

**SELECTED MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES THAT INFLUENCE
SPECTATOR ATTENDANCE OF PROFESSIONAL
WOMEN'S SOCCER MATCHES**



**VAAL UNIVERSITY
OF TECHNOLOGY**

Inspiring thought. Shaping talent.

by

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my most adorable daughter Palace Nkanelo Mabasa with a reminder of the quote from the drama film *Elelwani*:

“When the gourd is hanging down, it does not mean it is about to fall”

DECLARATION

I, Peace Nhlawutelo Mabasa declare that the contents of this dissertation “**Selected motivational variables that influence spectator attendance of professional women’s soccer matches**” represent my own unaided work, and that all the sources used or quoted in this research study have been adequately identified and acknowledged using references and that this dissertation has not been previously submitted by a degree at any other academic institution.

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Date: June 2022

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This dissertation is being submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Management in Business Administration.

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I hereby give consent for my dissertation, if accepted, to be available for photocopying and for interlibrary loan, and for the title and summary to be made available to outside organisations.

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: Sport consumption; involvement; team identification; vicarious achievement; perceived value; satisfaction; social interaction spectator attendance; willingness to attend.

Sport has become the great unifier globally since governments, countries and organisations are using it as a resource to bring people together. The sport industry is one of the fastest rising business segments and its primary aim/objective is to generate the revenue from sport spectators. In the past decade, the behaviour of sport spectators has received increasing attention in academic literature. A better understanding of how and why sport spectators go to stadiums and travel great distances to support their sport clubs is of great interest to sport marketers. Soccer, in particular, is perhaps one of the greatest sport phenomena in terms of its attraction for hundreds of thousands of occasional spectators of every age and gender, who come together in soccer stadiums around the globe every week to watch games. In South Africa, soccer is the leading sport from both a participation and spectator viewpoint. Understanding sport consumers willingness to attend is arguably one of the most important concerns in sport marketing and consumer-relationship management. As found in sport consumption literature, a “good relationship with sport consumers by sport clubs is an essential factor for a successful sport business” because it is much cheaper to serve satisfied consumers and easier to sustain their support.

The purpose of this study was to examine selected motivational variables that influence spectators’ attendance of professional women’s soccer matches to better understand the development of the sports consumption sector. There is an absence of research conducted concerning this direction and subsequently a lack of existing literature, especially among women’s sport. To contribute to filling this void, this study attempts to measure the relationships between these variables. Earlier research has demonstrated that consumers’ willingness to attend is highly determined by their satisfaction.

This study is descriptive and correlational in nature and follows a quantitative research approach. The target population comprised spectators of professional women’s soccer in the Gauteng province of South Africa. A snowball sampling technique was used to identify the participants fitting the predetermined sample standards. A total number of 316 questionnaires were received and analysed. Relevant areas, research approaches and data acquiring procedures were described. Additionally, means and factor analysis were performed to determine the level of selected motivational variables, team satisfaction and willingness to attend of spectators and to establish the underlying factors of the constructs respectively. Moreover, a correlation analysis was

conducted to establish the strength and direction of the relationship between the study variables. Lastly, a regression analysis was performed to check the predictive relationship between the study's constructs.

The study revealed that motivational variables (vicarious achievement, involvement, social interaction, perceived value) have a significant relationship with spectator satisfaction. In addition, spectator satisfaction was found to be the determinant of spectator willingness to attend professional women's soccer matches. Based on the results of this study, this research adds to the scant literature on spectators of women's sport and proposes perspectives on the level of motives and behaviours of spectators, which can be used by women's sport organisations and government organisations in elevating women's soccer in South Africa. In this way, sport organisations could develop spectator engagement campaigns and marketing materials in order to engender and enhance women's spectator participation. Further, sport managers and sport marketers should make every effort to increase the perceived value of services such as fees which are fair, albeit under the global negative economic climate, in order to satisfy the needs of spectators and at the same time reap rewards from the presence of spectators in stadiums and ensure that this presence continues.

Based on these findings, limitations as well as future research opportunities and contributions of this study are discussed.

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Sport has become the great unifier globally since governments, countries and organisations are using it as a resource to bring people together (Oliver 2014:4). The sport industry is one of the fastest growing business segments and its primary aim/objective is to generate the revenue from the sport spectators (DeSarbo & Madrigal 2012:199). Sport and its magnetism break down cultural resistance among hundreds of millions of people and heals cracks between people and countries (Wiid & Cant 2015:383). KPMG (2014), Stander and Van Zyl (2016:1) and Business Wire (2019:1) estimated the worldwide sport business to be worth more than \$600 billion (US) per annum. Football, also referred to as soccer, generates €20 billion (\$28 billion) yearly. Oman, Pepur and Arneric (2016:20) assert that there has been more interest in football in recent years, which attracts large investments from corporate companies.

In the South African context, soccer is keenly observed among South Africans, both in terms of participating and being a spectator (Brock, Botha & Fraser 2016:668). Being a sports spectator has also increased in the present world of sport and the details of being a sport spectator has been studied by many codes of sport (Karakus, Bisgin, Isik & Kayhan 2015:3; Duan, Liu & He 2020:409). Soccer in South Africa is one of the best sporting codes for a study due to its ability to attract thousands of spectators of different ages and genders, who come collectively to stadiums every week to witness games (Mogajane *et al.* 2019:1). Pifer, Wang, Scremin, Pitts and Zhang (2018:3) maintain that football is growing both locally and internationally and is arguably the most popular sport, recreationally and economically, because of the power it has in attracting spectators. Through its commercial offering, contribution to the economy, leisure and tourist sector, football also plays a significant social role in the history of South Africa by providing involvement and an opportunity for social interaction as well as uniting a divided nation (Standar & Van Zyl 2016:2).

Although there are many sporting codes in South Africa, soccer remains the most supported and understood sport by the majority of individuals (Mogajane *et al.* 2019:1). However, spectators pay more attention to well established leagues (Premier Soccer League) and teams (Orlando Pirates, Mamelodi Sundowns and Kaizer Chiefs) while neglecting professional women soccer. Women's soccer in South Africa had been played for more than two decades, well before the country's return to the FIFA fold in 1991 (Engh 2011:138). South Africa has been among the pioneers of women's soccer in Africa, but successive teams have continually missed out on continental success at

various championships over the past 20 years (Adewuyi 2021:2). Women's soccer has been seen both on the national level (Banyana Banyana) and provincial level (Sasol sponsored provincial league). The growing popularity of women's soccer in South Africa has led to the launch of the ABSA women's league in 2009 (which is currently known as the Hollywoodbets super league), an initiative for the growth and development of the women's side of the sport (Sibembe 2019b:1).

The South African Football Association (SAFA) launched the long-awaited National Women's League (SNWL), the first of its kind on the continent in 2019. The league consists of 12 teams. The teams are the nine winners of the Sasol Provincial League from each province and in addition to these nine, the two women's teams that exist from ABSA premiership teams (Mamelodi Sundowns and Bloemfontein Celtic), as well as the winners of the university women's league (University of Johannesburg and Tshwane University of Technology), make up the league. Women's professional soccer has increased in popularity over recent years and is now the fourth largest team sport behind only men's football, men's rugby and men's cricket (Football Alliance 2019). Professional soccer is viewed as one in which participants engage largely or entirely with remuneration. Players are paid for the time they spend competing and training (Pratas, Volossovitch & Carita 2018:3).

Previous research studies emphasised more on those who play various codes of sport (players) rather than those who view sport (spectators) (Adeoya, Adeleye & Egawa 2021:81; Rasmussen, Dufur, Cope & Pierce 2021:1). Stander, Van Zyl and Motaung (2016:309) claim that in sport marketing, sports consumers consist of sport participants and sport spectators. A sport's participant is any person who directly and indirectly partakes in sport contests as a player, contestant, team member, coach, trainer, or any other person directly associated with a player contestant in connection with a sports activity (Pratas *et al.* 2018:3). Wiid and Cant (2015:385), however, define a sport spectator as a person who watches a sporting event taking place, and who is therefore more likely to give her/his views than becoming more actively involved. The spectators are important in the field of play because they wave their team flags, sing songs, display spectacular forms of dance composition, and even boo the opponents, energetically showing support to their team of choice (Theodorakis, Tsigilis, Wann, Lianopoulos & Al-Emadi 2016:178). Spectator attendance is an important display of the success of football in general (Ray 2014:2) and spectator attendance in sporting events is a crucial facet as it engenders spectator interest and engagement (Schomburg 2015:1). Hence, understanding the factors that trigger a spectator's willingness to attend football games is paramount in terms of generating interest and revenue. Attendance has been observed as a crucial role player, not in the logic of indirect or direct revenue, but also in growing performance on the field of play (Puri, Surujlal & Dhurup 2015:210). Azghadi,

Boroumand and Salari (2016:59) indicate that spectator attendance increases sponsorship because sponsors wish to expose their product to prospective consumers in an emotional atmosphere.

Motives are essential in understanding attendance of sporting events and other varieties of sports consumption (Dhurup 2010:204). However, mixed results from previous studies suggest that spectators have exceptional tendencies and a number of dispositional characteristics (Kim, James & Kim 2013:175). A study on the motivation for a sports consumption theory suggests that spectators of a specific sport have special underlying psychological motives as to why they follow and consume such sport (Stander & Van Zyl 2016:3). Ying (2012:2023) categorises sports consumption into three forms, which are physical sports consumption, participatory sports consumption, and watch-type sports consumptions. Considering these categories, this study focuses on the watch-type sports consumption.

Dhurup (2010:204), for example, investigated the motivational variables that influence spectator attendance in domestic rugby matches, and the results for this study revealed that rugby spectators are essentially motivated by social, physical skills of players, achievement, aesthetics, escape, drama and knowledge of the game. Mathidza (2011:1) investigated eleven factors that influence football match attendance in the South African Premier League. The results show that socialisation, performance, esteem, diversion, spectator motivation, leisure motivation, identification with sub-culture, family appeal, promotions and entertainment are significant in the South African context. Jere and Mathidza (2014:563) further investigated motivational factors that influence football match attendance in the South African Premier Soccer League post the 2010 FIFA World Cup. They identified top three motivational factors, namely, entertainment, family appeal, and socialisation in spectator sport attendance. Besides understanding the motive behind a spectator spending time and money on a specific football game, there is also a need to make clear the main factors that lure the spectator to the event itself (Gencer 2015:78). In order to fill this void, this study intends to investigate the motivational variables that influence spectator attendance in professional women's football matches in Gauteng. Activities of daily life, whether big or small, is a result of some form of motivation. For example, a simple act such as eating is motivated by hunger. In the same vein, spectators are motivated by various factors (which are: *team identification, vicarious achievement, involvement, social interaction, and perceived value*) to attend football matches.

1.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

In order to find adequate context and structure for this study, the Social Identity Theory (SIT) and Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is utilised as its theoretical basis.

1.2.1 Social Identity Theory

The social identity theory (SIT) proposed by Tajfel and Turner (1979) is a way of clarifying human behaviour and applied to understand why individuals engage in certain behaviours and not in others (Karakaya, Yannopoulos & Kefalaki 2016:325). It is grounded in the symbolic interaction framework, emphasising the connection between society and self (Hatch & Schultz 2004:60). The SIT, when applied to sports spectators, helps to explain their behaviour (Posten 1998:324). The theory states that people are motivated to behave in ways that maintain and boost their self-esteem. Having high self-esteem is typically a perception of oneself as attractive, competent, likable and a morally good person (Tajfel 1972:8). These attributes make the person more attractive to the outside social world, so making it more desirable for others to be in positive relationships with them (Karakaya *et al.* 2016:325).

Sport increases self-esteem for a person by association and affiliation (Posten 1998:324). By wearing the teams' colours, attending every game, and knowing all the players' names, positions and statistics spectators begin to feel as if they are an integral part of the team (Thomas, Rupert, Easterbrook, Vignoles, Manzi, D'Angelo & Holt 2017:3). Therefore, when a team does well, they encapsulate a sense of high self-esteem in connection with their team's victory. They connect with the team as if they were playing the game themselves. This connection that spectators develop towards their team is a type of in-group favouritism that helps a person develop a social identity by attaching themselves and attaining group membership in a group that has value and significance to them (Tajfel 1972:314). Spectators then seek to join and retain membership in those groups that have the potential for contributing positively to his or her identity, and therefore strengthening their own self-esteem (Thomas *et al.* 2017:3). The wisdom of applying the identity theory to devoted spectator behaviour is based on the assumptions that it applies to the context in question and that the theory has merit. SIT is applicable because spectator behaviour is socially visible, involves relationships with others, can lead to the formation of a spectator role and one can experience satisfaction, achievement and involvement associated with that role.

1.2.2 Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory (SDT) is an approach to human motivation and personality that uses traditional empirical methods while employing an organismic meta-theory that highlights the importance of humans evolving their inner resources for personality development and behavioural self-regulation (Deci & Ryan 1985). SDT explains the social environment implications (lack of psychosocial support in sport) on the well-being of people involved in sport, which includes spectators (Malchrowicz-Mo'sko & Chlebosz 2019:3). In addition, SDT provides an explanation

for understanding the variables that influences human motivation. Aicher and Brenner (2015:59) suggest that in SDT there are three basic needs that need to be considered, which are the driving force behind any person's motivation: (a) autonomy, people feel a sense of choice and endorsement of an activity; (b) competence, people feel efficacious or self-confident about an activity; and (c) relatedness, the need to experience social interactions, or the desire to feel connected with others.

SDT emphasises the distinctions between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci 2000:68). Intrinsic motivation includes interest in the football match and team, personal enjoyment and achievement, and feelings of challenge, while extrinsic motivation factors arise from outside the spectator such as fame, praise, social belonging and conditions (Kubayi, Toriola & Monyeki 2013:337). Kubayi, Coopoo and Morris-Eyton (2016:3) contend that a spectator who is intrinsically motivated will experience happiness, involvement and a sense of achievement in attending a football match, whilst a spectator who is extrinsically motivated will approach various football matches with resistance in order to gain positive evaluation from others. In essence, SDT is pragmatic and useful in elucidating the motives underlying the sport spectator's attendance motivation. These theories (SIT and SDT) were used in this study as a cornerstone to understand the motivational variable that influence spectator attendance in professional football matches.

1.2.3 Motivational variables

Ryan and Deci (2000:54) define being motivated as "to be moved to do something or feeling impetus or inspiration to act." Sports consumption/spectator motivation is therefore defined as "the motives of sports spectators and their attitudes and behaviour towards players and teams" (Wiid & Cant 2015:387). The following sub-sections discuss the motivational variables that influence spectators' willingness to attend professional women's football matches.

1.2.3.1 Team identification

Team identification is defined as the level of emotional attachment felt by a sports spectator for a favourite team (Miller & Benkwitz 2016:4; Lock & Heere 2017:416). Team identification is documented as one of the important influences on spectator sports consumption, and it is also frequently referred to as team attachment (Rappole 2013:1; Gong, Pifer, Wang, Kim, Kim, Qian & Zhang 2015:1671; Kirkup & Sutherland 2017:9; Hallmann, Oshimi, Harada, Matsuoka & Breuer 2018:905). The argument is made by Theodorakis, Koustelios, Robinson and Barlas (2009:458) that such emotional attachment is unchangeable and does not change from season to season or after win or loss. Gensler (2017:17) revealed that the more a spectator identifies with

their favourite team, the more likely he/she feels the performance of the team personally. For example, when the team is winning, the spectator feels like he/she is winning too. On the other hand, when the team loses, spectators feel like they have lost.

Norris, Wann and Zapalac (2015:158) assert that a highly identified spectator shares a strong meaning of social identity with fellow spectators, since she/he is viewed as a committed spectator. Within the context of sports consumption behaviour, team identification was found to influence a spectator's cognitive, effective, and behavioural reactions (Bernache, Laurin & Bodet 2012:122; Biscaia 2016:4). Team identification and team satisfaction also communicate on how much spectators can make their sport team a large part of their life (Stroebe, Woratschek & Durchholz 2019:11). Previous research has demonstrated that team identification leads to spectator attendance (Gray & Wert-Gray 2012:276; Hallmann *et al.* 2018:905). In addition, researchers including Beyrami and Najafzadeh (2014:976) and Suh, Ahn and Pedersen (2013:6) found that there is a positive association between team identification and spectator satisfaction. A study by Dhurup (2012:742) further affirms that team identification positively influences satisfaction and future behavioural intentions. Hence this study proposes:

H1: Team identification is positively related to spectator satisfaction within the context of women's professional soccer.

1.2.3.2 Vicarious achievement

In a highly competitive and results-oriented society, the desire to succeed and accomplish can be a powerful motivator. However, an individual does not have to do this directly. Feelings of triumph can also be obtained indirectly through the achievements of others, and sport is an excellent medium for this (Reimers, Chao & Speechley 2018:124). Referred to as vicarious achievement, it designates the social prestige, self-esteem and empowerment that can be obtained via an affiliation with a successful team (Stander & Van Zyl 2016:3). Individuals motivated by vicarious achievement feel a sense of personal achievement and pride when their favourite team succeeds (Kim *et al.* 2013:1359). Individuals who fulfil their need for achievement via sport are also likely to attend a sports event if they perceive the results to be relevant to their self-esteem (Gerber & Terblanche 2012:76). The more closely a spectator links their sense of self with a team, the greater the self-esteem she/he derives from its successes. This in turn creates an emotional attachment to the team and raises desires to follow the soccer club wherever the match is played (Stander & Van Zyl 2016:3).

Dhurup and Dlodlo (2013:203) indicated that personal satisfaction and achievement is another indirect and non-monetary return that looks at how a person feels in the relation of the team performance; hence influencing spectator football consumption. In support of this, more than a few studies have recognised vicarious achievement as a key motive that drives sports event attendance (Gerber & Terblanche 2012; Kim, Byon & Yu 2013; Jensen & Limbu 2016:47). For example, Reimers *et al.* (2018:131) studied the influence of 14 motives on game attendance and found that vicarious achievement served as one of only five salient motives. Hirschi (2011:625) established a positive relationship between achievement and satisfaction. Therefore, this study proposes:

H2: There is a positive relationship between vicarious achievement and spectator satisfaction within the context of women's professional soccer.

1.2.3.3 Involvement

Involvement is the level in which spectators view sports as a central part of their living, and see sports as highly meaningful (Stevens & Rosenberger 2012:61; Chiu, Won & Leng 2019:1407). Involvement has a positive relationship with sport-related behaviour, therefore, the more involved a sports spectator becomes in his/her favourite team, the more likely he/she will attend team matches (Gong *et al.* 2015:36). The association between involvement and satisfaction in a sport context has been identified in the literature and empirically tested. For example, Qian, Wang, Chou, Kim and Gong (2017:36) indicated that involvement plays a role in spectator satisfaction: spectators with high involvement in a football team become motivated and are ultimately satisfied with their consumption compared to those with low involvement. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3: There is a positive relationship between involvement and spectator satisfaction within the context of women's professional soccer.

1.2.3.4 Social interaction

Social interaction is defined as the logic of liberation that individuals experience when they watch their favourite team play (Stander & Van Zyl 2016:3). Stander and de Beer (2017:55) define social interaction as a consumption motive which relate to social interconnection, likeness, and community with other spectator sports. Social interaction is also known as socialisation, or group association, which is observed as a personal desire to use sport spectating for interacting socially with other spectators who have related interests (Ha, Ha & Han 2013:68). It is reasonable to

postulate that sports' spectators use the unique communicative experience, which is known as sports' encounter. Spectators (whether they are life-time friends or complete strangers) share common information in terms of teams, players and even the sport in general, and also share an interest for the game and their favourite team (Hirt & Clarkson 2011:9). Karakaya *et al.* (2016:324), affirm that spectators attend a sport event because of the social interactions and as a result socialisation is an important motive for spectating an event. It is evident that sports consumers attend the sporting event in order to get an opportunity for interpersonal relations and to be sociable, which in turn brings about satisfaction (Jere & Mathidza 2014:564). It is anticipated in this study that spectator satisfaction emanates from social interaction via sports' consumption motives as an attitudinal aspect, which two are correlated. Hence this study hypothesised the following:

H4: There is a positive relationship between social interaction and spectator satisfaction within the context of women's professional soccer.

1.2.3.5 Perceived value

The significance of perceived value in relation to purchase/consumption intention is documented in the literature; however, it is only in recent years that the concept of perceived value has received increasing attention (Choi, Greenwell & Lee 2018:1460). The terms "perceived value" and "consumer value" have been used interchangeably in consumer behaviour literature (Raza, Siddiquei, Awan & Bykhari 2012:790). Perceived value is defined as the consumer's general valuation of the usefulness of a product or experience based on views of what is received and what is given (Jin, Lee & Lee 2013:852). Ramseook-Munhurrin, Seebaluck and Naidoo (2015:254) defined perceived value as transition between perceived benefits and perceived costs. Drawing from the consumer behaviour literature, consumer perceived value is a reliable predictor of consumer satisfaction and consumer purchase behavioural intentions (Ryu, Lee & Kim 2012:206; Nikaeen, Dadaneh, Navkhasi & Nematzadeh 2017:38). Furthermore, Yee, San and Khoon (2011:50) suggest that perceived value is an essential factor in consumption decisions. It is proposed in this study that spectators' perceived value could lead to spectators' satisfaction. Hence, this study proposed the following hypothesis:

H5: There is a positive relationship between perceived value and spectator satisfaction within the context of women's professional soccer.

1.2.3.6 Spectator satisfaction and willingness to attend soccer matches

The satisfaction concept is considered as an essential construct in sports marketing and businesses alike because it plays a key role on business performance as a predictor of purchase intention (Saleem, Ghafar, Ibrahim, Yousuf & Ahmed 2015:23). Satisfaction refers to a feeling about the requirements of goods and services which completes a pleasant level of consumption (Ioannou & Bakirtzoglou 2016:438; Han & Hyun 2018:78). A spectator's satisfaction of football matches can be a strong element to determine the loyalty of the spectator towards the sporting event (Pérez-Gálvez, Lopez-Guzman, Gomez-Casero & Cardozo 2017:350). Due to the fact that there is high competition between different football teams, it is important to strengthen satisfaction and loyalty of those spectators who attend matches. According to Gong *et al.* (2015:37), in the context of a sports spectator, "consumer satisfaction is [a] key element to consumer holding strategies that aim at keeping the spectator satisfied with a specific team". In consumer behaviour studies, satisfaction leads to many post purchase outcomes such as willingness to repurchase, spreading positive word of mouth and willingness to pay more (Chauke 2014:4; Chauke 2019:78). Furthermore, willingness to attend (WTA), desire to attend, future intention, intention to attend and behavioural intentions have been used interchangeably in consumer behaviour studies.

Future intention to attend is defined by Dhurup (2012:746) as propensity of sports spectators to attend games, follow and support their much-loved team. In sport spectator study, behavioural intention is defined as the intentions of spectators to attend future matches which they recommend to other people and remain loyal to them (Biscaia, Correia, Yoshida, Rosado & Marôco 2013:48; Biscaia 2016:5). Behavioural intentions have been viewed by researchers as a reliable predictor of real behaviour because they process the willingness to perform a particular behaviour (Park, Sung, Son, Na & Kim 2019:545).

As anticipated in this study, satisfaction is a reliable predictor of behavioural intentions (Haung, Yen, Liu & Chang 2014:109; Hahm, Breiter, Severt, Wang & Fjellstul 2016:154; Duan *et al.* 2020:412; Park *et al.* 2019:547). The level of satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) is produced by the sports' spectatorship experience, which in turn touches commitment and willingness to attend sport events. Research has demonstrated that spectator satisfaction has a positive relationship with game attendance (Foroughi, Shah, Nikbin & Hyun 2014:45). Moreover, Moreno, Prado-Gascó, Hervás, Núñez-Pomar, Sanz's (2015:1446) study revealed a positive relationship between satisfaction and willingness or desire to attend sporting events. It is within this background that this study proposed the following:

H6: There is a positive relationship between spectator satisfaction and willingness to attend matches within the context of women's professional soccer.

1.3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESIS

Based on the literature review espoused above, the following conceptual model was developed. The conceptual framework presented in Figure 1.1 conceptualises the relationship between team identification, vicarious achievement, involvement, social interaction, satisfaction and willingness to attend. The motivational variables form the predictor variables, where satisfaction acting as the mediating variable, where willingness to attend is the outcome variable.

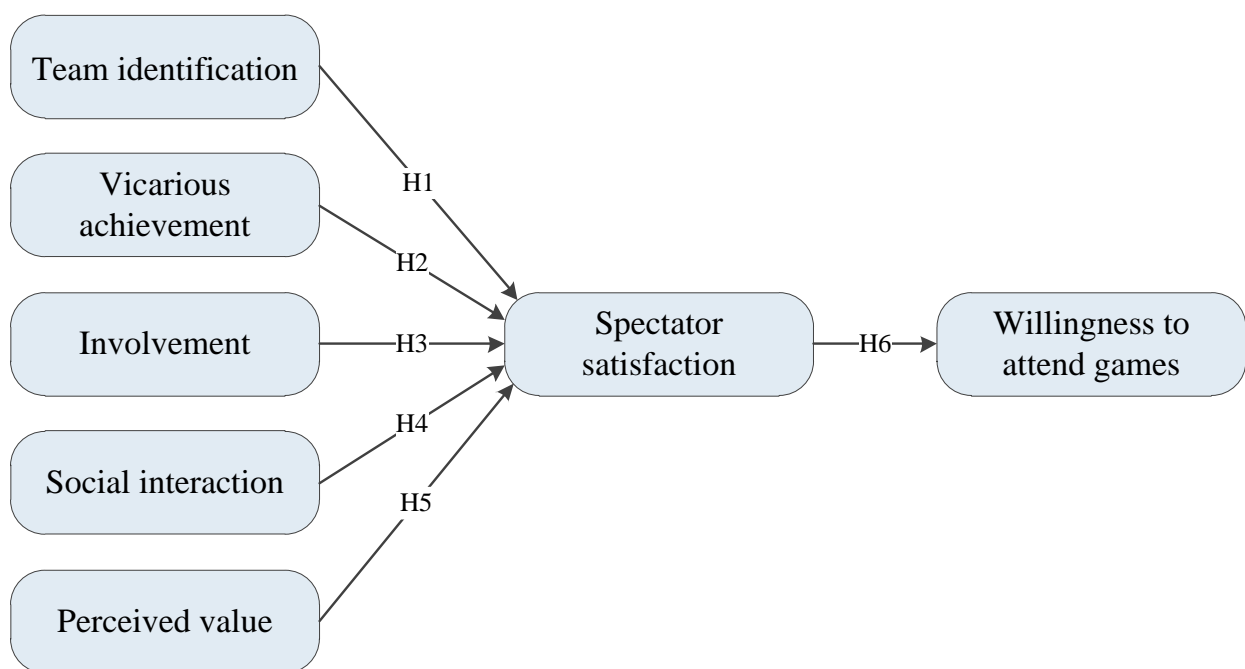


Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Soccer is one of the most followed sports in South Africa in terms of participation, spectatorship and media attendance (Isabirye & Surujlal 2012:58; Mogajane *et al.* 2019:2). However, there are issues surrounding the development of women's football in the country, including lack of sponsorship as well as spectator attendance. SAFA initiated the national women's football league in August 2019 as part of its goal of empowering women through soccer. However, there was no official sponsor for the women's league up to this point, according to SAFA vice-president, Rea Ledwaba, and the only source of income was through SAFA. Due to the lack of sponsorship, R53 million was injected into the creation of the women's football league over the past three years (Sibembe 2019b:1). Another R10 million has been allocated to the operation of the league, which

has been sourced from the 2010 World Cup Legacy Trust. In addition, the MECs for Sports and Recreation from the nine provinces have set aside funds from their respective budgets to contribute to the running of the league. NWL matches were not televised although the central factor to strengthen the commercial value and character of the league is television. Looking at a revenue perspective, the South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) had paid R110 million annually for 2015, 2016 and 2017 (R330 million over three years). Of this amount, SAFA had reinvested R40 million into women's soccer. The SABC had revised this amount for the 2018/ 2019 period, reducing it to R10 million. However, there is no way SAFA could sustain women's soccer development on its own without broadcast revenue (Sibembe 2019a:1).

SAFA also aims to create community involvement and public awareness, and generate better exposure for women's soccer, which would in turn attract attendance and sponsorship for the NWL and respective teams. Sponsorship is linked to spectator attendance of football matches (Jere & Mathidza 2014:563). As of the 2019/2020 season, PSL matches average 8.239 compared to 7.329 in 2018/19 in attendance. Kaizer Chiefs, Mamelodi Sundowns, Bloemfontein Celtic, Black Leopard and Orlando Pirates are the most attended matches. On the contrary, there were no official statistics on the attendance of women football league matches, although the South African national women's team average attendance statistics were used to justify the claim. Banyana Banyana averages 3.208 attendance per game, which is worrying given the fact that they are the best performing national football team in the country.

Despite the impact of event management and publicity of the sports, the attendance is still a major issue in the South African football arena (Mathidza 2011:10). It is evident that for any sporting event to remain successful and profitable, it not only requires sports' participants but also the attendance of spectators (Lumka & Kappel 2013:31; Mogajane *et al.* 2019:3). Sponsors invest their resources in football clubs where there is visibility (support) and where the sponsor can yield returns on their investment. Attendance is regarded as the main factor that can improve the standard of women's football, both financially and in performance (Moreland 2015:2-3).

According to Pamani (2017:1), there are quite a number of demanding issues in South African football and poor attendance is one of the major concerns. Palanjian (2012:10) ascertains that even when a sporting event has a great profile, there is limited knowledge about the motives of individuals who take their valuable time, money and well-being in watching the games. It is important to understand the motivational variables that motivate South African football spectators to devote monetary, physical and timeous effort in the consumption of their favourite sports (Stander & Van Zyl 2016:2). However, Mumcu, Lough and Barnes (2016:3) observed that the

success of women's sports will be determined by their ability to increase spectator attendance and therefore in order to increase or develop a solid spectator base and increase spectator attendance, consumers/ spectators of women's sport need to be understood.

Several attempts have been made both locally and abroad to provide solutions to the problem associated with attendance. Psychological and social needs were identified by Gencer (2015:77) as the primary spectator motives. Aycan, Kiremitci, Demiray and Gençer (2014:2) stated that the behavioural intentions of spectators are vital to determine factors or variables that affect these intentions, which may be helpful for soccer clubs to improve or develop proficient approaches to event attendance. Hirvonen (2014:19) identified self-esteem enhancement, diversion, entertainment, eustress, economic, aesthetic value, need for affiliation and family ties as the motivational factors for sports' spectator attendance. Karakaya *et al.* (2016:327) identified entertainment, aesthetics, vicarious achievement, fanaticism, escape, excitement and being with friends as motivational factors impacting the decision to attend soccer games in Greece.

Isabirye and Surujlal (2012:59) argue that in spite of the abundance of literature focusing on factors affecting the attendance of soccer matches abroad, there is a scarcity of literature investigating similar factors within a South African context. Remarkably, Dhurup (2010:217) indicated that in his study "The motivational variables that influence spectator attendance in domestic rugby matches," there might be some omitted sports' motivation constructs (variables); therefore additional studies of spectator sport from dissimilar ones are warranted to fully understand the motives of sports' consumers in South Africa. However, notwithstanding the increased attention given to the relevant field of investigation, such as the motives of sports' consumers, limited studies exist that pay attention to what variables motivate spectators to attend women's professional soccer. Hallmann *et al.* (2018:903) pointed out that further information about spectators of women's football is needed to uphold the sport adequately. Hence, this study is directed towards filling this void, and identified in the literature by investigating the motivational variables that influence spectator attendance of women's professional soccer.

1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives have been formulated for the study:

1.5.1 Primary objective

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the selected motivational variables that influence spectators' willingness to attend professional soccer matches in Gauteng, South Africa.

1.5.2 Theoretical objectives

The primary objective of the study was achieved through the following theoretical objectives to:

- provide an overview of the SIT and SDT as theories underlying this study;
- analyse the literature on team identification;
- conduct a literature review on vicarious achievement;
- conduct a literature review on involvement;
- conduct a literature review on social interaction;
- conduct a literature review on perceived value;
- explore literature review on spectator satisfaction; and
- examine literature review on spectators' willingness to attend women's matches.

1.5.3 Empirical objectives

The following empirical objectives have been formulated:

- to assess the level of professional women's soccer attendance in Gauteng;
- to determine the relationship between team identification and team satisfaction in women's soccer;
- to determine the relationship between achievement and team satisfaction in women's soccer matches;
- to determine the relationship between involvement and team satisfaction in women's soccer matches;
- to determine the relationship between social interaction and team satisfaction;
- to determine the relationship between attendance perceived value and team satisfaction in women's soccer matches; and
- to determine the relationship between spectator satisfaction and willingness to attend women's soccer matches.

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

A research design is defined as a plan or framework for formulating and addressing research objectives and hypotheses (Polit & Beck 2018:138). It enables a researcher to develop a specific structure to solve a particularly growing research problem, question or opportunity (McDaniel & Gates 2013:42). This study followed a correlational research design, specifically a single-cross sectional study because data will be collected only once from the sample elements (Burns, Veeck & Bush 2018:99). The single cross-sectional study is quantitative in nature, meaning that it seeks to understand the sample structure and thereafter recommend a final course of action (Malhotra 2010:108; Creswell 2014:32). A literature review and an empirical study/personally administered questionnaire were used as research methods.

1.6.1 Literature review

This study's literature review on pertinent variables was undertaken solely for the purpose of addressing its theoretical objectives. The literature appraisal focused on motivational variables such as team identification, vicarious achievement, involvement, social interaction, perceived value, spectator satisfaction and willingness to attend. To achieve this goal, a review of South African and international literature using secondary data sources such as the internet, textbooks, peer reviewed journals and online academic databases were consulted.

1.6.2 Empirical research design

In this study, the empirical study involved the collection of primary data and focused on the sampling design, procedures for data collection, data analysis, as well as the reliability and validity of the applicable measuring instrument. A quantitative approach was employed in this research study, as indicated earlier. Upon following the quantitative research approach, the following sampling design steps, as recommended by Brown, Suter and Churchill (2018:205) were employed. These include the target population, sampling size, sampling method, data collection method and measurement instruments, which will be discussed in the following sub-sections.

1.6.2.1 The population

Population is defined as the total set of individuals or entities having some shared characteristics (Polit & Beck 2018:739). In other words, a group of individuals from which questions can be asked or observations made, with the intent to establish required data structures and information. The target population can include individuals, groups, organisations, sales, territories and companies (Babin & Zikmund 2016:337). The target population relevant to this study was

spectators of professional women's soccer matches residing in the Gauteng province, South Africa. The population included both male and female participants from all racial groups in South Africa from the age of 18 and above.

1.6.2.2 The sample frame

A sampling frame refers to the list of components from which the sample is to be carefully chosen (Clow & James 2014:227). However, Malhotra (2010:189) states that the sampling frame can be assumed as a truthful form of the study population which the scholars can recognise. It was difficult to obtain an accurate sample frame for this study due to the absence of an accurate data base. Furthermore, it was difficult to attend soccer matches at the hosting centres (Soweto Nike centre, Pimville) due to Covid 19 restrictions. Details of the sample frame is discussed in Chapter 3.

1.6.2.3 Sampling method

Taherdoost (2016:20) identified two methods of sampling as probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling is a sampling technique in which the probability of selecting each individual is the same or at least known, and which can be readapted statistically (Gerrish & Lathlean 2015:587). Grove, Burns and Gray (2013:362) define non-probability sampling as a sampling technique whereby every element of the population has a chance to be counted in the sample. A non-probability snowball sampling method was utilised in this study. Snowball sampling is a special non-probability method used when the desired sample characteristic is rare, hard-to-reach populations, and when there is a lack of a serviceable sampling frame (McDaniel & Gates 2013:285; Ang 2014:132). Details of the sampling method is discussed in Chapter 3.

1.6.2.4 Sample size

Sample size refers to the number of elements to be involved in the study (Polit & Beck 2018:166). When establishing sample size, many aspects must be addressed, including the nature of the research and completion rates, resource constraints and the type of multivariate statistics to be performed (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson 2014:85). Further discussion of the sample size is alluded to in Chapter 3.

1.6.2.5 Data collection and measuring instrument

Data was collected through a survey using a self-administered questionnaire. Surveys are commonly used to reduce response bias as well as the respondents' ability to communicate with the researcher (Babin & Zikmund 2016:179). A self-administered questionnaire was chosen

because respondents can answer the questionnaires at their own convenience and the low cost-per-completion makes it an economical method for surveying large samples (Bryman & Bell 2007:242). The questionnaire was divided into five sections (A-E). Section A was used to gather demographic data of the respondents, including gender, age, location, ethnicity, educational background, and Section B was used to gather frequency of attendance using both multiple choice and dichotomous questions. Section C, divided into sub-sections, comprised motivational variables (team identification, vicarious achievement, involvement, social interaction, and perceived value). Section D comprised team satisfaction and Section E covered willingness to attend women's professional soccer matches.

Sections C to E of the questionnaire applied a six-point Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree and 6= strongly agree. The questionnaire included a covering letter describing the nature and purpose of the study and requesting participation.

1.7 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Following the fieldwork, the obtained data was edited and cleaned to remove inconsistencies and missing data. Subsequently, the data was captured into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and then imported into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS Version 27.0) for analysis. At first, the sample composition was examined using frequency distribution graphs and tables. Thereafter, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to summarise the data set. From the factor scores, the descriptive statistics was computed, including measures of central tendency (mean) and measures of variability (variance and standard deviation). The strength and direction of relations between the identified variables was analysed using Pearson's correlation coefficient statistic. The theorised hypotheses were tested using regression analysis.

1.8 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

To ensure the suitability of the research instrument, both reliability and validity were tested in this study. The degree to which a metric is unbiased and consistent through time is referred to as its reliability (McDaniel & Gates 2013:215). The reliability of this study was assessed through computing Cronbach's Alpha coefficients, whereby values between 0.70 and 1.00 were considered adequate evidence of the internal consistency among the scale items.

Validity is an assessment of the measurement's precision in relation to what actually exists. (Feinberg, Kinnear & Taylor 2013:128; Burns & Bush 2014:214). In this study, construct, convergent and predictive validity was evaluated. First, construct validity was ascertained through

factor analysis and also examined by the computation of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the scale and sub-dimensions of the scale. Secondly, convergent validity was evaluated through the computation of Spearman's correlation coefficients. According to Field (2013:2047), the item-total correlations should be above 0.30 for each item to be retained in the study. Lastly, predictive validity was measured through regression analysis.

1.9 ETHICAL ISSUES

Ethics is viewed as a theory that consists of moral behaviour (Rossouw & Van Vuuren 2017:5). In research, Chauke (2014:9) views ethics as customs that help or guide the researcher. Details of ethical considerations are reported in Chapter 3.

1.10 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

The findings of this research were compiled in the form of an academic dissertation as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction and the background to the study

This chapter provides an introduction to the study, a preliminary literature review, the problem statement, research objectives, summary of hypotheses, and a concise discussion of the research methodology. The ethical issues guiding the study are also outlined as well as the chapter layout.

Chapter 2: Motivational variables, spectator satisfaction and willingness to attend

This chapter provides an overview of the theories underlying this study such as SDT and SIT. In addition, a comprehensive literature review on team identification, vicarious achievement, involvement, social interaction, perceived value, spectator satisfaction and willingness to attend is provided.

Chapter 3: Research methodology

This chapter discusses the research methodology in terms of the research design, the sampling design, data collection methods, statistical analysis as well as ethical considerations used in this study.

Chapter 4: Data analysis, interpretation and discussion of empirical findings

This chapter provides the analysis, interpretation and discussion of the empirical findings.

Chapter 5: Conclusion and Recommendations

This chapter presents the conclusion drawn from the research results and research objectives, and implications of the results. Recommendations, limitations and future research directions are also discussed.

CHAPTER 2

THEORIES, MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES, SPECTATOR SATISFACTION AND WILLINGNESS TO ATTEND WOMEN PROFESSIONAL SOCCER MATCHES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter provided the background to the study, the theoretical framework, preliminary literature review, and highlighted the problem statement. It further outlined the research objectives, proposed conceptual model and hypotheses formulation. The research methodology which was employed in the study was also highlighted. This chapter provides thorough discussions of the theoretical foundations to this study and all the important variables identified during the literature search.

Broken into different sections, this chapter commences by discussing the evolution of women's football in South Africa in order to understand its development and current situation facing women's soccer. Section 2.3 provides discussion on self-determination and social identity theory as the theories underlying this study. Section 2.4 discusses the selected motivational variables (team identification, vicarious achievement, involvement, social interaction and perceived value), spectator satisfaction, and spectator willingness to attend (WTA). The literature review examines previous work in order to gain significant insights into the topic field under consideration. It is also utilised to contextualise the research study at hand in order to defend the case under consideration.

As stated in Chapter 1 (under Primary Objective), the significance of motivational variables in sports' consumption motives cannot be overlooked. It is imperative, therefore, to examine how these selected motivational variables influence spectator attendance of women's professional soccer. This detailed literature review provides the foundation for the current research and has allowed the researcher to put forward a valid argument, providing an indication of what has been done in the subject area.

2.2 AN OVERVIEW OF WOMEN'S FOOTBALL IN SOUTH AFRICA

This section discusses three issues pertaining to women's professional soccer in South Africa. These are its evolution in South Africa, its challenges and current status.

2.2.1 Evolution of women's professional soccer in South Africa

Women's soccer in South Africa has evolved since its inception in the early 1960s and gained popularity in the 1990s before South Africa returned to the FIFA fold in 1991 (Lumka & Kappel 2013:15). In 1962, Orlando Pirates women's football club and Mother City Girls were the first, although short-term, of black women's football teams (Davie 2019:3). The first documented and organised women's football matches in South Africa took place in the early 1960s in Cape Town when the 'Mother City Girls' played short-play matches, and the team was organised from a male football team called Mother City Football Club, which was also based in Cape Town (Engh 2011:13). Apart from what has been reported from a newspaper profile on Mother City Girls in 1962, there's tacit information about the development and organisation of women football at this initial period (Engh 2011:13). It is worth noting that in the 1960s and 1970s, South African football was excluded from the world-wide football game because of its apartheid rules (Ephraim 2018:2). This led to challenges in forming the national women's' soccer team, owing to the exclusion of football in the world stage. It took more than three decades before a national women's team was formed in the 1990s.

Notwithstanding the fact that little was written about women soccer between 1960 and 1970s, researchers such as Pelak (2010:63) and Eng (2010:13) argued that white, middle-class women started consolidating and playing football as early as the late 1960s, which indicates that women's football existed for at least more than 50 years in South Africa, regardless of skin colour. The late emergence of women's soccer has been caused by racial segregation that took place in the country. Pelak (2010:64) indicated that the bottomless gaps of race and class in South Africa have meant that women in soccer do not essentially share the same experiences or form the same grouping.

In the late 1990s, South African women's football gained popularity and acknowledgement. According to a report from Pressreader (2017:1), Sanlam National Women's Football League was set up in the late 1990s with the vision of growing the number of women in soccer administration and a second season was played in 2002. After the insurance company (Sanlam) pulled out in 2003, the mobile provider Vodacom stepped into the gap and in the 2007/2008 season, Vodacom later withdrew and left women's football floating (Erasmus 2009:2). In 2009, the ABSA banking group took the initiative to sponsor the South African Football Association's (SAFA) regional women football league, when the ABSA banking group was thrilled to be able to assist with the development of women's soccer in South Africa (Erasmus 2009:3). In 2009, Sasol went into a partnership with SAFA. The Sasol Women's League, a South African premier's women's football

league was established in 2009 (SAFA 2017). The league comprises 144 teams, which compete within the nine provinces, with over 2800 female players competing on a regular basis. Interestingly, this allowed the Banyana Banyana technical team to scout and select the best players for the country's various national teams and gives recognition to the ever-growing spectacle of women's football. The Sasol League afforded many female footballers with chances to partake in regular competitive football throughout the year (SAFA 2017:22). The SAFA regional women's league occupied a critical space in women's football expansion, acting as a feeder to the Sasol league and eventually the senior national team, Banyana Banyana.

With little support and investment into the women's league, the country has seen a number of provinces in general and clubs in particular participate in the initiative. However, there are challenges facing this sporting code, especially in women's soccer. These are discussed in the section below.

2.2.2 Challenges faced by professional women soccer

It has been two decades since South Africa attained freedom and democracy: it is significant to trace women's football history and reflect on the challenges and achievements met by women on their journey of football (Ndimande-Hlongwa 2016:2). Regardless of the apartheid regime that was prevalent three decades ago, South African women's football still experience challenges in terms of media broadcast and feminism. Research has demonstrated that South African women's football suffered first under the apartheid regime and later in the post-apartheid regime (Ndimande-Hlongwa 2016:77). Based on the view of Engh and Potgieter (2018:44), the South African media, in most cases, tend to cover men's football and are inclined to display women footballers, not in their profession or sporting teams, but as 'mothers' or having a 'feminine side'. In support, lack of media coverage for women's football was caused by lack of financial provision, particularly from sponsors, not only for football but for women's sport in general in this country (Dlulane 2019:6). As a result, the growth of women's football has moved at a snail's pace (Kaya FM report 2018:1).

Access to financial resources is fundamental in developing South African women's football and in addressing problems of equivalence (Ndimande-Hlongwa 2016:80). From the 2012 SAFA budget of between R297-320 million, only R36 million was budgeted for women's football, representing just over 8% of the total budget (Commission on Gender Equity 2012). The above-mentioned figures highlight how large the void between men's and women's football is and how much still needs to be done in working towards bridging this void. Payne (2019:1) indicated that

there is no way SAFA can sustain women's football development on its own; they need sponsors. Having this in mind, it could be claimed that lack of sponsorship on national women's soccer has led to late payments of players and their technical teams. In July 2017, Banyana Banyana players protested because they did not receive their stipends after qualifying for the 2018 Women's Africa Cup of Nations, which was caused by lack of investors in women soccer (Ephraim 2018:1).

Mseleku (2018:1) also identified administration and playing facilities as other fundamental challenges affecting the development of women's soccer in South Africa. Agergaard and Botelho (2014:524) maintain that the development of women's football in South Africa has some obstacles such as lack of resources to play football. For example, there are places where women are denied soccer grounds to practise or play soccer matches. Wangari, Wango and Kimani (2017:18) assert that equal opportunities in sports need to be provided, including in soccer, so that women can also enjoy sport, particularly soccer.

Despite the challenges facing women's professional soccer in South Africa, it continues to grow.

2.2.3 Banyana Banyana and the formation of the South African National Women's league

In spite of the fact that women's soccer has struggled to raise its profile in a country which is so passionate about its men's national and club football teams, there are signs that it is becoming more and more popular with each passing year. In its short history, Banyana Banyana is the country's women football national team, which has achieved numerous milestones comprising: qualifying for 2019 FIFA Women's World Cup in France for the first time; winning the Council of Southern Africa Football Association's (COSAFA) cup twice (Payne 2019:1); qualifying for the 2012 Olympic Games; finishing as runners up at the African Women's championships three times; and being the first South African national football team to beat Nigeria in an international game (Lumka & Kappel 2013:16).

A report from Soccer Laduma (2019:5) indicated that the achievements of Banyana Banyana in recent years, with several COSAFA Cup victories, has strengthened its place as the 'queens' of Southern Africa as well as a spot at the World Cup, which has shown them to be one of the best teams on the African continent. At home, in 2019 SAFA launched the long-awaited National Women's League, which is recognised as the first of its kind on the continent (Sibembe 2019b:1). The league consists of 12 teams, which are the nine-time winners of the Sasol Provincial league from each province (Sundowns Ladies, Tshwane University of Technology, Celtic Ladies, Golden

Ladies, Coal City Wizards, Tsunami Queens, Richmond Ladies, University of Western Cape, First Touch, University of Johannesburg, Thunderbirds and Durban Ladies.

A report from Far Post (2020:1), posits that the SNWL was planned to be concluded on Sunday, March 29, 2020, and the log leading Sundowns Ladies was supposed to clash against their rivals TUT Ladies at the Lucas Moripe Stadium (Atteridgeville). The coronavirus brought the SNWL season (along with all other sporting activities in the country) to an immediate stop with just one game to go. SAFA declared the season over for the SAFA National Women's League, which was joyously received by Mamelodi Sundowns Ladies, as they were crowned the inaugural winners of the 2019/2020 competition (South African Football Association 2020:1).

Subsequently, great strides have been made by Banyana Banyana over the past few years, South Africa's local football scene has taken huge steps towards being a worldwide force. Currently, home-grown women's football stars can reach new heights with the launch of the Hollywoodbets Super League recognising, honouring and celebrating women's football in South Africa. In 2021, the South African Football Association (SAFA) has launched a R17 million sponsorship for women's football in the country (Kekana 2021:1). The Hollywoodbets sponsorship comes with a steep cash injection to the league, as it was announced that the winners of the tournament would receive R2 million in prize money (Qoshe 2021:2). The financial rewards would not be limited to just the champions, however, as the competition's runners-up would receive R1 million with the other participating sides, receiving R150 000 for their participation at the end of the season (Qoshe 2021:2). Hollywoodbets became the first-ever commercial partner of women's football in the country, which for many years has been hamstrung by lack of financial support.

Hollywoodbets have joined hands with the South African Football Association (SAFA) as the title sponsors of the 14-team SAFA National Women's League (Sunday World 2021:1). The teams are Bloemfontein Celtic, Coal City Wizards, Golden Ladies, Sundowns Ladies, Ma-Indies Ladies, Tsunami Queens, Durban Ladies, Richmond United, Thunderbirds Ladies, First Touch FC, University of Johannesburg Football Club, University of Western Cape Ladies, Tshwane University of Technology and Janine van Wyk Football Club.

The historic partnership is set to provide women football players in the country with an opportunity to realise their valued dreams, impress soccer spectators with their skills and give their spectators an opportunity to see their heroes in action every week (Hollywoodbets and South African Football Association 2021:2). This partnership is also set to promote coaches and administrators

through workshops, where they can sharpen their skills to assist to bridge the gap between grassroots football, top-flight football and the national team (Gounden & Chimavhi 2021:3).

Against this background of women soccer in South Africa, and its steady growth with sponsorship secured, it is necessary to examine soccer attendance in general and the theories that drive such consumption behaviours so that event spectators could generate further revenue for the sport. Studies on sport consumption behaviour of professional women's football would require a thorough understanding of two fundamental theories: the self-determination theory (SDT) and the social identity theory (SIT) in order to put the study into perspective.

2.3 THEORIES UNDERLYING THE STUDY

The self-determination theory and social identity theory are discussed in the following sections.

2.3.1 Self-determination theory

Self-determination theory (SDT) was originally established by Edward L. Deci and Richard M. Ryan some 40 years ago (Wisniewski, White, Green, Elder, Sohel, Perry & Shapka 2018:2). SDT is an empirically grounded, cumulatively constructed macro-theory of motivation, emotion, and personality (Vansteenkiste, Niemiec & Soenens 2010:105). The SDT associates personality, human motivation, and optimal functioning. It suggests that there are two key types of motivation, namely, intrinsic and extrinsic, which are influential forces in determining who we are and how we behave (Deci & Ryan 2008:3; Legault 2017:1).

Gencer (2015:77) and Özgider (2016:16) describe motivation as the mental device that inspires the attitude in the direction of achieving a goal. In this view, intrinsic motivation in the sports consumption literature is defined as the motivation that is activated by personal needs and attentions without having external effects or reasons (Özgider 2016:17). In support of the aforementioned view, Stander and Van Zyl (2016:4) assert that spectators of sports experience their consumption of sport as intrinsically satisfying and meaningful, which leads to the knowledge of optimistic emotional experiences. Keaton and Gearhart (2013:4) indicated that some spectators tend to be motivated by intrinsic motivation (aesthetics, eustress and entertainment), while others tend to be motivated by extrinsic motivation (self-esteem, escape, economics, group affiliation and family).

The concept of extrinsic motivation, in contrast, concerns all-instrumental motivation whose rewards and incentives for participation are “extrinsic to the activity” though not necessarily

external to the person (as in a tangible reward) (Elliot, Dweck & Yeager 2017:215). An individual is likely to attend games because of a promotion activity in which something is handed out at the gates or with tickets, including concessions and products are reduced in price to encourage attendance (Wilkins 2012:16). Within SDT, extrinsic motivation is perceived as a heterogeneous category of motivation and includes a range of motivations or forms of self-regulation (Elliot *et al.* 2017:215). Taking the afore-mentioned into account it is evident that both types of motivation are critical in sports consumption because intrinsic motivation offers internal motivations (entertainment and vicarious achievement) while extrinsic motivation offers external motivation (free tickets and price cuts).

In addition, Deci and Ryan (2010:2) indicated that SDT distinguishes autonomous and controlled motivation. In this sense, SDT demonstrates that autonomous motivation consists of motivation that arises internal sources and includes motivation from extrinsic sources for people who identify with an action's value and how it brings into line with their self-sense (Ackerman 2019:2). However, to be autonomous is an act with a full sense of volition, willingness, and choice (Brown, Creswell & Ryan 2015:112). Autonomous motivation triggers a sense of decision and experience of choice (Elliot *et al.* 2017:216). When a sports spectator chooses to either physically attend or follow through a mediated outlet, this spectator performs the action with volition, possesses the evidence of the action, and originates impulsive satisfaction from the action itself (Kim & Mao 2019:3-4). If an individual feels autonomous, associated with others and self-determined in a given context that individual is expected to have the extra intrinsic motivation (Malchrowicz-Moško & Chlebosz 2019:3).

In terms of controlled motivation, this motivation activates an intelligence of pressure and responsibility in the action. According to Kim and Mao (2019:4), extrinsic rewards such as touchable or communicated rewards can encourage controlled motivation. As observed by Deci and Ryan (2002:12), with controlled motivation, the sports consumer may be involved in a sport activity to attain some helpful outcomes. Furthermore, when a sports consumer participates in consumption of sport for any reason other than the activity itself (i. e., socialisation), it can be argued that the spectator is motivated by the controlled motivation (Kim & Mao 2019:4). It is within this background that SDT was used as a cornerstone to understand spectator's willingness to attend soccer matches. In their study of sports consumption motives Anfara and Mertz (2014:22) indicated that SDT provides a general lens to determine the consumption behaviour of a sports spectator. This behaviour can be a willingness to attend professional women's soccer matches.

2.3.2 Social identity theory

Social identity theory (SIT) initiated from British social psychologists Henri Tajfel and John Turner in 1970s on the basis that individuals make every effort to join social groups which reflect positively on their self-concepts (Tajfel & Turner 1979:34; Lock, Tailor, Funk & Darcy 2012:283). According to Cohen (2017:2), SIT is a powerful or dominant background for a study to explore spectators. Based on this theory, a person has both personal and social identities, and their social identities are interconnected to their demographic orderings (e. g., gender or race), or organisational associations (e.g., in religious, social and educational associations). It becomes more possible for every individual to identify with a sports club when it signifies the characteristics they assign to in their individual self-concepts (Cohen 2017:2). Research on identification proposes that when people identify with particular social groups, those individuals are more likely to have an in-group preference and need for positive distinctiveness (Lee & Ferreira 2013:164). In this case, Lock *et al.* (2012:283) show support to the SIT by indicating that individuals do their best in order to attach themselves to social groups that show positive reflection on the way they view themselves.

SIT holds the view of social comparison by proposing that people prefer to connect themselves to individuals who are similar or slightly better (Rondon-Azcarate 2017:13). Sports literature demonstrates that spectators are more likely to identify with a sports team when it denotes the qualities an individual assigns to their self-concepts (Cohen 2017:2; Chang & Wann 2022:4). Still, Rhee, Wong and Kim (2017:119) state that identity is noticeable from one group (in-group) view to those who are from another group (out-group) and dissimilar from them. In other words, identification happens when individuals use the term such as “us” and “them” to differentiate and compare each other. Spectators unquestionably make their choices on consumption, depending on their basic desires (Gencer 2015:78).

SIT forms the basis for the conceptual model where highly identified individuals will show more intense emotional replies towards the object of an individual’s identification, which leads to higher satisfaction (Mills 2016:16). In sports consumption, Beyrami and Najafzadeh (2014:967) examined the relationship between team identity and satisfaction on spectator attendance of the Tractorsazi Tabriz football team and found that the higher identity spectators attend games more often and buy the approved products more frequently, which are offered by team, than those who have low identity. In addition, the above-mentioned researchers indicated that identity has a significant effect on spectator behaviour, environmental satisfaction, and frequent attendance.

According to SIT, one of the core reasons why individuals identify with a group is to achieve their need to reduce uncertainty and boost self-enhancement (Johnson & Avolio 2019:846). Individuals look for identities (often linked to desired groups) that offer them a sense of their place in a group, organisation, or community (so reducing uncertainty) while enhancing their levels of self-esteem. In this sense, individuals are also motivated to identify with groups because they contribute to their feelings of competence (Brickson 2013:226). Hence, it is critical to apply SIT in this study to examine how spectators are motivated by social groups, or feel they belong to a group who attend women professional soccer matches.

There are several motivational factors influencing spectator attendance (Howell, Klenosky & McEvoy 2015:4; Shobian 2016:11; Lewis & Yoon 2016:2). Activities of daily life, whether big or small, are a result of some form of motivation. For instance, a simple act such as drinking water is influenced by thirst. Factors such as team identification, vicarious achievement, involvement, social interaction, and perceived value motivate spectators to attend football matches. These motivational variables are discussed in the subsequent sections.

2.4 MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES INFLUENCING SPECTATOR ATTENDANCE

Motivation denotes to an activated state within a person that drives or desires the individual toward goal-directed behaviours (Wang, James & Tsuji 2011:350). Touré-Tillery and Fishbach (2011:415) define motivation as the driving force within individuals that pushes them to action. It is fundamental for sports marketers to understand the reasons that cause and channel an individual's willingness to attend professional women's soccer matches. Past scholars have identified numerous motivational factors driving sports consumption, be it rugby, cricket or soccer. For example, *team identification* (Lee, Shin, Park & Kwon 2010:61), *vicarious achievement* (Dubihlela, *et al.* 2009:158; Sari, Eskiler & Soyer 2011:187; Kim, Trail & Magnusen 2013:40; Alonso & O'Shea 2014:7; Jere & Mathidza 2014:567; Van Zyl & Rothmann 2014:328; Jensen & Limbu 2016:45), *involvement* (Iwasaki & Havitz 1997:256; George & Stavros 2013:6; Samra & Wos 2014:271), *social interaction* (Kim *et al.* 2013:40; Ha *et al.* 2013:68; Stander & Van Zyl 2016:6;), *perceived value* (Tu, Li & Chih 2013:471; Ma & Kaplanidou 2019:471) and *spectator satisfaction* (Choi, Tsuji, Hutchinson & Bouchet 2011:112; Koo, Byon & Baker 2014:129; Park *et al.* 2019:547).

Based on the motivation for sport consumption theory, spectators of a specific sport have dissimilar underlying psychological motives as to why they follow and consume such sport

(Cottingham, Carroll, Phillips, Karadakis, Gearity & Drane 2014:51; Karakaya *et al.* 2016:321). Because people are diverse, their motives to follow the sport will differ (Shank & Lyberger 2014:22). As a result, sports spectators will have diverse motives as to why a sport attracts them. This study has identified the team identification, vicarious achievement, involvement, social interaction, and perceived value as motivational factors based on their importance to both individual and group spectators based on a review of literature.

2.4.1 Team identification

Team identification is the most studied construct in the sports consumption behaviour literature because of its undeviating and deviating effect on many sports' consumption behaviour, such as attending a sports event (Warren 2011:37; Theodorakis, Wann, Nassis & Luellen 2012:25); Theodorakis *et al.* 2016:178). Team identification provides a good relationship between spectators and clubs (Aycan *et al.* 2014:5). Sung (2015:35) suggests that sports markets must understand the importance of 'team identification' because it results in a longstanding connection with a football club. Interestingly, Theodorakis *et al.* (2012:25) indicated that team identification plays a significant role in regulating a higher level of attendance by spectators and higher level of consumption because many spectators attend sports events to watch their favourite player or team.

Team identification is one of the basic psychological directions influencing the behaviour of sports spectators (Lee *et al.* 2010:60). It is defined as a spectator's psychological connection to a team, which is the process whereby a spectator views the team as an extension of him or herself (Clippert 2010:3; Absten 2011:1; Dhurup 2012:745). In other words, spectators identify themselves with a team that performs well. For example, if a team is winning and performing well in the season, spectators who identify themselves with that team will feel as if they are winning too; on the other hand, if a team loses a game, spectators might feel like they have lost too, and become upset because of that loss (Gensler 2017:16). In addition, Reimers *et al.* (2018:123) highlighted that team identification holds the view that a spectator has as the connection between themselves and a sports team. Furthermore, team identification is the level of psychological attachment to a specific sports team (Lee & Hur 2019:5). Interestingly, these psychological attachments are unwavering and do not change from win to loss and time to time. Team identification and attachment have been used interchangeably in the literature. Attachment points to influence the formation of team identification, which, in turn, affects the attitude towards the team sponsors (Filo & Coghlan 2016:181). The team attachment concept is defined as one's psychological attachment to a football team, although an aspect of team identification (Wang & Matsuoka

2014:61), team identification is equivalent to team attachment (Dersabo & Madrigal 2012:200; Lock & Heere 2017:4). A study by Prayag, Mills, Lee and Soscia (2020:373) found that team identification in females is stronger because of attachment to sports, whereas males have stronger team identification based on player attachment.

Several scholars have applied the social identity theory to study team identification (Mofokeng, Bevan-Dye & De Klerk 2015:131; Delia & James 2017:2; Jang, Wann & Ko 2018:6; Chung, Brown & Willett 2019:242). As indicated earlier, the SIT suggests that a football team with a highly identified spectator should experience positive results (Silveira, Cardoso & Quevedo-Silva 2019:53). In this case, understanding the sense of the team is essential, as spectators identify with a team which affects attitudes and behaviours (Delia & James 2017:417).

A spectator who is reported as being highly identified with the team is more involved and invested in the team (Prayag *et al.* 2020:374). This spectator is more invested in the team's overall performance and feels a special connection with other spectators of the team, compared to those who are reported as having a low level of identification with the team (Pugh 2015:3). Interestingly, high levels of team identification are associated with important investment of time, energy and financial resources, such as greater levels of attendance, increased amounts of money spent on the team, more numerous purchases of team merchandise and memorabilia, and greater rates of television/radio consumption (Norris *et al.* 2015:158). Alonso and O'Shea (2014:14) maintain that individuals with higher levels of team identification are ready to "invest" more in the team they support, together with attending more games, or buying club/team merchandise. In this study context, it can be posited that professional women's football spectators who are highly identified with a women's team at a professional level are more likely to intend to be present during their favourite women's soccer matches. There are levels of development in which a spectator goes through as a process of team identification. These levels are discussed in the next section.

In order to understand the levels of development of team identification, the Psychological Continuum Model (PCM) is reviewed. The PCM suggests that both psychological and sociological procedures of an individual's progressive development of team identification occur through four stages, namely, of awareness, attraction, attachment and allegiance (Taghizadeh, Ghorbani & Behnam 2015:64; Gargone 2016:3; Joseph, Yusof & Geok 2017:55). Figure 2.1 presents the levels of development of team identification followed by a discussion based on their occurrence.

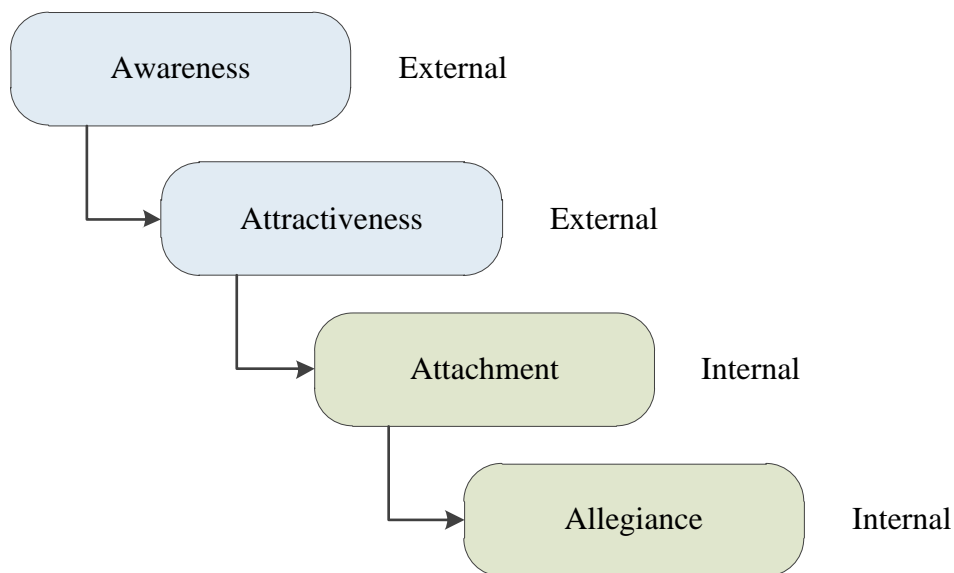


Figure 2.1: The levels of development of team identification

Source: Beaton *et al.* (2009:180) and Lock *et al.* (2012:290)

Awareness as the first level is perceived as the ability of spectators to remember and identify a brand from his or her memory and is an important factor in the process of consumer decision making (Prasertsakul & Rerngrittirong 2014:948). To fit the context of the study, awareness is defined as the capability of professional women’s football spectators to remember and identify their team logo and soccer kit on their memory. Kirkup and Sutherland (2017:10) argue that within a sport context, spectators may feel attached to the specific sports event based on the actual connections with sporting event actions, for example, the team and other individuals who attend the sports event.

Attractiveness as the second stage is viewed as a distinct interest, or the first viewpoint that is established toward the sports team (Taghizadeh *et al.* 2015:65). More interestingly, Murphey (2014:10) indicates that during the attraction stage, the spectator acknowledges the fact of having a desire based on hedonic needs (excitement and entertainment) and utilitarian needs (achievement and acceptance). In support, Park (2014:41) point out that awareness can be triggered through socialising with friends and family, and media and team awareness is related to social situational influences such as “desire to belong”. Alexandris, Du, Funk and Theodorakis (2017:673) contend that the attractiveness or at the attraction stage, an individual establishes an encouraging effect on the sports activity, although this individual still has a weak and unstable psychological connection.

Attachment can be defined as the process through which an individual forms a psychological connection with a sports team (Goldman 2014:26; Mills 2016:12). Doyle, Kunkel and Funk (2013:24) argued that the intrinsic process motivates individuals at the attachment stage, as an association to the purpose of the sport takes on extra personal meaning. Even though individuals in the attraction stage have developed a preference, their associates are not strong or stable, as their motives for support are predominantly extrinsically motivated (Doyle *et al.* 2013:23). Still, this low-level association of attraction may grow into a stronger, more meaningful association characterised by the attachment stage.

Allegiance is the final stage in the level of development of team identification, in which an individual has established a long-term psychological association with a detailed recreational activity (Alexandris *et al.* 2017:673). A sports spectator with a high level of allegiance is shaped by attitudes which consist of standards, self-concepts, and beliefs towards a specific team and these attitudes trigger a solid psychological connection between a spectator and the sports team (Yoon, Backman, Sanderson, Denham & Ram 2013:2). At this stage, spectators are expected to be capable of successfully negotiating internal and external limitations and overpower them in order to keep up with their allegiance (Alexandris *et al.* 2017:673).

Awareness and attractiveness develop externally, as entities classify themselves with a sports team via sports media update, or referrals by existing spectators (Lock *et al.* 2012:287). In dissimilarity, attachment and allegiance develop internally, as the team identification narrates to an individual self-concept (Shezi 2016:20). Murphey (2014:10) agrees with Lock *et al.* (2012) that the external level of awareness is categorised into two stages, namely, the awareness process and awareness results. The awareness process focuses on socialisation, or how an individual finds out about an activity, whereas awareness outcomes indicate the experience attained about the sports products. The external level awareness is reflected as a key influence in developing team identification (Park & Dittmore 2014:331). External level attraction by spectators is expressed as interest or an early approach towards a sport team and the interest resulting from social factors as the influence of family or friends (Shezi 2016:20). The internal level allegiance represents the stronger fitting together amongst the sport's activity and spectators, which results in reliable commitment and dedication to the activity (Murphey 2014:17). Several factors that influence team identification have been documented in the literature and are discussed in the next section.

The levels of development of team identification have been outlined, but what influences a spectator to identify with the team is not documented. Hence, this section discusses the factors

that influence team identification in order to devise strategies that enhance spectator team identification. Several authors have identified factors that influence team identification of sports spectators. For example, Prasertsakul and Rerngrittirong (2014:957) found that team similarities, team awareness and team attractiveness are factors that influence team identification in football clubs in the Thailand Premier League. The concept of team similarity is based on whether spectators observe themselves as sharing something, or being the same with members of a team, or even possessing attitudes that are alike to those held by members of the team (Hills, Heere & Walker 2018:280).

Keaton and Gearhart (2013:5) mentioned that team identification is influenced by socialisation, team characteristics and popularity. Socialisation can present an opportunity for human connection and the opportunity to socialise, which may attract spectators to sporting events (Kim *et al.* 2013:40). Moreover, this can lead to an ability to watch the team play in person (Keaton & Gearhart 2013:5). It also describes the effect of friends, peers and family in the selection of favourite sports. Foroughi, Nikbin and Iranmanesh (2016:114) identified the team characteristics as a factor which covers the individual's perceptions of the home team's basic features based on the team standing, winning percentage, number of star players, and team history. Popularity shows the role of media attention in the process of accepting a favourite team and its association with team aesthetics and home arenas (Keaton & Gearhart 2013:5).

Yoshida, Heere and Gordon (2015:328) identified spectator community attachment and sports attachment as factors that influence team identification. In addition, team identification is influenced by the symbolic power of sports teams to represent the associated social identities, such as city, state, and nationality (Yoshida *et al.* 2015:320). Individuals (spectators) also tend to assign identity salience when the community provides them with an opening for their sense of belonging, self-esteem, vicarious achievement and pride (Heere, Walker, Yoshida, Ko, Jordan & James 2011:409). The more a spectator advances an understanding of the individual players on a team, as well as how often the spectator is subject to media coverage of both individual players and the overall team, the more the spectator identifies with that particular team (Lock *et al.* 2012:284-285).

Theodorakis *et al.* (2012:31) identified the need to belong as a factor that influences team identification. Sports spectators are motivated to be surrounded by other spectators who share a related appreciation for a specific team and their shared belief in teams allow them to feel a sense of belonging (Pugh 2015:8). In support, Cohen (2017:2) indicated that individuals (spectators) are

more likely to identify with a team when it signifies the characteristics they assign to their own self-concepts. In this case, the professional women's soccer spectators can feel the need of belonging when the team meets the characteristics they assign to their own self-concepts. Theodorakis *et al.* (2012:28) further indicated that spectators should be more likely to satisfy their need to belong through their involvement with local teams.

Other factors such as the geographical location of the team (Shojaei, Ganjouei, Tojari & Azari 2011:199; Shezi 2016:19), sporting infrastructure (Lock & Filo 2016:20), eustress and aesthetics (Cohen 2017:1) have also been identified in different studies as antecedents of team identification. Several benefits may emanate from team identification for both sport spectator and the sport's team, these benefits are outlined in the next section.

From a team's perspective, team identification plays a major role in direct and indirect sports consumption, such as event attendance and purchases of team products (Theodorakis *et al.* 2012:26). Shezi (2016:18) shows that a team benefits financially because of higher attendance, seasonal ticket purchases and team licence merchandised sales. In addition, team identification is viewed by Stander and de Beer (2017:55) as the degree to which spectators associate themselves personally with the brand of a specific team, who have a high level of identification openly associated with increased, continuous and heightened levels of sports team products purchases. Fullerton (2010:30) affirms that soccer spectator may buy a football team product (such as shirt and jersey) that shows the emblem of their favourite clubs, as well as those who participate in sport-related activities. In this case, spectator identification with the team is seen as a significant feature that sports organisations must embrace because this identification is important to the financial success of the teams (Cohen 2017:2). Sports teams with a high level of team identification, like popularity status, has the propensity to generate financial revenues (Shezi 2016:18).

From a spectator's perspective, team identification offers several benefits. Gencer (2015:83) indicated that team identification creates the chance for socialising in addition to addressing an entity's needs for belonging and commitment. In the same vein, through team identification, spectators gain a sense of connectedness to the desired point of social identification by performing in accordance with formal or informal group ethics (Kim *et al.* 2013:42).

Empirical findings suggest that when a person is highly identified with a team, that person is also associated with a larger social crowd (Inoue, Lock, Sato & Funk 2021:6). Clippert (2010:4) suggests that as a result, this individual forms an association with other individuals of the public

and shows a healthier psychological profile (for example, higher self-esteem and less occurrence of depression) compared to those individuals who do not identify with a team. Further, Mofokeng *et al.* (2015:132) pointed out that team identification may assist sports spectators to escape from their daily stress. In addition to the benefits, spectators may use team identification to improve their self-esteem through basking in reflective, or cutting off reflective failure (Chung *et al.* 2019:242).

2.4.2 Vicarious achievement

The concept of vicarious achievement is discussed in this section. The need to attain and achieve can serve as a key drive of undertaking a behaviour in current highly competitive and results-oriented environments. But an individual does not necessarily do this directly; feelings of success can be achieved indirectly through the successes of others and sport brings about an ideal avenue for this achievement (Trail, Kim, Kwon, Harrolle, Brunstein-Minkove & Dick 2012:346). This is also referred to as vicarious achievement and designates the motive that a spectator has social prestige, self-esteem and empowerment that emanates through a connection with a sports team (Stander & Van Zyl 2016:5). Stander and Van Zyl (2016:3) further define vicarious achievement as the sense of empowerment that individuals experience when they watch their favourite sports team play. Rosenberger III, Rahman, Youn and Köcher de Oliveira (2015:5) define vicarious achievement as the sense of personal achievement when their favourite team performs well. On the contrary, Gencer, Kiremitci and Boyacioglu (2011:194) define vicarious achievement as an individual taking credit for another's achievement. Applying the social identity theory, Wu, Tsai and Hung (2012:180) assert that a vicarious achievement motive engenders a desire to preserve a positive self-concept over the success of an object (teams or players). To exemplify the definition given by Wu *et al.* (2012), sports spectators believe that they cannot only feel a sense of self-achievement but also increase their self-esteem when their favourite team wins. Hence, vicarious achievement exemplifies a spectator's association to a sports organisation to fulfil several needs, such as a feeling of empowerment, increasing self-esteem or heightened social prestige (Alonso & O'Shea 2014:7). Gencer *et al.* (2011:194) suggest that spectators feel they have earned these feelings in return for their money and time they invest in sports games.

Bresler (2011:74) highlights that individuals are driven by vicarious achievement to feel a sense of pride and individual achievement when their much-loved team performs well. Encapsulated within the concept of basking in the reflected glory (Ware & Kowalski 2012:226), this association accentuates a sense of achievement (team wins) by a spectator, thus advancing their support of the

game and their favourite team (Daniell 2013:22-23). Sport attendance may therefore create building blocks for enhancing self-esteem (Lianopoulos 2018:103).

Individual pains and successes felt by spectators have been studied as motives related to self-esteem, achievement or vicarious achievement (Swayne & Dodds 2011:518). Vicarious achievement and self-esteem are linked to an individual's feeling of spectator identity. The motivation scale developed by Wann (1995) revealed that spectators increase their self-esteem by connecting their emotions with their favourite team's performance (Mays 2012:9). Spectators who are searching for the fulfilment of their vicarious achievement motive, are more likely to bask in reflected glory by saying "we won" when their favourite team wins. At the same time, these spectators cut off reflective failure by saying "they lost" when their favourite team fails/loses (Wu *et al.* 2012:180).

The vicarious achievement motives suggest that spectators seek achievement vicariously by affiliating with a sports team through identification (Kim *et al.* 2013:40). For example, by watching the teams and a player's win, spectators vicariously experience a sense of achievement via their identification with those who succeed in sports. This motive may also increase team support and serve as a mechanism to connect spectators and teams (Spinda, Wann & Hardin 2016:351).

A case has been made that individuals who fulfil their need for achievement through sports attend a possible sports event only if they see or view the results to be more relevant to their self-concept (Reimers *et al.* 2018:124). This notion has been supported by Kim *et al.* (2013:49), whose results found that vicarious achievement showed significant influences towards intention to attend the United States of America National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) division IA student matches.

Interestingly, if spectators fail to accomplish this motive on their own, the achievement motive can be accomplished by the success of others. Trail *et al.* (2012:346) made a case that individuals who are high in this motive to achieve but unable to accomplish it on their own would attempt to associate with a prosperous other and bask in the reflected glory of the prosperous other. In support, the sense of achievement experienced though watching a sport is a positive factor which regulates viewing patterns (Chung 2015:21). Watching a favourite team winning a match can provide the spectator with a sense of what they cannot achieve in their actual lives (Oshimi, Harada & Fukuhara 2014:48).

Through vicarious achievement and rejoicing the success of a favourite player or coach also evokes spectator attendance (Wu *et al.* 2012; Ko, Chang, Jang, Sagas & Spengler 2017:217; Neus, Nimmermann, Wagner & Schramm-Klein 2019:2459). Hence, individuals may use sports spectatorship as a vehicle for satisfying this need, especially when they associate themselves with successful teams (Allen, Drane & Byon 2010:421).

Based on the observation of Stander and Van Zyl (2015:5; 2016:6), spectators who attend games with the motive of vicarious achievement are likely to experience feeling of self-esteem, self-fulfilment, and prestige. The current study measures vicarious achievement as a uni-dimensional construct encapsulating self-esteem, self-fulfilment and prestige in its item scales.

2.4.2.1 Self-esteem

Self-esteem is an important part of the human personality that most individuals continuously aspire to enhance (Truong, McColl & Kitchen 2010:348). It is also part of the central set of needs, which can be associated with goal pursuit and can, therefore, be viewed as part of aspiration (Karakaya *et al.* 2016:323). For the purpose of this study, esteem is viewed as the degree to which attendance to a sports event is perceived as providing a chance for vicarious achievement (Jere & Mathidza 2014:564). For example, spectators who support a winning team bask in the success of the team and experience a feeling of both personal and group achievement. Trail *et al.* (2012:346) suggested that individuals try to maintain or increase their self-esteem by generating contexts for self-verification and therefore individuals try “to confirm their identities and avoid situations where self-verification is problematic.”

In other words, spectators who are high in need of vicarious achievement try to bask in the reflected glory in a situation that reflects positively on them, and try to cut off reflected failure on situations that reflect negatively on themselves. Basking in the reflected glory of a winning team allows the spectator to enhance their self-esteem and satisfy their achievement need (Page & Connell 2014:170).

2.4.2.2 Self-fulfilment

Self-fulfilment is perceived by Olson (2013:1) as self-actualisation. Self-actualisation, according to Maslow hierarchy of need model, signifies the growth of an individual towards the fulfilment of the highest needs (Olson 2013:1). Sutton (2016:1) further suggests that self-fulfilment refers to a moment in time or feeling when the favourite team has reached a point when benefits, credit, team performance and achievement are almost unrelated with respect to extending the relationship.

The fulfilment of achievement needs leads to progressive states such as a feeling of confidence and being overjoyed or elated, while absence of fulfilment is connected to negative states such as feeling listless, worried, and sad, and undesirable symptoms such as distress and avoidance behaviour (Kim & James 2019:4). In terms of sports spectatorship, harmonious spectators are more likely to have high levels of self-esteem and life satisfaction, and more likely to display their feelings in positive spectator behaviours, such as celebrating their team's victories on the streets (Whitbourne 2018:2).

2.4.2.3 Prestige

The concept of “prestige” originally stemmed from the field of organisational behaviour. It is a statement of individuals' belief regarding how outsiders view their organisation (Chiu *et al.* 2019:1407). The concept was later brought into sport consumption as well as marketing literature. Sports spectators can also fulfil their need for prestige and achievement vicariously themselves (Wang *et al.* 2011:350). Prestige has been viewed in the literature as a factor that can influence the intention to attend sport events in the future (Kim *et al.* 2015:20). Chiu *et al.* (2019:1408) examined the relationships between sport involvement, perceived event prestige and spectators' intention to attend the annual spectator event. The researchers found that the effect of sport involvement on attendance intention is strongest when bridged by perceived event prestige. It was found that the perception of event prestige played a similar role in influencing spectators' intention to attend future events.

The next section discusses the concept of involvement as another motivational variable in spectator attendance behaviour.

2.4.3 Involvement

The concept of involvement has been used mostly in consumer behaviour in relation to marketing research over the years (Iwasaki & Havitz 1997:256; Kyle, Absher, Norman, Hammitt & Jodice 2004:399; George & Stavros 2013:6; Samra & Wos 2014:271; Lee & Shiu 2015:29; Kim, Morgan & Assaker 2020:4). In the last decade, involvement has been applied in the field of management, leisure and recreation with an attempt to describe sport consumption behaviour and choice-making (Kozak & Kozak 2013:66; Eskiler & Karakas 2017:10; Kartika & Mohyi 2019:33). Definitions of involvement have varied from studies based on diverse contexts (Lee & Shiu 2015:29). In the same vein, there have been several studies that attempted to define sports involvement, but the multi-dimensionality of the constructs has led to a cascade of different definitions (Steinhardt *et*

al. 2021:4). Involvement by definition is a state of motivation, arousal, or interest toward an associated product or recreational activity (Samra & Wos 2014:271; Steinhardt, Dolva, Jahnsen & Ullenhag 2021:4). Stevens and Rosenberger III (2012:61) view involvement as the degree to which the consumers view an object or activity as an essential part of their life, and sees the object or activity as important, engaging and essential to them.

Within the realms of sports consumption motives, involvement is viewed by Ko *et al.* (2010:30) as a useful concept for understanding spectator attitudes and consumption behaviours. However, Page and Connell (2012:171) are of the view that involvement is useful because the more involved attendees, such as fanatics, have a greater variety of motivational profiles compared with less involved, casual attendees. Sports spectators are different, often possessing high levels of involvement and an emotional attachment to sport (Stevens & Rosenberger III 2012:61). Studying the involvement construct to determine a sports spectator would offer a better understanding of motives, and what stimuli and circumstances direct behaviour (attendance, purchase of team goods, media consumption) and attitudinal development (e.g., commitment, preferences, loyalty).

Pan, Wu, Morrison, Huang and Huang (2018:3) consider involvement as hidden motivation, reason, or interest concerning a certain leisure activity or associated products, often caused by a specific stimulus or situation. Several scholars have found that involvement has an important impact on people's consumption behaviour. For example, Silveira *et al.* (2019:50) examined the factors influencing attendance at stadiums and arenas in Brazil on a sample of 273 spectators who attend soccer matches. Their findings revealed that the greater the involvement of sports consumers with soccer, the greater their intention to buy tickets. Similarly, Lee and Shiu (2015:34) investigated the factors affecting sport event attendance: the difference between participants and spectators. Their study concluded that both groups seem to have higher levels of involvement, therefore perhaps event involvement is a major element in perceiving outcomes when they attend the sports event.

Studies on sports consumption motives demonstrate that the more involved sports spectators become, the more likely they are to attend sporting events. A study by Tokuyama and Greenwell (2011:148) focused on high involvement and low involvement in major league soccer spectators. They found that for both groups, affiliation and aesthetics positively influence soccer game attendance, while social facilitation negatively affects attendance at soccer games, meaning that social opportunities are not as significant for those watching soccer. They further found that

competition was for high involvement spectators while stress reduction was important for the low involvement group.

Several researchers have examined the concept of involvement under the umbrella of SIT (Havitz & Dimanche 1997:256; Laverie & Arnett 2000:231; Samra & Wos 2014:275). Stevens and Rosenberger (2012:13) posit that involvement is also linked to concepts of self and identity and can shape how spectators interact with brands. The SIT further stipulates that when an individual is involved with the central spectator group of a sport club, this person then becomes in part defined by the cognitions, attitudes, beliefs and emotions shared by the group as reflected through their behaviour as they attempt to maintain their membership in the group (MacIntosh, Abeza & Lee 2017:8). SIT is more applicable in this study because spectator behaviour is socially visible, includes relationships with others, which may lead to the formation of a spectator role and one can experience satisfaction associated with that role (La Rocca 2018:46). Therefore, it is posited that involvement serves as antecedents of a "spectator" identity (Krier 2017:16).

Academically, there are two types of sport involvement which examines sport consumers: situational involvement (SI) and enduring involvement (EI) (Kozak & Kozak 2013:67; Sharma, Roy & Rabbanee 2020:88). Chiu *et al.* (2019:1407) notes that situational involvement and enduring involvement are not the same in the nature of attitude formation and the sport spectator decision-making process. Situational involvement means that an individual's interest in an activity is increased because of short-term events (Mays 2012:14). An example of this concept would consist of a spectator attending a professional women's football match for the evening/day with his/her friends or family. SI reveals short-term feelings of involvement in a situation in which the sport experience takes place (Funk, Funk, Alexandris & McDonald 2016:322). On the other hand, EI denotes a steady attitudinal state across both time and situation (Chiu *et al.* 2019:1407).

Thus, sports spectators demonstrate enduring involvement by attending soccer matches regularly, wearing trademarked apparel of their chosen teams, and engaging in spectator organisations centred around discussing the performance and news of their teams (Kenney 2019:3). Enduring involvement is independent of circumstances. High levels of enduring involvement are more likely to take place when individuals perceive an activity or product which provides hedonic benefits or is intricately connected with the self (Samra & Wos 2014:271). The activity must be self-related or influential in attaining an individual's goals, and individuals who are involved will engage in the activity itself, such as attending a team's home games, or related activities more frequently (Wilkins 2012:20). The concept of involvement has been studied as both multi and uni-

dimensional construct for different reasons. In order to understand the multi-facets of this construct, the next section discusses the dimensions of involvement.

Involvement has been measured with three dimensions in various fields of enquiry such as sports, marketing, leisure and management or psychology (Cheng & Tsaur 2012:53; Pan *et al.* 2018:3; Eksiler, Yilmaz & Cakmak 2018:168; Kartika & Mohyi 2019:33; Suhartanto, Dean, Sumarjan, Kartika & Setiawati 2019:389), namely, attraction, centrality and self-expression. Chien (2020:70) showed that three dimensions (attraction, centrality and self-expression) can make up an involvement outline related to an individual's participation in a specific activity. Page and Connell (2012:171); George and Stavros (2013:6); Schmitt (2014:47) have also measured involvement in three dimensions, namely, attraction, centrality and self-expression. In addition, Zetou, Kouli, Prarras, Tzetzis and Michalopoulou (2013:2) investigated the role of spectators' involvement with volleyball in their behaviour (as expressed by loyalty) towards their team in a professional men's volleyball league in Greece, with a sample 521 spectators that watched volleyball games in five different venues in Athens. The results showed that volleyball spectators had a high level of involvement as expressed by three factors, namely, attraction, centrality and self-expression, as expressed by behaviours such as frequency of watching games and participating in conversations with friends that revolved around sports. These three dimensions are discussed in detail below.

2.4.3.1 Attraction

Involvement is said to be present, first and foremost, when a product choice is observed as a sign of oneself (Schmitt 2014:47). The attraction dimension of involvement has been perceived as the combination of pleasure and importance (George & Stavros 2013:2). Laurent and Kapferer (1985:44) indicated that the attraction dimension is a combination of early dimensions of interest and satisfaction. The satisfaction of an individual emanates from partaking in an activity and is a fundamental factor as it leads to high level of involvement when this satisfactory activity is well thought-out as fundamental and worthy for a person (Zetou *et al.* 2013:5). From the study of Huang (2011:96), there was no surprise that the "attraction of game" was the top determinant factor of spectator attendance.

2.4.3.2 Centrality

Centrality is defined as the social importance of an activity (Leng & Hsu 2015:67). Centrality denotes the importance of an activity in terms of the consumer's lifestyle (George & Stavros 2013:3). An activity is considered central if other aspects of a consumer's life are organised around

the sports activity (Leng & Hsu 2015:67). Zetou *et al.* (2013:5) indicated that such activity is essential for the individual when other activities are run and organised around it (e. g., meeting with friends, or meeting family members).

2.4.3.3 Self-expression

Zetou *et al.* (2013:5) define self-expression as wishes to question another individual through his/her participation in an activity. The self-expression dimension of involvement refers to self-representation, the impression of oneself that consumers wish to express to other individuals through their sport event consumption (George & Stavros 2013:2). In consumer behaviour literature, it has been confirmed that individuals do not select specific brands merely due to the advantage of their performance; but selection is due to symbolic features (Cocco 2020:64). As a result, the symbolic concept of brand is utilised as self-expressing individual (inner self-expression) and his/her status in society (social self-expression). Ebrahimi and Fadaei's (2016:55) study found significant correlations between team self-expression and team attachment among football sport teams in Azadeghan Football League of Iran. The self-expression value or level of symbolism is the "silent statements that participation conveys about the person" (Schmitt 2014:47). Therefore, spectators of professional teams develop a psychological connection with their favourite teams, and the symbolic concept is utilised to prompt their personal understanding and identity.

Understanding the dimensions of involvement is very critical in the measurement of the construct. Other scholars categorise involvement into behavioural and psychological measures (Heo, Stebbins, Kim & Lee 2013:17; Pan *et al.* 2018:3). Behavioural involvement relates to the time and energy individuals invest in specific activities, measured in terms of participation frequency, time spent and related resources available (Pan *et al.* 2018:3). Psychological involvement refers to an individual's internal psychological process that prompts them to participate in leisure activities (Chang, Yeh, Pai & Huang 2018:3). It is within this background that spectator's attendance in women professional soccer may be triggered by attraction, centrality, self-expression with some behavioural and psychological involvement.

2.4.4 Social interaction

In this section, social interaction is discussed. In sports consumption motives literature, social interaction is also known as socialisation or group affiliation (Ha *et al.* 2013:68). Based on this observation, social interaction, socialisation and group affiliation will be used interchangeably in

this study. Sports consumption has always played a significant role in meeting people's need for social interaction. Social interaction provides a great general platform for people from all backgrounds to come together and exchange ideas (Stander & Van Zyl 2016:6). Initially, sports events have always been about the interaction of people. Time and again, family or groups of friends would attend an event together and use the provided content as a platform for their social interaction with one another (Neus *et al.* 2019:2459).

Socialisation is defined as a process in which a group educates the rules (social norms) and skills to each member to partake in that society (Huang, Liu, Chang, Hsieh & Lu 2019:13). According to Thaicon (2017:41), socialisation is the process in which individuals acquire skills, knowledge and attitudes related to their performance in specific circumstances or settings. According to Mathidza (2011:19), socialisation denotes a desire for sociability, and the amount to which a person observes that attending a sports event is an opportunity to interact with family, friends, and other spectators. In the same vein, socialisation captures the interpersonal aspect of sport. It denotes a desire for sociability and the degree to which a person perceives attending a sporting event as a chance to interact with family and friends (Gensler 2017:12). Furthermore, Šaras and Perez-Felkner (2018:1) refer to socialisation as the process through which people learn numerous social roles by formal and informal mediators. Socialisation into sport does not happen in isolation from the rest of the public (Rahmati *et al.* 2014:1141). Sport is a social demonstration of historical, social and cultural forces, and at the same time it confirms, appropriates and duplicates those very same conditions. In other words, sporting events duplicate social reality and transfer those aspects of culture that carry meaning about the social, political and the economic order of society.

Social interaction is regarded as an individual desire to use sport spectating for socialising with others who have similar interests (Ha *et al.* 2013:68). Agents who are key figures in putting into effect the social rules are referred to as socialising agents. Family and friends (peers) have been perceived in the literature as socialisation agents (Studsrod & Bru 2011:159; Lenka & Vandana 2015:867). In a sport setting, Funk, Beaton and Alexandris (2012:364) indicated that spectators frequently use sport or attendance at a sporting event as an approach to interacting with family and friends, and if sport does not offer that socialisation, spectators are less likely to consume it.

One of the earlier studies on spectator socialisation McPherson (1976) concluded that an individual's family, peers, and community were the main influences on person's socialisation process in sport participation (Mastromartino, Wann & Zhang 2019:5). Huang and Hsu (2010:79)

also divided social experiences in the family and people's relations. A study by Glieco (2017:22) affirms that spectators do not consume sport in isolation; they prefer to be around friends or family.

In the study conducted by Melnick and Wann (2011:8), examining sports fandom in Australia on socialisation, team identification, and spectator behaviour found that friends ranked highest, followed in order by parents, school, and community. The authors suggest that peer influence may extend well beyond recognition and acceptance within friendship, school and community social networks to also include interest in spectator sports and identification with a favourite team. A study by Alonso and O'Shea (2014:14) further reports that certain spectators affirm they have become friends with other people who also frequently attend games, such as other ticket holders who sit close together.

From the literature espoused above, it could be ascertained that there is a scarcity of research that has looked into the relationship between socialisation and spectator satisfaction in the women's soccer setting. Moreover, Wiid and Cant (2015:396) claim that it is vital to study closely the outcomes that result from the social interaction motive among sport spectators, as this will lead to: a) a greater ability to service such sport spectators and, b) stimulate greater investment from such spectators, which, in turn, will kindle greater commercial returns for the industry as well. In this regard, studying social interaction could contribute empirically and theoretically to the body of spectator consumption motives literature.

2.4.5 Perceived value

All marketing activities are directed at creating value (Babin & James 2010:472), which Van Rensburg (2012:13) sees from a specialist's perspective as the "sine qua non for businessmen and marketers". Sine qua non is defined as something that is essential before an individual can achieve something else. Consumer perceived value has been broadly regarded as a key foundation of competitive benefit in the twenty-first century (Zauner, Koller & Hatak 2015:1). Over the previous two decades, literature contends that perceived value garners a great deal of attention in sport-related service industries (Choi *et al.* 2018:1460), as one of the most salient variables in predicting consumption behaviour in marketing literature (Byon, Zhang & Baker 2013:238; Baena-Arroy, Gálvez-Ruiz, Sánchez-Oliver & Bernal-García 2016:89), which can be used in numerous diverse contexts, including sports (Ko, Zhang, Cattani & Pastore 2011:307).

Regardless of the growing coverage of spectator-perceived value over the past decade, scholars have advanced different definitions. Jin *et al.* (2013:852) defined perceived value as the spectator's

complete assessment of the worth of a sports event, based on the spectator's assessment of what is received (benefits provided by the sports event), and what is given (costs or sacrifice in acquiring and utilising the sports event). The identified definitions in the literature appeal to the theory of utility, which holds the view that individuals perceive value as the variance between the utility offered by the product qualities and the disutility reflected by the price paid (Lee, Lee & Choi 2011:686).

Perceived value denotes a consumer's overall assessment of the usefulness of a product, or services based on insights of what is received and what is offered (Tu *et al.* 2013:471; Ma & Kaplanidou 2019:471). Based on the above-mentioned researchers, a value can be tied directly with service quality perceptions. Perceived value can therefore be operationalised as the spectators' assessment of the utility of perceived benefits and perceived sacrifices of soccer matches.

In the service sector, sports institutions are providers of entertainment and leisure-time activities (Birim, Anitsal & Anitsal 2016:3). Even though sports institutions provide entertainment and leisure, there is heightened competition amongst themselves. Currently, soccer teams face strong competition from each other as well as from alternate entertainment decisions that contest for consumer attention (Kunkel, Doyle & Berlin 2016:3). Kunkel *et al.* (2016:3) further indicate that teams need to attract and retain enough spectators in order to generate sufficient operating revenue to remain sustainable through spectator entertainment in a conducive environment. When consumers develop a pleasant relationship based on the environment and entertainment, they are more willing to maintain that relationship with the event provider (Birim *et al.* 2016:3). In this case, perceived value is likely to contribute to an increase in attendance in professional women's soccer, which will ultimately benefit women soccer teams by generating revenue.

Some research has been conducted in sports consumption literature on perceived value. For example, Jin *et al.* (2013:846); Moreno, Hervas, Prado-Gasco and Nunez-Pomar (2014:212); Moreno *et al.* (2015:1445); Moreno, Hervas, Pomar, Valantine and Butiene (2016:221); Garcia-Fernández, Gálvez-Ruiz, Colon and Bernal-García (2016:1146); Ma and Kaplanidou (2019:1) studied spectator perceived value in different sporting codes primarily devoted to sport in general. However, limited studies exist within spectator attendance of professional women's soccer on perceived value. The perceived value and satisfaction interaction have given this relationship necessary attention, driven by the notion that satisfaction is considered an outcome of perceived value (Moreno *et al.* 2015:1446).

Emanating from the literature espoused, consumers' perceived value encompasses various aspects, namely, functional value, economic value, social value, emotional value, and epistemic value. These are discussed in the following sections.

2.4.5.1 Functional value

From the perception of Zauner *et al.* (2015:5), functional value (performance/quality) refers to the utility that a market offering delivers through its expected performance and perceived quality. Kunkel *et al.* (2017:7) assert that functional value represents the usefulness derived from the perceived quality and expected performance of a product or event. According to Kunkel *et al.* (2017:7), the service environment such as women's soccer, related personnel, and the performance of the team have been associated with consumer behaviour in relation to sports teams and are thus conceptualised as three factors demonstrating the consumer's value of sports games. Firstly, the service environment comprises consumers' perception of the stadium where the game takes place (Hill & Green 2012:488). Secondly, service personnel are the workers with whom the consumer interacts while watching the game, and performance of the team denotes to views of how the team functions through the match (Kunkel *et al.* 2017:7).

2.4.5.2 Social value

Social value is the utility derived from the product's ability to enhance social self-concept (Liu & Ko 2017:275). In addition, it is referred to as the utility resulting from the ability of the sports team to enhance social self-capital (Kunkel *et al.* 2017:7). Several authors have demonstrated that the consumption of sport team games offers spectators with opportunities to bond with relevant social groups (Lock, Taylor & Darcy 2011:185-186; Lock *et al.* 2012:288; Pegoraro 2013:248), as sports consumption plays a fundamental role in satisfying the individuals need for social interaction (Stander & Van Zyl 2016:6). Further, it has been found that social value has a significant relationship with consumer satisfaction (Chandel & Bansal 2014:156; Chandel, Bansal & Gattoufi 2018:39). Therefore, socialisation has been identified by Mathidza (2011:46) as an essential motive to explain why spectators follow sports teams.

2.4.5.3 Emotional value

Emotional value is the utility derived from the affective states that a product or service generates (Liu & Ko 2017:275). Emotional value relates to extrinsic features of consumption in terms of a product and service's ability to stimulate feelings or emotional situations (Chen, Basit & Hassan 2017:95), and therefore, includes hedonic features of the consumption experience (Kunkel *et al.*

2017:9). Interestingly, the hedonic value could be achieved without buying a product, or even only initiating a buying process (Kazakeviciute & Banyte 2012:534). Based on the afore-mentioned observations, emotional value is about the experience or feelings of spectators when they are consuming sports services (i. e., attending soccer matches). In this context, it can be proposed that women's soccer spectators could achieve hedonic value by attending matches in order to experience emotional value. In specific terms, two main consumer motives that activate affective emotions have been acknowledged to influence their behaviour, namely, excitement (Biscaia *et al.* 2013:234) and escape (Cohen 2017:4). Therefore, these motives initiate actions targeted to satisfy the spectators' need. Satisfaction has been found to be mediating the relationship between excitement and behavioural intentions (Biscaia *et al.* 2013:235). On the other hand, escape can also be a motivator, where spectators who are bored or dissatisfied with their lives use sports fandom to provisionally forget about their feelings (Pegoraro 2013:249).

2.4.5.4 Economic value

Economic value is often the amount that a person is willing to pay for something, be it a product or service (Chan 2010:8). Economic considerations refer to such aspects as match ticket pricing and affordability associated with attending the sporting event (Stander & De Beer 2014:495). The economic dimension of a spectator's perceived value suggests the cost charged by the service provider, and if the cost is relatively low in comparison with competitors, the satisfaction gets higher. (Ali, Leifu, Yasirrafq & Hassan 2015:1427). For those consumers who have a greater insight into the price, the amount of money they must pay is the key factor in the decision-making process (Peng & Liang 2013:58). Having this in mind, research on satisfaction demonstrated that when a spectator is satisfied with services or product, he/she will be less price sensitive and less influenced by competitors and remain loyal for long (Foroughi *et al.* 2014:45). Chandel *et al.* (2018:39) affirms a positive relationship between economic value and satisfaction.

2.4.5.5 Epistemic value

Epistemic value signifies the utility derived from the capacity of a sports team's game to stimulate curiosity, provide novelty and satisfy a desire for knowledge (Kunkel *et al.* 2017:9). In sports consumption, skills, strategies, techniques, tactics, rules, records, statistics, and team histories are possibly appreciated for their own sake (Gau & James 2013:9). Soccer in particular is an area where epistemic value may signify an outcome that can satisfy spectators' needs, given the overabundance of players' names, diverse rules, technical aspects and tactical details that are involved in sports events. Sport spectatorship offers a goal for some individuals to pursue

knowledge as end-experience and satisfaction (Gau & James 2013:9). Therefore, spectators' knowledge regarding the sport team can influence their attendance and satisfaction.

2.5 SPECTATOR SATISFACTION

This section covers the concept of satisfaction with the focus on sports consumption. The concept of satisfaction has been widely researched in the past few decades (Mosavi & Ghaedi 2012; Chauke 2014; Dubihlela & Chauke 2016; Chauke & Duh 2019). An important source of reference in retaining the consumer is consumer satisfaction. Consumer satisfaction studies remain the single largest category of marketing research, and probably the most unassailable concept of the modern management field, illustrating the practical importance of the construct (Chauke & Dhurup 2017:146). To commence the discussion about satisfaction will assist in defining spectator satisfaction. According to Carelse (2017:8), it is a judgment that a product or service feature, or the product or service itself, provides a pleasurable level of consumption connected fulfilment. In other words, consumer satisfaction is the psychological judgment between the expectations of a product or service before purchase and what is really received (Park *et al.* 2019:545). Similarly, Chauke and Dhurup (2017:146) view consumer satisfaction as the “extent to which a product’s perceived performance matches a buyer’s expectation.” It can be operationalised as the expectations before making a purchase, and the perceptions about the performance after purchase.

Yoshida and James (2010:340) define spectator satisfaction as a pleasurable, fulfilment response to the entertainment of the sports competition and/or additional services provided during the game. For instance, Cant and Wiid (2012:1351) suggest that spectators may be satisfied merely when they truly believe that they have received value for their time and money. In addition, the core sport product (competition) may create such value, and the excitement, crowds cheering, and social interaction from the stadium could also make the sense of value that spectators look forward to.

Likewise, the expectation-disconfirmation model proposes that consumers are satisfied when the product performs better than expected, unsatisfied when consumers' expectations exceed actual product performance, and neutrally satisfied when the product performs as expected (Chauke 2019:119). Satisfaction stays in the spectator’s mind, and varies from noticeable behaviours such as choice of attending soccer matches, complaining or voicing dissatisfaction or re-attending sport events.

Consumer satisfaction is classified into two categories in the literature, namely, transaction-specific and overall satisfaction (Huang & Davison 2011:3; Suchánek & Králová 2018:133; Park *et al.* 2019:545). According to Gao and Lai (2015:39), transaction-specific satisfaction refers to a consumer's evaluation of the transaction process with a product or service based on his or her desires, needs, or goals. Overall satisfaction is defined as the spectator experience resulting from attending football games during the season (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant 2011:5; Biscaia *et al.* 2012:230).

The overall satisfaction perspective fits this study context because it is a better indicator of the past and present performance of sports institution. Overall satisfaction is a better predictor of future behaviours compared to transaction-specific satisfaction (Biscaia *et al.* 2012:229; Kościółek 2019:69). Also, overall satisfaction is considered as a more accurate performance predictor compared to transaction-specific satisfaction because measurement is based on the consumer's overall experience and not a single transaction, which may deviate from the consumer's average satisfaction rate (Dahlgaard-Park 2015:135). In the context of sport spectatorship, this evaluation can either be limited on time, or, for example, correspond to a specific sport season, or is limitless, and concerns all past games attended or watched (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant 2011:5). Drawing from sports literature, overall spectator satisfaction is a collective judgment grounded on spectator experiences over time, rather than on transaction-specific evaluations (Sarstedt, Ringle, Raithel & Gudergan 2014:422).

Consumer satisfaction is important to the growth and expansion of business as it leads to an increase in market share that acquires repeat and referral business, which ultimately results in improved profitability (Chauke 2019:114). Attaining spectator satisfaction is a key strategic goal for sport institutions, given that satisfied spectators are more likely to repeat the consumption experience than dissatisfied ones (Biscaia *et al.* 2012:229).

Gray and Wert-Gray (2012:275) found that satisfaction level affects attendance at professional and collegiate sporting events. Eventually, it may affect the relationship between spectators and sports organisations. Similarly, Biscaia *et al.* (2013:8) are of the view that satisfaction plays an essential role in increasing consumer retention. Therefore, sports institutions must have an insight on how to satisfy spectators, because consumer satisfaction is one of the central goals of marketing activities (Chandel *et al.* 2018:40).

Research on consumer satisfaction indicated that there are two significant reasons why consumer satisfaction is important for service organisations (Angelova & Zekiri 2011:233). First, consumer

satisfaction based on a consumer's subjective judgment of services is one of the best measures for assessing services (Yoshida & James 2010:339). Furthermore, since it is problematic to maintain consistent service performance due to the intangible and heterogeneous aspects of services, consumer satisfaction has been understood in relation to service quality. Moreno *et al.* (2015:1445) carried out a study which analysed relationships between service quality, perceived value, satisfaction, future intentions, and emotions of spectators of a professional basketball competition, and their results show that service quality predicts spectators' satisfaction and perceived value, and that perceived value and satisfaction are strong predictors of future intentions.

Secondly, consumer satisfaction increases the possibility of enhanced consumer loyalty. Still, a case has been made that service quality that is perceived as high can increase consumer satisfaction, loyalty, and retention, all of which can create revenue for an organisation (Lenhart 2017:9). It can be deduced that like other settings, general spectator satisfaction may bring about several benefits. For instance, satisfied consumers are less price sensitive, less influenced by competitors, buy additional products and stay loyal for longer (Foroughi *et al.* 2014:45). Once spectators are satisfied by the women's soccer matches, they are likely to have a long-term relationship with respective soccer teams. This claim was supported by Sarstedt *et al.* (2014:433), who found that satisfaction helps develop long-term relationship with spectators. This long-term relationship with the spectator could possibly influence willingness to attend soccer matches.

Satisfaction in the sports consumption background can depend on more than a few factors such as team identification (Dhurup 2012; Gensler 2017); event quality (Foroughi *et al.* 2014:45); quality of the opponent (Sarstedt *et al.* 2014:423), and sportscape (Ioannou & Bakirtzoglou 2016:441). However, this study focuses on the factors relevant to women's professional soccer. These are team performance (Lee & Bae 2014; Lee & Hur 2019:3), facility (Huang 2011:96; Fernandes & Neves 2014:5; Manouchehri Manouchehri, Mehrian & Zafarmand 2016:158; Lenhart 2017:12), core product (Lenhart 2017:12), service quality (Warren 2011:29; Fernandes & Neves 2014:5; Lenhart 2017:12), and team loyalty (Lenhart 2017:12). These factors are discussed in detail in the sections which follow.

2.5.1 Team performance

Satisfaction largely depends on performance (Chauke 2014:26; Lenhart 2017:12). Sarstedt *et al.* (2014:9) posit that successful team performance and game results increase spectator satisfaction and stimulate future attendance. In support, Nor, Ramli, Mohamad and Hamid (2014:617) investigated the effective factors on attendance of spectators in the Malaysian super league,

focusing on spectators. Their findings suggest that performance of teams, especially the domestic team and the percentage of games won by the host team, are significant factors that can influence the attendance of spectators in the competitions. Within the context of professional football, Biscaia *et al.* (2013:47) found that consumer's satisfaction depends on the consumer's subjective view of service performance, demonstrating a fundamental criterion for evaluating service quality, and secondly, consumer satisfaction has been acknowledged as a reliable predictor in determining behavioural intention.

2.5.2 Facilities

Foroughi *et al.* (2014:192-193) assert that facility of sports is central to consumers' experience of event service. For the purpose of this study, facility is defined as a professional or collegiate sports stadium at which competitions take place before spectators (Law Insider 2020:1). Several researchers have found a positive correlation between facility and satisfaction in their studies (Huang 2011:98; Fernandes & Neves 2014:1). Manouchehri *et al.* (2016:158) examined the effective factors on spectators' attendance in the Volleyball World League in Iran and the results showed that charm of the game, spectators' preferences and the existence of facilities have had a positive impact on the spectators' attendance. Moreover, consumers' unpleasant emotions can be decreased by providing good quality facilities while poor facilities will increase unpleasant emotions (Foroughi Shah, Ramayah & Iranmanesh 2019:15). Furthermore, spectators placed importance on sportscape features as the game is played in the facility, of which an elegant stadium would make the spectators experience a satisfying one, and together with a winning team would additionally improve their satisfaction and future attendance.

2.5.3 Core product

The core product in the spectator sport industry comprises frequent characteristics or attributes. Core product quality is defined as the consumers' decision about the overall excellence or advantage of sport-related characteristics (attributes) (Yoshida & James 2010:342). Alexandris (2013:38) postulates that the core product in terms of football is the game itself. In sports consumption, core product consists of three important elements relating to team characteristics (i.e., team standings, win/loss records, star players, and team history), player performance (i.e., skills, strategies, and aggressive plays), and outcome valence (i.e., positive and negative game outcomes) (Clemes, Brush & Collins 2011:380; Yoshida 2017:430). These features are regarded as the crucial characteristics of a core product (Foroughi *et al.* 2019:2). In support of these characteristics, Yoshida and James (2010:338) in their study divided core product into two

categories which are team characteristics and player performance. Team characteristics are the consumer's perception of the home and away teams based on their standings, winning percentages, number of star players, and team history. Player performance includes the spectator's perception of a player's physical and technical ability to perform well, play hard, and make exciting plays. It was reported in their study that a spectator's perception of the core product influences their game satisfaction (Yoshida & James 2010:343; Ko *et al.* 2011:308). In this sense, the core product within sporting events can be observed as one important factor resulting in positive responses (e.g., revisit intent) from the consumers (Lee & Shiu 2015:34). It could be claimed that once spectators are satisfied by core products (women soccer team characteristics) they are likely to attend women soccer matches in future.

2.5.4 Service quality

In terms of service business such as sports, it is believed that the quality of service is a substantial factor that influences consumer satisfaction. Service quality is defined as an expression of the consumer towards the relative superiority of a service provider and its service and reflects the consumer's complete attitude toward the organisation (Moreno *et al.* 2016:1398). According to Lenhart (2017:9), services are intangible, heterogeneous, produced and consumed at the instantly time. Beyrami and Najafzadeh (2015:9) maintain that service quality is one of the most significant factors leading to spectators' satisfaction and their continued attendance in football. In essence, service quality has been found to be a strong predictor of satisfaction and behavioural intentions, because service quality inspires consumers' return and encourages them to make recommendations (Rozita, Nor, Khairulzaman & Norlizah 2014:416; Oman *et al.* 2016:26-27).

Service quality has been measured using a traditional SERVQUAL model developed by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988). The SERVQUAL model developed a scale with the intention of measuring service quality with its identified service quality dimensions (tangible, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy) (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1985; Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry 1988; Zhang, Lee, Judge & Johnson 2014:52; Ramli, Januri & Ghani 2018:522). This model has been acknowledged and applied also in sports consumption literature (Zhang *et al.* 2014:57; Foroughi *et al.* 2019:4). The above-mentioned dimensions influence spectator game-day satisfaction and the subsequent behavioural intention to attend future events (Phonthanakitithaworn & Sellitto 2018:216). Tables 2.1 presents a summary of the five dimensions of service quality.

Table 2.1: Five dimension of service quality (SERVQUAL model)

Dimensions	Explanations
Tangible	appearance of physical facility, equipment, personnel and written materials
Reliability	ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately
Responsiveness	willingness to help spectators and provide rapid service
Assurance	experience and courtesy and their ability to inspire trust and confidence
Empathy	caring, individualised attention given to spectators by sports teams

Source: Chauke (2014:22) and Zhang *et al.* (2014:51)

Chauke (2014:28) is of the view that the five dimensions are significant in measuring the quality of service and ultimately predicting satisfaction. Soccer teams and matches comprise all the ingredients available to satisfy spectators.

2.5.5 Team loyalty

Consumer loyalty is defined as, “a deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronise a preferred product or service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour” (Chauke 2019:136). In a sport’s context, team loyalty is a commitment to a specific team grounded on the spectator’s interest in the team over a period of time (Wu *et al.* 2012:178; Lenhart 2017:16; Reimers *et al.* 2018:124). Team loyalty can be seen as spectator motives and one that influences a person’s decision to attend a sporting event and which can also affect sporting consumption at all levels (Hirvonen 2014:15; Gargone 2016:8). Kościółek (2019:68) also maintains that loyalty is the strength of the connection between an individual’s relative attitude and repeat support. Spectator loyalty can be built when the team focuses on providing outstanding consumer service and surpassing the expectations of the consumer. In this sense, the more loyal a spectator is to an organisation or team they are, the more likely to attend an event and continue to attend these events.

Pilus, Yusof, Bojei, Fauzee, Samah and Aziz (2010:52) carried out a study to determine the factors that influence the Malaysian Cup Football’s spectators’ satisfaction and intention to re-view the game, which involved 370 spectators. The findings show that loyalty is the most dominant factor toward determining spectators’ satisfaction and the intention of re-viewing the Malaysian Cup

Football's game. In line with these studies, it can be concluded that when the spectators are loyal to the team, they display satisfaction behaviours and are more likely to attend and recommend future games of the team to others (Toosi, Niya & Pooya 2014:1069).

2.6 WILLINGNESS TO ATTEND WOMEN'S SOCCER MATCHES

As shown in Chapter 1, willingness to attend (WTA), desire to attend, future intention, intention to attend and behavioural intentions have been used interchangeably in consumer behaviour studies and the same is applicable in this study. According to Biscaia (2016:5), behavioural intention is a dominant measure to understand soccer spectators' future actions towards their favourite teams. This is so because behavioural intentions have been stated as a surrogate indicator of the actual behaviour in marketing studies (Foroughi *et al.* 2014:114). However, Ajzen (1991) posits that even though future intentions do not always lead to an actual behaviour, there is high possibility of future behaviours. Park *et al.* (2019:545) believe that the stronger the intention to perform a behaviour, the more it increases the possibility of performing the behaviour.

Behavioural intention is well-defined as an individual's tendency to behave based to his or her feelings, knowledge, or evaluations of past experiences (Koo *et al.* 2014:129). In a sports setting, Dhurup (2012:746) defines future behavioural intention as a spectator's tendency to support, follow, and watch or attend games of their favourite team. Behavioural intentions have been categorised into two aspects in the literature, namely, favourable and unfavourable. Unfavourable behavioural intention relates to the leaving of an organisation (team), spending less money with the organisation (no longer buying tickets) and perhaps spreading negative word-of-mouth regarding the product or service provider (Basaran & Aksoy 2017:43). In contrast, favourable behavioural intentions of consumers are connected with the level of their satisfaction together with the service, which they may express by saying helpful words (positive word of mouth), loyalty through future support, and an increase in spending (Chandel *et al.* 2018:40; Watanabe, Gilbert, Aman & Zhang 2018:201).

The concept of behavioural intentions has been conceptualised as a favourable intention to attend future games, recommend them to others and remain supporting the team through different forms (Biscaia *et al.* 2012:230; Biscaia 2016:5). Xiao, Ren, Zhang and Ketlhoafetse (2019:93) indicated that this definition can also be applied to sports spectator events. For example, if spectators are satisfied they may be more likely to have favourable WTA for future games and spread a positive word of mouth to others.

This chapter provided a literature review on the history of professional women's soccer in South Africa, including its development and challenges. It further reviewed the literature on social identity theory and self-determination theories in order to understand the development of the motivational variables. In addition, it chapter provided a literature review on the selected motivational variables (team identification, vicarious achievement, involvement, social interaction and perceived value), spectator satisfaction, and spectator willingness to attend (WTA) with the intention of interrogating the sport consumption literature to better understand the sector. The following chapter provides the research methodology and design employed in this study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding chapter, a comprehensive literature review was provided with the emphasis on the theories underlying the study as well as the selected motivational variables influencing spectator attendance, spectator satisfaction, and willingness to attend (WTA) professional women's soccer. The chapter also overviewed professional women's soccer in South Africa. In addition, the relationships between selected motivational variables, spectator satisfaction and WTA were discussed. The present chapter provides a range of aspects relating to specific research methods and techniques used to address the objectives and the hypotheses of the study.

The chapter is divided into seven main sections. The first section presents the research reasoning, (deductive and inductive scientific reasoning). The second section discusses the research paradigm or philosophy relating to the study, followed by the research approach and strategy used in conducting the study. The fourth section provides research approach and strategy employed in conducting the study. The fifth section contains information about the research design's implementation, such as the target population and sampling, questionnaire formulation and administration. The sixth section focuses on the data analysis, including the activities and measures done to assure reliability and validity; and the last section ends with a summary of ethical considerations examined during the study's conduct.

The primary purpose of the study was to investigate the motivational variables that influence spectators' willingness to attend professional women's soccer matches in Gauteng, South Africa. To attain the main objective, it was essential to conduct a survey. The available literature served as the theoretical foundation for investigating the links between selected motivational variables (team identification, vicarious achievement, involvement, social interaction, and perceived value), spectator satisfaction and WTA. Subsequently, the study proposed the model as illustrated in Chapter 1 under Figure 1.1.

3.2 RESEARCH REASONING

Scientific thinking/reasoning refers to both thinking about the content of science and the set of reasoning processes that permeate the field of science including induction, deduction, experimental design, causal reasoning, concept formation and hypothesis testing in order to

achieve research goals (Babin & Zikmund 2016:330). Achieving these goals permits the researcher to make use of approaches and research methods that embed either deductive or inductive reasoning (Creswell 2014:26). The main difference between them is that inductive reasoning aims at developing a theory, while deductive reasoning aims at testing an existing theory (Babin & Zikmund 2016:330). Inductive reasoning moves from specific observations to broad generalisations. The inductive approach is applicable when there is little to no existing literature on a topic; it is common to perform inductive research because there is no theory to test (Polit & Beck 2018:792). The inductive approach consists of three stages: observation, observing a pattern and developing a theory. Therefore, inductive reasoning is frequently linked with qualitative research.

The deductive method is a process of developing precise predictions through theories to explain causal relationships between variables and is characteristically applicable to quantitative studies (Leedy & Ormrod 2015:121; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill 2016:76). Furthermore, it consists of four stages: existing theory; formulation of hypotheses based on theory; collection of data to test the hypotheses; and analysis of the results (Polit & Beck 2018:792). As such, this study conforms to these characteristics because theoretical propositions were outlined through a review of literature, as presented in the previous chapter. Furthermore, this study seeks to test hypothesised relationships by either validating or refuting the proposed associations between the selected constructs.

3.3 RESEARCH PARADIGMS

The term "paradigm" is being used in social research to refer to the philosophical assumptions, or fundamental set of ideas that guide the researcher's actions and define his or her worldview (Lincoln, Susan & Egon 2011:95; Voss, Tsikriktsis & Frohlich 2012:195). Introduced by Thomas Kuhn (1970), the concept paradigm was used to describe a group of specialists' common assumptions, ideas, and ideals about the nature of reality and knowledge (Kaushik & Walsh 2019:1). Drawing from the above information, a research paradigm is an arrangement of vital beliefs. Knowing what paradigm a researcher assigns to research studies is vital because it determines what questions are considered valuable for investigation and what processes are needed for the responses to be acceptable (Du Plooy-Cillers, Davies & Bezuidenhout 2014:19).

The part that follows discusses in detail the most prevalent research paradigms used in marketing research, as well as their ontological, epistemological, and methodological views.

3.3.1 Positivism

Positivism is described as an epistemological position that promotes the application of the methods of the natural sciences to the study of social reality and beyond (Bryman 2012:714). The predominant belief of a positivist paradigm is a view that the study of consumers and marketing phenomena should be ‘scientific’ in the manner of the natural sciences (Malhotra, Nunes & Birks 2017:155). The positivist paradigm expresses assumptions from a theoretical framework which then operationalises and statistically tests the hypothesis using collected empirical data (Hennink, Hutter & Bailey 2011). Babbie and Mouton (2012:34) and Bryman (2012:716) suggest that the principle of positivism pivots on testing theories and then provides material for the formation of principles.

A positivist approach to research technique is mostly related with the use of quantitative research methods (Zou, Sunindijo & Dainty 2014:286). The key benefits linked with the positivist approach are that it holds to the hypothetical-deductive method that entails systematic observation of phenomena and hypotheses testing that rely on empirical studies, which may be generalisable (Babbie 2013:187). As a result, in a positivist paradigm, researchers are required to maintain impartiality during the data collecting and analysis phases by separating themselves from the study subject (Creswell 2015:33).

3.3.2 Phenomenology

Phenomenology (also referred as interpretivism) is a school of philosophy that focuses on how individuals interpret experiences (Neubauer, Witkop & Varpio 2019:90). In phenomenology, researchers believe that what they observe is an interpreted study rather than reality (Bryman 2012:630). Furthermore, phenomenological research involves more reliability and validity of the entire process of evaluating a human’s understanding of their life experiences (Neubauer, Witkop & Varpio 2019:91). Interpretivism is regarded as a paradigm which focuses on understanding the differences between individuals and elements related to social factors and sciences (Bala & Kumar 2011:3). The author further stresses that the philosophy entails a concise and in-depth understanding of subjective interaction and behaviour from individuals in social phenomena. It is related to qualitative research (Goldkuhl 2012:135) and, as indicated by Gallagher (2012:7), this philosophy is centred on observing individuals’ perceptions of a specific matter.

3.3.3 Pragmatism

Pragmatism is a paradigm that claims to bridge the gap between the scientific method and structuralist orientation of older approaches and the naturalistic methods (Creswell 2013:201). Pragmatic paradigm believes that social phenomena exist not only in the mind but also in the world and that some reasonably stable relationships can be found among the characteristic of life (Miles, Huberman & Saldana 2014:11). This paradigm is linked with the mixed method research approach (Freshwater & Cahill 2013:2; Tran 2017:4), as it focuses its attention on a particular situation and is utilising pluralistic approaches to derive knowledge about that situation.

Based on the preceding discussion, this study employed a positivist paradigm as its underpinning philosophy because hypotheses were posited, and the results are anticipated to be likened with the stated hypotheses. This is unswerving with the objective of this research, which investigates the selected motivational variables that influence spectators' willingness to attend professional women's soccer matches in Gauteng, South Africa, based on a theoretical framework with several quantifiable variables. Statistical approaches are utilised to determine whether the framework fits the data.

3.4 RESEARCH APPROACH

Research suggests that there are two main types of research approaches, namely, quantitative and qualitative methods. Hammond and Wellington (2013:173); Lichtman (2013:4); Wiid and Diggins (2015:86) indicated that primary data can be gathered using either quantitative or qualitative approach. According to Creswell (2013:4); and Malhotra and Peterson (2014:150), a quantitative approach is a research method that highlights the statistical analysis information collected using surveys, questionnaire to test the theories and investigate relationship among variables. Where the procedure of gathering, analysing, and interpreting non-numerical data, such as language, a qualitative approach is used (Denzin & Lincoln 2018:87). Qualitative research may be used to discover how an individual subjectively perceives and interprets their social environment (Hammond & Wellington 2013:173; Wiid & Diggins 2015:65). Procedurally, these approaches rely on inductive designs aimed at creating meaning and producing rich, descriptive information (Kumar 2014:124).

Table 3.1: Qualitative and quantitative research methods

	Qualitative Research	Quantitative Research
Common purpose	Discover ideas, used in exploratory research with general research objects	Test hypotheses or specific research questions
Approach	Observe and interpret	Measure test
Data collection approach	Unstructured, free form	Structured response categories provided
Researcher independence	Research is intimately involved, results are subjective	Researcher uninvolved observer, results are objective
Samples	Small samples often in natural settings	Large samples to produce generalisable results, results that apply to other situations
Most often used	Exploratory research designs	Descriptive and causal research designs

Source: Zikmund and Babin (2013:40)

The quantitative research method was utilised, as shown in Table 3.1, since it seeks to interpret and quantify data and often employs some type of statistical analysis and testing (Bryman 2012:408; Creswell 2015:2; Edmonds & Kennedy 2017:29). The quantitative method was espoused to determine the relationships between selected motivational variables, spectator satisfaction and WTA women's soccer matches. The approach was appropriate because it uses results through detailed statistical analysis such as factor, regression and correlation analysis and avoids the component of possible subjectivity related with the qualitative method (Lichtman 2013:23). The results obtained from these research tools are easily quantifiable and the instruments have a potentially high degree of accuracy. Johnson and Christensen (2012:32) assert that the quantitative approach is descriptive in nature and require large samples that help in generalising the results of the population.

3.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is described by Churchill, Brown and Suter (2010:78) as a master plan that specifies the methods and procedures for collecting and analysing data. However, Zikmund, Babin, Carr and Griffin (2012:66) define research design as “a master plan that stipulates the methods and procedures for gathering and examining the needed data”. Furthermore, research design is well-defined as a map which identifies the means and methods to persuade for gathering

and analysing the information (Habib, Pathik & Maryam 2014:16). Interestingly, the drive of a research design is to confirm that the evidence acquired in a research project allows the researcher to answer the initial question or hypothesis (Malhotra *et al.* 2017:63). However, Malhotra (2010:106) indicated that the choice of research design depends on the nature of research if is exploratory, conclusive, and causal. Hence, researchers are guided by the following research designs, namely, exploratory, descriptive and causal design.

Exploratory research is typically the first step in conducting any research and typically used with the expectation that further research will be undertaken to provide conclusive information regarding the research under investigation (Zikmund & Babin 2013:58). Exploratory research design is suitable for a problem that is not clearly defined. The primary objective of an exploratory research design is to provide an understanding into the research problem with the aim of producing new ideas (Wiid & Diggines 2011:55).

A descriptive design entails gathering data to test hypotheses or answer questions regarding the current state of the topic investigation. (Malhotra *et al.* 2017:73). The purpose of descriptive research is to discourse the questions of what, who, where, when and how surrounding a given sample. Moreover, descriptive research is useful for describing the attitude, beliefs, and opinions of research participants, rather than providing detailed explanations (Malhotra 2010:106).

Causal-comparative research tries to determine the cause or reason for existing variances in behaviour or status of groups of persons (Babin & Zikmund 2016:116). Causal research design is designed to collect data that will permit the researcher to define a cause-and-effect relationship between two or more variables (Hair, Wolfinbarger, Ortinau & Bush 2008:32). Casual research aims to examine the cause-and-effect relationships between market variables (Zikmund *et al.* 2012:106).

Each design is related to a precise research approach. This study followed a descriptive and causal design, since the attempt was to determine the relationships through hypotheses testing (Wiid & Diggines 2011:196).

In order to achieve the objective of the study, the design of this study involved a review of the literature as well as the empirical study.

3.6 LITERATURE REVIEW

A comprehensive literature review on relevant variables identified for this study was conducted to address the theoretical objectives (see Chapter 1 and 2). A literature review is a comprehensive

summary of previous research on a topic to understand how it relates to the present research (Brown *et al.* 2018:205). The literature review focused on the overview of women's soccer in South Africa, its evolution, and its challenges. Furthermore, it reviewed SDT and SIT and motivational variables such as team identification, vicarious achievement, involvement, social interaction, perceived value, spectator satisfaction, and willingness to attend.

3.7 EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

The empirical research necessitates the actual collection of primary data. In this study, empirical design comprised a sampling process, the data collection procedure, and data analysis strategy.

3.7.1 Sampling design

Once a specific research design is designated, the data collection method needs to be decided. Sampling is a technique for drawing conclusions from a sample of the overall population on a small scale (Zikmund *et al.* 2013:68). It is a method that guides a researcher to choose the right subjects to observe. Brown *et al.* (2018:204) identified six coherent phases in a sampling design process, encompassing phases involving defining the target population, identifying the sampling frame, selecting a correct sampling procedure, determining an appropriate sample size, selecting sampling elements as well as conducting the final data collection process. The list of these phases is demonstrated in Figure 3.1.

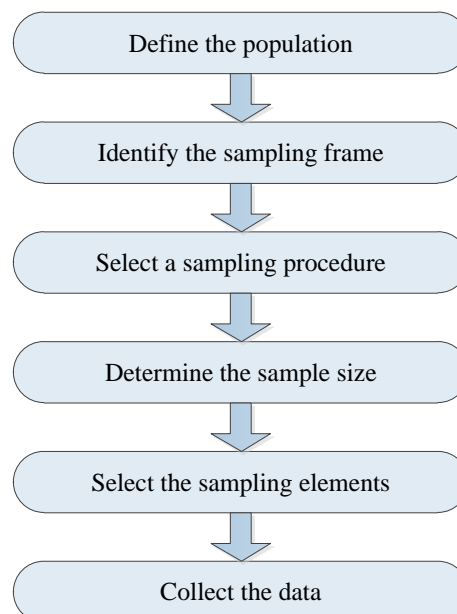


Figure 3.1: The six-step procedure for drawing a sample

Source: Brown *et al.* (2018:205)

The choices taken during each step of the sampling design process for this study are clarified in the next sub-sections.

3.7.2 Defining the target population

The initial step in the sampling process is to clearly define the target population. Population is defined as a group of people or publics that share one or more publicly verifiable characteristics (Weathington, Cunningham & Pittenger 2012:71). In research, population is defined as the total group of people in which the sample is designated (Leavy 2017:264). In addition, the population depends on the scope and focus of the research (Hammond & Wellington 2013:173). Wiid and Diggines (2011:193) indicate that within the population, the elements that are examined as determined by the research problem are mentioned as the target population. Grounded on the objective of this study, the target population of this study comprised spectators of professional women's soccer in the Gauteng province of South Africa.

Confining the study to the province of Gauteng is defensible by the fact that the South African professional women's soccer league (known as Hollywoodbets super league) is hosted weekly in the Gauteng province. Gauteng is the most populated region (15 488 137 habitants) and comprises the most varied racial and ethnic groups as of 2020 mid-year estimate (Statistics South Africa 2021).

3.7.3 Sample frame and sampling method

After defining the target population, the researcher accumulates a list of all suitable sampling units denoted to as the sampling frame. McDaniel and Gates (2013:281) describe sample frame as a list of all the population elements with which units are chosen. Malhotra *et al.* (2017:921) define sample frame as a representation of the elements of the target population that comprises a list or set of directions for identifying the target population. Telephone directories, lists of registered voters, lists of email addresses, research business databases, online newsgroup postings, and customer lists are instances of sample frames (Denscombe 2014:34). It was difficult to obtain an accurate sample frame for this study due to the absence of an accurate data base. Further, it was difficult to attend soccer matches at the hosting centres (Soweto Nike centre, Pimville) due to Covid-19 restrictions. Non-probability-based sampling methods are reasonable solely because they address a specific research purpose. Therefore, snowball sampling was used to generate the required sample.

Snowball sampling is a non-probability approach that is employed when the desired sample characteristic is scarce, difficult-to-reach populations, and there is a lack of a usable sampling frame (Ang 2014:132). Snowball depends on referrals from primary subjects to produce additional subjects. The decision for employing snowball sampling was motivated by the assertion made by Malhotra *et al.* (2017:423) that snowball sampling “enables a researcher to discover consumer characteristics that are uncommon, dispersed, and difficult to distinguish from the general population.” Hence, these primary respondents were asked to recognise potential consumers who are spectators of professional women’s soccer.

3.7.4 Determining the sample size

Sample size is defined as the number of sample elements that account for inclusion in a study (McDaniel & Gates 2013:284). However, deciding the appropriate sample size for analysis is difficult. The researcher used a subjective, pragmatic realistic consideration based on historical data to determine the sample size (Burns, Veeck & Bush 2017:265). Table 3.2 provides examples of past studies, which were the basis for the choice of the sample size.

Table 3.2: Sample size determination based on the historical evidence approach

Author	Year	Scope of the study	Sample size
Dale, B., van Iwaarden, J., Van der Wiele, V. and Williams, R.	2005	Service improvement in a sports environment: a study of spectator attendance.	290
Dubihlela, J., Dhurup, M. and Surujlal, J.	2009	Factors affecting fan decisions to attend PSL games in South Africa	367
Dhurup, M., Mafoka, M.A. and Surujlal, J.	2010	The relationship between stadium sports capes dimensions, desire to stay and future attendance	170
Gencer, R.T.	2015	Spectator motives and points of attachment: gender differences in professional football	331
Silveira, M.P., Cardoso, M.V. and Quevedo-Silva, F.	2019	Factors influencing attendance at stadiums and arenas	273

Source: Author’s compilation (2021)

Even though the sample size was based on past studies, the researcher considered several main factors when determining it: the number of groups within the sample, the value of the information

and the quality of the findings required the cost of sampling, population heterogeneity, data collection costs, and time constraints. In addition, sample sizes of 250-400 are recommended for multivariate analysis (CFA) or a ratio of 5:1 or 10:1 case to free parameters in quantitative studies (Pallant 2016:184). Hence, a sample size for this study is set on 350 and therefore deemed appropriate to use a quantitative approach which was in line with past similar studies within the sport consumption context.

3.7.5 Data collection process

The researcher distributed a self-administered structured questionnaire to the identified respondents, who were then asked to recognise other respondents in Gauteng. A survey was carried out offering easy, quick, inexpensive and efficient information about the population (Bairagi & Munot 2019:38). The technique also ensured that greater possibility of anonymity and greater convenience for the respondents since they could complete the questionnaire in their own time (Bordens & Abbot 2018:266).

3.7.5.1 Data collection method and strategy

Descriptive designs generally depend on either survey or observation procedures to gather data. According to Burns and Bush (2014:207), surveys encompass interviewing a large number of respondents using designed questionnaires. The questions can be asked in varied ways such as verbally, in writing, using mobile devices, and using a computer (Bryman 2012:202). Observation, on the other hand is, “about employing systematic rules for recording behavioural patterns of the population under scrutiny” (Malhotra 2010:230). This study employed a survey using a structured self-administered questionnaire based on the situation and the nature of data required. The selection of survey methods was influenced by the inexpensive cost of this data collection method. Furthermore, a survey preserves the anonymity of respondents. This can thus contribute to greater transparency and honesty during the questionnaire completion procedure. It is further noted that surveys provide a quick, inexpensive, efficient, and accurate means of assessing information about a population (Malhotra 2015:89), which suited the current study.

3.7.5.2 Measuring instrument and scaling process

The sports marketing researcher needs to choose on what data needs to be gathered and the category of questions to be asked before developing the measuring instrument. Sport marketing researchers measure consumer features and qualities such as attitude, perception or income level (Wiid & Diggins 2015:192). There are different types of scaling used to measure these elements. A scale is referred to as “a device providing a range of values that correspond to different

characteristics” (Zikmund & Babin 2010:324). In marketing research, numbering systems are frequently used to convey information about the attributes being measured (Babbie 2017:190). The most commonly used scale measurement levels in marketing research are nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio scales.

Nominal and interval categories of scale measurement were employed in this study. Gender, for illustration, was measured using a nominal scale, while motivational variables, spectator satisfaction and willingness to attend were measured using an interval scale. In terms of the interval scale, a Likert scale was utilised. The Likert scale is a type of scale that permits respondents “to rate how strongly they agree or disagree with carefully constructed statements” (Zikmund & Babin 2010:346). In this study, participants were requested to specify their level of agreement with a set of items (or statements) that define their attitude, behavioural intention, and beliefs toward women soccer attendance (See Annexure 2-survey questionnaire).

The next section discusses how the questionnaire was designed.

3.7.5.3 Questionnaire design and layout

This study utilised a structured questionnaire comprising of a sequence of questions that respondents answered. A questionnaire is a document designed with the purpose of seeking specific information from the respondents. It is a formal framework including a set of questions and scales planned to generate primary raw data (Burns *et al.* 2017:216). Questionnaire design is a methodical approach that necessitates a number of critical phases for researchers (Burns & Bush 2014:200). Hair *et al.* (2013:103) anticipated the following seven steps for designing a questionnaire:

- Step 1: Confirm research objectives.
- Step 2: Select appropriate data collection method.
- Step 3: Develop questions and scaling.
- Step 4: Determine layout and evaluate questionnaire.
- Step 5: Obtain initial client approval.
- Step 6: Pre-test, revise, and finalise questionnaire.
- Step 7: Implement the final survey.

A questionnaire was designed to collect primary data. The respondents were given instruction to put a cross (X) to the statement that represented their level of agreement.

Burns *et al.* (2017:214) maintain that the way a questionnaire is arranged and flows are key aspects that affect the quality of collected information. The convenience with which the questionnaire can

be completed, the use of the proper structure, and the appropriateness of the questions can all drive respondents to fill out the questionnaire effectively (Saunders *et al.* 2016: 458). In general, a good questionnaire flows from general to more complex and specific questions (Hair *et al.* 2013). The questionnaire assembled for this study contained five sections in line with the questionnaire construction. The first section focused on gathering the respondent's demographic and other background information. Biographical questions included the gender, age group, ethnicity/race and education level. Other background (Section B) questions included information related to the frequency of attendance.

Section C contained questions based on motivational variables (team identification, vicarious achievement, involvement, social interaction, and perceived value). Section D contained questions based on spectator satisfaction. Section E contained questions based on willingness to attend (WTA).

A five-item scale to measure *team identification* was adapted from Ballouli, Reese and Brown (2017:14) and Rocha and Fleury (2017:496); a four-item scale measuring *team involvement* was adapted from Liu and Shiu (2015:31); a five-item scale for *vicarious achievement* was adapted from Jensen and Limbu (2016:50); a five-item scale for *social interaction* and a three-item scale for *perceived value* were adopted from Choi *et al.* (2018:1463), and Stander and De Beer (2017:67) respectively. Spectator satisfaction was measured with a five-item scale adapted from Park *et al.* (2019:550), while a five-item scale was adopted from Lee and Shiu (2015:31) and Rocha and Fleury (2017:497) to measure *willingness to attend*. The reliability of the adopted scale items were: team identification had Cronbach alpha of 0.828; involvement 0.93; achievement 0.759; social interaction 0.834; perceived value 0.867; satisfaction had 0.951; and willingness to attend had Cronbach alpha of 0.832. All the scale items were rephrased to fit the present framework of the study.

3.7.5.4 Question format and construction

The questionnaire designed for this study included closed-ended questions. Closed-ended questions or structured questions denote to questions that require the respondent's to choose from pre-set responses (Babbie 2013:263). The structured question can be either multiple choice, dichotomous or scale (Malhotra 2010:298). The conceptual model developed covered motivational variables, satisfaction and willingness to attend variables. These variables are typically measured by a set of scale items because a single item cannot correctly capture a whole concept, such as willingness to attend women soccer match.

As explained by Babin and Zikmund (2016:23), the term construct refers to concepts that are measured with multiple items. All of the constructs in the conceptual model were generated from existing literature and tailored to the study's current setting. In this study, existing scales that were available in the literature were used for most of the variables on account of their wide recognition and acceptability in sports consumption literature.

3.7.5.5 Response options

Section A and B of the questionnaire made use of dichotomous and multiple-choice questions. Response choices used in sections C to E of the questionnaire were presented in the form of a Likert-type scale format. According to Grove *et al.* (2013:362), a Likert-type scale is a psychometric scale that analyses both negative and positive responses in questionnaires. Because of its compatibility with surveys and its capacity to accurately measure respondents' opinions and attitudes, a Likert scale was used in this study (Malhotra 2010:256). Furthermore, it reduces the development of response bias between respondents, facilitates the uniformity and comparability of questions among respondents, and questions are simple to code and analyse directly from the questionnaires (Grove *et al.* 2013:362). This study made use of a six-point Likert-type scale anchored along 1 (Strongly disagree), 2 (Disagree), 3 (Slightly disagree), 4 (Slightly agree) 5 (Agree) to 6 (Strongly agree).

3.8 IMPLEMENTATION OF THE FINAL SURVEY

The following section explains the implementation of final survey.

3.8.1 Data collection procedure and response rate

Numerous procedures can be used to dispense questionnaires in a research survey such as telephonic, electronic, postal, drop and collect, group-administered and online surveys. All the procedures mentioned above have advantages and disadvantages. Due to the outbreak of Covid-19, questionnaires were disseminated to women's professional soccer spectators through snowballing sampling, using drop and collect methods. The drop and collect method involved the face-to-face distribution and collection of hard copies of the questionnaires to and from the initial respondents who were available. The researcher personally delivered the questionnaires to the initially identified respondents.

The response rate in quantitative studies can be increased by considering several factors such as the timing, ensuring that the questionnaire distribution period is convenient for the respondents, making a good first impression, areas of response are adequate and clearly indicated; motivating

potential respondents by providing them with reasons as to why the study is important and why they should respond; then following up and sending reminders (Babbie 2017:205). The respondents were given twelve weeks to complete the survey; and the date of collection was further communicated during the drop off period. As part of adhering to research ethics, respondents were not offered any incentives for taking part in the study since the covering letter delineated the ethical considerations.

Data collection activities took place within the Gauteng province between April and June 2021. The researcher undertook the data collection process for three months. The researcher distributed a total number of 350 questionnaires. Following data collection, the questionnaires were evaluated. However, for a variety of reasons, some questionnaires were not returned, while others were incomplete. After scientifically screening all questionnaires, and discarding incomplete ones, a total of 316 were found usable, representing 90.3 percent response rate.

3.9 DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

Data analysis is the process of reviewing, cleansing, transforming, and modeling data in order to identify important information, inform conclusions, and support decision-making in order to meet research objectives (Clow & James 2014:227). The gathered data is subjected to data preparation to ensure that it is ready to be analysed. In this study, after data preparation procedures had been accomplished, the data were analysed using descriptive statistics (including tests for normality of data), exploratory factor analysis and regression analysis. The Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS version 27.0) was used to analyse the data collected.

3.9.1 Data preparation

Data preparation refers to the inspection of data quality after the questionnaire administration process, after converting it into usable coded data for analysis (Hair *et al.* 2013:242). Zikmund and Babin (2013:64) pinpoint that data preparation is vital for the detection of possible fieldwork errors. As such, Malhotra (2010:452) outlines a four-step approach to data preparation, which includes data editing, coding, capturing, and cleaning. The next section discusses these four steps of the data preparation process.

3.9.1.1 Data editing

Data editing is the physical review of each completed questionnaire. This involves searching for any mistakes that might have been caused by the researcher (termed researcher errors) or the

respondents (termed respondents' errors) during the data collection process (Malhotra 2010:453). The data were checked visually by the researcher.

3.9.1.2 Data coding

Coding denotes assigning a code, usually a number, to each possible reply to each question (Malhotra & Dash 2016:420). Codes allow data to be processed in the computer. Coding in quantitative research acts as tags that are placed on data about respondents or other units of analysis (Bryman 2012:709). The aim is to assign the data relating to each variable to groups, each of which is a category of the variable in question. Table 3.3 portrays an instance of a coded questionnaire.

Table 3.3: Example of a coded questionnaire

Your gender	Male	Female		
	1	2		
Your racial group	African	Coloured	Asian	Other
	1	2	3	4

Source: Author's compilation (2020)

3.9.1.3 Data capturing

After data editing and coding, data were captured onto a Microsoft Excel™ spreadsheet to get ready for statistical analysis. Data capturing involved transferring coded data from a questionnaire directly into a computer by means of keypunching (Malhotra 2010:459). This detecting errors and data omissions, and correcting them when possible, and certifies that maximum data quality are achieved (Hair *et al.* 2013:252).

3.9.1.4 Data cleaning

Data cleaning refers to thorough and extensive checks for consistency and treatment of missing responses (Malhotra *et al.* 2017:541). Fundamentally, data cleaning is regarded as a primary section embracing consistency checks and treatment of missing information. After entering and storing the data in the computer for processing, the next step is to verify for errors before beginning with statistical analysis. Data cleaning involved error checking and treatment of missing

responses, substitution of neutral value, substituting imputed response, and a case-wise and pair-wise deletion (Zikmund *et al.* 2013:476).

3.9.2 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis is essential to all quantitative surveys. According to Kalla (2011:1), statistical analysis is also a very useful tool to get estimated solutions when the actual process is highly complex or unknown in its true form (Kalla 2011:1). A Microsoft Excel spreadsheet was used to enter all the data and then copied to the SPSS (Version 27.0 for Windows) programme; a statistical package utilised to code data and to run the statistical analysis. It is significant to mention that the selection of data analysis procedures in this study was guided by the data analysis methods applied in the previous research in sport consumption motives.

3.9.3 Descriptive statistics

“Descriptive statistics methods are used to characterise the distribution (or spread) of a sample or population across a wide variety of variables utilizing all four levels of measurement, namely, nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio measurements” (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delpont 2011:251). Descriptive statistics allow the researcher to summarise the properties of an entire distribution of scores with just a few numbers (Bordens & Abbott 2018:397). Descriptive analysis involves several statistical methods. These comprise frequency distribution, location measures (mean, median, and mode), and measures of dispersion (standard deviation, range and variance, skewness, and kurtosis) (Thomas 2021:151-152). The following procedures for statistical analysis that were used in the study are explained in the next section.

3.9.3.1 Measures of central tendency used in the study

Measures of central tendency (also labelled measures of location) summarise the typical description of responses to a particular question (Burns *et al.* 2017:319). Measure of central tendency is statistic, like the arithmetic mean, median or mode that summarises a distribution of values (Bryman 2012:713).

The mean is defined by Picardi and Masick (2014:180) as a measure of central tendency that measures the average value in each distribution. It is the utmost used measure of central tendency, as it sums up the values of the characteristics and divides them by the total number of the same characteristics (Gravetter & Wallnau 2014:66). Malhotra (2010:486) indicate that the mean is utilised to estimate when the data have been collected by means of an interval or ratio scale. For this study, means are described in Chapter 4 (refer to Section 4.3).

3.9.3.2 Standard deviation

Standard deviation is a quantitative index of a distribution's spread, or variability, the square root of the variance for a distribution. Standard deviation eliminates the drawbacks of having the measure of dispersion in squared units rather than in the original measurement units (Zikmund 1999:437). The standard deviation designates the average distance of the distribution values from the mean (Bryman 2012:716). When each value in a distribution is subtracted from the mean and added up, the outcome will be close to zero. For this study, standard deviations are reported in Chapter 4 (refer to Section 4.3).

3.9.3.3 Frequency distribution

A frequency distribution is a mathematical distribution whose purpose is to count the number of responses related with various values of one variable and express these counts in percentage terms (Malhotra *et al.* 2017:913). A frequency distribution table indicates the occurrence of data with its frequency in each sample of defined size. In addition, Tustin, Ligthelm, Martins and Van Wyk (2010:523) indicate that frequencies aid to highlight the popularity of responses among the groups of analysis. In this study, frequencies were used to analyse sections A and B of the questionnaire by describing the demographic profile of the respondents (refer to Section 4.2.1 and Section 4.2.2 of this study). A combination of charts and graphs were used in this case to provide a visual representation of the overall number of responses for each question.

3.9.3.4 Tabulation

Tabulation is a systematic and logical illustration of numeric data in rows and columns to facilitate comparison and statistical analysis. It facilitates comparison by bringing related information close to each other and helps in statistical analysis and interpretation (Bairagi & Munot 2019:19). Tabulation also provides a variety of statistical computational information that aids in summarisation, identification of errors and omissions of things. However, simple tabulation covers calculating a single variable, cross tabulation is a multivariate technique wherein the relationships between two or more categorical variables are studied, simultaneously (Brown *et al.* 2018:269). In this study, simple tabulation was employed to account the frequency distributions of the responses in Sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 respectively.

3.9.4 Other statistical analysis

Inferential statistics are statistics that help the researcher to draw conclusions regarding the population based on the information about the sample drawn (Vogt 2007:57). Inferential statistics

enable researchers to test hypotheses, evaluate the strength of relationships between constructs or variables, and generalise about the population based on the sample (Fox & Bayat 2007:125). Reference is made of Pearson correlation, Spearman correlation, chi-square, paired t-test, independent t-test, simple regression, multiple regression and Wilcoxon rank-sum tests as methods and techniques that can be employed to make inferences and conduct analyses of variances (Bernhardt 2013:13). Multivariate analysis is another method of analysis that concurrently analyse two or more variables (Bryman 2012:345). Multivariate analysis technique was used in this study with the use of factor analysis and multiple regression analyses to determine the nature of relationships in Sections C-E of the questionnaire.

3.9.4.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is a statistical technique that is used to reduce data to a smaller set of summary variables and explore the underlying theoretical structure of the phenomena (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson 2018:124). Factor analysis is outlined as the process that is used to analyse the data to determine which statements can be grouped together in controllable sets (Bradley 2013:321). In addition, it denotes to a set of statistical measures designed to examine the number of different constructs needed to account for design of correlations among a set of measures (Fabrigar & Wegener 2012:3). Essentially, to evaluate correlations on the listed variables, factor analysis identifies fundamental variables that represent patterns among the variables. The purpose of factor analysis is to calculate factor loadings and disclose the correlation coefficients amongst variables (Hair *et al.* 2018:126). The rule of thumb for factor loadings is shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Interpretations of factor loadings

Factor loading analysis		Interpretation
Very high factor loading	(>0.6)	The variable describes the factor very well
High factor loading	(>0.3)	The variable describes the factor well
Low factor loading	(<0.3)	The variable should be ignored

Source: Bradley (2013:321)

Watkins (2018:220) comments that EFA is employed when there is a need to discover a new area in research and aims at analysing the correlation between several variables. Nevertheless, these variables are analysed without determining the extent to which the results fit a specific model

(Finch 2019:5). It is imperative to examine if the data set is appropriate for factor analysis. In this study EFA was used. The initial stage was to determine whether the data was appropriate for factor analysis. The methods employed to define the correctness of data set for EFA are Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's test, also recognised as Bartlett's test of sphericity.

KMO measure of sampling adequacy is a statistical indicator that tests the adequacy of the sample size (Ren & Du 2014:379). KMO measure of sampling adequacy, which correlates pairs of variables and the magnitude of partial correlations among variables, and which requires many pairs of variables to be statistically significantly correlated, should yield an overall measure of 0.6 or higher (maximum is 1) (Hinton, McMurray & Brownlow 2014:341; Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2018:820). As cited in Stephanie (2018:5), the values of inter-item correlations should be closer to one to reflect on those relations as strong.

The Bartlett's test should also be performed because it determines whether or not the relevant matrix is an identity matrix (Ren & Du 2014:379). Bartlett's test, also acknowledged as Bartlett's test of sphericity, is employed to test whether the distribution of a variable has the equivalent variance in all groups (Cohen *et al.* 2018:820). This test should be done to confirm whether homogeneity of variances exists and to define if factor analysis is suitable (Singh 2007:102). The Bartlett test of sphericity, which investigates the correlations between variables, should show statistical significance ($p < 0.05$) for data to be factorable (Cohen *et al.* 2018:820).

3.9.4.2 Correlations analysis

In research, correlation analysis is a statistical approach for calculating the association between two variables and measuring the strength of the linear relationship between them. Correlation is an approach to the analysis of relationships between interval/ratio variables and/or ordinal variables that seeks to assess the intensity and direction of the relationship amongst the variables concerned (Bryman 2012:710). As Gates (2010:448) indicated, the notion is that the changes in one variable impact the changes in another. To analyse the degree to which changes in one variable are associated with changes in another variable, computed correlation coefficient will be found in the population, it is necessary to analyse its statistical significance (Bryman 2012:349). In this study, correlation analysis was conducted between identified variables. The results of the correlations analysis are discussed in detail in Chapter 4 (refer to Sections 4.3.2).

3.9.4.3 Regression analysis

Regression analysis enables the researcher to predict the specific value of one variable when researchers know or assume values of the other variable(s) (Cohen *et al.* 2018:802). It is a way of modelling the relationship between variables. As indicated by Aaker, Kumar, Leone and Day (2013:631), regression is a statistical procedure that predicts the relation of one independent variable to another dependent variable. Regression analysis is a technique that helps analyse the coefficient or limitations of a developed model (Adams, Khan & Raeside 2014:203). As cited by Cohen *et al.* (2018:818), simple linear regression, and multiple linear regression are two forms of regression analysis. A simple equation in which changes in one independent variable predict changes in another dependent variable is commonly explained using a linear regression analysis (Bordens & Abbot 2018:426). Leedy and Ormrod (2014:301) view multiple regression analysis as producing an equation in which two or more independent variables are utilised to predict a single dependent variable. For this study, multiple regression analysis was conducted for Sections C, D and E to detect the predictive relationship between the variables. The results of the regression analysis are discussed in detail in Chapter 4 (refer to Sections 4.3.3).

3.10 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY ASSESSMENTS

Whereas the research instrument developed in this study used multi-item scale measures, Malhotra *et al.* (2017:358) emphasise the significance of evaluating the accuracy and applicability of a scale by assessing its reliability and validity.

3.10.1 Reliability measurement

Reliability is a degree to which the measuring instrument is steady and dependable throughout time (Feinberg *et al.* 2013:128). It is the extent to which the measurement instrument is error-free (McDaniel & Gates 2013:215). Therefore, through reliability, biases and errors are minimised, and consistent results are achieved. According to Malhotra (2010:731), there are countless approaches used to test for reliability, which comprise the split-half reliability coefficient and the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 (K-R 20), the Composite reliability test, the Cronbach alpha test and item-to-total correlations. For this study, reliability was established using the Cronbach alpha test and inter-item correlations.

3.10.1.1 Cronbach alpha

Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency reliability test score that is the average of all probable split-half coefficients resulting from a diverse splitting of the scale items (Sekaran &

Bougie 2013:228). In other words, it is the relationship between each item on a measurement scale and the total of all the other items. A high Cronbach alpha signifies a great degree of applicability across the items in the scale (Malhotra 2010:734). In applying the Cronbach alpha coefficient, the present study employed the guidelines presented in Table 3.5 that are put forward by Cronbach (1951:302).

Table 3.5: Rules of Thumb for the Cronbach Alpha

Cronbach Alpha Value	Internal Consistency
$\alpha \geq 0.9$	Excellent
$0.8 < \alpha \leq 0.9$	Good
$0.7 < \alpha \leq 0.8$	Acceptable
$0.6 < \alpha \leq 0.7$	Questionable
$0.5 < \alpha \leq 0.6$	Poor
$\alpha < 0.5$	Unacceptable

Source: Cronbach (1951:302)

The table espouses that the minimum acceptable alpha value is 0.7, and the rule of thumb, as indicated in Table 3.5 were used in this study. It was therefore anticipated that the alpha values for all measurement scales utilised in the study were above the 0.7 thresholds.

3.10.1.2 Item-total correlations

Item-total correlations are a psychometric measure used to judge the reliability and consistency of measurement scales (Field 2013:189). The measure is pragmatic to test whether any item in a scale is consistent with the behaviour of the other items on the same scale (Burns & Bush 2014:214). Any inconsistent items (low-item total correlations) should be discarded. Usually, the discarding of such inconsistent items leads to the improvement of reliability in a process called scale purification. In order to meet the cut-off level of reliability, the study adopted Nunnally's (1978:88) recommendation that the item-total correlation of each item should be above 0.3.

3.10.2 Validity assessment

The amount to which the experiment's conclusions are true is referred to as validity. To put it another way, do the changes in the dependent variable discovered through experimental

manipulations of the independent factors truly reflect a cause-effect relationship? (Burns & Bush 2014:214). Moreover, Cooper and Schindler (2006:349) state that validity is the ability of a research tool to measure what is being measured. The following measures of validity were discussed as they were considered in the study, namely, content and construct validity. Three categories of validity were utilised:

3.10.2.1 Face validity/content validity

Face validity is a form of validity measure in which a measuring scale seems to measure what it intends to measure (Bryman 2012:711). It therefore assesses what the questionnaire superficially appears to measure. In this study, face validity was established through an examination of the questionnaire by three faculty members. These results are discussed in Chapter 4 (refer to Section 4.3.4.2).

3.10.2.2 Convergent validity (congruent validity)

Convergent validity is the degree to which the scale associates positively with other measures of the same construct. Fundamentally, an instrument is believed to have high convergent validity when it generates similar results to other tested instruments that measure the same constructs in the sale area (Malhotra 2010:321). In this study a correlation coefficient was utilised to examine if there are any relationships among the constructs under study. These results are reported in Chapter 4 (refer to Section 4.3.4.2).

3.10.2.3 Predictive validity (criterion-related validity)

Predictive validity is the degree to which a present measurement on a scale may predict a future level of a criterion variable. In this study, regression analysis was employed to assess predictive validity of motivational variables (team identification, involvement, vicarious achievement, perceived value, and social interaction) on spectator satisfaction and willingness to attend women's soccer. These results are reported in Chapter 4 (refer to Section 4.3.4.2).

3.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The core integrity of research is ethics. Concerns, challenges, and conflicts that develop while conducting research are referred to as ethical issues (Bryman 2012:114). Ethics refers to personal preferences that impact human behaviour while adhering to a set of principles, norms of conduct, the researcher's obligation, and the standards of conduct of a particular profession (McDaniel & Gates 2013:22). Ethical permission to conduct the research was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the University (Ethics Reference Number: FRECMS-10032021-059; Staff number:

215040279). Researchers are led by four key ethical principles in research, as suggested by Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006:61).

3.11.1 Anonymity and respect for the dignity of persons

This entails maintaining participant confidentiality, which is an important operational embodiment of this value. During the data collection procedure, the respondents' identities were protected. The information was compiled in a way that did not identify any of the respondents.

3.11.2 Non-maleficence and voluntary participation

This philosophical belief demands the researcher to ensure that research respondents are not harmed because of the study. The researcher informed the respondents that participation in the study was fully voluntary, and that they had the opportunity to opt out at any time.

3.11.3 Justice

In research, justice is a complicated philosophical notion that requires the researcher to treat respondents fairly and equally at all stages of the study. Mutual trust is a matter of ethics. The researcher preserved that confidentiality and anonymity of respondents were promised. For this study, all respondents were handled equally and professionally, with mutual respect and interview mode maintained.

3.11.4 Beneficence

This principle dictates that the researcher maximises the benefits that the research will provide to the research respondents. During the fieldwork, the researcher made it a point to emphasise that the study was not conducted for the researcher's own financial advantage. During survey, respondents were informed that the information would be used solely for academic reasons, and that the aggregated report would be available for them to access at the Vaal University of Technology upon request. The goal of the conversations was to establish mutual trust.

3.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter delineated the several steps undertaken to achieve the practical aspects of this study. It provided detailed discussions of the research design and procedures which were followed. The specific layout that was set to attain empirical evidence for successfully attaining the research objectives provided. Moreover, the research design, sampling strategy, sample frame and sampling procedures are elaborated upon.

A detailed discussion of the data collection methods employed for the study is provided. The data collection instrument format, construction and layout are described, showing how it was designed, structured, and administered. Several statistical procedures were highlighted, as well as the reliability and validity assessment procedures utilised.

The next chapter presents the data analysis, interpretation and discussion of the empirical findings. The study's findings are presented in the form of figures and tables with interpretations, while trends and comparisons are made.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALAYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided an outline of the study's methodology and research methodologies. A full description of the sample selection and composition, as well as the construction of the questionnaire, was provided. The processes for data collection, capturing, processing, and analysis were also described. Statistical methodologies for determining the reliability and validity of the study's research instrument were presented.

This chapter focuses on the results of the empirical study through an analysis, interpretation, and discussion of the findings. The Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS version 27.0 for Windows) was employed to analyse the data. The results of the main survey are presented, interpreted, and discussed. The analysis is accomplished in sequence by presenting the demographic description of the sample, followed by the factor analysis, correlations analysis and regression analysis. The chapter further discusses the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. It concludes by discussing the common-method bias (CMB) adhered to in the study with a summary.

4.2 ANALYSIS OF THE MAIN SURVEY

4.2.1 Profile of the respondents

This section provides sample descriptions, as outlined in the subsections.

4.2.1.1 Gender composition of the sample

Figure 4.1 offers an overview of the gender composition of the participants. The sample comprised n=161 males, representing 50.9 per cent, and n=155 females, representing 49.1 per cent, respectively.

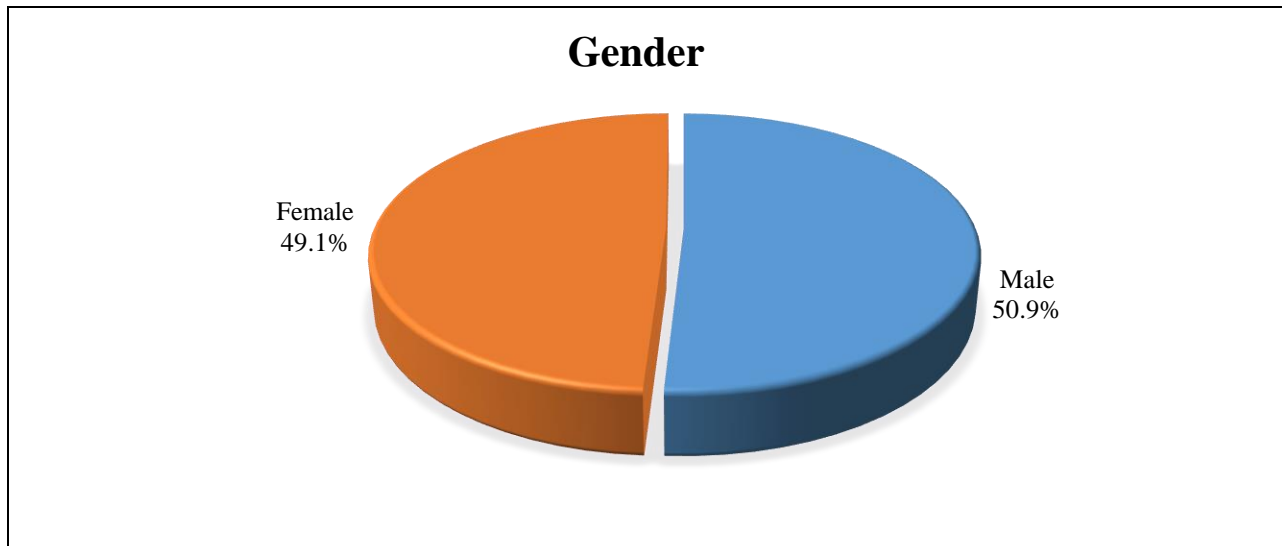


Figure 4.1: Gender composition

4.2.1.2 Age and Race of the respondents

The age composition of the sample reports that 55 per cent (n=175) of the respondents were between the age of 18-29 years, 26.6 per cent (n=84) were aged between 30-39 years, 13 per cent (n=41) were aged between 40-49 years, 4.7 per cent (n=15) represented the age group between 50-59 years, and the 0.3 per cent (n=1) of the sample represented 60 years and above.

Table 4.1: Respondents characteristics (age and race)

Age	Frequency	%	Race	Frequency	%
18-28 years	175	55.4	Black-African	223	70.6
30-39 years	84	26.6	Coloured	57	18.0
40-49 years	41	13.0	Asian	10	3.2
50-59 years	15	4.7	White	26	8.2
Over 60 years	1	.3	Total	316	100
Total	316	100			

Table 4.1 further provides the breakdown of ethnicity (population group). Most of the respondents were Black-Africans (70.6%; n=223) followed by Coloureds with 18 per cent (n=57). Whites constituted 8.2 per cent (n=26) of the respondents, while Indians constituted 3.2 percent (n=10) of the sample.

4.2.1.3 Educational status

In relation to educational qualifications, Figure 4.2 reveals that the majority of respondents (n=141; 44.6 per cent) had a Grade 12/Matric certificate, followed by 20.6 per cent of respondents (n=65) who claimed to have a college or university diploma as their highest qualification. Roughly 14.2 per cent (n=45) of the respondents reported that their highest qualification was a university degree, 10.1 percent (n=32) of the respondents had grade 11 or less. However, a small proportion of respondents in the 'other' group (n=8; 2.5%) claimed having trades and artisan qualifications. Furthermore, the study included respondents who claimed to have a Master's or PhD (n=25; 7.9 %).

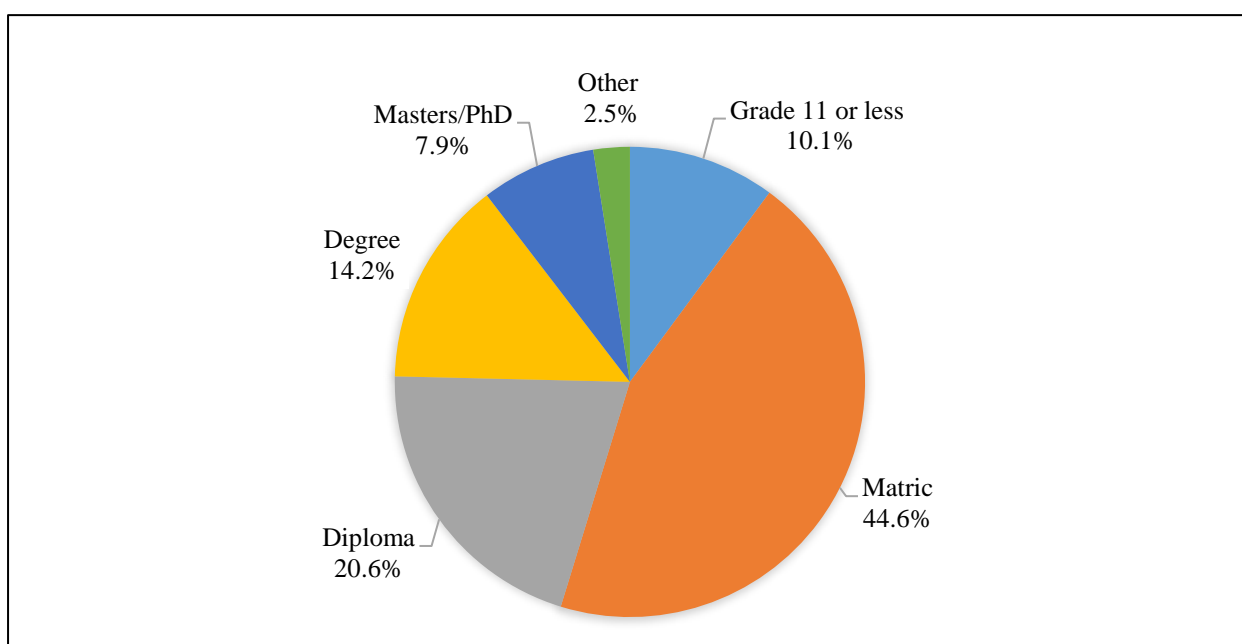


Figure 4.2: Educational statuses of the respondents

4.2.2 Spectator attendance

This section provides sample descriptions, as outlined in the subsections.

4.2.2.1 Previous attendance of women's soccer match within the past 1 year

Respondents were requested to indicate whether they have attended professional women's soccer matches within a year, till the period when the study was conducted (B1). This served the intended purpose to validate whether the snowballed respondents had attended professional women's soccer matches within a period of 12 months preceding the survey. This study consists of Gauteng women's soccer matches spectators who have at least 12 months' minimum experience with

spectating matches (n=316; 100%). Consistently, the data set utilised here consists of only those respondents who had stated that they have attended professional women's soccer matches before.

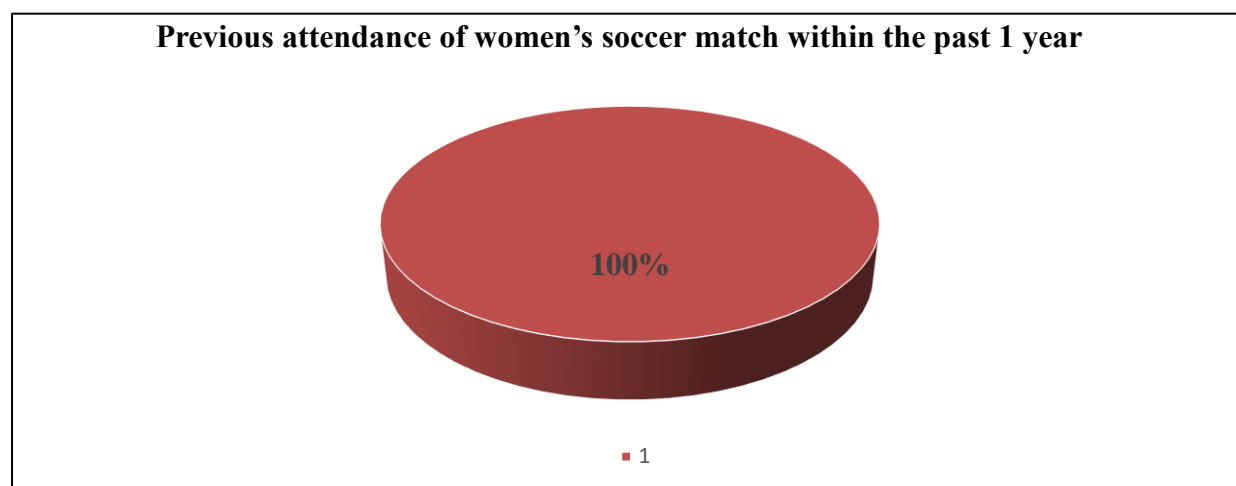


Figure 4.3: Results regarding respondents' previous attendance

4.2.2.2 Frequency of attendance

Figure 4.4 illustrates how often spectators attend professional women's soccer matches in Gauteng. Approximately, 29.1 per cent of respondents (n=92) attended professional women's soccer matches monthly. However, this result is followed by only 25.3 per cent of respondents (n=80) attended professional women's football on a weekly basis. Approximately 23.4 per cent (n=74) attended football matches quarterly, whilst 22.2 per cent (n=70) attend professional women football during some other times.

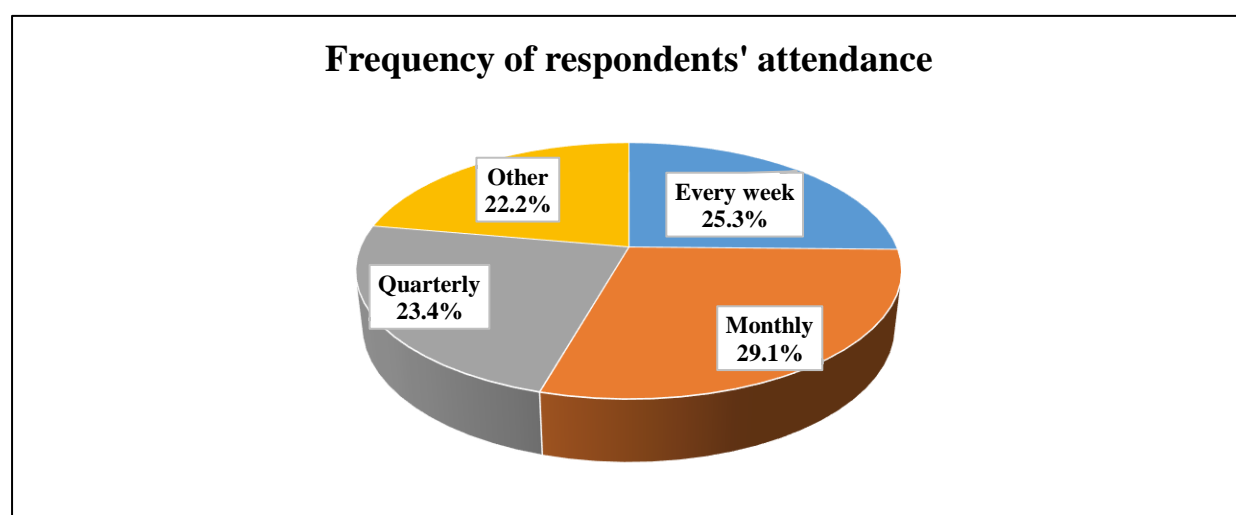


Figure 4.4: Frequency of attendance

4.2.2.3 Motivation to attend soccer matches

Drawing from Figure 4.5, it is evident that respondents who attended professional women's soccer matches are motivated by love for soccer (39.2%; n=124); followed by those who attend soccer matches for fun or excitement (21.2%; n=67); those who attend for social interaction (13.6%; n=39); and those who attend because of their loyalty towards their soccer team (10.4%; n=33). Roughly 15.5% (n=49) attend matches for other reasons.

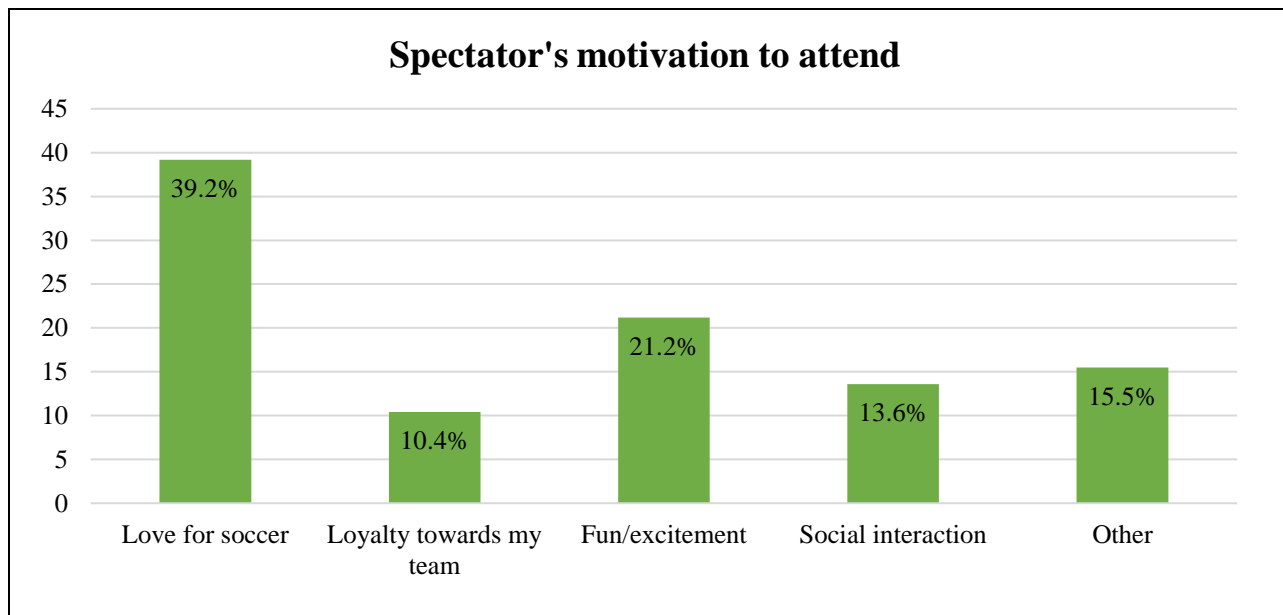


Figure 4.5: Spectators' motives to attend soccer matches

4.2.2.4 Who accompanied you to the game?

Figure 4.6 illustrates the results on who accompanied respondents to professional women's soccer matches. Most respondents (44.3%; n=140) are accompanied by friends; followed by spectators who go alone (20.3%; n=64); those who are accompanied by their boy /girlfriends (12.3 %; n=39); those who go to the soccer matches with someone else (11.7 %; n=37); and those who attend soccer matches with their family (11.4 %; n=36).

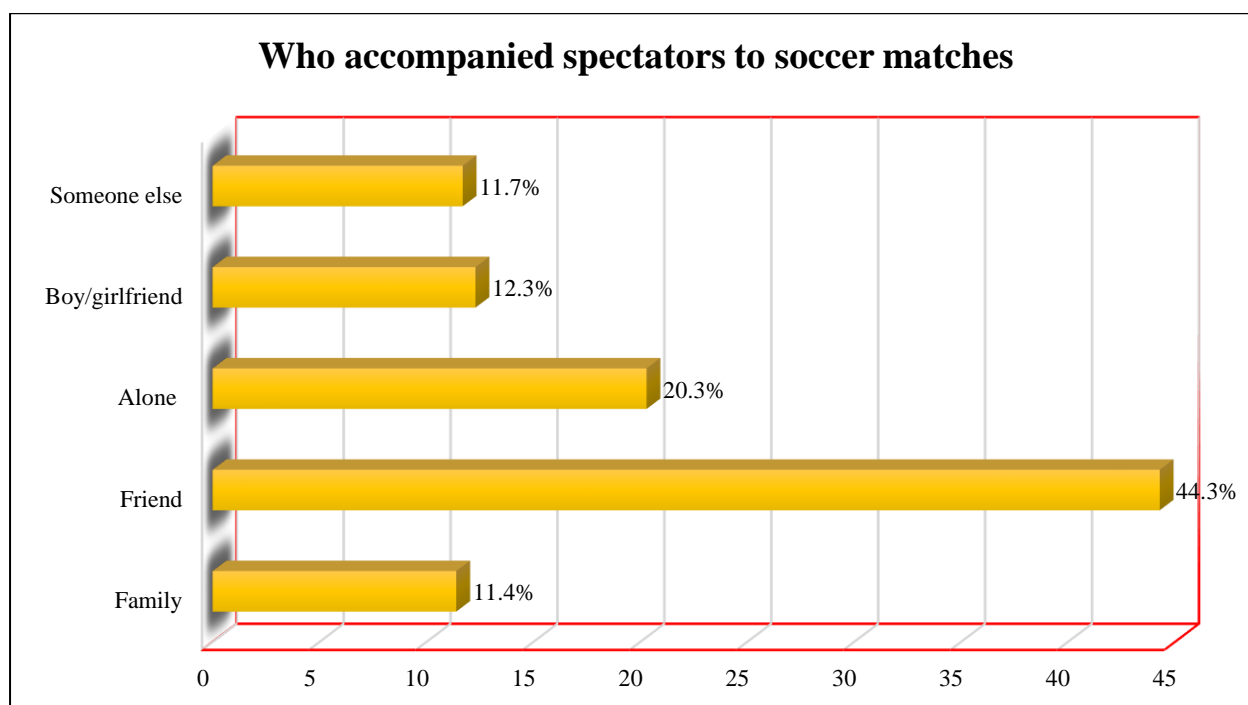


Figure 4.6: Respondents results on who accompanied them to soccer games

4.3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: MEANS OF THE SAMPLE

Descriptive statistics offer researchers with an instrument to explain the basic characteristics of the sample (Malhotra 2010:486; Thomas 2021:151). As shown in Chapter Three, descriptive statistics typically comprise measures of central tendency, dispersion, and shape (Pallant 2010:53). Moreover, a six-point Likert scale was used to measure the scaled responses, which ranged from 1= strongly disagree to 6= strongly agree. For this study, mean values were computed as measures of central tendency.

The mean scores for the team identification scale ranged from 3.67 to 3.95. Overall, the mean score for the scale was 3.79, which provides an indication that respondents slightly disagreed with the statements regarding team identification when attending women's soccer matches. The mean scores for the involvement scale ranged from 3.97 to 4.23. Overall, the mean score for the scale was 4.125, which provides an indication that respondents agreed with the statements regarding involvement. The mean scores for achievement scale ranged from 4.27 to 4.40. The overall mean score of the scale was 4.33, which indicates that respondents agreed with the statements regarding achievement construct.

The mean score for the social interaction scale ranged from 4.09 to 4.46. Overall, the mean score was 4.274 which provides an indication that respondents agreed with the statements regarding social interaction when attending women's soccer matches. The mean scores for the perceived

value ranged from 3.84 to 4.21. Overall, the mean score for the scale was 3.96, which indicates that respondents slightly disagreed with the statements regarding perceived value when attending women's soccer matches.

The mean scores for the satisfaction scale ranged from 4.38 to 4.54. Overall, the mean score for the scale was 4.454, which provides an indication that respondents agreed with the statements regarding satisfaction. The mean scores for willingness to attend scale ranged from 4.02 to 4.60. The overall mean score of the scale was 4.32, which indicates that respondents agreed with the statements regarding willingness to attend women's soccer matches.

Table 4.2 presents the mean score ratings for the six factors.

Table 4.2: Overall means of the variables

Legend: Min = Minimum Max = Maximum SD = Standard deviation
 Skew = Skewness Kurt = Kurtosis

Scale	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skew	Kurt
Team identification: Overall	316	1	6	3.79	1.529	-0.233	-0.904
C1: Being a fan of the football team is very important to me	316	1	6	3.95	1.518	-0.308	-0.877
C2: I am a committed fan of the ladies' football teams	316	1	6	3.76	1.420	-0.184	-0.676
C3: I consider myself to be a 'real' fan of the ladies' football teams	316	1	6	3.77	1.460	-0.233	-0.777
C4: This team reminds me of who I am	316	1	6	3.67	1.569	-0.153	-1.045
C5: When I talk about this soccer team, I usually say "we" rather than "they"	316	1	6	3.80	1.678	-0.287	-1.146
Involvement: Overall	316	1	6	4.125	1.444	-0.515	-0.526
C6: I enjoyed discussing this woman soccer matches with my friends	316	1	6	4.16	1.493	-0.499	-0.673
C7: Attending this soccer match is one of the most enjoyable things I do	316	1	6	4.21	1.339	-0.513	-0.230

Scale	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skew	Kurt
C8: Most of my friends are in some way connected with this soccer match	316	1	6	3.97	1.530	-0.471	-0.738
C9: Attending this soccer match is important to me	316	1	6	4.23	1.413	-0.578	-0.462
Achievement: Overall	316	1	6	4.33	1.435	-0.621	-0.394
C10: I feel proud when my favourite team plays well	316	1	6	4.40	1.423	-0.582	-0.487
C11: I feel like I have won when my favourite team wins	316	1	6	4.36	1.426	-0.615	-0.429
C12: I feel a personal sense of achievement when my favourite team plays well	316	1	6	4.36	1.392	-0.652	-0.286
C13: I share in the victory when my favourite soccer team wins	316	1	6	4.28	1.434	-0.570	-0.432
C14: I care a great deal about my favourite soccer team	316	1	6	4.27	1.501	-0.688	-0.334
Social interaction: Overall	316	1	6	4.274	1.422	-0.636	-0.329
C15: I like to socialise with others	316	1	6	4.38	1.374	-0.759	-0.023
C16: I like having the opportunity to interact with other people	316	1	6	4.46	1.334	-0.789	0.049
C17: I enjoy talking to other people	316	1	6	4.25	1.505	-0.562	-0.669
C18: I enjoy women's soccer games because they provide an opportunity to be with my friends	316	1	6	4.19	1.453	-0.547	-0.521
C19: Watching my women's team play is based on having other people share the experience	316	1	6	4.09	1.444	-0.523	-0.480
Perceived value: Overall	316	1	6	3.967	1.462	-0.459	-0.608
C20: The fees for this soccer match is fair	316	1	6	4.20	1.469	-0.579	-0.502
C21: Women's soccer experience is good value for money	316	1	6	3.86	1.366	-0.431	-0.500

Scale	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skew	Kurt
C22: Women's soccer match experience is worth the money	316	1	6	3.84	1.551	-0.366	-0.822
Satisfaction: Overall	316	1	6	4.454	1.321	-0.767	0.044
D1: I am satisfied with my decision to attend this game	316	1	6	4.38	1.320	-0.749	0.114
D2: I think I did the right thing by deciding to attend this game	316	1	6	4.39	1.277	-0.813	0.347
D3: I am happy that I attended this game	316	1	6	4.48	1.308	-0.714	-0.061
D4: I really enjoyed watching the soccer match	316	1	6	4.54	1.295	-0.724	-0.115
D5: I think the soccer match is worth watching	316	1	6	4.48	1.406	-0.836	-0.067
Willingness to attend: Overall	316	1	6	4.326	1.418	-0.681	-0.323
E1: The soccer match made me more likely to consider attending.	316	1	6	4.16	1.355	-0.542	-0.428
E2: The soccer match made me more likely to buying related products.	316	1	6	4.02	1.477	-0.474	-0.623
E3: I am planning to attend the soccer match next time.	316	1	6	4.39	1.404	-0.682	-0.175
E4: I would recommend this soccer match to my friends or others	316	1	6	4.46	1.422	-0.807	-0.041
E5: I want to tell other people positive things about this soccer match	316	1	6	4.60	1.434	-0.901	0.079
Valid n (list wise)	316						

Two measures of peakedness were noticed along the skewness and kurtosis values when analysing the symmetry of the sample data. A skewness value of zero represents a data collection with a perfectly normal distribution (Tustin *et al.* 2010:554), although the absolute value may not always be obtained in this study owing to sampling variations. The actual skewness values reported in this study ranged between -0.233 and -0.767, pointing to a slight negative skewness; whereas kurtosis values ranging between -0.3232 and +0.0436 indicated that the data set could be slightly

flat. Only two items (C4= -1.045 and C5= -1.146) fell slightly outside the strict threshold of -1 and +1, as posited by Hair *et al.* (2018:48). This study applied the less-conservative guideline that skewness and kurtosis values ranging between -2 and +2 can still be within acceptable parameters for a normally distributed data set (George & Mallery 2016:114).

4.3.1 Factor analysis

Factor analysis was used in this study to identify underlying variables in order to evaluate and define the pattern of correlations between them. It was also used to minimise the number of factors that explain the similarities and differences in the underlying collection of variables to a smaller number. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sample adequacy and the Bartlett's test were used to determine whether the data set was eligible for factor analysis (Hinton *et al.* 2014:341).

The Bartlett's test should also be used to determine whether factor analysis should be continued. There is no purpose in conducting a factor analysis if the researcher believes there is nothing of interest to discover in terms of factor loading (Hinton *et al.* 2014:341). Small significance level values (less than 0.05) imply that a factor analysis may be ineffective (IBM 2014). The KMO and Bartlett's tests were computed on Sections C, D and E of the questionnaire and the results are presented in Table 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5 respectively.

4.3.1.1 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Section C (Spectators perception of selected motivational variables)

Table 4.3 illustrates the results of two tests (KMO and Bartlett's tests), which show the appropriateness of the data for structure detection.

Table 4.3: KMO and Bartlett's test of Section C (Selected motivational variable)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.922
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5003.025
	Df	231
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.3 displays that the KMO of Section C is 0.922 (which is above 0.5), which designates that the proportion of variance in the variables is triggered by underlying factors. Thus, it permits the application of a factor analysis. This is reinforced by the Bartlett's test of Section C, which has a

0.000 significance level that is less than 0.05. Hence, both tests stipulate evidence that the data is appropriate for factor analysis.

4.3.1.2 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Section D (Satisfaction)

Table 4.4: KMO and Bartlett's test of Section D

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.847
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1192.868
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

The KMO of Section D is 0.847, which is close to 1. The Bartlett's test of Section D has a 0.000 significance level that is lower than 0.05. In summary, both tests show that a factor analysis can be performed on Section D.

4.3.1.3 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of Section E (Willingness to attend)

Table 4.5: KMO and Bartlett's test of Section E

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.868
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	906.867
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.5 displays that the KMO of Section E is 0.866 (which is greater than 0.5), which shows that the proportion of variance in the variables is caused by underlying factors. Therefore, it permits the application of a factor analysis. This is reinforced by the Bartlett's test of Section E, which has a 0.000 significance level that is less than 0.05. The Bartlett's test confirms that factor analysis technique was suitable for dataset.

In summary, the results of the KMO and Bartlett's tests of both sections indicate the suitability of the data in Sections C, D and E for factor analysis. Based on the above results, factor analysis was used to find factors among the perceptions of spectators of their motivation towards soccer matches, satisfaction, and willingness to attend professional women's soccer matches. The following sections present the outcomes of the factor analysis of Section C. Sections D and E was not exposed to these tests because the scale was uni-dimensional.

4.3.1.4 Extraction of factors

After examining the correlation matrix, the researcher can choose the category of factor analysis approach that is most appropriate for the study, such as principal component analysis (PCA) (Jolliffe & Cadima 2016:2). To investigate the perceptions of spectators selected motivational variables towards willingness to attend professional women's soccer matches, diverse components were recognised through principal component factor analysis using the varimax rotation method. The examination of the main components PCA is a technique that reduces a larger number of variables (items) into a smaller set of factors known as components in PCA, which accounts for most of the variance in the original variables (Gorsuch 2015:105). According to Williams, Brown and Onsmann (2012:6), data extraction is employed as a means of reducing large items to smaller representative elements utilising proper criterion.

Section C: Spectators' perceptions of selected motivational variables

The number of factors extracted was determined using eigenvalues, percentage of variance, significance of factor loading, and an assessment of the factor structure (Dhurup & Mofoka 2011:161). Only factors with an eigenvalue of more than 1 (one) are regarded useful, and factor loadings that reported for more than 60 per cent of variance were retained as sufficient factors (Plonsky 2015:194). The eigenvalues, the percentage of variance explained by each factor and the cumulative percentage of variance of the five factors are reported in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Eigenvalues, percentage of variance explained and cumulative percentage of Section C

Dimension description	No of items	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
Factor 1: Team identification	5	3.880	17.636	17.636
Factor 2: Involvement	4	3.868	17.581	35.218
Factor 3: Achievement	5	3.339	15.179	50.397
Factor 4: Social interaction	5	2.607	11.848	62.245
Factor 5: Perceived value	3	2.425	11.024	73.268

To further examine PCA and acquire new factor loadings, the varimax with Kaiser normalisation was used as a rotation technique. Rotation frequently is utilised to make the factor structure of a group of items easier to interpret (Williams *et al.* 2012:5). All factors comprised reported

eigenvalues more significant than one and factor loadings greater than 0.50. Some items were excluded from the factor structure because they either had cross-loadings or low factor loadings (<0.50) (Illias & Razak 2011:132). Items C6 and C7 were excluded because of their cross-loadings, whereas items C21 and C22 were removed because they had low loadings. In this case, the criterion used allowed for extraction of five relevant factors. Table 4.7 provides a summary of the factors that were extracted for section C of the questionnaire

Table 4.7: Factor loading matrix of Section C (spectators' perceptions of selected motivational variables)

	Factor				
Scale description	1	2	3	4	5
1. Being a fan of the football team is very important to me	.354	.732	.222	.047	.100
2. I am a committed fan of the ladies' football teams	.156	.835	.154	.263	.066
3. I consider myself to be a 'real' fan of the ladies' football teams	.168	.842	.166	.201	.056
4. This team reminds me of who I am	.257	.767	-.002	.197	.112
5. When I talk about this soccer team, I usually say "we" rather than "they"	.350	.737	.029	.164	.124
8. I enjoy discussing this women soccer matches with my friends.	.181	.209	.199	.740	.124
9. Attending this soccer match is one of the most enjoyable things I do	.405	.215	0.89	.660	.127
10. Most of my friends are in some way connected with this soccer match	.143	.169	.227	.736	.101
11. Attending this soccer match is important to me	.345	.288	.055	.580	.268
12. I feel proud when my favourite team plays well	.736	.319	.257	.197	.153
13. I feel like I have won when my favourite team wins	.776	.259	.268	.240	.185
14. I feel a personal sense of achievement when my favourite team plays well	.767	.324	.199	.216	.200
15. I share in the victory when my favourite soccer team wins	.763	.296	.203	.200	.163
16. I care a great deal about my favourite soccer team	.720	.304	.211	.238	.214

17. I like to socialise with others	.324	.013	.774	.113	.031
18 I like having the opportunity to interact with other people	.322	.059	.819	.091	.020
19. I enjoy talking to other people	.207	.154	.793	.009	.208
20. I enjoy women's soccer games because they provide an opportunity to be with my friends	-.020	.158	.703	.353	.285
21. Watching my women's team play is based on having other people share the experience	.044	.240	.640	.342	.285
24. The fees for this soccer match are fair	.163	.064	.164	.066	.736
25. Women's soccer experience is good value for money	.146	.121	.163	.193	.844
26. Women's soccer match experience is worth the money	.205	.101	.126	.150	.797
Extraction method: Principal component with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalisation					

Factor 1 labelled **team identification** comprised five variables and accounted for 17.636 percent of the variance explained by the factor. Since its factor loading was greater than 0.5, it was considered worth including as a factor and in the interpretation of results (McNabb 2013:271). The results of the present study indicated that spectators who are influenced by this motive focus on evaluating a personal sense of achievement when they soccer teams play well, also share the victory and feel they have won when their favourite teams wins because they care a great deal about their favourite soccer team. This is consistent with the study undertaken in South Africa by Desai (2017:59) which reported that when the team is winning matches, trophies and generally doing well, spectators may want to associate with this success. Similarly, when the team is not winning much and just struggling to survive, other spectators may feel the need to separate themselves from any association with the team.

In practice, the soccer experience is multidimensional in which spectators make emotional investments in the teams they support and vicariously share in the achievements and losses of the teams (Jere & Mathidza 2014:568). Drawing from the study's results, it could be argued that the need for achievement may be met through team identification.

Factor 2 labelled **involvement** comprised four items and the variance explained by the factor was 17.581 percent of the variance. Since its factor loading was greater than 0.5, it was considered worth including as a factor and in the interpretation of results. The findings demonstrated that spectators who were motivated by involvement motives are more likely to consider themselves as loyal spectators of women's soccer teams, consider themselves as real spectators, and in most

cases, usually say ‘we’ rather than ‘they.’ In the same vein, spectators who are searching for the fulfilment of this motive are more likely to bask in reflected glory by saying “we won” when their favourite team wins (Wu *et al.* 2012:180; Woo 2020:64). Similarly, involved spectators would tend to have a more solidified, consistent image of and commitment to their favourite team (Yun, Rosenberger & Sweeney 2020:771). Furthermore, spectators who are motivated by this motive feel as though their favourite teams remind them of who they are; therefore, being a spectator of professional women’s soccer matches is very important to them. The results of George and Stavros’ (2013:10) study affirm that a spectator’s involvement with the team is important in the development of psychological commitment.

Factor 3 labelled **achievement** comprised five variables and accounted for 15.179 percent of the variance explained by the factor. Since its factor loading was greater than 0.5, it was considered worth including as a factor and in the interpretation of results. When spectators are motivated by the achievement motive to attend soccer matches, they tend to socialise and have an opportunity to interact with other people. Furthermore, spectators tend to enjoy women’s soccer games because they provide them with an opportunity to be with friends and watching their favourite women’s team play is based on having other people share their experiences.

Factor 4 labelled **social interaction** consisted of four items and the variance explained by factor was 11.848 per cent. Since its factor loading was greater than 0.5, it was considered worth including as a factor and in the interpretation of results. The findings of the current study indicated that spectators that were motivated by social interaction motives tend to discuss women’s soccer matches with friends, most of whom are in some way connected with soccer matches. On the other hand, these spectators feel that attending soccer matches is important and enjoyable because it provides them with an opportunity to interact with other people. This result is consistent with the study undertaken by Stander and De Beer (2016:492), whereby it was revealed that the motive for social interaction is one of the most prominent drivers of sport consumption among spectators, and the need to engage socially with others is a key influencer in the decision to participate in the various activities associated with the sport.

Social interaction offers a powerful generic platform where individuals from innumerable backgrounds can unite in their shared interest and exchange ideas (Stander & Van Zyl 2016:6). In support, Stavros, Meng, Westberg and Farrelly (2014:464); Karakaya, Yannopoulos and Kefalaki (2016:328) found that a major part of the sport spectator experience revolves around the social interaction opportunity that match attendance brings with it. Spectators often see this opportunity

as meaningful, which leads to experiences of harmony with others, creates shared community and fosters a communal identity.

Factor 5 labelled branded **perceived value**, accounted for 11.024 per cent of the variance explained with three variables. Since its factor loading was greater than 0.5, it was considered worth including as a factor and in the interpretation of results. Spectators who are motivated by this factor tend to see ticket pricing for soccer matches as being fair and the soccer match experience worth the money and value for money. As cited by Kunkel *et al.* (2016:4), this conceptualisation centres on the useful aspects of perceived value, assuming soccer consumers are rational and make consumption decisions merely based on the price of the product or service they are consuming. Stander and Van Zyl (2016:1) found out that spectators who often perceive their investment in the sport as deeply rewarding and meaningful, partake more often in purchasing products or services connected with the sport.

In summary, these five factors accounted for of 73.268 % of the total variance explained; they appear as important determinants in establishing the motives for sport attendance.

4.3.2 Correlation analysis

According to the study objectives established in Chapter 1, it was critical to investigate the correlations between various motivational variables (achievement, team identification, social interaction, involvement, and perceived value) of satisfaction towards willingness to attend professional women's soccer matches. Hence, the use of correlation analysis among the constructs was deemed a requirement in order to assess the strength and direction of the underlying associations. The Pearson correlation coefficient (r) was used to measure the degree of linear association between the variables, as proposed by Saunders *et al.* (2016:545). The correlation analysis matrix is presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Correlations: selected motivation variables (achievement, team identification, social interaction, involvement and perceived value), satisfaction and willingness to attend women's soccer matches

Construct	Achievement	Team identification	Social interaction	Involvement	Perceived value	Team satisfaction	Willingness to attend
Achievement	1						
Team identification	.653**	1					
Social interaction	.556**	.390**	1				
Involvement	.640**	.573**	.504**	1			
Perceived value	.471**	.328**	.444**	.452**	1		
Team satisfaction	.708**	.526**	.647**	.606**	.591**	1	
Willingness to attend	.642**	.495**	.653**	.613**	.557**	.811**	1
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).							

Positive and moderate relationships were found between achievement and team identification ($r=+0.653$; $p<0.01$), social interaction ($r=+0.556$; $p<0.01$), involvement ($r=+0.640$; $p<0.01$) perceived value ($r=+0.471$; $p<0.01$), satisfaction ($r=+0.708$; $p<0.01$) as well as willingness to attend soccer matches ($r=+0.642$; $p<0.01$). This result implies that when spectators are motivated by the achievement motive, team identification, social interaction, involvement and perceived value, team satisfaction as well as willingness to attend also increases. Likewise, positive and moderate correlation coefficients were reported between team identification and social interaction ($r=+0.390$; $p<0.01$), involvement ($r=+0.573$; $p<0.01$) perceived value ($r=+0.328$; $p<0.01$), satisfaction ($r=+0.526$; $p<0.01$) as well as willingness to attend soccer matches ($r=+0.495$; $p<0.01$). These results find support in research conducted by Silveira *et al.* (2019:50), which revealed that the greater the identification of the sports spectators with their team, the greater the influence on their satisfaction, which tends to increase their commitment to the team and their intentions to attend soccer matches.

Furthermore, positive, and moderate relationships were recorded between social interaction and involvement ($r=+0.504$; $p<0.01$), perceived value ($r=+0.444$; $p<0.01$), satisfaction ($r=+0.647$; $p<0.01$) as well as willingness to attend soccer matches ($r=+0.653$; $p<0.01$). On the other hand,

involvement yielded positive and moderate correlation with perceived value ($r=+0.452$; $p<0.01$), satisfaction ($r=+0.606$; $p<0.01$) as well as willingness to attend soccer matches ($r=+0.613$; $p<0.01$). The current results affirm Chiu *et al.*'s (2019:1415) findings that when spectators enjoy the social interaction associated with the sport, they tend to develop a strong sense of involvement with a specific team; they see value in the sport event, gain satisfaction and are more likely to attend sport events.

Moderate yet statistically significant relationships were also reported between perceived value and satisfaction ($r=+0.591$; $p<0.01$) as well as willingness to attend soccer matches ($r=+0.557$; $p<0.01$). These results support the notion that spectators' perceived value is positively associated with spectator satisfaction, and satisfaction in turn positively affects spectators' willingness to attend soccer matches. A study by Phonthanakitithaworn and Sellitto (2018:217) found that a positive perception of soccer matches will favour spectator behavioural intentions via satisfaction.

A positive linear relationship between team satisfaction and willingness to attend soccer matches were also found ($r=0.811$; $p<0.01$). These results show that positive team satisfaction of professional women's soccer matches eventually affect spectators' willingness to attend professional women's soccer matches. The results are in line with other studies (Toosi *et al.* 2014:1069; Duan *et al.* 2020:418), which revealed that satisfied spectators are more likely to attend games in the future. Although correlations show relationships or associations, it does not reflect predictive/causal relationships. The regression analysis in the foregoing section provides the results of the predictive relationships.

4.3.3 Regression analysis

Regression analysis is a statistical method that is utilised to apprehend which independent variable is associated to the dependent variable, and to study these relationships (Gallo 2015:2). Table 4.9 reports on the regression analysis between selected motivational variables such as team identification, achievement, involvement, social interaction, perceived value, and team satisfaction. The predictor that was held constant was satisfaction (independent variable), and the dependent variable that was entered into the prediction model was the identified variables mentioned above (team identification, achievement, involvement, social interaction, perceived value).

4.3.3.1 Model 1: Team identification, achievement, involvement, social interaction, and perceived value variable as predictors of satisfaction

Table 4.9 presents the regression model summary of satisfaction with selected motivational variables (team identification, achievement, involvement, social interaction, and perceived value).

Table 4.9: Regression model summary (Model 1)

Independent variables: Motivational variables	Dependent variables: Team satisfaction			Tol	VIF
	Beta β	<i>T</i>	Sig <i>P</i>		
Team identification	0.060	1.303	.194	0.532	1.879
Achievement	0.329	6.267	.000*	0.405	2.467
Involvement	0.113	2.400	.017*	0.504	1.985
Social interaction	0.276	6.539	.000*	0.626	1.599
Perceived value	0.244	6.136	.000*	0.707	1.414
R=0.809; R Square=0.655; Adjusted R Square=0.649; Sig. P<0.000; F=117.570; Tol=Tolerance; VIF=variance inflation factor					

Primarily, multi-collinearity tests were conducted by examining the tolerance value and variance inflation factor (VIF) associated with each independent variable. Tolerance values should be greater than 0.1 and VIF values should not exceed 10.0 (Dhurup, Mafini & Dumasi 2014:6; Yon-Chun & Hasan 2020:67). Both values were acceptable (highest tolerance value = 0.707 and the highest VIF = 1.985), indicating that a multi-collinearity did not constitute a problem in the study and the independent variables were not highly correlated ($r > 0.70$). The results of the regression analysis show an R^2 of 0.655, which suggests that 65% of the variation of spectators' satisfaction can be explained by the influence of identification, achievement, involvement, social interaction, and perceived value.

The beta coefficients in Table 4.9 show that four of the five independent variables, namely, achievement ($\beta=0.329$), involvement ($\beta=0.113$), social interaction ($\beta=0.276$), and perceived value ($\beta=0.244$) contribute positively to the prediction of satisfaction. The achievement variable explained most of the variance with a beta value of 0.329. In other words, the achievement variable has the largest influence on satisfaction compared to the identification, involvement, social interaction, and perceived value. This finding resonates with the outcomes of a study conducted by Stander and Van Zyl (2016:12) that the inherent psychological benefit spectators receive as a

result of their desires to participate in football should lead to increased and repeated consumption of the sport. This is because when a spectator's chosen product or service offering provides the sport consumer with emotionally fulfilling experiences, a deep emotional relationship is developed.

Vicarious achievement refers to individual's connection with a sports club to satisfy a variety of needs, such as feeling superior, increasing self-esteem, or gaining social status (Alonso & O'Shea 2014:7). The study found that achievement motive contributes positively to the prediction of satisfaction amongst professional women's soccer spectators. Thus, a spectator with the motive of vicarious achievement is likely to satisfy this motive by pursuing a successful team and as a result, will favourably respond to such team's achievement on a personal level (Sari *et al.* 2011:194).

Involvement plays a significant role in influencing individual's consumption behaviour; some researchers went further to assess the relationship between involvement and satisfaction. The study found that spectators' involvement has a positive relationship with satisfaction. The results are consistent with other studies undertaken by Gong *et al.* (2015:36) and Qian *et al.* (2017:36) which found positive relationship between spectator involvement and satisfaction. Further, Sarstedt *et al.* (2014:446) found that as spectators become more involved in a sport, they are more likely to show increased levels of satisfaction.

Drawing from the results of this study, social interaction contributes positively to the prediction of team satisfaction amongst professional women's soccer spectators. Such findings provide support for the perception that spectators who are more highly motivated to satisfy social interaction motive through sport consumption will more frequently attend sporting events because their needs and motives are stable over time (Kim, Magnusen, Kim & Lee 2019:127). As found by Prayag and Grivel (2018:434), social interaction motives of sport spectators have a positive relationship with overall sport event satisfaction. In addition, Foroughi *et al.* (2014:53) report that there is a positive and significant relationship between interaction and spectator satisfaction.

The study's results further indicate that perceived value has a significant relationship with satisfaction of professional women's soccer spectators. These are in line with the results of Moreno *et al.* (2016:225) and Gholipour and Moradi (2020:164), who found perceived value as a predictor of spectator satisfaction in sport events. Moreover, in the context of sport service, it has also been found that spectators' perceived value of the sporting event has a direct and positive association with their satisfaction (Yu, Zhang, Kim, Chen, Henderson, Min & Huang 2014:764; Allameh, Pool, Jaber, Salehzadeh & Asadi 2015:204; García-Fernández, Gálvez-Ruiz,

Fernández-Gavira, Vélez-Colón, Pitts & Bernal-García 2018:257; Abbasi, Kumaravelu, Goh & Singh 2021:16).

The result demonstrate that team identification does not predict satisfaction amongst spectators of professional women's soccer matches, suggesting that team identification with a sporting activity can only impact team satisfaction indirectly. As found by Theodorakis *et al.* (2012:25), sport spectators with a high level of team identification demonstrate a high level of attendance or watching games, which can be argued that for these consumers, satisfaction might not be the key driver for spectators' intention to attend matches because even if some are dissatisfied by some sport matches, mainly due to a negative issue, they may keep on attending or watching future games (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant 2011:8). As indicated by Rocha and Fleury (2017:399), spectators of the professional Japanese soccer league showed that team identification correlated higher with intentions of future attendance than with different facets of satisfaction (e. g. satisfaction with the team performance and satisfaction with the result). The results are in line with Lee and Kang (2015:231), who found that team identification does not predict satisfaction because it can change from match to match over the course of the season, and consequently cannot be considered as pure fixed variables. A plausible reason could be that some spectators presenting the same level of team identification will not present the same level of satisfaction, hence team identification may change over time for different reasons, which may account for low satisfaction levels. A further reason could be attributed to the fact that women's professional soccer is new and not yet fully developed and publicised, compared to the male-dominated soccer environment.

4.3.3.2 Model 2: Satisfaction variable as predictors of willingness to attend soccer matches

Table 4.10 presents the regression model summary of satisfaction with willingness to attend soccer matches. The independent variable and the predictor held constant was satisfaction, and the dependent variable was willingness to attend. On the examination of the relationship between these two constructs, the adjusted $R^2=0.657$, which suggests that 65% of the variation of spectators' willingness to attend can be explained by the influence of spectators satisfaction. The beta coefficient of satisfaction ($\beta=0.811$) proposes that there is a strong positive relationship between team satisfaction and willingness to attend soccer matches. The results indicate that satisfied soccer spectators are more willing to attend professional women's soccer matches in future. This result is consistent with the studies of Huang (2011:99), Foroughi *et al.* (2014:52), Brown, Essex, Assaker and Smith (2017:331), which found that satisfied spectators are more likely to attend live soccer matches. As found by Kim, Kim, Park, Yoo and Kwon (2014:58), Lee

and Kang (2015:231), Jensen, Limbu and Choi (2016:46), spectators who express a high level of satisfaction at sports events are more likely to display positive spectator behaviours such as willingness to attend soccer games. Prayag and Grivel (2014:157) found that satisfied spectators often have favourable sentiments of a sports event, further finding that satisfaction will significantly affect the future intention positively (Moreno *et al.* 2016:225; Wafi, Chiu & Kayat 2017:16; Silveira *et al.* 2019:58).

Table 4.10: Regression model summary (Model 2)

Independent variables: Satisfaction	Dependent variables: Willingness to attend			Tol	VIF
	Beta <i>B</i>	<i>T</i>	Sig <i>P</i>		
Satisfaction	0.811	24.583	0.000*	1.000	1.000
R=0.811; R Square=0.658; Adjusted R Square=0.657; Sig. P<0.000; F=604.330; Tol=Tolerance; VIF=variance inflation factor					

4.3.4 Reliability and validity

It is vital to assess the reliability and validity of the indicators used in research studies. Reliability is significant because it measures the quality of the research. The following sections explain how the questionnaire's reliability and validity were determined during this research.

4.3.4.1 Reliability

Cronbach's alpha as the most common measure of internal consistency (reliability) was utilised in this study, and the researcher needed to measure the reliability of the instrument (questionnaire). The items that had low or cross-loading correlations were deleted as showed on Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Internal reliability statistics

Sections	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Team Identification	5	0.940
Involvement	4	0.890
Achievement	5	0.875
Social interaction	4	0.812
Perceived value	3	0.802

Sections	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Spectator satisfaction (Section D)	5	0.918
Willingness to attend (Section E)	5	0.894

The reliabilities produced satisfactory reliability values ranging from 0.802 to 0.904 (section C) as reported in Table 4.11. The reliability for section D - satisfaction was 0.918, which consisted of five scale items. The reliability value for willingness to attend (section E) was 0.894 with five scale items. This is a satisfactory indication of the reliability of the instrument as values above the 0.7 benchmark (Malhotra *et al.* 2017:360).

4.3.4.2 Validity

The most crucial criterion for a test's quality is its validity (Thomas 2015:121). Construct validity was ascertained through factor analysis, whereby low factor loadings (<0.50) were deleted and cross-loadings were examined (refer to Table 4.7). Construct validity was also examined by the computation of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the scale and sub-dimensions of the scale, which were all satisfactory and served as indications of construct validity (refer to Table 4.11).

Convergent validity was evaluated through the computation of Spearman's correlation coefficients. Upon analysis of the correlation results by looking at the patterns of inter-correlations among measures (refer to Table 4.8), the coefficients of the theoretically similar measures were acceptable (ranging from 0.328 to 0.811) and established that the linear correlation between selected motivational variables and the two constructs (satisfaction and willingness to attend) were systematically valid and offered some evidence of convergence.

Predictive validity was measured through regression analysis. The outcomes of the regression analysis explained the relationships among the five independent variables of selected motivational variables, namely, team identification, involvement, achievement and perceived value variables and satisfaction as well as willingness to attend, as predicted. The results of the regression analysis demonstrated meaningful predictive relationships among the constructs (refer to Tables 4.9 and 4.10).

The next section examines the issue of how common method is biased (CMB) and how it was addressed in the study.

4.4 COMMON METHOD BIASES

The effect of method bias is a major potential validity and reliability threat to behavioural and applied research, including research in sport marketing (MacKenzie & Podsakoff 2012:546; Jakobsen & Jensen 2015:4; Fuller, Simmering & Atinc 2016:3192; Antonakis 2017:5). While the potential threat is widely acknowledged, it is rarely corrected for in research findings (Vieluf, Monseur, Baye & Lafontaine 2019:28). Common method bias is a common problem that might hinder research rigour. It basically happens in survey research when all data (independent variables, dependent variables, mediating and moderating variables) are gathered using the identical technique, possibly resulting in the artificial inflation of relationships (Jordan & Troth 2020:5).

Common method bias refers to variance that is attributed to the measurement method rather than to the construct of interest (Chiew, Mathies & Patterson 2019:109). The term method refers to “the form of measurement at different levels of abstraction, such as the content of specific items, scale type, response format, and general context” (Fiske 1982:81). Method bias is believed to occur for a variety of reasons, including social desirability tendencies, dispositional mood states, or respondent inclinations to submit or respond in a lenient, moderate, or extreme manner (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Podsakoff 2012:540). A principal cause is the reply tendencies that raters can apply regularly across measures. It is therefore critical to address CMB.

MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2012:544) suggest that failure to address CMB can lead to incorrect judgments about the adequacy of a scale’s reliability and convergent validity. It can also lead to underestimation of adjusted correlations in meta-analysis since technique variance might artificially inflate reliability estimates (Jordan & Troth 2020:9). Podsakoff, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2017:3) maintain that failing to address CMB can lead to a bias in parameter estimates of two separate constructs’ connections. This type of bias can exaggerate or devalue approximations of the two constructs’ relationship (Yetton, Sharma & Crawford 2011:2). To address CMB, researchers can use a combination of procedural and statistical methodologies (Spector, Rosen & Richardson 2019:855; Vieluf *et al.* 2019:28). The following procedural or statistical methods were used to control method biases in this study:

- **Questionnaire items were sources from different sources**

The measurement items for the predictor and criterion variables in this study came from a variety of sources. As advised by Jordan and Troth (2020:11) that researchers might safely deduce that when assessments of the predictor and criterion variables are gathered from distinct sources, this

acts as a procedural control as a source of CBM. The measures that had demonstrated adequate psychometric properties such as reliability and appropriate factor structure were selected and used in this study as a way to help control for CMB (Spector *et al.* 2019:855).

- **Research purpose and instructions given to respondents**

Creating a decent study information coversheet and set of instructions is one of the easiest strategies to maximise the likelihood of response correctness (Hair Jr, Wolfinbarger & Money 2015:36). For this study, respondents were well-versed that the data will be analysed as an aggregate as this encouraged potential respondents to participate and provide honest responses. Similarly, the survey was kept short and minimised redundant measures and overlap, which helped respondents to give more precise responses (Vieluf *et al.* 2019:29).

- **Application of Harman's single factor test**

This is the most common statistical approach used to test for CMB (Chang, Witteloostuijn & Eden 2010:181; Jakobsen & Jensen 2015:5; Fuller *et al.* 2016:3192). The test designates problematic CMB if an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) loads all items from each of the constructs onto a single factor, signifying the factor accounts for a large amount of share variance among the variables due to the technique (Podsakoff, Podsakoff & MacKenzie 2003:881). In this study, EFA was run by loading all the variables and examining the unrotated factor solution to determine the number of factors that account for the variance in the variables. All the factors loaded on their different dimensions showed that CMB was not problematic in this study. Harman's single factor test requires that all the variables (dependent and independent) being tested are placed in a factor analysis. Emergence of a single factor (or large amount of variance that can be explained by one factor) is taken as evidence that common source bias is present (Podsakoff *et al.* 2003:889). Therefore, if a substantial amount of common method variance is present either (a) a single factor will emerge from the factor analysis or b) one general factor will account for most of the covariance among the measures (Antonakis 2017:6). If neither is the case, it is taken as evidence that common method bias is not a major issue (Chang *et al.* 2010:181), which this study demonstrated.

- **Improve scale item clarity by avoiding double barrel questions**

Confusing scale items are tough to understand and interpret (Yetton *et al.* 2011:4). The usage of undefined terms such as "occasionally" and "somewhat," words with numerous meanings, and multiple ideas tied together in an item are all examples of ambiguity. According to Podsakoff *et al.* (2012:541), this causes respondents to feel unsure about how to respond, increasing the

possibility that they will be influenced by their natural response propensity (e. g., extreme, acquiescent, mid-point scorers). In addressing the issue of scale item clarity, this study kept questions brief and simple and avoided double-meaning items.

4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to examine the selected motivational variables, satisfaction, and willingness to attend of professional women's soccer matches in Gauteng, South Africa. There is a plenty of literature and research studies that deal with relationships among constructs such as motivational variables, satisfaction, and willingness to attend sport events. The findings of this study attempt to add to the body of knowledge on these relationships that exist in the sport consumption environment.

One of the essential purposes of this study was to examine the nature of the relationship between team identification, vicarious achievement, involvement, social interaction, perceived value, spectator satisfaction and willingness to attend. To this end, correlation and regression studies were undertaken to empirically validate the association that exists among these constructs. A positive linear association of these constructs was established and validated.

Reliability of the scales was computed and established using the Cronbach alpha values, for sections C, D and E. Satisfactory reliability values (above the benchmark value of 0.70) were obtained in relevant sections of the measuring instrument. Various validity measures were also undertaken.

The next chapter, Chapter 5, reports the accomplishment of the research objectives of the study. The main conclusions and recommendations are presented.

CHAPTER 5

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter reported on the analysis and discussion of empirical data obtained from the main survey completed for this study through descriptive statistics, correlations and regression analysis. The data gathering and analysis stages were identified and documented. Cross-tabulations, figures, correlations, and regression analysis were used to analyse and summarise the data.

The theoretical and empirical objectives are revisited in the next section to demonstrate the attainment of the objectives within the study's framework.

5.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The study is organised into five chapters. The **first chapter** provided the introduction and research background of the study, described the problem statement and stated the hypotheses. In addition, it presented a brief overview on the research design and methodology followed, as well as reliability and validity assessments of the research instrument. The **second chapter** focused on the literature review on women's football in South Africa, the theoretical perspective as well as the study's constructs under investigation.

In **Chapter 3**, the research design and methodology were described with particular reference to empirical design procedures. This included target population, sampling strategy, data collection process, data analysis and ethical guidelines to be observed in conducting the data collection process. In **Chapter 4**, the quantitative data analysis was completed, and the results interpreted and discussed. Lastly, **Chapter 5** provides a discussion on the research conclusions, realisation of the study's objectives, recommendations, limitations and identifying potential areas for future studies.

The following section provides the achievement of the research objectives which were formulated for the study.

5.3 ACHIEVEMENTS OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the selected motivational variables that influence spectators' willingness to attend professional women's soccer matches in Gauteng, South Africa. To accomplish this objective, the theoretical objectives and empirical objectives were formulated.

5.3.1 Theoretical objectives

Theoretical objectives as alluded to in Chapter 1 were reviewed in order to derive meaningful information based on previous research studies and theories. Table 5.1 highlights how the theoretical objectives were achieved.

Table 5.1: Achievement of the theoretical research objectives

Theoretical objective	Theoretical research objective being addressed	Section where the research objective was addressed
1	To provide an overview of the SIT and SDT as theories underlying this study	2.3, 2.3.1 and 2.3.2
2	To analyse the literature on team identification	2.4 and 2.4.1,
3	To conduct a literature review on vicarious achievement	2.4, 2.4.2, 2.4.2.1, 2.4.2.2 and 2.4.2.3.
4	To conduct a literature review on involvement	2.4, 2.4.3, 2.4.3.1 2.4.3.2 and 2.4.3.3
5	To conduct a literature review on social interaction	2.4 and 2.4.4
6	To conduct a literature review on perceived value	2.4, 2.4.5, 2.4.5.1, 2.4.5.2, 2.4.5.3, 2.4.5.4 and 2.4.5.5
7	To explore literature review on spectator satisfaction	2.5, 2.5.1, 2.5.2, 2.5.3, 2.5.4 and 2.5.5
8	To examine literature review on spectators' willingness to attend ladies matches	2.6

5.3.1.1 Theoretical objective 1: To review the literature on the underlying theories of the constructs under investigation

To better understand sport consumption motives, a thorough literature study was conducted. The objective was addressed in Chapter 2 from Sections 2.3, 2.3.1 and 2.3.2. They cover two theories relating to sports consumption behaviour, namely, intention and willingness to participate in football matches as a spectator. The SDT was used to explore relationships between spectators' attitudes, and their sport consumption behaviour as suggested, while SIT was used to determine the social behaviours in sport consumption.

5.3.1.2 Theoretical objective 2: To analyse the literature on team identification

This objective was achieved in different sections of Chapter 2 (Sections 2.4 and 2.4.1). They cover definitions of team identification, the levels of development of team identification, factors that influence team identification and discussion on team identification for a sports team and sports spectator.

5.3.1.3 Theoretical objective 3: To conduct a literature review on vicarious achievement

This objective was achieved in Chapter 2 under Sections 2.4, 2.4.2, 2.4.2.1, 2.4.2.2 and 2.4.2.3. These sections described the concept of vicarious achievement and provided its definitions and conceptualisation.

5.3.1.4 Theoretical objective 4: To conduct a literature review on involvement

This theoretical objective was achieved in Sections 2.4, 2.4.3, 2.4.3.1 2.4.3.2 and 2.4.3.3 of Chapter 2. They provided the definition, explanation, and the argument of spectator involvement.

5.3.1.5 Theoretical objective 5: To conduct a literature review on social interaction

The objective was covered in Chapter 2 in Sections 2.4 and 2.4.4 where a discussion on the definition and determinants of social interaction was pursued.

5.3.1.6 Theoretical objective 6: To conduct a literature review on perceived value

This objective was realised in Chapter 2 in Sections 2.4, 2.4.5, 2.4.5.1, 2.4.5.2, 2.4.5.3, 2.4.5.4 and 2.4.5.5 where the definitions, conceptualisation and dimensions of perceived value were discussed.

5.3.1.7 Theoretical objective 7: To explore literature review on spectator satisfaction

This objective is achieved in various sections of Chapter 2 (Sections 2.5, 2.5.1, 2.5.2, 2.5.3, 2.5.4 and 2.5.5). The chapter covers definitions of satisfaction and spectator satisfaction, classification of spectator satisfaction and the significance of spectator's satisfaction.

5.3.1.8 Theoretical objective 8: To examine literature review on spectators' willingness to attend professional women's matches

The objective was achieved through a detailed literature review, as presented in Chapter 2 in Section 2.6 where the definitions and determinants of willingness to attend were discussed.

5.3.2 Empirical objectives

The empirical objectives are revisited in the next section. The following is a summary of the current study's findings in respect to each objective as set out in Chapter 1.

The first empirical research objective was intended to assess the level of professional women's soccer attendance in Gauteng. This objective is achieved under Section 4.2.2 spectator attendance, Section 4.2.2.1 previous attendance of women's soccer matches within the past year, and Section 4.2.2.2 frequency of attendance (refer to Figure 4.3 and Figure 4.4).

The second empirical objective was intended to determine the relationship between team identification and team satisfaction in professional women's soccer. The association between team identification and team satisfaction is delineated in Section 4.3.2 of Chapter 4 (correlation analysis) and Section 4.3.3. of Chapter 4 (regression analysis). Correlation analysis (Pearson correlation coefficient) was utilised to assess the strength and direction of the relationship between team identification and team satisfaction. The correlation analysis outcomes reported on Section 4.3.2 (refer to Table 4.8) indicate that team identification has a positive and significant correlation with satisfaction ($r=0.526$; $p<0.001$). In addition, regression analysis was used to assess the extent to which team identification predicts team satisfaction.

The third objective was intended to determine the relationship between vicarious achievement and team satisfaction in professional women's soccer matches. The association between these two constructs was achieved and outlined in Section 4.3.2 of Chapter 4 (correlation analysis) in Table 4.8 and Section 4.3.3 of Chapter 4 (regression analysis) in Table 4.9. Correlation analysis (Pearson correlation coefficient) was employed to assess the strength and direction of the

relationship between vicarious achievement and team satisfaction. In addition, regression analysis was used to assess the extent to which vicarious achievement predicts team satisfaction.

The fourth objective was intended to determine the relationship between involvement and team satisfaction in professional women's soccer matches. This objective was achieved, as shown in Section 4.3.2 of Chapter 4. The relationship between involvement and team satisfaction is presented in Section 4.3.3 (regression analysis) in Table 4.9. The table shows the statistical indicators for the dataset for this study. The relationship was also achieved by correlation analysis (refer to Table 4.8). The correlation analysis Section 4.3.2 (refer to Table 4.8) in this research reinforces the evidence that as spectators become more involved in a sport, they are likely to show increasing levels of satisfaction.

The fifth objective was intended to determine the relationship between social interaction and team satisfaction. The relationship was confirmed, using correlation (refer to Section 4.3.2 in Table 4.8). The relationship between social interaction and team satisfaction is also presented in Section 4.3.3 (regression analysis) in Table 4.9.

The sixth objective was intended to determine the relationship between perceived value and team satisfaction in professional women's soccer matches. Correlation analysis was conducted to examine possible relationships (associations). These results are reported in Section 4.3.2 Table 4.8. Regression analysis was undertaken to address this empirical objective. As evidenced from Table 4.9, attendance perceived value has a significant positive influence on team satisfaction in professional women's soccer matches in Gauteng. Results from Table 4.9 suggest that perceived value is the strongest predictor of team satisfaction among professional women's soccer matches in Gauteng (Section 4.3.3).

The seventh objective was intended to determine the relationship between spectator satisfaction and willingness to attend professional women's soccer matches. This objective was also achieved in Section 4.3.2 and Section 4.3.3 (refer to Table 4.8 and 4.9) where team satisfaction was correlated with willingness to attend. Satisfaction has a significant correlation with willingness to attend. Regression analysis also showed that team satisfaction is a significant predictor of willingness to attend; and there is a strong positive relationship between spectator satisfaction and willingness to attend with beta coefficient ($\beta = 0.811$).

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

This study makes various recommendations for marketers, organisations, and academics, based on a review of the literature and the findings of empirical research.

5.4.1 Recommendations regarding the relationship/association and influence of motivational variables towards team satisfaction

The significance of selected motivational variables and spectator's satisfaction has been broadly recognised in soccer spectatorship and sport literature as drivers of willingness to attend sporting events in the future. As suggested in the sport consumption literature, it is vital to understand what motivates individuals from a specific community to attend sports events (Namethe, Naidoo & Van Heerden 2021:625). It would be interesting to determine if motivational variables and soccer spectators' satisfaction by itself have any influence on the intention to engender future attendance. The understanding of the reasons and variables that motivate individuals to attend a sports event would help to determine what actually keeps the spectators motivated to employ the best means to keep spectators attracted to participate in the sports events in the future and remain committed to the professional sports team (Shobian 2016:8). Therefore, it is recommended that sport marketers develop specific strategies (for example, having discount on tickets, improving spectators experience during match day, and encourage players to interact with spectators) in their marketing campaigns to attract spectators to these events.

Team identification showed weak or no predictive relationship with satisfaction. Strategies could be developed around team identification by providing incentives such as free memorabilia, reduced ticket pricing, season tickets, family and friends reduced group tickets in order to lure spectators to engender team identification. Again, sport marketers need to focus primarily on creating, increasing and maintaining team identification. For example, increasing player appearances in the community, implementing fundraising events in the community, establishing spectators' clubs, and creating a newsletter are some of the strategies of increasing team identification. It would be more meaningful to target those efforts to foster identification amongst younger individuals. Once younger individuals begin to identify with a team, they are likely to be lifetime spectators of the team. Yet again, sport organisations are suggested to allocate their major resources on activities that enhance team identification among women's soccer spectators because such effects best trigger attendance intention. Only R36 million, or slightly more than 8% of the entire budget was set up for women's football in the 2012 budget of between R297 and R320 million (Ndimande-Hlongwa 2016:80). This demonstrates the significant imbalance between men's and women's football as well as how much effort remains to be done to achieve equality.

Bafana Bafana players receive return tickets to games, whilst Banyana Banyana players must pay for their own transportation. Again, Bafana Bafana players are remunerated between R60 000 for a win and R30 000 for a draw, while players for Banyana Banyana earn between R2 000 and R5 000 per game (Drum Digital 2014:3). The men also get to retain their kit, whilst the ladies have to return it. Many Banyana Banyana players are unemployed, unlike male players in the professional league, who can play both in South Africa and overseas. The national team's financial backing and wage disparities continue to be a source of concern. As a result, this research suggests that SAFA provides women's soccer with financial resources because it is critical in promoting women's football and addressing concerns of equality. Increased funding for women's football would improve participation, expose players to opportunities outside South Africa, and many spectators would be able to identify with the teams, which would lead potentially higher attendance. As recommended by Ndimande-Hlongwa (2016:80), in order to support professional women's football, SAFA should consider acquiring funding from FIFA, because FIFA has a Financial Assistance Programme (FAP) that assists 208 member associations financially (FIFA 2016:23).

Numerous scholars have found that involvement has a significant impact on individuals' consumption behaviour (Kozak & Kozak 2013:66; Kartika & Mohyi 2019:33). When spectators develop the stronger sense of involvement with a specific sport, they are, in turn, more likely to be attracted to the reputed events for the sport, which ultimately leads to willingness to attend the events (Chiu *et al.* 2019:1415). Hence, this study recommends that sport managers and markets must strive to provide soccer events that give spectators an opportunity to involve themselves with soccer clubs and team players. This could be as simple as a meet and greet event with spectators after a soccer match.

The need to associate with others and those who share similar interests as oneself is referred to as the social interaction motive. Sport consumption has long been important in meeting/satisfying people's demand for social interaction. It gives a powerful, broad platform for people from all walks of life to come together and exchange ideas (Stander & Van Zyl 2016:6). This study recommends that team managers should provide socialising opportunities to spectators and try to motivate them to take part in the co-creation process of the soccer games. Again, teams should facilitate social interaction by considering pre- or post-game functions for all attendees.

The perceived value is an important variable for the assessment of sport consumer behaviour to increase its satisfaction and future intentions to attend soccer matches (Meng, Liang & Yang (2011:19). Further, sport managers and sport marketers should make every effort to increase the perceived value of services such as fees which are fair, albeit under the global negative economic

climate, in order to satisfy the needs of spectators and at the same time reap rewards from the presence of spectators in stadiums and ensure that this presence continues.

5.4.2 Recommendations regarding the relationship/association and influence of team satisfaction on willingness to attend women football matches

Interestingly, the study found a significant association between team satisfaction and willingness to attend professional women's soccer matches in Gauteng, South Africa. This demonstrates that satisfied spectators are more willing to attend future games, refer them to others, and buy soccer club merchandise and services, which is consistent with numerous prior studies in the sport environment (Silveira *et al.* 2019:50). Based on this result, it is recommended that spectator satisfaction surveys be carried out (season ticket holders and single ticket purchases) to learn about their prior events and future expectations and provide helpful feedback to sport organisations in order to improve their fan base. This information can be used by sport organisations to tailor their marketing messages in order to better target spectators and using personalised marketing strategies.

5.5 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The findings of this study are important for a variety of reasons. Some of the findings are limited to South African professional women's football spectators, which can be compared to results from other countries. Also, this research provides valuable information of interest in women's clubs, focusing on South African professional women's soccer consumers as part of their customer base.

The study's results could add to the existing body of academic literature regarding the study constructs and may contribute to the sports marketing literature, more so on the influence of team identification, vicarious achievement, involvement, social interaction, perceived value and spectator satisfaction on willingness to attend women's football matches.

This study contributes to the continuously evolving and popular subject of sport marketing in the field of sport consumption management. Of importance is that the research study contributes to the researchers' efforts in trying to gain understanding on the relationships amongst the different constructs of mainly team identification, vicarious achievement, involvement, social interaction, perceived value, spectator satisfaction and willingness to attend. Furthermore, the study thus contributes to scholarly and managerial knowledge about the selected variables influencing consumers' willingness to attend a sports event in an increasingly competitive sports spectator market. Sport marketers could therefore make meaningful decisions and create campaigns that

resonate with spectators so that an enduring partnership could be developed between women's sport organisation and spectators.

5.6 LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This current study is by no means without its limitations. The sample size of $n=316$ respondents involved in the research need to be taken in cognisance regarding the ultimate generalisation of research results, as this is not a South African representation of all women soccer spectators. It proposes that larger samples be used in future studies to improve response rates and reduce the margin of error. This may increase generality of results and allow for further conclusions to be drawn.

As a result of limited access to resources and scope of the study, the study's target population was restricted to women soccer spectators within one province (Gauteng) and therefore the study's findings should be regarded with caution because they may not be generalisable to a wider population than the sampled one. Future research may concentrate on increasing the study's scope by including spectators from other geographical areas (other provinces). In addition, the sports spectators of the other team sport codes (e.g., basketball, volleyball, rugby) could be studied to compare whether the motivational variables vary across the different types of sport. The study followed a quantitative research approach. A mixed method research approach might be useful for future studies as it could probe for answers that needed further clarity (detailed response) and through the triangulate the data.

The study's overall findings have broadened an understanding regarding selected motivational variables of the soccer spectators which have an influence on satisfaction and their attendance decision. Even though the present investigation ascertained the factors on sports consumption behaviours of the sports spectators, it seems that there might be other underlying factors to attend soccer games. Therefore, more research with different variables and motives should be conducted to extend the knowledge in related literature.

5.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This research study reinforces previous areas of research, which demonstrate the value of motivational variables, team satisfaction and willingness to attend in soccer events. It supports prior studies' results on sport consumption with special importance to the South African background, and provides results of the interrelations between motivational variables, satisfaction, and willingness to attend women's soccer matches. Satisfaction of sport consumers brings many

benefits for clubs and teams in the realm of sports that enjoy a great number of spectators whose presence in stadiums brings in the main source of income for sport clubs.

The income generated through stadium attendance is one of the most important revenue streams for professional soccer clubs. In this sense, it is critical that soccer teams' stadium attendance remains high. If we regard stadiums as a market, researchers should consider sport spectators as sport customers and integrate the two notions. Although attendance at sport events like women's soccer may have dissipated during the Covid-19 lockdown restrictions, which had an impact on revenues with increased attendance and revenues, more high-quality players and technical personnel might become available or employed, allowing for greater technical support and competitiveness. Overall, this study has helped to build an understanding of women's spectators and their spectator motives, which may assist sport organisations to better understand their fan base.

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ANNEXURE A: COVER LETTER FOR MAIN SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE



SELECTED MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES THAT INFLUENCE SPECTATOR ATTENDANCE IN PROFESSIONAL WOMEN'S SOCCER MATCHES IN GAUTENG, SOUTH AFRICA

Dear Participant

I, Mabasa PN am a student at Vaal University of Technology) currently conducting a research project based on “*Selected motivational variables that influence spectator attendance in professional women’s soccer matches in Gauteng, South Africa*” in order to complete my Masters degree of Management in Business Administration. Your view will be very helpful to the research outcomes. If you have spectator attendance| experience in women’s professional soccer events, please read the following questions carefully and tick the options that you consider appropriate.

I therefore request you to complete the enclosed questionnaire yourself and confidentially. The survey data will only be only for academic research purposes. This interview will take roughly 5-10 minutes to complete.

Thank you for your time and effort in completing the questionnaire enclosed.

PN MABASA

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Email: mtendapn@gmail.com

Supervisor: Dr X.D. Chauke

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ANNEXURE B: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

SELECTED MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES THAT INFLUENCE SPECTATOR ATTENDANCE OF PROFESSIONAL WOMEN'S SOCCER MATCHES IN GAUTENG, SOUTH AFRICA

The aim of this questionnaire is to test the influence of the selected motivational variables on spectator satisfaction and willingness to attend women professional soccer matches. All information will be strictly used for the research purposes only.

The questionnaire is divided into five parts. Please complete all sections of the questionnaire.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Please answer the following questions by selecting the appropriate box. Mark with 'X' to show your selection.

A1	Gender	Male	Female
----	---------------	------	--------

A2	Age at next birthday	18 to 29 years	30 to 39 years	40 to 49 years	50 to 59 years	Over 60 years
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A3	Race	Black-African	Coloured	Asian	White
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A4	Highest qualification				
	Grade 11 or less	Matric	Diploma	Degree	Masters/PhD Degree
	Other (specify):				

SECTION B: SPECTATOR ATTENDANCE

B1	Have you attended women's soccer match within the past 1 year? (between January 2019 and February 2020)	Yes	No
----	--	-----	----

B2	How often do you attend matches?					
	Every week	Monthly	Quarterly	Other		

B3	What motivate you to attend?	Love for soccer	Loyalty towards my team	Fun/ excitement	Social interaction	Other
B4	Who accompanied you for the game?	Family	Friend	Alone	Boy/ girlfriend	Someone else

SECTION C: MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES

The following statements pertain to the motivational variables related to spectator attendance (team identification, involvement, achievement, social interaction, and perceived value). Please indicate in your opinion, the extent to which you relate with each construct. The scale is anchored along 1(Strongly disagree), 2 (Disagree), 3 (Slightly disagree), 4 (Slightly Agree) 5 (Agree) to 6 (Strongly agree). Mark only one number with a 'X' for each statement.

Team identification

C1	Being a fan of the football team is very important to me	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C2	I am a committed fan of the ladies football teams	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C3	I consider myself to be a 'real' fan of the ladies football teams	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C4	This team reminds me of who I am	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C5	When I talk about this soccer team, I usually say "we" rather than "they"	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree

Involvement

C7	I enjoy discussing this women soccer matches with my friends.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C8	Attending this soccer match is one of the most enjoyable things I do	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C9	Most of my friends are in some way connected with this soccer match	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C10	Attending this soccer match is important to me	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree

Achievement									
C11	I feel proud when my favourite team plays well	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C12	I feel like I have won when my favourite team wins	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C13	I feel a personal sense of achievement when my favourite team plays well	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C14	I share in the victory when my favourite soccer team wins	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C15	I care a great deal about my favourite soccer team	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
Social interaction									
C16	I like to socialise with others	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C17	I like having the opportunity to interact with other people	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C18	I enjoy talking to other people	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C19	I enjoy women's soccer games because they provide an opportunity to be with my friends	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C20	Watching my women's team play is based on having other people share the experience	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
Perceived value									
C21	The fees for this soccer match are fair	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C22	Women's soccer experience is good value for money	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
C23	Women's soccer match experience is worth the money	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree

SECTION D: TEAM SATISFACTION

This section measures your overall level of satisfaction when it comes to women soccer matches. Please indicate in your opinion, the extent to which you relate with each personality trait. The scale is anchored along 1 (Strongly disagree), 2 (Disagree), 3 (Slightly disagree), 4 (Slightly Agree) 5 (Agree) to 6 (Strongly agree). Mark only one number with a 'X' for each statement.									
Satisfaction									
D1	I am satisfied with my decision to attend this game	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
D2	I think I did the right thing by deciding to attend this game	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
D3	I am happy that I attended this game	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
D4	I really enjoyed watching the soccer match	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
D5	I think the soccer match is worth watching	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree

SECTION E: WILLINGNESS TO ATTEND

The following statement pertains willingness to attend women's soccer matches. Please indicate in your opinion, the extent to which you relate with each personality trait. The scale is anchored along 1(Strongly disagree), 2 (Disagree), 3 (Slightly disagree), 4 (Slightly Agree) 5 (Agree) to 6 (Strongly agree). Mark only one number with a 'X' for each statement.									
Willingness to attend									
E1	The event made me more likely to consider attending.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
E2	The event made me more likely to buying related products.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
E3	I am planning to attend the event next time.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
E4	I would recommend this soccer match to my friends or others	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree
E5	I want to tell other people positive things about this soccer match	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!!!

ANNEXURE C: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



Vaal University of Technology

Your world to a better future

Faculty of Management Sciences
Research Ethics Committee
E-mail: richardm@vut.ac.za

12 April 2021

RESEARCHER: PN Mabasa

PROJECT TITLE: *SELECTED MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLES THAT INFLUENCE SPECTATOR ATTENDANCE IN PROFESSIONAL WOMEN'S SOCCER MATCHES.*

Decision: approved

Ethics Reference Number:
FRECMS-10032021-059

Staff number: 215040279

Dear PN Mabasa

Thank you for submitting the above-mentioned Masters project for ethical consideration. The above committee was delegated by the Central Research Ethics Committee of the Vaal University of Technology to consider your application. The application was detailed and provided useful information. You may commence with your data collection. This clearance is valid for three years from the date of this letter. Please also note the following:

The Ethics Reference number, as stated above, should be used in all correspondence regarding this research project.

As the primary researcher you undertake to:

- Only follow the procedures for which approval has been given.
- Inform the Faculty Research Ethics Committee (FREC) of any significant deviations that may occur in the research project which directly influences what has been approved.
- Report any adverse events that might occur, within 14 days of the event, to the FREC. (Refer to the Ethical Guidelines as to what procedure you will need to follow in such an event).

Inform the FREC once the research project has reached completion and the findings have entered the public domain.

The FREC would like to take this opportunity to wish you well with your research project.

Kind Regards

Dr FE Mahomed
Faculty Research Ethics Committee Chair
Faculty of Management Sciences

ANNEXURE D: LETTER FROM THE LANGUAGE EDITOR

8 Belle Ombre Road

Tamboerskloof

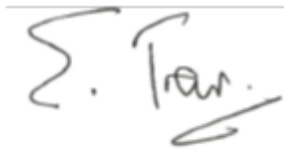
Cape Town

8001.

7 June 2022

LANGUAGE EDITING

This is to certify that I language-edited the dissertation, "Selected motivational variables that influence spectator attendance in professional women's soccer matches," by Peace Mabasa. for the Master's of Management degree in Business Administration, Faculty of Management Sciences at Vaal University of Technology.



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