPEED tool also provides researchers with the ability to collect data from fans from a variety of setting such as; through social media; inside and outside stadiums on game days and at gatherings for live viewing such as fan parks. The tool allows for receiving feedback with minimal intrusion and interruption. For academics, this study has provided further evidence of the applicability of the SPEED motivation variables in relation to understanding motives behind fans behaviour.

This study did however identify certain limitations in its application of the tool. The demographics of this study population were not representative of the overall country's population with respect to gender; race and geographical spread. The most successful source of data was the social media platform and in particular, *Facebook* posts. The authors are of the opinion that this does not reflect a deficit in the tool but rather in their methodological design of this study. This study used a snowball sampling technique to access sports fans, which yielded skewed results. Thirty eight percent of the responses were obtained through sports fans known to the researchers and these sport fans own

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contacts. This resulted in a bias in the demographic profile of the study population towards being very similar. The snowball sampling technique is considered effective in accessing an unknown population, but with the caveat that in the case of small samples sizes, bias may be present. Other problems with snowball sampling method include finding respondents to start the chain, verifying eligibility, engagement, controlling the chain of responses and monitoring quality of data (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981). The use of social media provided the largest proportion of the sample. Social media provides instant access to individuals, with no geographic restrictions and has proved to be a valuable medium for marketing and business-related activities as well as a valuable tool for building relationships, interaction and engagement (Filo, Lock and Karg, 2015). However, the largest proportion of this study's population was from the Gauteng province. This is once again a flaw in the methodological design of this study and not a limitation of the tool.

The authors recommend that future research targeted at the national population of football fans, could effectively utilise the SPEED scale, but should take a different approach to recruiting participants. Some of the options include targeting fans as individuals do their online ticket purchases for football matches. This was the approach taken by Solberg and Mehus (2014). In Europe, football leagues and television companies utilise their databases of contacts, with better utilisation of the social media platforms than simply a snowball sampling approach; and offering small add-on incentives to fans, which are not considered as perverse incentive or thought to create bias.

6.2 Factors that motivate consumption behaviour of local football fans using the SPEED scale

This study conducted by Jeffres, Neuendorf, & Atkin (2003) hypothesised that the SPEED motivation constructs are associated with the consumption behaviour of local football fans. The study, however, found that only Performance, Excitement and Esteem positively correlated with consumption behaviour and Socialisation and Diversion did not.

The extent of support afforded by fans to a football team is influenced by the team's performance. It includes the grace and associated beauty, skill; artistry of athletic movements; excellence and creativity of the team. The MSC model of McDonald et al. (2002), utilising themes from Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (Maslow, 1943) identified performance levels of achievement, skill mastery, and aesthetics as one of the main factors that is associated with actual consumption. Fans relate to these technical aspects of performances. It also creates a sense of belonging and a desire to support the success of the team in their endeavours. Attendance by fans at stadiums is important for football teams as it is their main source of income (Allan & Roy, 2008; Kim & Trail, 2010; Leach

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& Szymanski, 2015). It includes direct gate revenues (payment for entering the stadium) as well as indirect match day concessions such as the sale of food, drinks and promotional clothing as well as parking fees at the stadium. Poor performance of the team significantly affects consumption and consequently a clubs revenue stream. Pritchard and Funk (2006) findings that heavy consumers of football are more likely motivated by the performance and athletic aspects of their teams than casual consumers support this notion. This study's finding that performance is significantly associated with both television and attendance consumption of South African fans is similar to that of Funk et al. (2009). Russel, Sneath, & Finney (2007) and Positivity Global (2016) also reported that poor performance and lack of popularity negatively affects the club's ability to gain and major sponsorships, another key source of revenue. The consequent low consumption and attendance due to the perceived low popularity of the team, cascades into further lowering of levels of performance (Smith, & Groetzinger, 2010). By excluding all participants that were not self-identified fans of football, we are assured that our respondents are fans of football, who are familiar with the complexity of the game and the skill levels of the athletes. Low attendance of fans at stadiums has resulted in many South African domestic football cubs being cash strapped and having to be dependent on grants from local football league association, South African Football Association (hereafter SAFA) (Gleeson, 2016). This lack of financial capacity and independence results in teams being unable to acquire and retain talent on and off the pitch and hence further reducing their performance and popularity – a vicious cycle.

Excitement includes the emotional involvement in the drama, the uncertainty of the outcome, the level of quality of football played, the atmosphere within the stadiums and the build-up and the pure entertainment value of sports. The desire for a particular outcome and the inherent uncertainty is linked to intellectual stimulation, mental action and exploration. Esteem creates an internal sense of belonging and mastery, a vicarious achievement and heightened sense of accomplishment when one's team wins. Esteem relates to the association with a team, the collectivism of supporters and collective joy of success. Excitement and Esteem can be linked because these motives reveal enjoyment and affinity to the sport as a form of mental stimulation and ultimately consumption. The results of this study are similar to other international studies in that both factors positively correlated with the consumption behaviour of local South Africans. Amongst all the SPEED factors, excitement had the highest motivation score, which is contrast to the findings of Funk et al. (2009) and Russel et al. (2007) who reported fans motivated by excitement were more likely to be light consumers.

The significant influence of excitement on consumption of football in South Africa has some historical reference. South Africa hosted the FIFA Football World Cup in 2010. During the period between 2008 and 2011, the average stadium attendances increased and peaked during the actual World Cup period in 2010. South Africans were experiencing 'World Cup Fever', during which

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excitement and interest in the global spectacle increased and people were feeling happy and proud, further attracting them to the game (Mitchell and Stewart (2015). This was fuelled by the thrill of new stadia and facilities (Cornelissen, Bob and Swart (2011). Post 2011, the hysteria diminished and the trend reverted to that of a steady decline in attendance figures. As is the case with fans worldwide, the significant factors that motivate the consumption of South Africans football fans include Performance, Excitement and Esteem.

This study did not find any association between SPEED motivating factors of Socialisation and Diversion and consumption - both live attendances at stadiums and through television. This is contrary to most other international studies.

The Socialisation factor, according to Trail and James (2001), in their assessment of the MSSC, found that socialisation was significantly correlated to being a fan. However, Funk et al. (2009) reported similar findings to this study in that socialisation was not a reliable predictor of attendance behaviour. They suggested that socialisation could be achieved through means other than sports attendance. Hur, Ko, & Valacich (2007) reported that socialisation was a significant factor only with regards to online sports consumption. Despite the negative findings of this study, it is the view of the authors that socialisation may still be a motivator for sports consumption amongst South African fans, but the actual mechanism of socialisation may vary and it is not necessarily achieved only by attending stadiums or watching on television together. During the past two decades, social media has evolved quite drastically in both how we utilise it and how prominent it is within our culture. Chat rooms, Instant Messaging, *Twitter* categorized by hashtags and personalised communities on *Facebook* have evolved dramatically and are now woven deeply in our social culture. The modern technology of social media has transformed the concept of socialisation and football fans can interact socially and share experiences without physically meeting. Fans utilise a multitude of media channels simultaneously in order to connect and discuss the games with a community doing precisely the same thing. This ability to interact is a strong motivator for fans (van Schaik, 2014).

This study also found that, although not statistically significant, the direction of the correlation between consumption and socialisation differed between consumption through attendance and that through television. There was a negative correlation (r_s=-0.062) between socialisation and television consumption suggesting that South Africans fans who were watching television were not motivated by the drive to socialise. It is possible that most of these fans were watching alone at home, unlike the culture of European fans that congregate in pubs and bars to watch international games on television (Anderson, 2016). Socialisation and meeting friends and fellow supporters is an integral part and a huge motivator of these outing. Larkin et al. (2015) therefore refined the definition of

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consumption through television as being consumption at home, which provides all of the comforts associated with one's home.

Diversion is defined as the need to escape or means to get away from daily routine, problems and issues (Funk et al., 2009). Wann et al. (2008) in their study on the motivation profiles of fans of different sports, postulated that diversion or escape is linked to the fantasy of sports. Wrestling with its storylines, drama and sense of theatre was particularly effective at creating a diversion from everyday life. The finding that the motivation of diversion is not significantly associate with consumption behaviour of South African fans is similar to the participants of the study of Funk et al. (2009). They suggested that it is likely that individuals seek to find escape in other leisure activities (Funk et al., 2009). From anecdotal reports and personal experience of attending matches, attending football games at stadiums are fraught with difficulties such as lack of public transport to stadiums; availability of secure vehicle parking, lack of security and unruly crowds affecting personal safety. These create a sense of tension and stress and avoidance of attendance at stadiums and shift to other sports. Alternatively, it is likely that the excessive level of fandom and the competitive desire for ones team to succeed always creates more stress and overrides the leisure aspect of football.

This study on the factors that are associated with football consumption amongst South Africans fans must be viewed in the context of some of the methodological limitations of the study such as gender; race and geographic location already described. The study did not consider income levels and affordability to subscribe to pay television (the medium in which most international football is viewed) and the access to and proximity of stadiums to fans homes. Notwithstanding these limitations, it can be assumed that most of the SPEED factors, as previously reported with International fans, are also significant motivators for football consumption amongst South African fans. There exist the potential for increased football consumption in South Africa and an opportunity for team owners and administrators of the sport to find innovative ways in which to maximise the use of the motivators. Further research including a larger sample size and taking into consideration some of variables such as distance from closest stadium and the impact of cost of both ticket pricing and television subscriptions is also required to provide further insights into the behaviour of South African fans.

6.3 Factors that motivate the mode of consumption of local football fans using the SPEED scale

The results of this study showed that 61% of the respondents preferred consumption through television versus the 39% who preferred consumption through attendance. In addition, the

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consumption profiles were found to be light on attendance and heavy with respect to media use. Pritchard and Funk (2006) identified this combination of consumption as being media dominant, and the relationship being substitutionary. These findings support the existence of the previously discussed phenomenon of “substitution” in the modes of consumption amongst local South African football fans.

Traditionally, experience seekers first attend football matches accompanied by established fans (Mason, 1999), and is one of the mechanisms of growing attachment to the sport. Without the first level of attachment, it is unlikely that these individuals new to the sport will attend soccer stadiums and grow to become fans. Dwyer et al. (2015) reported that television can serve as the starting point of awareness and this could later escalate to increased fandom and eventually actual attendance at stadiums. However, the shift to television consumption continues to increase without a consequent rise in stadium attendances.

It was hypothesised that, using the SPEED scale, there is a difference in the factors that motivate the preference in modes of consumption. However, the results indicate that there was no statistically significant difference between the motivators and the preferred mode of consumption, thus disproving this hypothesis. The results did indicate that there is a trend by those who preferred to consume through television, to be motivated by the factors of Socialisation, Performance and Excitement whilst those who preferred attendance at stadiums as a mode of consumption were more motivated by Diversion. Esteem as a motivator, was the same in both groups.

Most sports lovers would agree that soccer is an incredibly exciting sport whether it is watched live inside a stadium or at home through television screens. The excitement is related to the contest, uncertainty of outcome and competition and relates more to the sport itself and less to the leisure activity side of sports. With the improvement in technology, instant replay and slow motion options, the knowledge and the passion of the commentators of the game, it is understandable why television adds to the excitement experienced by the fans. Mason (1999) identified fans as those who are interested in the sport, the team and the results and that the televising of football games caters more for fans of the sport and less for experience seekers. This study only included true fans of football and therefore this motivator has more relevance.

It is not clear why Performance and Socialisation might influence the local fans preference to attend stadiums as their mode of consumption. Borland and McDonald (2003) postulated that the attendance at a sporting event is positively correlated to the performance of the home team. The authors attribute the higher attendance to the positive outcomes associated with strong performance. No correlation is found between a close contest and attendance. This indicates that

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fans prefer to attend to see their team win rather to witness a close contest. It is often found that closely fought sporting contests are low in excitement. In summary, a possible reason behind the influence of performance is related to the expected success of the fans favoured team. In terms of socialisation, a possible reason would be the opportunity to meet and liaise with like-minded individuals as well as to share the glory of anticipated success.

As discussed previously, Diversion is a means to 'get away' from daily hassles, routines and problems. It represents a means of mental well-being and is an attempt to remove oneself from the aspects that create stress in one's life. Local fans are faced with high levels of stress because of the country's economic climate, the high levels of unemployment and crime and diversion from these prevailing conditions may serve as a motivator to get away from the homes and to attend games at soccer stadiums.

The authors conclude that the SPEED scale is not an adequate tool to determine the motivators that influence the local football fans preference of mode of consumption. It is likely that the driving force behind these choices may lie in other motivation factors and concepts that were not a part of this study. Larkin et al. (2015) identified comfort, technology and viewing pleasure as significant motivators to staying at home and watching sport on television. Furthermore, there are factors that have been reported to have negative influence (constraints) on sport consumption behaviour. Baade and Tiehen (1990), Hansen and Gauthier (1989), Pan and Gabert (1997), and Zhang et al. (1998) reported that financial cost (e.g., ticket price) negatively affected attendance. Hansen and Gauthier (1989) and Noll (1974) found that weather also had a negative influence on spectators' decision to go to a sport event. In addition, stadium location (Hansen & Gauthier, 1989; Pan & Gabert, 1997) and seat location (Hansen & Gauthier, 1989) were also identified to influence attendance negatively. These constraints have significant relevance in a South African population, where the location of stadiums are not close to the community and fan base; public transport to stadiums is poor, disposable income fans is very low and cost of tickets is high, and personal safety and security is not guaranteed. Constraints are often not examined in conjunction with the motivational factors and key predictors of sport consumption decision of fans (Trail, Fink, & Anderson, 2003). This is despite Howard and Sheth (1969) report that consumers consider both positive and negative features of the alternatives when making their decisions. The authors recommended that in any future similar studies into this population, constraints and motives should be simultaneously investigated.

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6.4 Consumption preference versus actual consumption behaviour of local football fans

An interesting additional finding of this study relates to the actual consumption behaviour of the study population. The proportion of respondents who preferred to attend stadiums was far lower (39%) than those who preferred to watch the games on television (61%). Consequently, one would assume that their actual consumption behaviour would correlate with and reflect this preference. However, this study revealed an anomaly. In the group that preferred consumption by attendance, the majority (81%) actually attended only five or less games and only 11% actually attended more than twenty games at stadiums. In stark contrast, approximately half (49%) of the respondents in this group actually watched more than 20 games on television. In the group that preferred consumption by television, approximately half (54%) of the respondents actually watched more than 20 games, whilst the vast majority (94%) actually only attended five or less games. It would appear that the actual consumption behaviour of the majority of fans who preferred television was in accordance with their preference, whereas that of the majority of fans that preferred stadium attendance was contradictory to their preference. Despite the inherent desire for fans to prefer watching football matches at stadiums, their consumption behaviour reflects otherwise and these fans are shifting to substitution of their mode of consumption to that of television watching.

The various motivators and constraints, which influence this shift, have already been discussed earlier. An additional reason may be related to the vast coverage and easy access to live football on television by pay-television providers. Sports managers and administrators in Europe and other large Football nations have taken cognisance of this and have devised various broadcasting strategies in an attempt to limit this shift. It must be noted that television broadcasting plays a large and ever growing role in terms of revenue and the economic stability of clubs (Forrest, Simmons, & Szymanski, 2004). Some leagues have placed restrictions on the number of games allowed to be broadcast live in an effort to decrease overexposure and fan interest (Baimbridge, Cameron, & Dawson, 1996; Simmons & Buraimo, 2005). Others block the television coverage of only their regular Sunday afternoon fixtures (Carmichael, Millington and Simmons, 1999) and yet others block only home games to the local community (Zhang and Smith (1997).

An important positive outcome emerges from this study, where the consumption of football by local fans is high and there is an inherent desire for the fans to want to watch football at stadiums. The challenge to football practitioners is how to maintain this interest in football; induce the fans who prefer television to increase the number of matches that they attend at stadiums; and to address the constraints that drive the fans that prefer to watch at stadiums from shifting to substitution by

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television watching. This necessitates a balanced and cautious approach so as not to impact on the economics of the sport. It also warrants that further research be done on local football fans' preference and actual mode of consumption. Much of our current data is obtained from actual stadium attendances and/or ticket sales (Forrest et al., 2004; Kim & Trail, 2010; Baimbridge et al., 1996). With the advent of modern technology an online purchasing, there is the opportunity for consumers to be identified and approached directly as to their preferences, behaviours and the relationships between the two.

6.5 Shift of support from local teams to international teams in relation to preferred mode of consumption

Substitution of support and viewership from local football to international football was first identified by Forrest, Simmons and Szymanski(2004). Solberg & Mehus (2014) reported similar findings amongst football fans of Norway - one of few studies done outside of the more popular leagues in England and Spain. In South Africa, a similar trend was evidenced when pay-television producer, *Multichoice*, began broadcasting EPL football matches (My Broadband, 2016) and when a fan park initiative by EPL sponsors Barclays attracted 24,000 fans to watch live international games on a big screen in Johannesburg (BBC Sport, 2014). Research points towards a large fan base of European clubs across Africa, with supporters choosing to congregate in pubs and bars to watch international games on television, whilst stadiums remain empty (Anderson, 2016).

The current study aimed to identify if a similar phenomenon exists amongst South African fans and whether this shift was influenced by the fans' preferred mode of consumption. The results indicate that irrespective of preference of mode of consumption, there was a shift of support from local to international teams. Further, there was no statistically significant difference in this shift in relation to the fans preferred mode of consumption. However, there was a trend towards fans that preferred television consumption to have a stronger shift to international football compared to those who prefer stadium attendance, who had a slightly lesser preference.

Based on these findings, it can be assumed that there are other factors besides easy access to television that is motivating this shift toward international football. Tainsky & McEvoy (2011) reported that compared to local teams, international teams tend to exhibit a higher quality of game; skill mastery of the players; team aesthetics and achievement. International teams are made up of the best multinational players and exhibit great skills and who have a positive impact in promoting the teams to foreign markets. Larger international clubs with multinational squads are far more effective at marketing and growing their support base (Solberg & Mehus, 2014). Communities tend to identify with a team that originates from that community, which in turn leads to support of that

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team and consumption of their games over all other forms of sport consumption (Tainsky & Jasielec, 2014). The lack of such communities centred on community football stadiums in South Africa may be a driver towards support of non-local teams. Further, when local teams fail to satisfy the fans aspirations and enjoyment of the sport, even loyal supporters are inclined to shift their support to international teams.

The many constraints to stadium attendance have already been discussed. Whilst they are likely to result in substitution in mode of consumption, it is unlikely to influence a shift of support to international teams. The attachment and identification of fans to their team usually overrides many constraints. Fans would rather choose an alternate mode of consumption to follow their favourite team's than to switch to a new team. The problem may arise with respect to new fans who, at the start of their relationship with sport, have access to a global supply of football. If local clubs cannot build interest and attachment, fans will likely choose international teams who can fulfil these criteria.

The shift to support from local teams to international teams is a growing phenomenon. Unless there is a clear and concise strategy to curb this expansion, the sustainability of local teams will be severely compromised (Richelieu and Desbordes, 2009) Aside from addressing the motivators and constraints for supporting local teams, administrators need to look at other innovative options such as pairing with international teams and sharing resources, incorporating international star players into the team; and building unique emotional experience for fans to keep their support. Some sports leagues in Europe and North America impose restrictions on the number of games that are allowed to be broadcast as well as broadcasting times. In North America, blackouts are imposed when ticket sales are not adequate (Solberg & Mehus, 2014). Additional research specifically directed to understanding this shift is recommended.

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Chapter 7

Conclusion

Football is South Africa's premier sport in terms of popularity and evokes great emotion and passion amongst fans of the game. In the context of a high ranking interest in football amongst the general population of South Africa and a nation that claim to be great fans of football, the attendance at football stadiums is extremely low. It impacts on the economic viability and sustainability of football clubs. This is further accentuated by the easy access to television and online media which has not only resulted in the phenomenon of substitution to television watching as a preferred mode of consumption, but also to a change in terms of the support and following of local football clubs to that of football clubs of international leagues. Numerous factors influence the demand for sports amongst consumers. Published reports agree that apart from the fulfilment of personal desires, motivating factors include the family and social interaction associated with the sport and the economic cost are important drivers of demand. The review also reveals that there are many tools that can be utilised to identify these motivational determinants, however the SPEED scale is a simple tool with two-question per construct, targeted to fans directly, is cost effective and more likely to produce the desired information.

There is a paucity of studies into the local South African fans and hence the need for this study and the methodological approach of using a simple questionnaire directed to fans. The aim of the proposed research was to link theory to the behaviour of South African football spectators' mode of consumption of football and to understand if the changing consumption modes could be attributed to substitution theory. The purpose of the study was to identify patterns and relationships between various demographic and behaviour, which lends itself to a non-experimental, quantitative analysis. A correlational analysis allowed for the inclusion of predictions of future behaviour whilst not inferring causation. The research methodology was one whereby spectators were identified and surveyed regarding their perceptions and views on the subject. The method differs from other forms of research on the subject of substitution and symbiosis, which focuses on empirical data, collected relating to attendance statistics and television audiences. To understand the relationship between the motivational profiles of fans and the consumption behaviours, the variables of the SPEED motivation scale was utilised. Appropriate statistics were applied in order to analyse the data obtained.

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7.1 Significant Findings

The following were the significant findings of this study. Firstly, the SPEED scale is a reliable and valid tool when applied in a South African population. The scale provides researchers with an easy cost effective tool to collect data from fans in a variety of setting such as; through social media; inside and outside stadiums on game days and at gatherings for live viewing such as fan parks. The tool allows for receiving feedback with minimal intrusion and interruption. For academics, this study has provided further evidence of the applicability of the SPEED motivation variables in relation to understanding motives behind fans behaviour.

Secondly, of the five SPEED motivation constructs, Performance, Excitement and Esteem positively correlated with consumption behaviour amongst South African fans, as is the case with fans worldwide. There were no significant associations between the factors of Socialisation and Diversion and consumption - both for live attendance at stadiums and through television viewing. This is contrary to most other international studies. There was a negative correlation between socialisation and television consumption suggesting that South Africans fans who were watching television were not motivated by the drive to socialise. It is possible that most of these fans were watching alone at home, unlike the culture of European fans who congregate in pubs and bars to watch international games on television, where socialisation and meeting friends and fellow supporters is an integral part and a huge motivator of these outing. It is probably why Larkin et al. (2015) therefore refined the definition of consumption through television as being consumption at home, wherein all the creature comforts exist. The motivation of diversion was not significantly associated with consumption behaviour of South African fans - similar to the findings of Funk et al. (2009). From anecdotal reports and personal experience of attending matches, attending football games at stadiums are fraught with difficulties such as lack of public transport to stadiums; availability of secure vehicle parking, lack of security and unruly crowds affecting personal safety. These create a sense of tension and stress and avoidance of attendance at stadiums and shift to other sports. Alternatively, it is likely that the excessive level of fandom and the competitive desire for ones team to succeed, always, creates more stress and overrides the leisure aspect of football.

Thirdly, there was no statistically significant difference, using the SPEED scale, between the motivating factors in relation to South Africans fans preferred mode of consumption. There was a trend for those who preferred to consume through television to be motivated by the factors of Socialisation, Performance and Excitement, whilst those who preferred attendance at stadiums were more motivated by Diversion. Esteem as a motivator, was the same in both groups. This study found that the SPEED scale is not an adequate tool to determine the motivators that influence the local football fans preference of mode of consumption.

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Fourthly, the proportion of respondents who preferred to attend stadiums was far lower (39%) than those who preferred to watch the games on television (61%). Consequently, one would assume that their actual consumption behaviour would correlate with and reflect this preference. However, this study revealed an anomaly. The actual consumption behaviour of the majority of fans who preferred television was in accordance with their preference, whereas that of the majority of fans that preferred stadium attendance was contradictory to their preference. Despite the inherent desire for fans to prefer watching football matches at stadiums, their consumption behaviour reflects otherwise and these fans are shifting to substitution of their mode of consumption to that of television watching.

Finally, irrespective of preference of mode of consumption, there was a shift of support of South African fans from local to international teams. It can be assumed that there are other factors besides easy access to television that is motivating this shift to international football, such as quality of game, skill mastery of the players, team aesthetics and achievement and effective marketing. Communities tend to identify with a team that originates from that community, which in turn leads to support of that team and consumption of their games over all other forms of sport consumption (Tainsky & Jasielec, 2014). The lack of such communities centred on community football stadiums in South Africa may be a driver towards support of non-local teams. Further, when local teams fail to satisfy the fans aspirations and enjoyment of the sport, even loyal supporters are inclined to shift their support to international teams.

7.2 Limitations of the research

The lack of understanding of the appropriate population sample size for this study created uncertainty as to the validity and limited the generalisation of the results. Other limitations of the study included the following factors. Firstly, the method of data collection limited the validity of the final data set as excluded individuals with no access to electronic communication channels i.e. email and social media. Mainly using social media websites to post the questionnaire may also be seen as a biased sample towards affinity towards media usage. Although attempt was made to mitigate this effect through personal interviews at stadiums, the time limitation meant that personally rendered questionnaire only form a small proportion of the responses.

Secondly, the study was conducted as a quantitative cross-sectional study. The cross-sectional nature of the research means that it will provide insight at a snap-shot in time. This may limit the ongoing validity of the study.

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Thirdly, the survey questionnaire allowed for limited room for discovery and insights as specific questions did not allow respondents to elaborate on responses.

Fourthly, the most successful source of data was the social media platform and in particular Facebook posts. Social media generally provides instant access to individuals with no geographic restrictions. However, the vast majority of this study's population was from the Gauteng province.

Fifthly, this study used a snowball sampling technique to access sports fans which yielded skewed results. Thirty eight percent of the responses were obtained through sports fans known to the researchers and these sport fans own contacts. This resulted in a bias in the demographic profile of the study population towards being very similar. The demographics of this study population was not representative of the overall country's population with respect to gender; race and geographical spread.

Finally, the SPEED scale was not an adequate tool to determine the motivators that influence the local football fans preference of mode of consumption. It is likely that the driving force behind these choices may lie in other motivation factors and concepts such as comfort, technology and viewing pleasure that were not a part of this study. Further, there are factors that have been reported to have negative influence (constraints) on sport consumption behaviour. These include financial costs and disposable income, weather, stadium location, seat location, public transport, personal safety and security. These were also omitted in this study.

7.3 Recommendations and further research

Based on the findings of this study the authors make the following recommendations. Firstly the SPEED scale is an easy and cost effective tool to gain insights into the significant motivators for football consumption amongst South African fans. Future research utilising the SPEED scale and targeted at the national population should take a different methodological approach. It is recommended that this approach incorporates recruiting participants by directly targeting fans at the time of online ticket purchases (much of our current data is limited to actual stadium attendances). Furthermore, involving football leagues and television companies to utilise their database of contacts would improve sampling. Better utilisation of the social media platforms than simply a snowball sampling approach would improve the validity through a more representative sample. Lastly offering small add-on incentives to fans which are not considered as perverse or seen to create bias may improve response rates. The modern technology of social media has transformed the concept of socialisation and football fans can interact socially and share experiences without physically meeting. The social media platform must therefore be optimised and

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should include Chat rooms, Instant Messaging, Twitter categorized by hashtags and personalized communities on Facebook.

Secondly, there exists the potential for increased football consumption in South Africa and an opportunity for team owners and administrators of the sport to find innovative ways in which to maximise the use of the positive motivators of Performance, Excitement and Esteem identified in this study and to address the lack of Socialisation and Diversion as motivators. Clubs must work on improving the quality of their performance; the skills and mastery exhibited by the players. The overall outing can be made more exciting by including other entertainment add-ons before the game and during the interval. Stadiums could introduce free Wi-Fi access to enable the current trends of socialisation through social media.

Thirdly, the shift to support from local teams to international teams is a growing phenomenon. Unless there is a clear and concise strategy to curb this expansion, the sustainability of local teams will be severely compromised. Aside from addressing the motivators and constraints for supporting local teams, administrators need to look at other innovative options such as pairing with international teams and sharing resources, incorporating international star players into the team; and building unique emotional experience for fans to keep their support.

Fourthly, similar future studies into this population should simultaneously investigate both constraints and motivators. Research must include the effect of constraints on the behaviour of South African fans. Some of the constraints include access to and proximity of stadiums to fans homes, ticket pricing, fans income levels and affordability to subscribe to pay television (the medium in which most international football is viewed).

Fifthly, The consumption of football by local fans is high and there is an inherent desire for the fans to want to watch football at stadiums. The challenge to football practitioners is how to maintain this interest in football. South African sports managers and administrators must take cognisance of the trend of substitution to television watching as a preferred mode of consumption and to find ways to induce the fans who prefer television to increase the number of matches that they attend at stadiums. They should also aim to address the constraints that drive the fans that prefer to watch at stadiums from shifting to substitution by television watching. They need to follow the various broadcasting strategies instituted by other leagues in an attempt to limit this shift such as placing restrictions on the number of games allowed to be broadcast live, blocking the television coverage of only their regular Saturday afternoon fixtures, imposing restrictions on the number of games that are allowed to be broadcast as well as broadcasting times and imposing blackouts when ticket sales

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are not adequate. This necessitates a balanced and cautious approach so as not to influence the economics of the sport.

Finally, the shift to support from local teams to international teams is a growing phenomenon. Unless there is a clear and concise strategy to curb this expansion, the sustainability of local teams will be severely compromised. Aside from addressing the motivators and constraints for supporting local teams, administrators need to look at other innovative options such as pairing with international teams and sharing resources, incorporating international star players into the team; and building unique emotional experience for fans to keep their support. The attachment and identification of fans to their team usually overrides many constraints. Fans would rather choose an alternate mode of consumption to follow their favourite team's than to switch to a new team. Local clubs must build interest and attachment to the club, otherwise fans will likely choose international teams who can fulfil these criteria.

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Appendix A: Survey Questionnaire

I am conducting research to better understand the behaviour of sports fans in relation to the ways that we watch football. My research is aimed at understanding the dynamics at play in order to improve the ever growing problem of low attendance numbers at domestic football matches in South Africa.

To that end, I would like to request that you complete a short survey about your behaviours and perceptions relating to live soccer attendance and viewing.

This will help us better understand the problem, and should take no more than 10 minutes of your time. Your participation is voluntary and you can withdraw at any time without penalty. All information will be kept secret and confidential. By completing the survey, you indicate that you willingly participate in this research. If you have any concerns, please contact my supervisor or me. Our details are provided below.

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Part 1: Qualification Questions

I understand that the following survey is for research purposes, and that all information is confidential	Yes/No
I live in South Africa	Yes or No
I am a fan of football/soccer	Yes or No

If yes to both questions, survey continues.

If no to either question, thank participant for their time and input and end the survey.

Part 2: Demographics

In which province do you live?	Dropdown menu with 9 provinces in South Africa: 1. The Eastern Cape. 2. The Free State. 3. Gauteng. 4. KwaZulu-Natal. 5. Limpopo. 6. Mpumalanga. 7. The Northern Cape. 8. North West.
In which city/town do you live?	Free text entry
What is your Gender?	Male/Female
What is your age?	Free text entry

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What is your race?	Black/White/Coloured/Indian/Other
Employment Status	Employed/Business Owner/Unemployed
Income per month?	Dropdown menu with ranges: 1. R0-R5,000 2. R6,000-R10,000 3. R11,000-R15,000 4. R15,000 – R20,000 5. R20,000 and up

Part 3: Consumption Motivation Factor

Please select from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree), your feelings toward why you choose to watch live football.

	[1] Strongly disagree	[2] Disagree	[3] Somewhat disagree	[4] Neither agree or disagree	[5] somewhat agree	[6] Agree	7] Strongly Agree
Socialization (SOG) The chance to socialize with others The opportunity to interact with other people							
Performance (PER) The gracefulness associated with the game The natural elegance of the game							

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Excitement (EXG) I enjoy the excitement associated with the games I find the games very exciting							
Esteem (EST) I feel like I have won when the team wins I get a sense of accomplishment when the team wins							
Diversion (DIV) I can get away from the tension in my life It provides me with a break from my daily routine							

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Part 4: Modes of Consumption

What is the name of your favourite local team?	Free text entry
How many games have you watched live at the stadium in the last three months?	Free text entry
How many games have you watched live on television in the last three months?	Free text entry
Do you prefer watching games at the stadium or on television?	Yes/No
Do you have a favourite international team?	Yes/No
If yes, how many games have you watched live on television in the last three months?	Free text entry

	[1] Strongly disagree	[2] Disagree	[3] Somewhat disagree	[4] Neither agree or disagree	[5] somewhat agree	[6] Agree	7] Strongly Agree
I prefer international football over local soccer?							
International soccer is more entertaining that local soccer?							
International soccer has more quality that local soccer?							

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