

CO-BRANDING THROUGH SOCCER IN KWAZULU-NATAL, SOUTH AFRICA

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ABSTRACT

The issues of branding, co-branding and sponsorship are critical aspects of marketing management studies. The fundamental problem surrounding co-branding and sponsorship in soccer is that professional soccer clubs hold a short-term view to relations with sponsors, whereas sponsors themselves hold a long term view to co-branding. The study explores the applications of co-branding through soccer in KwaZulu-Natal, more specifically, whether parties to sponsorship agreements appreciate the magnitude of investment in marketing where co-branding is pursued with an intention of enhancing the image of both the sponsor and the club.

A qualitative research approach was used in the study as it is often conventional for studies of this nature. Soccer fans were interviewed through focus group sessions whilst club officials, sponsorship officials, and professional soccer players were personally interviewed. Similarly, NVivo as a qualitative data analysis tool was used.

It emerged that players did not appreciate the link between their performance and the image of the sponsor. Again, soccer clubs as well sponsors did not rigorously evaluate the impact of sponsorship and that soccer clubs and sponsors did not internalize the objectives of co-branding in terms of its mutual benefit. This is an important highlight on the findings for professional management of soccer clubs to enhance co-branding related issues. As a critical contribution to understanding negotiating and concluding sponsorship agreements, a framework has been proposed that will guide executive managers of both soccer clubs and sponsorship organizations in managing sponsorship programmes.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter maps out what the study entails. It is arranged into five sections viz. the context of the study, the research problem and the aim of the study, literature review, research methodology, and conclusion.

The main theme of the study which is co-branding (Helmig, Huber & Leeftang, 2008: 360) applied in soccer sponsorship is followed by a section on the research problem and aims of the study. The sections on the research problem and the aims of the study throw light onto the co-branding problem (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2004) as perceived by the researcher with regard to South African soccer at national level and professional soccer at club level. This section ends with listing the research objectives. Subsequent to this section is the section on the literature review which covers co-branding in sports, co-branding issues in sporting agreements, and critical success factors in sports sponsorships. The section that follows is on research methodology which covers the population of interest, sampling, data collection, credibility and trustworthiness, and qualitative data analysis.

1.1 THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

The study seeks to establish the application of co-branding in soccer by the Premier Soccer League (PSL) clubs in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. Co-branding leverages two or more brand equities to the benefit of one product. According to Grewal & Levy (2008:287) co-branding enables consumers to perceive product quality. This ability makes it possible for consumers to signal unobservable quality in a product when consumers accept and buy a firm's brand that has been combined with a well-known quality brand. Etzel, Walker, & Stanton (2007:269) define co-branding as a situation whereby two separate organizations come to an agreement to place both of their respective brands on a single product. They also refer to co-branding as dual branding and further indicate that co-branding has a spin-off of additional revenues that accrue to both brands. According to Schiffman, Kanuk & Wisenblit (2010:236), the rationale behind co-branding or double branding in which two brand names appear on a single product is to use another product's brand equity to enhance the primary brand's equity. The application of this concept is questionable in South African soccer.

The practice of co-branding has extended to sporting activities in the form of sponsorship of clubs and competitions. Co-branding, double branding, and dual branding are terms used interchangeably. It is now common to notice that soccer clubs have their emblems and those of the sponsors on the same soccer jersey e.g. Manchester United and Chevrolet. Arsenal and Emirates Airways, etc.

1.2 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM AND THE AIM OF THE STUDY

Some professional sports clubs change sponsors within a short space of time whilst sponsors envisage a long term relationship aimed at realising expected specific benefits and outcomes (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2005:328-338). However, the rapid change of sponsors is likely to confuse club supporters as they are stakeholders as well. In addition to the rapid change in sponsorships, through observation of local professional league games by Soccer Africa on DSTv, there is evidence of poor performance amongst most athletes (players) in soccer which is an indication of either lack of professionalism or lack of understanding of what is at stake with regard to sponsorships and their direct performance. Before the study, it can be assumed that soccer players are not aware that performance is the core value in the sponsorship agreement between their clubs and sponsors as it is the case with Adidas and All Blacks in rugby. Such value is confirmed by the New Zealand Rugby Union's (NZRU) marketing manager, Ralston, who stated that All Blacks earned respect because of their long history and consistency of impressive win rate which brought about the right to own the brand value of "respect" (Motion, Leitch & Brodie, 2003:1087).

Another dimension to the problem which is linked to the core value of sponsorship is whether all officials and players fully understand the co-branding implications in sponsorship agreements in South Africa. This is a question because sponsors' senior managers world-wide negotiate contracts with teams and thereafter delegate the management of such sponsorships to junior managers who did not form part of the negotiations (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2004:49-51). Further than that, South African fans tend to interfere with club management on the field of play by gestures, on many occasions putting pressure on the coach and his technical staff to substitute certain players during the game (Alzheimer, 2014:52). This indicates some degree of soccer fan ignorance of the implications of such behaviour on sponsorship agreements, since this is not the case with rugby fans.

Such ignorance in the understanding and application of co-branding in South African soccer manifests itself further when fans even threaten the life of a coach whose club is not performing according to their satisfaction thereby leading to the situation where the police have to intervene to protect the coach from

assault. This has been happening to some of the popular PSL teams in Gauteng (Alzheimer, 2014:52). Other fans even throw missiles onto the soccer field (Ramashidja, 2017:1). The same incident is confirmed by Ngidi (2017:1). Because of such behaviour, some clubs end up paying hefty fines to the governing body. When that happens, the image of the team is tarnished which indirectly impacts upon the image of the sponsor (May, 2016:1). This kind of behaviour is not a characteristic of rugby and cricket matches in South Africa. That is why one of the core values underpinning the agreement between Adidas and NZRU is behaviour of both players and fans (Motion *et al.*, 2003:1087).

The prevalence of ignorance as stated above, casts a doubt as to whether players and soccer managers/administrators understand the objectives and the rationale behind a brand owner's effort when investing funds in sponsoring a soccer club because of the widely spoken and written about poor performance in sports media e.g. Soccer Africa of Supersport. PSL football clubs like Orlando Pirates and Kaizer Chiefs are both sponsored by Vodacom whilst AmaZulu are sponsored by Spar. . Owing to these aspects of the problem undermining South African soccer, it became necessary to conduct a study to explore all possible causes to ignorance and to suggest solutions thereof. In essence, the primary aim of the study is to establish the level at which soccer players, club officials, and soccer fans understand, appreciate and internalize the business objectives that motivate marketers into signing co-branding (sponsorship) agreements.

After many years of sponsored professional football dating back to the 1970s in South Africa, it is noted from what is observed at sports stadia (player and fan behaviour) and the phenomenon of sponsorship agreements not sustained over a long period of time that the soccer fraternity has not developed to the level observed in other footballing countries (Tomlinson & Young, 2006:2). Deriving from this problem statement, it appears that fans and players of soccer in South Africa need to know and understand their role in club affairs. The primary research problem in summary is perceived lack of appropriate behaviour and understanding by both players and fans with regard to the objectives of the sponsors (Dewhirst & Hunter, 2002:146). The secondary research problem is the perceived inadequate management of sponsorships by officials. These problems impact upon co-branding in soccer in South Africa.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

To specifically delve into this problem, the study *inter alia* seeks to discover if there is any congruence in the understanding of co-branding through soccer between the teams and sponsors with regard to the purpose of sponsorships. In essence, the primary aim of the study is to establish the level at which soccer

players, club officials, and soccer fans understand and appreciate the business objectives that motivate marketers into signing co-branding (sponsorship) agreements. This aim of the study will also establish from the responses of soccer players, club officials, and soccer fans if their understanding and actions assist sponsors' endeavours to enhance brand equity and sales or not. In clarifying the primary aim of the study, the objectives of the study are outlined hereunder:

- To establish players' awareness levels of what the sponsors expect of players as participating stakeholders in terms of performance and behaviour
- To determine whether the club officials understand and appreciate the interests of the sponsors other than just publicity meant to promote the brand
- To determine whether the club supporters are considered as stakeholders to the extent of action planning for their behaviour that might affect the co-branding contracts
- To determine whether managers of sponsoring organisations do measure the attainment of sponsorship objectives
- To develop a framework that can be used by parties negotiating towards a sponsorship agreement as a guide to them as to how and when to recognise other stakeholders who shall be impacted upon by the agreement, with a view to forge a buy-in by the affected stakeholders

1.4 LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review is explored in Chapters 2, 3, and 4. Chapter 2 extensively covers the history of soccer at different eras of its development including how that history extended to South Africa. The literature review highlights what happened in South Africa during the development of soccer amid segregation thereby slowing South Africa from keeping up to date with the developments in other countries. Chapter 3 deals with different aspects of soccer as an intangible product characterised by an extended type of a marketing mix. Chapter 4 specifically covers the concepts of branding and co-branding in soccer.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research approach will be a qualitative, cross-sectional and descriptive study aimed at exploring and investigating the soccer management dynamics that impact upon co-branding through soccer in KZN in the context of South Africa. The qualitative research approach was chosen because themes to be

discovered would yield responses which are opinions, attitudes, feelings, and knowledge statements of the participants in the study.

1.5.1 Population of interest

The target population are soccer fans of all Professional Soccer League (PSL) teams with a following in the KZN province. Furthermore, soccer players, soccer team managers, and sponsors of the three PSL teams in the province will also form part of the population. The number of adult soccer fans nationwide as estimated by BMI, the body that tracks sports in South Africa, is approximately 13 million. The KZN portion of that estimate is 2 927 000 soccer spectators (2011 BMI Adult SportTrack). The number of soccer fans that normally fill the Moses Mabhida Stadium in big matches is 55 000 (South African Sport & Sponsorship Landscape 2011). This number includes fans belonging to teams like Kaizer Chiefs, Mamelodi Sundowns, and Orlando Pirates, just to mention the ones with large followings. The three Professional Soccer League (PSL) teams in KZN viz. AmaZulu FC, Lamontville Golden Arrows FC, and Maritzburg United FC have a combined total of 104 registered players, 28 club officials, and 14 sponsors/partners.

1.5.2 Sampling

Selection of participants will be purposive and judgmental with regard to team officials and managers, sponsor representatives, and soccer players. The reason for applying purposive sampling to the selection of players is that players who have a good command of English and are not rookies in professional soccer are known by club officials hence probability sampling would not be suitable (Markula & Silk, 2011). The participants who are fans will be selected through snowball (multiplicity) sampling in order to make sure that all KZN teams and the major teams outside the province are also represented in each focus group in order to establish if there are any provincial differences in behaviour. Snowball sampling will also be used in identifying players who recently played for teams that do not want to participate in the study. The process in snowball sampling is begun by firstly selecting easily identifiable sample members judgmentally, and then asking those sample members to identify others with the desired characteristics (Tustin, Ligthelm, Martins & van Wyk, 2005:349). The criterion for selection into the sample is passion and knowledge of professional soccer. The researcher will seek assistance of fellow workers who often discuss soccer matters during breaks to identify a few participants who will in turn assist in snowball sampling.

1.5.3 Data Collection

Covering letters explaining the purpose of the study and the necessity of interviewing were sent to each club, seeking permission to interview employees, sponsors and players. A letter of informed consent was signed by each focus group leader and in-depth interview participant before the beginning of each data collection session. The players to be interviewed were notified with the assistance of the club official who normally works closely with them, to be prepared for their interviews. The data collection methods were focus group discussions with soccer fans and in-depth interviews of club officials, sponsor representatives, and players.

In summary, there were four focus group discussions influenced by four areas with a concentration of fans in the province, 18 in-depth interviews of both players and officials. The themes upon which open-ended questions and focus group agenda items were based, were identified during literature review. It was planned to conduct six long-serving player interviews per team but only 14 were willing to participate. In addition to the 18 in-depth interviews (14 of which were with players), a further three in-depth interviews with main sponsor representatives were conducted as permitted by club officials. The focus groups and in-depth interviews were guided by themes that will be outlined in Chapter 5, the numbers of which were also guided by the number of PSL teams (3) in the KZN province. Two out of three PSL teams had no sponsors at the time of the study. Since the data to be collected is qualitative, the collection process was conducted in a manner which ensured that credibility and trustworthiness were addressed. The analysis of data was done using NVivo Version 10 software as will be discussed in detail in Chapter 6.

1.5.4 The chapters of the study

This study is presented in eight chapters. In Chapter One the introduction to the study gives a broad outline of what is to be expected when reading this document. The literature review is discussed in a set of three chapters subsequent to the introductory one. Chapter Two is a discussion of the history of soccer as to when and how soccer started as a game, its subsequent development in Europe, Africa, and other countries, up to what it is today. The nature of soccer as an intangible product which is the most loved kind of sport is discussed in Chapter Three in the context of the marketing mix. Soccer as the main focus product of the study is discussed further in Chapter Four with special attention to branding and co-branding to the level at which branding and co-branding are applied for the benefit of all stakeholders involved. It is from this specific chapter that themes for research are identified.

The methodological and analytical approaches to conducting the study are presented in another set of three chapters. Chapter Five focuses on Research Methodology relating how planning and execution of the study was scientifically accomplished. Analysis of Data and Findings are detailed outlines of how data was analysed and the findings identified in relation to research objectives and such is done in Chapter Six. Discussion of Findings dealing with the interpretation of findings in the context of the aim of the study and research objectives is done in Chapter Seven. The study is wound up in Chapter Eight in which Conclusions, the Framework, and Recommendations are summed up and suggested solutions to the established problems that led to conducting the study are explained.

1.6 CONCLUSION

The context of the study was explained followed by the outline of the research problem and the research aim. The format of the literature review was outlined in section 1.4. The research methodology pertaining to the study was introduced in section 1.5 with regard to the population of interest, the sampling design and sampling method suitable for the study, the instruments to be used to collect data and the nature of data to be collected, and the checks and balances to ensure credibility and trustworthiness in the process of collecting and analysing data. The outline of how the chapters are arranged was given in section 1.5.4 to guide the reader through the study.

This chapter is followed by three chapters on literature review. The purpose of the three chapters is to put the nature of soccer as a product in a clearer perspective for the understanding of the research problem and the aim of the study. In addition to this purpose, it would be beneficial to know where and how the game originated and the obstacles that were meant to destroy it. The study will show how the obstacles related in this history retarded development in South Africa thereby impacting upon co-branding in soccer in the country. The chapter that follows immediately after this one is on the history of soccer worldwide and a specific focus on how the game developed in South Africa.

CHAPTER 2: THE HISTORY OF SOCCER

2.1 INTRODUCTION

As indicated in Chapter 1 it is necessary to discuss how soccer started as a game that we know and understand nowadays because knowing the past makes it easy to understand the present. The present stated here refers to what is currently happening to co-branding through soccer in South Africa, the main thrust of the study. Football also known as soccer has a history dating back about five centuries ago. Although football and soccer mean one and the same thing, the term soccer will be used consistently throughout this document unless the term football is embedded in the official name of an organization. Different historical accounts have one thing in common that soccer originated from Great Britain. Soccer is a game that is loved by billions of sports fans around the world, including South Africa. Soccer is the sport loved by most sports fans in the world, such that the soccer World Cup finals are characterised by attracting record estimations of worldwide television audiences in the billions (Haugen and Seiler, 2015:10). The game was introduced in South Africa after colonization of the country by the British Empire. The game then spread to Europe and America. The game grew and developed worldwide until it reached a stage of continental and international organization when the Federation of International Football Associations (FIFA), Confederation of African Football (CAF), and the Union of European Football Associations (UEFA) were formed. The game's developmental characteristics had a positive attitudinal and social impact in the Middle East where participation in the sport was non-existent in the past. Having developed continentally and globally, the management of the game developed at club level as well.

The management of the sport has not yet caught up with the level at which it is done in Europe and other soccer-loving countries. Even so, it is the game that has been and still accessible to all races in South Africa even during the times of racial segregation (apartheid) (Gustafsson and Gjørloff, 2013). Other games like rugby and cricket were only available in schools of the Whites only until the changes that have taken place recently. From the grass root development point of view, what happened in the past in South Africa caused millions of other people, Africans to be specific, to be left behind in understanding the rules and behaviour pertaining to crowd sporting activities. Despite that situation, soccer was able to develop further under racial segregation. The demise of segregation (apartheid) in South Africa brought about united organization of the game as it currently is. After South Africa has had development opportunities given by both CAF and FIFA there is a burning question on grass root soccer development initiatives. Having been accepted again as a member by both CAF and FIFA, South African professional

soccer clubs are faced with global demands like other teams in other countries. Even young deprived South Africans who had no facilities played soccer anywhere possible including playing in open space of the veld in rural areas and on the streets of townships. In this manner, soccer ended up being the number one supported sport in South Africa as is the case in the whole world. The crowds drawn by the FIFA World Cup, no matter where it is staged surpass any other sport-related crowds (Taylor, 2007:2).

2.2 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SOCCER WORLDWIDE

According to documented history, it seems factual that soccer has its origins in Great Britain. The history of soccer is first documented in Scotland in 1424 by an act of the Parliament of King James I when he forbade the game (Magoun, 1938). According to Magoun (1938), the game was continuously legally prohibited by James II, James III, and James IV in 1457, 1471, and 1491 respectively. It is ironical to learn from Magoun's (1938) record of the historical account of the Lord High Treasurer of Scotland in Item dated 22 April 1497 that James IV ordered one of his servants by the name of James Dog to buy soccer balls for the king. This was proof that the king had started indulging in the prohibited sport. It is further reported by Magoun (1938) that evidence is found in the records of activities of King Hart 1501 to 1512 that he had a bruised arm and a bruised shin having been playing ball, believed to mean soccer. This account goes on to highlight that poets during the 70s and 80s of the 16th century were writing stanzas meant to discourage indulgence in soccer as a sport. The stanzas described the sport as very dangerous and always causing physical injuries. Some members of both Scottish and English nobility were recorded to have confessed to have played soccer as a prohibited sport. Furthermore, a family of Armstrong were always caught in controversial court cases where it was revealed that crimes had been committed after playing soccer. The incidents of labelling soccer as not worthy of royal indulgence and recognition as a decent sport continued during the 90s of the 16th century featuring various nobility and clergy who found it irresistible to indulge in soccer. In the 17th century the account records different incidents by which the clergy described soccer as a boisterous sport that caused various people to violate Sabbath. During the 18th century soccer maintained itself as a popular rural sport and it is from this time that Magoun's (1938) relatively complete or picturesque accounts of the old time games have come down.

Magoun's (1938) account of the history of soccer highlights incidents relating to Scotland's development of soccer. This account is complemented by a book on British history of how soccer developed (Taylor, 2008). This portion of history reveals that many attempts on record to suppress soccer dated back to 1314 and culminated to a worse situation in the 18th century. This fact is in line

with Magoun's (1938) account of what was happening in Scotland during the 18th century. Taylor's account begins by highlighting the turning points in the history of soccer in Britain when he mentions that professionalism was legislated in 1885 and that the maximum wage law was removed in 1961 thereby opening the setting of wage levels to negotiation instead of strict regulation. Apart from these highlights, Taylor (2007) decided to adopt two different approaches out of three identified to recording the history of soccer in Britain.

Some writers like Magoun (1938) have approached the history of soccer, from the angle of organised soccer by putting more emphasis on association soccer whilst others approach it in an orthodox manner or the four nations approach. The organised soccer perspective relates history of soccer in Britain as conveniently having started during the foundation of the Football Association (FA) in 1863. This approach leaves a huge gap between the early days of soccer and the stage of organised sport. It is for this reason that Taylor (2008) chose to give an account of British soccer from the four nations approach. According to the four nations approach it becomes clear that England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales were experiencing the development of soccer in different ways which is regarded as a symbol of British diversity. This approach highlights the existence of different associations in the 1890s, development of international contests and teams representing England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales during the 1890s.

In addition to the four nations approach, Taylor also adopted an orthodox approach advocated by a sociologist by the name of Eric Dunning (Taylor, 2008). Dunning's approach is characterised by four stages of the history. According to Taylor (2008) the first stage reveals that from the 14th century to the 18th century soccer was a relatively simple, wild and unruly folk game. The identification of this stage confirms Magoun's (1938) account that soccer maintained itself as a rural sport during the 18th century. Murray's (1996:2) account also relates that soccer was a game played by mobs of one village against another village, where there were no written rules in celebration of a fertility rite or to mark the end of a season of the year. The second stage, spanning from 1750s to 1840s, is reported to have been marked by adoption and adaptation of the folk game by public schools. From 1840s to 1860s the third stage was characterised by the game being organised in a more formal manner, hence the formation of the FA in 1863. The final stage happened between 1850s and 1890s when public school forms of soccer were popularised beyond the school premises, and associations were established at both local and national levels. During this stage the game developed mass support from the public that had turned into spectators who were willing to pay for the entertainment, which in turn enabled soccer clubs to pay professional players for their services.

It would then appear that despite the initial resentment of the soccer game by the earlier authorities no obstacle could stand in the way of the game gaining popularity and momentum in development (Taylor, 2007:2). This became more evident when the game was even introduced at schools and also that the supporting public were even prepared to be paying spectators for the entertainment derived from watching soccer. It was therefore not surprising that the game ended up spreading to Europe and America, having originated in the United Kingdom.

2.2.1 The spreading of organized soccer in Europe and America

Once soccer was organized into associations, it started spreading across Europe. According to Pillay, Tomlinson and Bass (2009:18) it is believed that as much as the game was invented in Britain, the countries in Western Europe were also responsible for the spreading of the game to other countries during the era of colonization. Countries in South America were colonized by Portugal and Spain which in the process accounted for the introduction of the game in all those countries (Kleven, Landas and Saez, 2010). This is supported by the fact that founder members of FIFA came from Spain, France and Portugal. It is surprising that soccer in North American countries is said to have not permeate national consciousness although the game had great potential for commercial growth (Pillay *et al.*, 2009:19). In the United States of America (USA) for instance, baseball and American football over-shadowed soccer because it was given the ‘un-American’ status. This means that although most British colonies assimilated soccer as an aspect of English culture, this was not the case with North America. The signs of change were noticed when America was celebrating a centenary of their national soccer code on 6 November 1969. What was observed was that the interest was on soccer rather than what is known as American football (Murray, 1996:2). It is no surprise that the game has gained momentum after USA was given the right to organize the FIFA World Cup finals in 1994 such that the country had risen to the 21st place in FIFA rankings in 2008. The momentum of the growth of soccer status in USA has seen players like David Beckham and Thierry Henry joining clubs in the Major League Soccer.

Looking at the development of soccer from the perspective of German history, culture, and society, Tomlinson and Young (2006:2) express the impact of soccer as an ordered and constant mode of behaviour which may be understood as one of the practices that have collective patterns of meaning embedded in it. This historical account by Tomlinson and Young (2006) confirms the fact by Taylor (2008) that soccer was initially a sport for enthusiasts of ‘round leather’ and gradually developed into an advanced spectator sport that fascinated thousands of people who had never played it before. The German historical account also reveals that in the 1950s soccer became a mass media phenomenon

despite the fact that the country had been separated into East Germany and West Germany owing to the repercussions of the First and Second World Wars. This happened almost a century after the FA was established in Great Britain (Taylor, 2008) where the public had turned into paying spectators and clubs had started paying professional players for their services. This is not surprising because Tomlinson and Young (2006) acknowledge that soccer was imported from England whereby they concur with Taylor (2008). The authors go on to mention that when the game was imported it came with more dynamism as a physical team sport compared to gymnastics, the then popular sport in Germany.

Having been introduced in Germany, soccer appeared to have an enormous inherent potential for development. It is reported that soccer was subsequently discovered as interesting in Germany by a growing number of young employees who had enough leisure and money to play on Sundays. According to Tomlinson and Young (2006:2), this was a critical factor in the development of the game in Germany because it had a tremendous impact on changing the culture of sport in the country. During the First World War Germans had developed a culture of violence which did not do the country any good. After the Second World War the country was left in a situation of symbolic devastation. Culture is defined in this historical account as characterized by collective cognitive content in a society. Soccer was used as a raw material in the process of forming socialization of varying denseness and durability that were subject to cultural change. It is specifically stated in this historical account that Germany is the only country where football managed to gain symbolic qualities in great measure. This statement by the authors of this historical account makes sense since symbolic meanings help construct communities. This is justified by what is reported that there were cultural differences in Germany which were threatening to destroy the country but soccer players who were affiliated to Deutscher Fußballbund (DFB), the apolitical soccer association, wanted to play in front of an increasing number of spectators by avoiding to have to articulate their class-consciousness in a soccer match (Tomlinson & Young, 2006:4). The unique attribute of soccer as a symbolic phenomenon has resulted in the formation of FC Schalke 04 in the 1920s, VfB Stuttgart, and FC Kaiserslautern in the 1940s. As years went by more and more teams were formed some of which still exist and feature in the current Bundesliga. For decades of development, football was used to close the cultural gaps that had developed in Germany right up to the time the country was re-united as one in the early 1990s.

It was not only through colonisation that the game of soccer spread throughout the world. History has it that Stalin, one of the prominent Presidents of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), allowed his soccer soldiers to visit England to play soccer matches with the FA prominent teams. Edelman (1993) reports that the Moscow Dinamo took to the soccer field at White Hart Lane to play with Tottenham Hot

Spur on 21 November 1945. Dinamo was then the champion of the USSR, indicating that soccer was organized into an association like in other continents. During this goodwill tour of England, the team also played with Chelsea, Arsenal, and Cardiff City. It is also reported that the Russian team had a prolific striker by the name of Vsevolod Bobrov who by the end of his career he was named the greatest athlete of soccer in the Soviet Union. Another interesting fact about him is that he was not a Dinamo player but happened to lead the team in the tour of England. He was rather playing for the team sponsored by the Central House of the Red Army which had an acronym TsDKA, whose rival team was one of the secret police.

It is important to note from this historical account that after the end of the Second World War, the TSDJA Dinamo dominated the Soviet soccer since it was able to secure the services of the best players and best coaches. The government took the opportunity of using sport, particularly soccer, which drastically increased the watching audience further than the urban working class. Furthermore, because of the political drive for equality, the fact that soccer could be watched by most people because of its popularity, it became an especially convenient object for political interference and conformity by Stalin in his last years of rule. This political trend changed as years went by particularly when the USSR was dissolved resulting in individual members of the erstwhile USSR competing for qualifying for the 1994 World Cup which was to be hosted by United States of America (USA) (Murray, 1996). Although used differently from Germany's point of view, this account illustrates how versatile soccer is for pursuing political or national development of any sort, depending on the regime of the day.

After soccer was introduced in other countries through colonization, it developed globally by being organized internationally. An international soccer association called the Federation of International Football Association (FIFA) was established in France in 1904. As already stated above in the historical account of Pillay *et al.* (2009), the founder member countries are in Western Europe. This manifested itself in the organizing of the first World Cup when thirteen nations competed in 1930 in Uruguay (Taylor, 2007). Taylor's study found that the establishment of FIFA was aimed at spreading the international market for soccer talent across the globe. In order to achieve this goal, one of the past presidents of FIFA Sir Stanley Rous of England worked towards globalization of soccer and FIFA membership such that the membership expanded geographically during his 1961 to 1974 term of office. However, the geographical expansion brought about the emergence of the Third World as a political force within FIFA (Manzo, 2012:553). As a result of this power development, the new president by the name of Havelange of Brazil pushed for soccer development aid sponsored by very strong multi-national corporations (MNCs) like Adidas and Coca-Cola. The strategy created political conflicts. In the light of

decolonization, the decolonizing countries raised concerns at the United Nations about the tremendous power of the MNCs since the countries wanted an alternative economic model to substitute colonization. However, the campaign proceeded as it focused on youth soccer development. The impact of organized soccer through FIFA resulted in the migration of soccer players from one country to the other.

2.2.2 The migration of soccer players

This development enhanced the environment where players of all nations can migrate to wherever they can to develop their talent and earn more money than playing in their homelands. It is a fact that player migration was not created by what was happening in FIFA administration. According to Taylor (2007) clubs in Europe as a matter of tendency were established by foreign nationals in Italy, Spain, and Switzerland such that players around 1900 were a group with similar characteristics representing many, mostly European, nationalities. The study reveals that more players migrated from countries with smaller economies to countries with larger economies. It is also reported that the nature of other player migrations were influenced by language and culture of origin where players would migrate from Latin America to Spain, Portugal, other Europe countries and Britain. This historical record is supported by Kleven, Landas and Saez, (2010) wherein it is stated that other soccer players were attracted by the promise of financial rewards in a land that had been home to their parents. It is also confirmed by Taylor (2007) in his theses where three determinants of soccer migration are identified as structural factors influenced by economy, culture, and social institutions. One of the most debated issues is the impact of migration of soccer player.

The concern about migration of African players to European teams is echoed by FIFA such that Blatter the FIFA President suggested tighter controls to restrict the migration in 2003 (Manzo, 2012). Blatter further referred to the trend as unethical thereby describing the clubs in Europe receiving the migrant players as neo-colonists who were exploiting the societies and economies of the developing world. This was happening in the wake of the Football for Hope Movement (FHM) which had started in eastern Uganda under the auspices of the Katine tournament in 2009. The aim of the tournament was to create some legacies in Africa such as equipment and infrastructure (tangibles), and hope and confidence (intangibles). When South Africa was making arrangements to host the FIFA 2010 World Cup, FIFA joined the FHM because doing so augured well with the world governing body's strategy to bring about development in Africa through soccer.

There are many theories that have been posited by different scholars to explain what is at work in soccer player migration. Amongst others, Taylor relates the theories posited by Darby (Taylor, 2008) which are world system theory, imperialism and neo-imperialism, and dependency theory. It seems that Darby grappled with all these theories and settled on the Frank's thesis of dependent underdevelopment which says that the first world countries prosper through exploiting the underdeveloped third world countries. This is explained that when players from Africa are signed by European teams they undergo a process of de-skilling in order to comply with the style of play required by those teams. The players have no option but to comply since they were recruited from African countries that are underdeveloped economically to the extent that some of those countries are poverty stricken. The migration brings about an impact which reduces the desired variety of styles in soccer which spices up the game for the enjoyment of spectators. Another scholar contributing in this regard is Poli (2006) who explains what is at work in player migration by using concepts of transnationalism and circulation describing the migration of African players to European teams especially those recruited from Cameroon to Switzerland as a trajectory that results in exploitation of the players on economic and human levels.

Poli (2006) approached his research from historical, geographical, and cultural aspects of the migration of African players to European clubs. The author explains the increasing number of African soccer players migrating to Europe as attributable to 'pull' and 'push' factors. The pull factor is characterised by European countries exploiting previous colonial links with some countries in Africa, also searching for new markets, and the setting up of transfer networks by agents, etc. The push factor is characterised by lack of structure in African soccer, soccer's new status, increased attractiveness due to satellite television, etc. The transfer networks referred to are the US Marocaine and the Maghreb that were responsible for the migration of African soccer players from the former French West African colonies. These networks were a viable vehicle to scout, recruit and transfer the players to clubs in France. It is reported that from the 1930s to 1950s players migrated from Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco to play for clubs which eventual resulted in those players playing for the French national team. Portugal started this migration campaign in the 1950s, taking players from Angola and Mozambique to the extent that the world began knowing the likes of Eusebio and Mario Esteves Colu  a. Belgium started from the 1960s onwards to take players from its colonies in central Africa.

This historical account continues to mention that when the African states sought and achieved their political independence, they started building their soccer national teams and as a result adopted protectionist policies to hold onto the their best players. During this era, soccer became a privileged strategy for African states to affirm their newly acquired sovereignty in the context of the whole world

(Poli, 2006). This strategy was enhanced by the decolonization under the guidance and influence of the Soviet Union whereby the Confederation of African Football (CAF) prohibited the selection of professional expatriates for matches between national teams in the context of the African Cup of Nations (Afcon). This apparently put some brakes on the momentum of the migration of African players to Europe. However, this was a temporary solution since the numbers started to increase again owing to the weakening of political restraints in Africa regarding the leaving of players. This was caused by the decision that was taken by CAF to allow expatriate professional players into national squads under the influence of FIFA regulations. The number of migrant soccer players increased again owing to the weakening of the quota system in European soccer, the global observation networks, and the outsourcing of player training (Taylor, 2006). It then became a trend for African countries to have players abroad as an advantage rather than a hindrance.

The impact of the migration of African soccer players manifests itself in the identity crisis that some players suffer from when they have to choose between country and club during continental (Afcon) and international competitions (FIFA World Cup qualifiers). However, notwithstanding the exploitation of migrant players from poorer countries in Africa by first world countries, the migration of players from one country to another all over the world should be looked at from a different perspective. Taylor (2006) avers that soccer player migration across different countries and continents is a factor beyond the current economic and power relations in the world of soccer. The author states further that migration of soccer players is a reflection of a complex set of linkages between specific countries – linkages that often have deep social, cultural and historical roots as already indicated in Poli's (2006) historical account. Taylor (2006) argues that if soccer is a global sport par excellence, such status started in 1930 when 13 national teams contested the first FIFA World Cup in Uruguay where only four European nations were represented. This World Cup was characterised by the fact that the crowds were the largest when South American national teams were playing. The author asserts that the successive staging of the World Cup in 1934 and 1938 where the number of participating nations kept on increasing suggests that FIFA expanded the market for soccer talent.

This situation led Kleven *et al.* (2010) to argue on the basis of their study on the application of soccer player transfer taxation that soccer players are more mobile than the rest of the highly skilled labour market. This supports Taylor's report that for the first time in the history of soccer a notable number of players moved from country to country and across continents, most of whom compelled by poor economic conditions in their countries of origin and lower standards of local soccer. They are normally enticed by promises of better financial rewards because of professionalization of the sport on

international basis by FIFA in countries that were home to their parents prior to their parents moving to colonies. The effect of the interactions as stated was the quality and style improvement of the game at both ends. However, the author does acknowledge the fact that the process of these developments brought about debate on issues of national identity, citizenship, freedom of labour and the inclusion and exclusion of players considered to be outsiders when players had to be selected for a national team. There is commonality in the understanding of the effect of the pull and push factors in the migration of soccer players between Taylor's (2008) account and that of Poli (2006), except that the one by the latter author is in the context of African player migration only. Taylor does not categorically deny the resultant exploitation of poorer countries when their players leave for countries with better economic situations.

This trend motivated Kleven *et al.* (2010) to analyse the effects of top earnings rate on the international migration of top soccer players in Europe. The authors used a number of tax and institutional factors to identify the effects of the top earnings rate of soccer players. The said changes that took place in Europe are the 1995 Bosman ruling which liberated the European soccer market, top tax rate reforms within countries, and preferential tax rates to immigrant workers. Amongst other findings, the selective revenue-maximising tax rate on foreign soccer players was found to be lower than the uniform revenue maximising tax rate and sometimes significantly so. This finding confirms the historical account by Poli (2006) that as soon as the protectionist policies were later decided against by CAF under the influence of FIFA, the migration of African soccer players to Europe increased. This decision by CAF had a similar effect as the 1995 Bosman ruling and the preferential tax rates to immigrant workers to Europe.

It was therefore not surprising when Blatter of Switzerland assumed office in 1998 with Afro-friendliness as an alternative avenue to promote FIFA and soccer as development tools in the wake of political developments (Manzo, 2012:553). His strategy involved the then United Nations (UN) General Secretary Anan where the partnership centred on shared common values in the form of fair play, respect for other teams, other players, and referees, and the fight against drugs, racism and violence. This arrangement required FIFA to fund UN programmes for education, promotion of children's rights, health, physical exercise and vaccination campaigns in Africa. FIFA showed commitment to the shared values by formulating Article 19 of the Status and Transfer of Players such that it is titled 'Protection of Minors' aimed at preventing wealthy nations from poaching players of under 18 years of age from smaller clubs of developing poorer nations.

2.2.3 The pivotal role of FIFA in the development of soccer

One wonders if the establishment of FIFA has brought any good to the game since it was formed. Some historical accounts seem to posit a theory that the right given to countries that have organized to host the finals of the FIFA World Cup was meant to enable those countries to develop the spirit of the game and more so the economic development of the country (History of South African soccer 2004). It is worth exploring to find out if such countries have benefited or not. South Africa is one of the countries that have organized the finals of the FIFA World Cup. The other dimension of the development of soccer is the establishments of continental associations like the Confederation of African Football (CAF), the Union of European Football Associations (UEFA), Confederation of Southern African Football Associations (COSAFA) and Copa America for which a study was conducted by Hughes and Churchill (2005) about the number of goals scored at different times of a soccer match. These soccer structures run tournaments within manageable geographical areas for competitiveness in the game. According to a study by Hoffman, Ging and Ramasamy (2002), factors such as culture, demography and geography in the context of international soccer performance are very important in determining the direction of funds for the development of the game. The same study revealed further that beyond a certain level, the magnitude of investment in the game can harm a country's soccer performance. The basis of this statement, according to the study, is the fact that countries spend significant amounts of national resources to promote the performance of their national teams at international soccer sporting events without considering the spreading of the resources across different levels of the game in order to provide support for better international performance.

The results of the study suggest that a government sports policy may be useful to limit government intervention costing excessive resources in preparation for participating in an international event. That is true, considering that Germany's preparation expenditure for the 2006 FIFA World Cup was 40 per cent whilst 60 per cent came from the private sector (Gustafsson & Gjörlöf, 2013:62). Hoffman *et al.* (2002) also established that the impact of wide sport participation by a country, regardless of international success, has significant positive results in terms of population health and well-being. The authors concluded that the government sport policy in supporting sports in general can clearly reduce the impact of any financial deficit left after an international event and that an encouraging policy can contribute to the international sporting success. These findings indicate that an appropriate sports policy can help develop a country without having to blame an organization like FIFA. However, some studies have suggested that there is a power struggle between FIFA and UEFA, which is a very strong continental soccer organization. The reported conflict between FIFA and UEFA emanates from what

Blatter suggested, that is to stage the FIFA World Cup every two years (Desai, 2008:330). The reaction of UEFA to Blatter was hysterical bearing in mind the implication that the suggestion would undermine the power of UEFA and European teams. This would also mean that the European continental competition would not have a space since UEFA also runs the champions league and the Europa Cup every year. Be that as it may, the historical account by Taylor (2006) suggests that the effect of soccer players migrating from country to country and continent to continent was the quality and style improvement of the game at both ends.

Apart from the power struggle between FIFA and UEFA, there has been continuous development and advancement in the seriousness of the game of soccer in Europe as more and more money is invested in sponsoring the leagues, cups, and other professional competitions. For example, according to Bloomfield, Polman and O'Donoghue (2007) professional soccer player performance has to be measured in terms of movement directions on the field, the speed with which such movements are made, and the intensity under which such movements are made. Their study categorizes players into defence, midfield and attack (strikers). There is also a wide variety of studies that have been conducted by different authors with an aim of contributing to existing knowledge in soccer management. These studies cover physical fitness of individual players, the relationship between performance and the level of pay, the effects of length of contracts on player performance, incentives on performance the effects thereof on contracts, player talent disparity and performance, performance in the context of a team of players, and technical aspects of performance, just to mention a few. These endeavours to improve the standard of the game at professional level have had some effect in the development of the game and more so on the ability of soccer teams to attract lucrative sponsorships as will be discussed further in Chapter Four. These developmental aspects of the game can assist in bringing the performance professionalism of South African players to the same level as that of the players in countries where the game has advanced further, i.e. countries in continents like Europe, Oceania, North America, and South America.

2.2.4 The impact of soccer in the Middle East

As much as the documented history of soccer has revealed the power of soccer in development for social and economic reasons in continents just stated, bearing in mind that the game was at first strongly discouraged at the country of its origin, it has had a positive influence in other continents as well. It must not be forgotten that for other reasons soccer has also played a significant role in the political development in the Middle East. According to Hassan & Lusted (2013:172), the political turmoil caused by Jordan becoming an independent state in 1946 brought about the formation of two remarkable soccer

clubs in the Palestinian region. One team was formed by the Palestinian refugee camp Wihdat and has been named after the camp's name. The other team is affiliated to the original Transjordanian inhabitants of Jordan and is named Faisali. As such the team has seen its historical position as the pre-eminent club side in the country diminished and ultimately overcome.

Owing to the political instability and the lack of opportunity to express national identity, the football arena in the Middle East has been transformed into a field where ethnic belonging and political messages are communicated. Amidst the Arab states' political turmoil, Turkey's idea of combining a secular state with a growing economy governed by a moderate Islamic Party appeals to other Arab states (Dorsey, 2012). The author reports that Arab states in the Middle East are characterised by an authoritarian rule where for much of its modern history following religion and playing soccer helps to release stress caused by anger and frustration. These countries take part in international soccer and they are formidable sides although they have not been involved in soccer for centuries like countries in other continents. That has been achieved on the basis of teams that were formed in refugee camps to provide the youth with meaningful activities in sport. According to Hassan and Lusted (2013:179, there are four tournaments in Jordan, the domestic league, the FA Cup, the FA Shield and the Super Cup. These competitions resemble to a great extent the set-up in England. It is reported by the authors that Wihdat has won the league ten times, and in 2009 and 2011 it even claimed the quadruple by winning all four competitions in one season. This has changed the previous dominance of the countries' soccer tournaments by Faisali. The performance of Wihdat has made Palestinians to raise their heads in hope.

2.2.5 Soccer development at club level

Since soccer has developed into big business as well as a career for players, it is perhaps the right time that productivity aspects of other careers are implemented to the game due to the fact that studies are continuously being conducted to determine ways and means of improving individual player and team performance. A performance management system (PMS) needs to be put in place in order to implement performance management as a tool to align performance to organizational objectives. To be an effective tool, PMS must be characterised by agreed and understood objectives and job requirements. Furthermore, there should be on going feedback when behaviour-based measurements are used (Broadbent and Laughlin, 2007). However, what needs to be borne in mind is that if PMS is implemented for the first time there is bound to be resistance caused by human nature i.e. fear of the unknown (Phiri, 1998).

Soccer has also been advancing and developing in leaps and bounds where certain clubs have become household names like some teams in England. Kerr (2009) studied a number of factors around the reason why soccer fans support teams that they have never been able to watch live at a stadium. The author describes such fans as satellite fans but important though since they help the supported team intending to expand internationally to generate significant revenue for such expansion. It is also stated in the study that fans are now more likely to wear sporting goods of a team that is not locally based on the understanding that it is an overseas loved-one far away but very close to the heart. The author avers that the individual decisions by these fans to buy sports branded products depend on identification with a team of their choice. Sports products that are branded with the logo and name of their chosen team are an important stream of revenue for the team. Team identification or the extent to which a fan is psychologically connected to a particular team is said to be critical to the financial viability of the organization. This is in line with brand communities that have been established by brands like Jeep, Harley-Davidson, etc. Brand communities where a consumer automatically becomes a member of the community of people who buy a particular brand. The consumer starts receiving correspondence regarding the membership, benefits thereof, and branded products that are available to the consumer to show allegiance to the brand community (Hawkins and Mothersbaugh, 2013).

Brand communities are consumer cultures that are based on their allegiance to the soccer club (brand) of their choice. This cultural development through soccer is confirmed in the historical account by Taylor (2006). The author avers that professionalization is unstoppable such that it was rumoured that another continental league would be formed to compete with UEFA which would result in all clubs in Europe to be listed on the stock exchange. It is reported further in the account that professional soccer clubs like AC Milan, Ajax, Arsenal, Barcelona, Bayern München, Juventus, Manchester United, Olympique Marseille, and Real Madrid generate billions in revenue for their national cultures. Emerging from the fieldwork conducted and a research study, King (2003) established that football constitutes a widely accepted ritual in current European culture which has brought about emergent social solidarities and new economic networks. That is why government authorities in all continents care about the well-being of soccer. This manifests itself in the European Union's and UEFA's intervention policies that are crucial in determining the fate of clubs and leagues in the continent. The list does not end with the teams just stated but also includes professional teams like Liverpool and others that have emerged after the recording of this historical account.

Kerr (2009) focused the study on Liverpool Football Club (Liverpool FC) to try to understand the events that lead to satellite fans' identifying with a foreign team. Liverpool FC was chosen for the case study

because of its then world-wide fan base, a rich history, and the perception that it is one of the world's premier brands. The author identified media coverage, style of play, the presence of remarkable player(s), team success, success history, playing in the highest division, stadium, history of ethical behaviour, and the quality at which games are broadcast as antecedents that influence support of a foreign-based team. It became necessary to explore why this is so. The study revealed that the social identity theory was the appropriate point of view in examining the satellite fans' foreign fandom where the plausible explanation was that satellite fans might be deriving positive psychological benefit from their foreign fandom and the existence of a brand community dedicated to a professional sports organization (Schiffman, Kanuk, and Wissenblit, 2010:283). There probably is a reason for achievement of a high level of brand equity by a soccer club.

A study conducted in the early years of the new millennium indicates advancement in the management of soccer and sponsorships in England. Chadwick and Thwaites (2004) begin by mentioning that experts are divided into two camps when it comes to the question whether progress has been made in the management of sponsorships in English soccer. The authors then undertook to investigate whether the management of sponsorship programmes is approached professionally in English soccer. The study was particularly focused on short lived soccer sponsorship in the English Premier League in relation to similar sponsorships in other European countries like Germany, Spain, and Italy. Chadwick and Thwaites (2005:328-338) highlight the fact many researchers prior to this study failed to identify the person responsible for organizing and managing sponsorship contracts. At the time of the study brands that were targeting professional soccer teams for shirt sponsorships mostly came from the information technology as well as telecommunications sectors. The study was therefore characterized by an increase in the number of sponsors drawn from these sectors due to growth of mobile telephone and Internet users.

The findings of the study revealed that only 52 per cent of the brand representatives stated that they set objectives for their sponsorship agreements. Compared to the same study by the same authors in 1993 where 66 per cent had set objectives, the decrease in setting corporate objectives for the sponsorship contract could be attributable to the different sectors that featured in the previous study. Apparently, the information technology and mobile telephone brand representatives were not as experienced as the ones in other sectors. The authors were also inclined to attribute the decrease to the naïve assumption that sponsorship success causes the rise in popularity of English soccer. Despite the decrease, corporations suggested that corporate and brand objectives are better fulfilled through sponsorship. The second finding, a feature not found in the previous study, revealed that sponsoring corporations indicated that

sponsorship is instrumental to increasing awareness levels, target market perceptions, and sales leads of existing products. This finding re-iterated what was revealed in 1993, that soccer sponsorship continuously contributes to public relations objectives. It was evident again that soccer sponsorship is significant such that it also appeals to a broad range of target audiences. The increase in soccer sponsorship and the comparable quality balance in intra-league, inter-league, international league competitions are all enhanced by the increase in the international trade of soccer players resulting in the distribution of maximum talent. This in turn was facilitated by opening up of player market and the removal of the restriction of the number of foreign players per team following the Bosman ruling (Taylor, 2006). After the Bosman ruling by the European Union Court, a European Union player is a free agent once his contract is expired.

The findings of Chadwick and Thwaites (2004) on the development of practices when it comes to management of sponsorship programmes are confirmed by the manner in which another European team that has a global fan base but geographically based in Spain has developed a model to manage this aspect of the business. Real Madrid FC, like Liverpool, is a soccer club that is more than 100 years old. During the 2000/2001 season it was named by FIFA as the best soccer team of the 20th century. According to Callejo and Forcadell (2006: 5), this can be ascribed to the model that has been adopted to change a traditional soccer club into a modern sports and media organization. The team management decided to transform the club through a five-pronged strategy. It firstly restructured the business into marketing, sporting, and corporate-economic divisions and even created a position of an executive director in the office of the presidency. In the second instance, the club promoted the Real Madrid brand image by positioning the brand in strategic markets world-wide. As a third step, recovery of the assets the management of which had been sold to other entities and being managed by the club resulted in the increase of the value of the said assets. In the fourth step the club diversified its sources of income by developing new lines of business. Finally, the club launched a large number of Real Madrid sports products onto the market thereby transforming supporters and followers into effective customers by capitalizing on their sentimental attachment to the club. The sentimental attachment to the club is a foundation for a brand community.

Pursuing this strategy enabled Real Madrid to increase its revenue from \$165.48 million to \$331 million in five seasons from 2000 to 2004. This turnaround strategy is one of the factors that add to the soccer sector's contribution of \$9.6 billion to the general GDP of Spain and accounting for 1.7 per cent thereof. The development of soccer to what it is today with clubs like Real Madrid, Manchester United, Liverpool, Arsenal, Barcelona, Bayern Munich, etc. developing management strategies that put them on

the global scene has not been an isolated phenomenon of the growth and development of the game. There has been growth of individual players to global stature that is not equalled in other collective sport like rugby. Soccer has seen growth of individual players like David Beckham. His stature has attracted lucrative sponsors like nothing ever before (Cashmore, 2002). The amount of money invested in sponsoring soccer has created such players whereas in the absence of such investment, players like Pelè of Brazil could not get such exposure to individual soccer player sponsorship. In terms of performance on the soccer field, Pelè outshines Beckham but Beckham is more of a celebrity because of the latest developments in the game and the investment involved. The emergence of such players is evidence of the fact that sport, the major code of which is soccer, having been the main thrust of colonial power, manifests itself in the modern world of sport through producing world class athletes and celebrities (Bale, 2002).

As soccer has been developing over the years, spectators have also been undergoing some revolutionary change in their behaviour at the stadia. According to Haan, Koning and van Witteloostuijn (2002) the soccer product produced by a league industry is not only reliant on the overall quality provided by different leagues, but on the differences in which those leagues are run. If the national league is characterised by the standard of soccer where qualities of competing teams are comparable, the interest of the fans becomes greater. In other words, fans get bored when it is always known which team is going to win before the match starts. Fans are believed to favour competitive balance which is associated with an evenly distributed quality of teams competing in the league. For example no-one knew which team was going to win the game in the FAPL, Bundes Liga, and Spanish La Liga in the 2014/2015 season. The dominance of teams like Manchester United in FAPL, the dominance of Real Madrid in Spanish La Liga, and the dominance of Bayern Munich in the Bundesliga, is no longer the order of the day. That situation creates the hype needed by fans to keep the vibe and excitement needed from the product. The authors carry on to mention that discussions about institutions of international soccer suggest that supporters, clubs and administrators are also cognisant of the importance of quality level in teams of a national league. It can therefore be concluded that people not only care about competitive balance within one league, but also about competitive balance between leagues, or continental differences in quality levels of the game.

The 'export' of soccer by the United Kingdom has never proved a futile exercise since the rapid development of soccer in Europe, America, and the Middle East has shown how influential the game is in terms of economic development and changing of the mind set of different communities of the world. Soccer has not been acceptable in the Middle East for many decades and this is borne by the fact that

countries from that part of the world have not been competing internationally with other countries of the world under the auspices of FIFA until recently. This movement in the spreading of soccer was partly an export of the sporting idea in Europe and partly a colonization tool in America and other countries in Africa. This recorded development of soccer then calls for looking at how soccer came to South Africa as the entire continent was the target of all colonizing countries.

It is amazing to realize where soccer comes from with regard to its inception and development to what it is today. It is without doubt that for centuries of its development nobody envisaged that it would become a product that is now worth the attention it gets. No-one had ever thought that this game had the potential of globally affecting and influencing lives of people as it is happening wherever it is allowed to entertain the public as one of the sports codes. However, the story of soccer would not be complete without relating how it came to South Africa and how it has evolved over the years to its organized format as it currently is. It is also warranted to relate its South African story to highlight how it (soccer) assisted in changing the mind set of certain people for the success of the game. This historical account has no political motives but to state the robustness of the game under unfavourable circumstances.

2.3 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND TO SOCCER IN SOUTH AFRICA

The history of South African soccer is very rich and dates back to the second half of the 19th century. Soccer as a sport was introduced in the country by the English who came to South Africa for colonization in the 19th century (Kostopoulos, 2009). With the help of mission schools, the sport spread to the indigenous people of the country to the extent that it was in this manner even introduced in rural areas (Alegi, 2004). The matches that are supposedly the first ones played, according to records that can be found, were played between soldiers and civilians in Cape Town and Port Elizabeth (*Football in South Africa* - South African History Online, towards a people's history). That was prior to any type of organized soccer. Such casual games culminated in the sport being organized by whites in the then Natal. The first club that was formed when organization of the sport slowly started is Pietermaritzburg County in 1879. Being the only club formed then it had to compete by playing with teams of soldiers.

2.3.1 Segregated development of South African soccer

The development of soccer continued when the first provincial association was formed in 1882 in the name of Natal Football Association. This organization of football led to the formation of a league when other clubs were formed. According to Mazwai (2003), teams that joined the league are Durban Alpha,

Umgeni Stars, Berea, Pirates, Victoria Athletics, 24th Regiment, and the Natal Wasps during 1887. Two strong teams that won the tournaments organised by the Natal Football Association between 1883 and 1890 were the Natal Wasps and Victoria Athletics. The foundation of organised soccer in Natal brought about the beginning of organised soccer in the Cape Colony in Cape Town. According to Mazwai (2003) the men who initiated the spread of organised soccer in the Cape in 1890 were Mr Warburton and Mr Weaver. The report reveals they were both instrumental in the formation of clubs like Pioneers Football Club and others which led to the establishment of the Football Association of South Africa to serve the interests of white only soccer players in the country.

This part of South African soccer history is confirmed by the information contained in the history of South African soccer (History of South African soccer 2004) where it is reported that the roots of South African soccer reach far back in the 19th century when the structures of soccer were formed along racial divisions. The Football Association of South Africa (FASA) for Whites was founded in 1892, followed by the South African Indian Football Association (SAIFA), the South African Bantu Football Association (SABFA), and the South African Coloured Football Association (SACFA) in 1903, 1933, and 1936 respectively. Based on these structures, South Africans had to play soccer as they lived apart. What is missing in Mazwai's (2003) account and News 24 report is the formation of a very strong local association which was established in Durban. According to Alegi (2004), the first local soccer association for Africans, the Durban and District Native Football Association (DDNFA), better known as D&D, was formed in 1916. This association was well-known for highly contested soccer competitions it organised for clubs for which natives (aborigines) played, thereby making Durban famous for the significant role the city played in the development of soccer in South Africa at its early stages and onwards. The final matches were fielded at Somtseu Native Sports Ground, previously commonly referred to as Msizini because of close proximity with Msizini railway station, which was then the best facility previously located in the area between the then Durban railway station and the then Stamford Hill railway station. Based on this historical factual background, the researcher is led to believe that it could not have been far from the existing Somtseu Road in Durban. Different reports complement one another such that gaps in this history are filled. Mazwai's (2003) account reveals that prior to the formation of SACFA, the Johannesburg Bantu Football Association (JBFA) was formed in 1929 as a local soccer association along the same lines as D&D formed in 1916.

This development created a platform for the formation of the Pietermaritzburg Bantu Football Association (PBFA). Upon this foundation, both the PBFA and the Natal Bantu Football Association (NBFA) in 1929 helped to form SABFA in 1933. It is at this time (1929) that the massive support of

African teams such as Bush Bucks attracted large crowds to matches to the extent that businesses realised that soccer has potential for successful advertising. The game became so popular that white entrepreneurs started trying to sell sporting goods to the African soccer lovers. The trend continued even in the 1930s when the likes of Bakers Ltd used soccer sponsorship to improve business and their workforce (Kostopoulos, 2009). Alegi (2004) does not make an effort in his account to relate the popularity of teams like Bush Bucks, which is the oldest team that has ever played in the NSL, formed in 1912, and Bidvest Wits (formerly called Wits University) which was formed in 1921. The author is committing the same error that soccer commentators have been committing for many years by marginalising teams outside Gauteng by adding prefixes that are not official. They used to refer to Bush Bucks as Durban Bush Bucks whilst the name of the team was not Durban Bush Bucks but officially Bush Bucks and also referred to Durban African Wanderers, which was also incorrect for African Wanderers as a brand. They never make the mistake of referring to Kaizer Chiefs as Johannesburg Kaizer Chiefs. One wonders if this is ignorance about the impact of branding or a deliberate act to create an image that the foundation centre for soccer development by South African Blacks is Gauteng whereas that is not the case according to the documented history of soccer in South Africa.

The historical report (Football in South Africa 2004) adds to other accounts by mentioning that competitions started to feature in the administration of South African football, thereby contributing to its continuous development. It is reported that the Bakers Cup, the Suzman Cup, and the Godfrey South African Challenge Cup were established in 1932, 1935, and 1936 respectively. These competitions are reported to have entertained crowds in Durban and Johannesburg, which were later enhanced by the touring visits of British clubs to add to the hype and excitement that resulted from the events for the White South Africans. Added to that, the games between the other races were organized to try and unite soccer fans across the country.

As the segregation of races was entrenched and there was an increase in war-driven manufacturing, Africans had to migrate to cities to seek temporary residence and work. Harassment by the police was the order of the day. Africans sought relief by playing soccer. Soccer had intrinsic value that provided entertainment to the extent that Africans found a way to live with the adverse political conditions that were developing in the country. Soccer is characterised by simplicity that is not present in other sport codes. It is a game that does not require specific equipment or special facilities before it can be played, as long as there is an open space and something round to kick about. That is why it could withstand any kind of oppression over the past centuries (Gustafsson and Gjörlöf, 2013). The soccer games were characterised by excitement and unpredictability of the outcome. The years between the First and the

Second World Wars generated a platform for the development of football as a popular game in South Africa. The historical report (South African soccer history 2004) also highlights that plans and endeavours to unify soccer by the Inter-Race Soccer Board through organizing games between racially divided associations in the 1940s were thwarted by formal apartheid laws passed in 1948. However, what was happening despite political uncertainty signalled the dawn of a new era in South African football, although characterised by a lot of trials and setbacks during its gradual development.

In another historical record it is further accounted (Football in South Africa 2014) that the migration of soccer fans to cities brought about the establishment of popular teams like Orlando Pirates in 1937 and Moroka Swallows in 1947. However, it must be noted that this account is somewhat short of facts when it comes to famous teams that were established in the 1930s and before then. It does not mention the establishment of Bush Bucks in 1912 (Mazwai, 2003) and AmaZulu (previously known as Zulu Royals) in 1932, both founded in Durban. Although it is stated that the South African Soccer Federation (SASF) for Africans, Indians and Coloureds was formed in 1951 which was subsequently followed by the formation of the South African Soccer League (SASL), it also falls short of mentioning that the SASL was founded and administered initially in Durban as a result of the then very strong DDNFA previously better known as D&D. When it mentions the prominent players of the time, particularly those who played for Avalon Athletic, it is shy to mention the likes of Cedric “Sugar Ray” Xulu and Selby “Scara Wanda” Moyo as part of the SASL cohort. It must also be noted that these developments took place as an indication that soccer players and soccer lovers could not be deterred from enjoying the sport they love dearly despite isolation. It is necessary to highlight the fact that the establishment of SASL was the beginning of paying wages to players for their work such that other players could take up soccer as a full time career (Alegi, 2004). Although the practice was welcome, some players are reported to have been unable to go full time on soccer since only the wages of the best players warranted such a move. SASL was later replaced by the National Professional Soccer League (NPSL) which later became National Soccer League (NSL) in mid 1980s (Football in South Africa). Despite these developmental strides, racial segregation was a hindrance to international exposure.

As stated in the history (History of South African soccer 2004), the scenario of racially divided soccer saw the uplifting of Whites clubs to develop towards feeding the Whites Only national teams. This led to the acceptance of FASA by FIFA in 1958 as the officially recognised association in the country. The recognition led to the formation of the National Football League (NFL) in 1959 to serve the interests of Whites soccer players. South Africa was suspended for racism which led FASA to allow a mixed races match between Germiston Callies and the black African Pirates outside South Africa in Maseru

(Lesotho). FIFA lifted the suspension in 1963 but to no avail because the country planned to field an all Whites national team in the 1966 World Cup and an all Non-Whites national team in the 1970 World Cup. This led to FIFA re-instating the suspension in 1964. To FASA this development meant that they required another approach to appease FIFA.

FASA made another attempt (History of South African soccer 2004) to integrate soccer by planning to stage a non-racial fixture between Highlands Park of NFL and Orlando Pirates of SASL the venue of which was also to be outside the country. The then Minister of Interior thwarted the move by making an announcement that no Visas will be issued for anyone going to the match. Further than that, the 1976 political uprising put the last nail in the coffin as far as FIFA was concerned and that led to the death of FASA. Following the demise of FASA, the re-birth of a new structure called the Football Council of South Africa (FCSA) failed to unite soccer. This piece of historical information fills the gap left open by other accounts by providing detailed inadequate attempts to comply with FIFA policy.

South African soccer was therefore definitely isolated for three decades from 1961 to 1992 owing to the government of the time refusing to abandon segregation laws passed in 1948. FIFA would not compromise their policy of non-racial soccer. Be that as it may, informal links with the rest of the world helped in defying racial segregation in sport such that the introduction of television sparked off an increase in sponsorship of professional soccer. Besides informal links with the rest of the world, the development of the style and approach of play in South African soccer as it is known today was influenced by pre-colonial South African competitive tradition (Alegi, 2010). According to Alegi (2010), the modern day show of personal style and show of skill have their roots in pre-colonial agrarian contest of stick fighting in South Africa. The contest is also characterised by physical strength and masculinity. The competitive use and importance as socialisation of these indigenous traditions are deemed to have formed the basis for the style of modern soccer for black South Africans. It could be possible that this style influenced other races in South Africa to support African top flight teams.

This is evident in another historical account of the development of soccer in South Africa given by Whitaker (2010). Whitaker was a very young white South African when some of the events and experiences of Africans were characteristics of the country's political situation and their behaviour as soccer-loving people. His account complements the other historical background by adding that after the Africans, Coloureds, and Indians united to form the SASF in 1951 to which the Whites responded by not associating themselves with the already formed federation but rather formed their own soccer structure by the name of National Football League (NFL) in 1959. This is confirmation of the fact that

the then South African government was determined to segregate races on all aspects of their lives. The newly formed structure served the interests of the English-speaking Whites, featuring clubs like Durban City, Durban United, Cape Town City, Hellenic, Arcadia Shepherds, and Highlands Park, to mention a few. The author further relates how he bought an Orlando Pirates t-shirt in 1970 and wearing it in public to the surprise of African and White soccer fans, and Africans in general. The historical account also highlights the endeavour of the South African government to convince FIFA to believe that soccer was multi-racial by introducing the then widely publicised South African Games in 1976. These games were characterised by letting segregated soccer teams compete with one another.

However, the event that was the turning point in the history of South African football (Whitaker, 2010) was the mixed pick team that was put together to play a friendly match with the visiting Argentinian national team later in 1976, which game was won by South Africa. This attempt could have probably quickened the process of changing the mind-set of the advocates of segregation had it not been for the volatile political situation in the country. The repeal of the segregation (apartheid) laws in 1990 (Whitaker, 2010) paved the way for the founding of the South African Football Association (SAFA) and the welcoming back of South Africa by the Confederation of African Football (CAF) which was later complemented by the admission of South Africa by FIFA in 1992.

According to Kostopoulos (2009), the soccer game progressed despite isolation to the extent that in the 1980s large corporations like the South African Breweries increased their sponsorship of the NPSL and later the NSL which represented the interests of clubs owned and administered by Africans. The author's study revealed that the estimate number of soccer spectators of the league was around 4 million during the NPSL administration such that revenue generated was also in the region of R4 million. It further reports that the development created conflict amongst administrators resulting in the formation of the NSL. The NSL created another soccer division (premier division) known as the Premier Soccer League (PSL) under the guidance of Trevor Phillips to try and attract more television rights like the English Premier League (EPL) also known as Football Association Premier League (FAPL). The aim for rebranding was difficult to accomplish because DSTV in South Africa were not convinced that the commitment would be financially viable (Kostopoulos, 2009). As time went on more sponsorships were secured from ABSA, Nedbank, SABMiller, and Supersport as the South African broadcaster for DSTV which gave more financial muscle to run the PSL and its competitions. After the period of sluggish growth in the 1990s individual clubs Orlando Pirates, Mamelodi Sundowns, Kaizer Chiefs, Bloemfontein Celtic, and AmaZulu managed to secure more lucrative sponsorships in the mid to late 2000s (official club websites). The main factor that enabled the soccer teams as stated to secure lucrative

sponsorships is that these teams are characterised by having the larger followings compared to other professional soccer teams.

2.3.2 Developmental progress in post-apartheid era

Alegi (2010) highlights that after South Africa was accepted again to be a member country of FIFA in 1992, South African soccer became a multi-million rand business in close relation to growth to multi-million pound industry in Great Britain and multi-million other currencies worldwide. Pointing out to the differentiating factor of South African soccer, the study (Alegi: 2010) reveals that soccer fans in other countries in Africa are prone to support and watch European teams rather than local teams. It is reported that South Africa has a large fan base supporting local teams like Kaizer Chiefs and Orlando Pirates. The study further highlights another factor that business in South Africa tend to economically support (sponsor) teams from the richest province (Gauteng) thereby helping the likes of Kaizer Chiefs, Orlando Pirates, and Mamelodi Sundowns to draw the largest crowds to their games.

This account is supported by what is reported in soccer history (History of South African soccer 2004) that measures of South African soccer success in the context of Africa after advancing through decades of denial and disadvantage are the largest number of registered players (1.8 million); the highest television audiences; and the greatest number of spectators week after week. However, the scenario reported in the study by Alegi (2010) warrants noting that the sponsorship tendency of business as stated creates an undesirable inequality amongst teams in the Premier League and the National First Division such that teams outside Gauteng are relatively disadvantaged when it comes to TV revenue and marketing deals. This inequality has to be addressed by SAFA if South African soccer has to develop for the benefit of the whole country. The state of soccer as the most loved sport in South Africa has had some notable events and concerns according to News24 archives (2004 History of South African soccer). The national team that was put together after South Africa was re-admitted to FIFA, went through a series of revolutionary incidents from being coached by one coach who had to exit quickly after losing a number of games until a veteran coach was appointed and is the one that led the country to win the 1996 African Cup of Nations (Afcon). Owing to isolation from the continent and the rest of the world in the past, the national soccer team lost a series of games in 1991 against Cameroon, Zimbabwe, Zambia, and Nigeria such that the country could not qualify for the 1992 (Afcon) competition. However, after the 1992 (Afcon), CAF gave South Africa the opportunity to host the 1996 (Afcon) (Laduma: 2010).

A turn of events for Africa happened when South Africa bid for hosting the World Cup under the auspices of FIFA in 2006. As Pillay *et al.* (2009:) relate that although under dubious conditions South Africa could not win the bid to host the World Cup in 2006, the rules were changed that hosting the event would then on be on a rotational basis from one continent to another. As a result South Africa was given the right to host the FIFA 2010 World Cup. For the first time that the World Cup was to be hosted on African soil. This turn of events made it more than a South African event such that it was viewed as an African event. It is reported by the authors (Tomlinson and Young) that the 2006 World Cup helped Germany from being regarded as a country with no hospitality but rather with an unsavoury history which had led to separation to East, and West Germany.

The country got an opportunity to prove critics wrong since the event was organized to be successful. Furthermore, Germany benefited from nation building that changed perceptions that always linked the country with Nazism. This historical account by Pillay *et al.* (2009) confirms the details of the account given by Tomlinson and Young (2006) that hosting the FIFA World Cup tournament helped Germany to accomplish what was envisaged when the bid was decided. Would the same results be expected with regard to the South African situation? South Africa had suffered from racial segregation (apartheid) for decades which had resulted in disunited communities. It was expected that the country would benefit culturally to unite its people. The previous historical situations of both Germany and South Africa were similar before hosting the World Cup such that the after event expectations were also similar.

It is reported that South Africa was given the right to stage the FIFA World Cup finals on the same conditions as Germany in 2006. One of the conditions is that the host country signs an agreement with FIFA that regulates the flow of benefits associated with the tournament (Pillay *et al.*, 2009:55). The advertising rights were so restricted that within one kilometre of each stadium only FIFA-endorsed partners were allowed to promote their brands. Even street vendors who had high hopes to benefit from the tournament as they normally do in local competitions could not get anywhere within the stipulated radius. The level at which match tickets prices were set seemed very high for a third world country like South Africa. The lowest priced ticket was about R1000 (US\$128) whilst the price that South Africans are used to with regard to local professional games is around US\$2.6 on average (Pillay *et al.*, 2009:56-57). The other significant difference between the 2006 World Cup in Germany and the 2010 World Cup in South Africa is that the private sector footed the bill to upgrade and build stadia up to 60 per cent of the cost whilst in South Africa the government had to pay alone for infrastructure, stadia, media facilities, and security (Gustafsson and Gjörlöf, 2013:62). The authors go further to mention that although the turnover at malls, in hotels and in construction firms increased the Gross Domestic Product

did not increase more than 0.5 per cent, contrary to figures that were projected by government economists prior to hosting the World Cup. This growth is pitched at one tenth of what was predicted. The authors speculate that this could have been partly caused by less foreign nationals that visited the country during the hosting of the tournament where 500 000 were expected but only 250 000 arrived.

2.3.3 The national team in the post-apartheid era

The performance of Bafana Bafana after the winning of the Afcon 1996 has been gradually declining to the level of not qualifying for both final continental and final international competitions. One of the factors explored by different authors is lack of or poor soccer grass root development. Mundalamo (2012) begins by referring to hiring and firing coaches as not the way to solve the Bafana Bafana problems. Mundalamo (2012) names a few players who went through the Transnet SAFA School of Excellence and become remarkable players at club level since they had been identified and developed at teenage level. Amongst others, such players as Ninja Mofokeng, Lucky Maselesele, Steven Pienaar, and Dillon Shepard are stated as worthwhile products of grass roots development. After those few, the report mentions that SAFA then started to neglect grass root development by not allocating enough funds to identify players with potential at teenage level and to develop them for the national team and local soccer. It is further highlighted that such players Siyabonga Sangweni, Teko Modise, and Edward Manqele all of whom were only discovered at the age of 24 years having not represented the country at any of the under 20 competitions.

Mundalamo (2012) even mentions PSL teams like Kaizer Chiefs, Orlando Pirates, Mamelodi Sundowns, and Moroka Swallows having promoted some players from their development structures but all decided to abandon those structures and resorted to buying players at exorbitant prices without taking a leaf out of the book of teams like Barcelona in Spain. The author is suggesting that should South Africa, SAFA to be specific, invest in players from the age of 12, scouted from all over South Africa especially from rural areas, in terms of development and involvement in continental and international tournaments, the performance of the national team would greatly improve. It is appropriate to totally agree with this author since what has been happening and still happening is painting a false picture that South Africa is Gauteng and Soweto despite the historical background as to how soccer developed in the country from outside Gauteng to what it is today.

A recent initiative by Seeff Waterstone College Festival which took place between 5 and 9 April 2012 where Bradley Cernel and Glenn Salmon were ambassadors was an indication that some business

organizations are identifying potential in soccer (Facebook: Seeff, 2012). In this instance, Seeff formed a Sports Academy part of which is soccer since they sought assistance of ex-PSL players to be involved in the process. It would appear that if the Public Relations Department of SAFA could encourage such initiatives, the development of the game would benefit and that grass root soccer would be able to produce successful players for professional teams and consequently for Bafana Bafana.

It is not surprising that Darby and Solberg cited in Laduma (2010) report that promises by SAFA prior to 2010 FIFA World Cup were not fulfilled during and after the event, with particular reference to funding grass root level soccer development. The report even highlights that traders (mobile vendors) and local business establishments were not allowed to sell around the stadia. Apart from this observation, Alegi (2010) highlighted the mission accomplished by soccer for many decades in that soccer seemed to embody the boundless potential of a liberated and unified South Africa ahead of the historic vote of April 1994 that buried apartheid once and for all.

This appears to have been achieved constitutionally only since, according to Gustafsson and Gjörlöf (2013:44), venue problems still exist in South Africa as Bloemfontein Celtic have to deal with having to play on the stadium that traditionally is meant for rugby to the extent that the municipality or local administrators are reportedly reluctant to shed the view of the venue being meant for rugby the “white sport”. It is also stated that local soccer associations and some clubs experience funding problems according to a sports administrator and a political activist both interviewed by the authors. This is surprising when considering the fact stated in the account by Alegi (2004) that after the re-admission of South Africa to FIFA and CAF, and the participation of Bafana Bafana in the 1998 World Cup, the number of registered players rose to 1.8 million whilst corporate sponsorship had risen to R640 million by 2003/2004 soccer season. It would seem that the necessary steps have not been taken by soccer administrators to enable the whole country to benefit from reported improvements by Alegi (2004) to avoid the prevalent problems as reported by Gustafsson and Gjörlöf (2013).

It is ironical that there are still venue problems in South African soccer having been given opportunities by FIFA and CAF to develop the sport in the country. Further than the opportunities from FIFA and CAF certain strides were made by the soccer administrators to improve the PSL financially as well as the PSL clubs individually. According to Shandu (2008:36) prior to the hosting of the FIFA World Cup in 2010 the PSL entered into a tripartite agreement with Supersport International and South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) for television rights to broadcast games with an aim of developing the game of soccer. That agreement was entered into in order not to exclude lower income soccer fans

for whom it would have not be financially possible to access the broadcasting services hence the inclusion of free channels. Part of that tripartite broadcasting agreement has a provision to grant each PSL team R1m per month to keep them financially afloat whilst competing in the league.

Shandu (2008:37) even quotes the speech of Supersport International CEO emphasizing the point and effect of the agreement by saying that the public must prepare themselves for the broadcasting of both the matches and daily programmes which would elevate the PSL as a product. The author then notes that soccer is growing everywhere in the world commercially and that there is no reason South African soccer should not grow on the basis of the fact that the needs of the underprivileged are taken care of in the agreement between the PSL and Supersport. This is supported in a study by Bale (2002) in which it was highlighted that though sport was a useful tool in colonial power and post-colonialism, it manifests itself in the modern sporting world in several ways including the huge number of world class athletes. The soccer game has seen the likes of Eusebio from Mozambique and Kalamazoo Mokone from South Africa being icons of exceptional performers in soccer, both of which were colonies before.

2.3.4 The question of grass root soccer development

After support from CAF and FIFA, the question arises as to why grass root soccer is underfunded when there are other sponsoring partners like South African Breweries (SAB) and others who are not sponsoring the professional league. The concentration of funding to the national soccer team surely does not auger well for grass root development hence the ever deteriorating performance of Bafana Bafana. Another concern arising out of the study by Shandu (2008), wherein the second CEO of the PSL was quoted to have raised hopes of professional soccer teams that they would increase their revenue streams, is why some of the PSL teams are still struggling to secure lucrative sponsorships. If the reason is club performance, it would seem that the PSL has to encourage the teams to look at performance management system and apply it in the wake of what might be the expectations of organizations that are keen to promote brands in soccer as the details thereof are discussed in Chapter Four.

It is proper to applaud Supersport International, SAB, and other business organizations that have shown devoted support of South African soccer through sponsoring individual PSL teams, other teams at lower tier levels, and other competitions in support of SAFA's administration. However, there is another concern about the number of spectators that watch professional soccer matches at the stadia. This concern is based on comparisons with the passion shown by soccer fans in other countries in Europe and America. This has led to various studies conducted by different authors, some of whom are Isabirye and

Surujlal (2012). The qualitative study conducted by these authors was to establish motivational factors that determine attendance of PSL soccer matches by soccer fans at the South African stadia. The authors explored literature from which they noted a sport consumer motivation measure that was developed by Sloan, Bates, Davis, and Schweiger (1987) called sports Need for Achievement and Power Scales (SNAPS). Using this scale in a follow-up study in 1989, the authors who developed the scale derived five motivational factors amongst which there is need to release stress, entertainment, and stimulation seeking. Isabirye and Surujlal (2012) also found in literature that all studies that were conducted were in Britain, USA, Australia, Japan, Greece, and Romania, did not include soccer fans in South Africa.

Therefore, based on explored literature, Isabirye and Surujlal (2012) identified three dimensions of sport involvement viz. the behavioural dimension, the cognitive dimension, and the tendency dimension. The behavioural dimension can take two forms. It can be direct by actively participating in sport as a player/administrator or indirect participation as a spectator through reading about sport or watching sport on television or at a stadium. The authors' study focused on the indirect participation as a spectator or fan. The study revealed factors determining attendance of soccer matches at stadia as well as factors deterring spectators from attending soccer matches at stadia. The underlying factors for attendance were found to be individual attachment to soccer as a sport, team affiliation whereby meaning attending because the supported team is playing; quality and popularity of the playing teams regardless of team affiliation; and social and entertainment where attendance is for socializing with friends at the stadia. The deterring factors were found to be economic factors i.e. lack of funds to watch the matches at stadia; environmental and stadium facilities whereby matches attended are only at stadia that are well equipped in terms of facilities; and time schedule of matches when some of the spectators have to be at work during the match.

Some of the findings according to Isabirye and Surujlal (2012) about the tendency of attending soccer matches at stadia are not surprising, given the economic situation in South Africa where unemployment is rated amongst the highest in similar economies. It can also be expected that after the advent of soccer stadia that were built for the FIFA 2010 World Cup, some of the spectators would be enticed to the best stadia. However, this indicates a relatively lower level of passion for the game since in other countries soccer fans fill stadia that are very old and primitive. Team affiliation, quality and popularity of playing teams, time schedule, and social and entertainment are determining factors which could be common worldwide. It must be noted that it is disappointing that South African soccer fans have a relatively lower passion for the game given the history of the country where soccer was the only game available to the masses of the country.

2.3.5 The perceived low level of passion among South African fans

The disappointing low level of passion among South African soccer fans is surprising since the technological advancement resulting in handheld devices to watch soccer matches. The leisure of watching the game at home and other technological developments are present in other countries and that is where they were first introduced but the level of enthusiasm about going to stadia is phenomenal there. What makes it even more disappointing is the fact that South Africa was given an opportunity by FIFA to host the 2010 World Cup aiming to develop the country through soccer. The low levels of passion are contrary to the expectations created by corporate and government investment in local soccer prior to the FIFA 2010 World Cup. Bidvest Wits was the focus of the study (Kostopoulos, 2009:109) on the impact of investment whereby the team still fails to draw spectators or attract more supporters to its games having been heavily sponsored by strong brands. The team cannot even fill its own small stadium with its own supporters, ticket sales and merchandise sales have not been increasing in response to the investments by strong brands.

This trend relating to Bidvest Wits in particular is not in line with the findings of several studies that perceived congruence between sport and brands is a critical pre-requisite for brand personality reinforcement/creation through sponsorship (Kim and Yongjae, 2013:547). Kim and Yongjae's (2013) study revealed that there are significant differences between the personality of the sponsoring brands prior to co-branding and personality of the sponsoring brands after co-branding on congruent dimensions of sport and brand personality. The authors define brand personality as human characteristics that are associated with the brand. In the case of the soccer team researched upon by Kostopoulos (2009) no brand personality was created or reinforced through sponsorship. Despite the lack of expected passion in South African fans in general and pertaining to the club referred to, there has been a new development in women's soccer.

Soccer has been a men's game since it was introduced in South Africa. With the game's history perceived by some as having been one of the tools of colonialism, it can be noted though that its development in South Africa has seen another gender emerging as interested in the game. Pelak (2006) avers that because of its vast popularity and significance to masculinity, nationalism, and capitalism, women's entrance into the most popular sport – soccer - has the potential for radically changing local gender relations around the world. The author goes on to state that the rise of mass women's movement in South Africa during the early 1990s is a prime example of emerging gender politics on the African continent. This can be true looking at how fast women's soccer has grown in South Africa. Women's

soccer on a serious note started about two decades ago in South Africa. According to Morgan (2014), Banyana Banyana, (the senior women's national team) has been the strongest team in Southern Africa and the best in Africa since it was formed. The team's performance has been commendable in all competitions. They have participated in CAF competitions as well as in the World Cup, putting up a good contest whenever they featured and won trophies.

2.3.6 Global demands on South African soccer

After apartheid was buried, South Africa and South African soccer players got more exposed to the continental and global factors that impact upon the game. With regard to sponsors of the game, Desai (2008) refers to South African Breweries (SAB) which has now become SABMiller that it has become a global sponsor of soccer since it sponsors the national teams including Bafana Bafana through Castle Lager. It is felt by many soccer fans that the company must still concentrate on the interests of its primary market, which is South Africa and Africa. Further than this concern, South African players also became victims of the European teams that trade with them among themselves thereby keeping revenue within Europe. The other exploitation cited by Scott (2015:1) is the one in the form of de-skilling the African players when they play for European teams, which in the long run make them lose their national emotional identity. It has also been observed by Taylor (2006) and Poli (2006) that the European teams have developed a habit of denying the African players the opportunity to represent their countries in international competitions. Apart from this global demand, more professionalism is now expected from soccer teams in the country. The professionalism referred to is that of managing individual players.

Having raised the question about the underfunding of grass root soccer it is important to note another study which brings to the fore an issue of lack of social support for soccer players in South Africa. According to a variety of sources cited by Manzini (2012), employment assistance programmes (EAPs) are sponsored by employers and that they are work-based support programmes put in place to assist and motivate troubled employees to deal with and solve daily issues that more often than not impact upon their work performance. It is further explained that EAPs are concerned with preventing, identifying and treating employee problems that have the potential of negatively affecting or impacting upon job performance. EAPs are said to include counselling that goes as far as tackling personal or domestic problems. Because of the comprehensiveness of the problems targeted through EAPs, the author adopted the definition by Manzini (2012) where EAPs are referred to as programmes that are based in the work site and are designed to assist organizations address issues of low productivity as well as help employees

identify and resolve personal problems such as marital, family, emotional, legal, health, stress, substance abuse, and all other personal problems that could have a negative effect on performance at work.

It would seem that this issue of EAPs as raised by Manzini (2012) is a pertinent issue that is also very relevant to soccer players as they get employed by various soccer clubs since they do sign employment contracts as in other industries and that they are normally expected to devote all their work time to the clubs which employ them. Based on the fact that EAPs are generalized across all industries, Manzini (2012) highlighted circumstances that warrant the provision of EAPs in professional soccer. One is that soccer players are recruited at their early teens and can play up to their early 30s and that the soccer player's career is relatively shorter than other careers such that it averages between 10 and 15 years. Since some soccer players start when they are fairly young, they need financial advice and guidance because of huge salaries that they earn at a very young age. Further to that, they are always overwhelmed by celebrity status which brings about a lot of changes in their individual lives to the extent of finding themselves having changed for the worse. It is further stated in the study that media inflates their status and can also break them by blowing incidents out of proportion when they stumble in behaviour because they end up not regaining their private life after assuming celebrity status. All these circumstances highlighted in the study by Manzini (2012) are characteristic of the careers, lives, and plights of soccer players and the role media plays in making or breaking them. It is also a fact that the soccer fraternity worldwide needs to look into the peculiar circumstances of soccer players as employees of the industry.

The findings of the study by Manzini (2012) revealed that soccer clubs that participated in the study did not have adequate support structures in place to assist players in their private lives. Participating soccer players revealed that their soccer club did not provide EAPs or any similar programmes except for medical care. Some participating soccer players were not even aware if their club has EAPs or not, meaning that they were not well informed of what they were supposed to know about their being employees of the club. Participating officials also confirmed what the footballers revealed.

It is quite clear from the different historical accounts of the development of South African soccer that the sport is robust enough to withstand any kind of hindrance as a result of any factor in the environment, be it political, structural, financial, and otherwise. This study will establish if some of the findings can be generalised to all professional soccer clubs or they are peculiar to certain clubs. It will further be determined if professional soccer clubs regard players as employees in the same manner as they do to coaches and technical staff when it comes to job performance. It is also envisaged that the study will

indicate whether the investment of money in the form of soccer sponsorship has had an equitable mind shift of all involved for the betterment of the game.

2.4 CONCLUSION

Soccer has a very rich history which started in Great Britain and has become the most liked and watched sport in the world. Its development has defied all kinds of antagonism aimed at killing it as early as it surfaced since it started during the times of nobility and the interference of religion in state matters. Soccer has grown to be an intangible product that is preferred by most people who require entertainment to de-stress as well as people who are passionate about the development of the game. Furthermore, soccer has developed to teams that have become reference groups for individuals who love sport such that many soccer fans would go to the extent of buying soccer and sport branded product to show their affiliation to the clubs of their choice. Soccer is well organized into associations at different levels in South Africa as it is the case in other countries of the world as well as other countries in Africa.

Soccer has also become a national developmental tool for nation building as well as GDP enhancement of all countries that have embraced the game as part of national culture. It is a sport that is no longer mainly played as a pastime as it was at its early developmental stages. Since its conceptualisation and development over the centuries it has evolved from its crude nature to the current refined and regulated sport. In its current state it has been commercialised like all products that are conceived and developed to satisfy consumer needs. It is now categorised as one of the most loved entertainment kind of sport thereby rendering itself as a desired product by consumers since it satisfies a specific need. It then requires attention similar to other products. The history of soccer has revealed that it has a unique capability of developing nations that require re-building after any catastrophic experience normally deriving from political unrest and other political matters as was the case in Germany, and South Africa during the 2010 World Cup finals. In the case where there are political crisis or conflict like in the Middle East, soccer has proven to be a catalyst for people to cherish hope that eventually they will survive the political turmoil. It must be noted though that due to migration of African soccer players to European teams, their African skill (flair) is destroyed because of more focus on monetary prizes to be won by the teams than the focus on the entertaining characteristic of the game.

The development of soccer as a sport in South Africa has resulted in women's soccer developing into what it is currently, showing that South Africa is keeping pace with the rest of the world. Women soccer is fairly new in South Africa such that the teams from which the women's national team draw players

are still few and far between. This dimension of soccer has not developed to a state where it attracts the required funding and sponsorship. Be that as it may, the women's national team (Banyana Banyana) is doing fairly well by winning competitions under the circumstances. Despite the relative success of the women's national team, television coverage of the team's games needs to improve in order to increase spectatorship. There are still questions and concerns about the level of grass root soccer development in South Africa. It is also notable that despite the segregation (apartheid) policy of the previous government of South Africa soccer proved to be a robust kind of sport and a product of entertainment for its lovers. However, being part of the global soccer world, South African soccer clubs need to keep pace with the professionalism of managing their teams and individual players for the success of the clubs.

For better understanding of soccer for what it is now compared to what it originally was, it needs to be looked at from the point of view of marketing as one of the products that are offered in the market for satisfying entertainment and other needs. Soccer will be put into proper perspective by relating it to the relevant components and practices of marketing as a product that deserves special attention because of its unique nature. Chapter 3 will put soccer in its proper perspective as an intangible product. Dedicating a whole chapter to the discussion of soccer as a product will also illustrate why marketers have focused their attention to funding sponsorships of the game for the purpose of exposing their brands to their respective target markets. The de-skilling of African players when attracted by clubs in developed countries takes away the entertainment provided by scoring many goals in a single match and making spectacular moves which are meant to enhance the brands sponsoring the teams. This will be explored when the co-branding themes are established in the study. From inception through its development to what it is today, soccer has become an important product to entertainment consumers. Soccer is a service, an intangible product that is enjoyed without having to take it away. The concept 'product' in tangible form and intangible form (service) and marketing shall be discussed in the next chapter with a view to also highlighting the marketing mix pertaining to service. The discussion will also indicate the carefulness required to apply the extended marketing mix to specialized marketing of intangible product which soccer is one of them. The next chapter is an endeavour to the soccer product in the context of product as an umbrella term.

CHAPTER 3: SOCCER - THE PRODUCT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

On the basis of its historical development as a sport and its power to attract big business to partner with in order to achieve mutual goals, soccer is a unique kind of intangible product. This chapter will discuss soccer as a product in relation to the marketing mix. The marketing mix relating to this unique intangible product will be discussed to illustrate the difference to the marketing mix relating to tangible products.

Branding as a product strategy and its benefits will be covered to show how it relates to soccer as a product. This coverage of branding will be supplemented by adding information as to the manner in which brands are developed to enable consumers to differentiate between similar products belonging to different marketers. The coverage of branding will extend to co-branding as a strategy pursued for the benefit of more than one organization.

3.2 SOCCER - A SPORT

Since soccer has developed to what it is, as described above, it is demanded by people who want it to satisfy an entertainment need. As a product it requires to be marketed. Marketing exists when exchanges takes place. An exchange is the act or process of receiving something valuable by giving up something of value (Jobber, 2010:2). In the context of soccer, the exchange takes place when a spectator watches a soccer match having purchased a ticket to gain access to the stadium. The exchange characterizes activities performed in buying and selling of products. Exchange only happened when a consumer became aware of a compelling need to be satisfied. Otherwise it would not happen. The other needs that were not perceived as compelling were ignored by consumers until marketing developed to assist (Cant and van Heerden, 2013:3-4). Soccer for which the seller (teams involved and league) offers to the spectator in an exchange is co-branded if the jerseys of the players have more than one logo and more than one brand name. Co-branding happens when two or more marketers agree to have their brand names and logos on the package of one product like in the case of Simba and Mrs Ball's Chutney logos appearing on one packet of crisps or when a spectator sees the name of Aon and Manchester United on a soccer jersey. Co-branding leverages two or more brand equities to the benefit of one product (Shiffman, Kanuk & Wisenblit, 2010:236). Co-branding is discussed in more detail in Section 3.7.

Marketing as it is known currently has existed out of a series of business developmental stages that pre-existed what is currently practiced. The marketing concept developed out of necessity through an evolutionary process. The process was characterised by the production era prior to the First World War when individuals and households had plenty money to spend. Manufacturers simply manufactured a product that they thought is needed by consumers without finding out from consumers if they would buy those product items pushed through the market since financial resources were plentiful. After the First World War the situation changed dramatically since the war cost everyone all the money they used to throw around without having to think twice about it. The manufacturers found themselves with an abundance of products that were not moving through the market as it used to before. That brought about the idea of having to approach prospective customers personally to sell the goods that were not moving in the market. That was the birth of salesmanship practiced through personal selling and management of the sales force (Etzel *et al.*, 2010:26-27).

Salesmanship did not succeed as expected to clear large stocks of goods that were not demanded by the market. The problem became worse after the Second World War which was more costly than the first one. After this war it became clear that no product must be manufactured without having to find out first if it is required by the market (Kotler and Keller, 2012:27). That was the birth of the marketing concept/consumer orientation which the essence of the modern day marketing (Etzel *et al.*, 2010:27-29). Unlike the marketing concept, co-branding developed like something that manifests itself from a hidden phenomenon like genes since it just surfaced in the process of marketing improvement. As it gained momentum, it then spread to other human activities like sport as it will be explained how important it is to marketing.

3.2.1 The nature of marketing

According to Cant and van Heerden (2013:3-4), marketing is said to be a process by which an organisation puts an emphasis on satisfying customers' needs and wants, by offering the product in consideration of the appropriateness of price, promotion, and place. This process is followed to forge relationships with relevant stakeholders in a changing marketing environment. In their explanation of marketing, Kotler and Keller (2012:27) define marketing as activities about identifying and meeting human and social needs. This definition is too short and lacking other fundamental factors of marketing. However, though short, this definition is closely related to the one subscribed to by the Chartered Institute of Marketing (CIM), UK (Bhattacharjee, 2006:115), which explains marketing as a process of responsibly managing the identification, anticipation and satisfaction of customer needs to earn profit.

The one given by Cant and van Heerden (2013) is loaded too much and the authors are trying to coin a definition that is perfect but the end result is that it is too long-winded and has a potential of confusing the reader.

Kotler and Keller (2013) go further by making reference to the definition of marketing according to the American Marketing Association (AMA) which reads: “marketing is the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners and society at large”. Considering the exchanges that a marketer has to cope with, Kotler and Keller (2013) come to the conclusion that another concept arises deriving from the definition by the AMA. The authors identify the concept of marketing management as an applied science of selecting target markets, generating and sustaining more customers by creating superior customer value that is easily perceived. This concept lays a foundation of a social definition of marketing as the authors suggest. Kotler and Keller (2013) coined a social definition which posits that marketing is a societal process by which customers and consumers attain products that are designed to satisfy their needs and wants. This definition approached from a social point of view is more descriptive of what marketing is about. Definitions of marketing complement one another.

Another definition worthy of consideration is the one given by Etzel *et al.* (2010: 46) where they define marketing as business activities organized and designed systematically to plan, price, promote, and distribute products aimed at satisfying the needs of target markets in order to achieve organizational goals. What is notable about this definition is that it refers to the fact that marketing is about doing business and also that all activities performed in a systematic manner, meaning that cohesion in the activities is a pre-requisite. It complements the one given by Kotler and Keller (2013). McDaniel, Lamb and Hair (2013:3) depart from evaluating the AMA definition of marketing. The authors argue that marketing involves more than just activities performed by a group of people in a defined area or department. The authors support their argument by quoting words of Packard, the cofounder of Hewlett-Packard who stated that marketing is a very important factor of business to be the responsibility the marketing department only. Having argued as to what marketing entails, McDaniel *et al.* (2013) end up not settling on a definite definition of their own thinking but rather throw light onto how marketing evolved from other orientations to what it is currently. However, these authors’ reference to the often-quoted words of Packard indicates that they also understand marketing as a set of activities in the context of doing business for the entire organization. Other authors as will be related in the ensuing paragraph approach the definition from a different angle that enhances the concept of marketing.

Panda (2008:10) approaches the definition of marketing by firstly referring to Theodore Levitt's statement that selling bears the orientation of the seller needs and marketing is oriented to satisfying buyer's needs. The statement goes on to say that selling is preoccupied with turning products into cash whilst marketing is organised for satisfying customer needs by offering products and supporting services. The author gets into the debate of differentiating selling from marketing but eventually attempts to rather explain marketing than to commit to a definition. The explanation subsequently given by the author for marketing is that it is a process that starts with the identification of consumer needs and will not end until consumer feedback is taken to measure his or her satisfaction. The process is further described as characterised by a chain of activities comprising production, packing, promotion, pricing, distribution, and then selling. What is notable in this explanation is that it includes and regards selling as part of marketing which is universally understood in the business management. Moreover, this explanation is in line with the marketing concept based on the premise that marketing begins and ends with the consumer.

The definitions of marketing discussed so far are either aligned to the AMA or the CIM. Having made reference to the perspectives of the AMA and the CIM in explaining what marketing is, Baines, Fill and Page (2008:5) make a further reference to the French perspective of marketing. According to the French perspective, marketing is an attempt to make organizations competitive in their respective markets in order to positively influence the behaviour of their publics with an offering whose perceived value is durably superior. This definition adds another dimension to explaining what marketing is since it emphasizes positioning of a product in relation to competing products. Customer value is only considered in an earlier Harvard Business School's (2006) definition which refers to marketing as the process whereby a business creates value for its chosen target market, where value is created by satisfying customer needs. What is emphasized in this definition is the creation of value for a specific target market. The approach in this definition is closely related to that of Kotler and Keller (2013) that marketing is a societal process whereby individuals and groups (businesses and consumers) obtain what they need and want by freely exchanging products and services of value with others normally using approved currency and is consistent with the marketing concept.

According to Bühler and Nufer (2009:18) marketing has evolved from simply developing, selling, and delivering products. It has progressed to be more concerned with the establishment and sustenance of mutually satisfying long-term relationships. This emphasis on long-term relationships is not necessarily new but already the core of the marketing concept. No matter how the term marketing is defined, the function of marketing is normally approached through the marketing mix. The definition that has a clear

bearing on the marketing mix is that of a recent Harvard Business School (2010) which states that marketing is the process by which business plans and executes the conception, pricing, promotion, and distribution of ideas, goods, and services to foster legal exchanges aimed at satisfying individuals' and companies' objectives. It directly explains the process as characterized by a mix of four elements referred to as the marketing mix. This definition limits the scope of the marketing mix bearing in mind that the components of the marketing mix have increased with better understanding of the term product to include intangible products as well.

The discussion of what marketing is has indicated that it is a discipline that is a catalyst of business since it is the factor of business that drives sales which in turn brings in revenue used to finance all the operations for the purpose of making profit. This business catalyst is characterised by distinct components which are not independent of one another but needing to be harnessed together to get the best out of marketing. When harnessed together they are referred to as the marketing mix. When the marketing mix is discussed it will become clear how the concept has evolved over the years due to the modern understanding of the product as meaning both tangible and intangible versions thereof.

3.3 THE MARKETING MIX

A marketing mix initially comprised of four components viz. product, price, promotion, and place (distribution), hence the well-known four Ps of marketing. This was in the early stages of the advent of the marketing concept after the Second World War. As marketing evolves over the decades thereafter, there has been an addition of a further three Ps as will be discussed later. The other three additional Ps are people, process, and physical environment (Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff, Terblanche, Elliot and Klopper, 2010:470-471).

3.3.1 Product

A product is a means by which an organization satisfies customers' needs. Lamb *et al.* (2010) go on to say that a product is anything tangible or intangible that an organization offers to potential customers with the aim of satisfying a need. Lamb *et al.* (2010) explain the concept of the product as holistically meant to include quality levels, styling, specially designed features, durability, packaging, range of sizes or options, warranties, after sales service, and the brand image as important factors. This explanation is also subscribed to by Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2012:23). This definition is broad since it encompasses both consumers and organizations.

According to Jobber (2010:302) a product can be anything that is aimed at satisfying customer needs. The author goes on to mention that there are two types of products viz. physical products, and services. Jobber's definition uses the term customer instead of consumer in order to cover all entities that require products for need satisfaction. Cant *et al.* (2013:164) define a product as a physical good or service which is obtained by the consumer and which has the aim of satisfying the needs of the consumer as a result of the product's direct use, with additional factors, services, and perceptions of the product such as being useful, desirable or convenient. This definition is very narrow because it only refers to consumers who buy products for personal or household use thereby excluding buyers who buy products to use them for producing other products. The approach to defining a product by Lamb *et al.* (2010:359) is that a product is collective of factors, both favourable and unfavourable that a person receives in legal exchange. It goes further to distinguish between tangible and intangible types of products. Like in the case of Cant *et al.* (2013:164), this definition makes reference only to a person meaning a consumer thereby limiting the definition. However, it makes reference to an exchange which is the essential in marketing.

Another definition of a product (Kotler & Keller, 2012:347) which is different from the ones already provided refers to a product as anything that can be offered to buyers and users to satisfy a want or need, which might include physical goods, services, experiences, events, persons, places, properties, organizations, information, and ideas, offered individually or collectively. This is a better attempt to define a product because anything that can feature in an exchange is stated in the definition. An exchange (Lamb *et al.*, 2013:3) is a desirable outcome of marketing where people give up something of value to receive something of value they would rather have. The authors go further to qualify what an exchange is by listing conditions that must prevail for a legal exchange to exist. The conditions are: there must be at least two parties to an exchange; each party has something of value to the other party; each party is capable of communication and delivery; each party has an option to accept or reject the exchange offer; and, that each party is willing to deal with the other party. Consumers will always accept the product not only on the basis of its visible and invisible attributes, but on the basis of its branding as well. What people normally give up in modern society is money in order to gain something of value they ought to have. The money paid, usually equivalent to the value of what is to be received, is referred to as price.

3.3.2 Price

Price has been defined by different authors from different angles. According to Linton and Donnelly (2009:51), a price is the monetary value equated to a product or service, the value that anybody might

be prepared to pay for the product. The authors continue to expand that price is the component of the marketing mix that brings about revenue or income and possibly profit for the organization. This definition explains the nature of price comprehensively. More light is thrown into the concept in a definition by Schindler (2012:3) where the explanation is that price is that which is given for a product in a commercial exchange. The definition is further supplemented with a list of different formats of price, depending on the nature of the product. The formats listed are price of a tangible good; rent for accommodation, interest for borrowed funds, fee for a service, premium for insurance, toll for use of a highway or freeway, a salary for monthly paid labour, wage for weekly paid labour, and commission for units sold in personal selling. This approach to the definition of price is even more comprehensive since it gives different formats of the concept price. These two definitions give a clear indication as to the importance of price as an integral part of the marketing mix.

For an organization to set an appropriate price in relation to the target market it has to choose from a few alternative pricing strategies. The most commonly pursued strategy is the cost-plus strategy. This strategy is characterized by taking all cost items involved in making the product available and then adding a mark-up or desired profit margin (Fullerton, 2010:157). The author explains further that the mark-up can be a predetermined absolute figure, or it may be an established percentage. This approach justifies the price set for a product on the basis of costs incurred in production plus a desired profit margin. The other approach is referred to as value-based pricing whereby the price is set on the basis of buyers' perceptions of value instead of the seller's costs (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:305-307). These authors explain two sub-approaches viz. good-value pricing and value-added pricing. Good-value pricing is applying a combination of quality and good service when setting a price.

With this approach, a marketer would introduce less-expensive versions of established brand name product to meet the needs of consumers who like the established brand but lack enough economic means to buy it. In the case of value-added pricing, the firm must build a pricing strategy characterised by the ability to set higher prices based on factors desired by customers and achieving higher margins without losing market share (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010). In terms of this approach the marketer would for example determine the market price of the product category and then add different values for superior durability, superior reliability, superior service, and longer warranty on parts as it is done by Caterpillar (Kotler & Keller, 2012:420-421).

It would appear that a marketer who prices the product in this manner has to ensure that the perceived value of the product is never compromised in all aspects of the product, if it is to retain the pricing

power. A football association can price the match tickets in this manner for competitions that are characterised by a lot of hype amongst soccer fans who are eager to witness the outcome and marketers who want to expose their brands during the match. The same association may charge a lower ticket cost-based price for a normal league game featuring the same teams where the ticket price for a cup game were higher and value-based. The perceived value for entertainment (a sport product) varies according to the sports code. It would appear that the ticket prices for rugby matches far exceed those of soccer matches (SAFA and Rugby Unions official websites). When a marketer has finally set the appropriate price for the product, it becomes necessary to deal with issues of how to promote the product with reference to its attributes and the price charged. The price at which the product is offered has a bearing on how consumers perceive the value of the brand.

3.3.3 Promotion

Promotion is normally considered as the third component of the marketing mix. Etzel *et al.* (2010:378) refer to promotion as a marketing activity which uses various tools to inform, persuade, and remind target audiences about products offered in the market. It is explained as a process aimed at bringing about awareness of the product, its attributes, the benefits it provides, how it works, how it is operated, and where and how it can be obtained. This explanation is similar to the one given by Cant (2010) where the authors approach the definition of promotion from the communication point of view. It is stated that the business would have to communicate with its target markets with an aim to inform, persuade, and remind. In the act of informing, the target audience must be told about availability of the product whilst in the act of persuading the marketer pleads with the consumers to buy the product. From another angle, Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2012:23) state that promotion is a tool to communicate the products benefits to their target markets thereby mentioning that the communication can be done through advertising, personal selling, public relations, sales promotion, sponsorships, direct marketing, and publicity. This definition does not specifically emphasize creation of awareness, persuasion, and reminding as the aims of the process. It also does not mention that two or more of the promotional aspects can be integrated to function simultaneously as integrated marketing communication (IMC).

It is important to mention that promotion of a product is a complex component of the marketing mix. A marketer must decide on the type of combination of the different aspects of promotion as have been identified by Belch and Belch (2012:41). Such a decision leads to what is referred to as the IMC. The determinants of the IMC are the available financial resources (budget), the nature of the product, product attributes, positioning of the product, characteristics of the target audience, cultural factors and other

factors, and a whole host of other factors pertaining to the external marketing environment. The influencing factors in the task (market) environment would be competition, quantitative and qualitative aspects of the market, consumerism whilst the influencing factors in the macro environment would be exchange rate, interest rate, social factors, legal factors, and technological factors (Lamb *et al.*, 2010:40-43). Any vehicle used to facilitate promotion is referred to as a medium of promotion. Promotion media are broadly classified as print and electronic media. Print media are known as newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, posters, billboards, promotion vouchers, etc. Electronic media traditionally meant radio, television, and electronic billboards.

Having achieved the aim of persuasion (purchase), the marketer keeps on reminding the consumers that should the need arise again, the product is still available for satisfying the need. Both texts as cited refer to these three elements as a communication process, which makes good sense. However, for this process to succeed, perception is the key consumer behavioural theme which is a catalyst by characteristics. Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:132) define perception as the process by which an individual or group selects, organizes, and interpret stimuli into a meaningful and holistic picture of the situation under scrutiny. According to Babin and Harris (2013:45), value cannot be communicated (in promotion) without involving consumer learning, and perception. On the basis of this statement, the authors then define perception as referring to a consumer's awareness and interpretation of reality. This definition is too concise to enable understanding of the critical elements of perception as compared to the one given by Schiffman and Kanuk (2014) that perception is the process by which an individual or group selects, organizes, and interpret stimuli into a meaningful and holistic picture of the situation under scrutiny.

The nature of perception is explained by Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2012:147) as the process whereby people select, organize and interpret stimuli in response to sensations arising out of the senses of sight, sound, smell, touch and taste in order to form a meaningful picture of the situation under observation. This definition is similar to that of Schiffman and Kanuk (2014) except that it is extended to mention the five senses responsible for responding to stimuli. Joubert (2010:56-57) defines perception in exactly the same words as Schiffman and Kanuk (2014) but goes on to mention the process of perception as characterised by exposure, attention, and interpretation which logically is followed by memory as an aspect of learning. This definition paints a clearer picture compared to the ones already highlighted. A similar comprehensive definition is also given by Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013:272) where perception is referred to as a process that begins with exposure and attention to marketing stimuli, and ends with the interpretation of the whole series of the steps by targeted consumers. The authors go on to harness information processing as steps of deciphering pieces of information during which stimuli

are noticed, turned into meaningful information and stored. This extended explanation of the nature of perception links perception and learning. Learning about the product is the ultimate aim of promotion, considering that the nature of promotion as characterised by activities used to inform, persuade, and remind target markets about products offered in the market. This is one definition that completes the picture of promotion by linking it to consumer learning.

For decades, marketers had developed tried and tested combinations of the aspects of promotion to create IMCs for various products such that it was no longer a daunting task to formulate an IMC for a brand. As innovation kept on trickling from technological advancement, the world saw the advent of the Internet. The Internet changed the face of retailing by bringing about online shopping (Grewal & Levy, 2008:166). This development caused the marketing of some products to evolve, especially the offering of financial products like banking, travelling, leisure and holidaymaking. It further attracted many authors to watch and monitor how this innovation tended to impact upon marketing.

Belch and Belch (2012:490) give an account as to why there was a rapid adoption of the Internet. The authors established that the first reason for the rapid adoption of the Internet is the consumers' eagerness to access information that is easily obtainable. As a second reason, the convenience and speed with which the information can be obtained coupled with the ability to control what and how much is received has had great impact on consumers' adoption of Internet as a product of necessity. The third reason is that the ability to do e-business through the use of one's personal computer is also enticing since it now seems there is almost nothing that cannot be found or bought via the World-Wide Web. The advent of the Internet has brought about an extension of the variety of media that are available to marketers to communicate with the target audiences. Social media networks (SMNs) have taken society by storm. The vehicle that facilitates the proliferation of the SMNs is the smartphone.

The hype created by this new cyber-based communication does require circumspection on the part of marketers, in order not to get too carried away with its use. Kerpen (2011:9) outlines what social media can and can't do. The author states that social media cannot make up for a bad product, company, or organization – meaning that social media can rather hurt the marketer by quickly spreading a bad service, which would require a lot of expense in damage control through public relations. However, the other side of the coin is that social media can quickly make a marketer aware if products, employees, or processes are bad. It is also stated that social media will not lead to overnight increase in sales. Furthermore, the author warns that social media are not free although joining the networks is free. The

time spent and resources utilised to set up, build and execute a likeable social media promotion campaign cost a lot of money when quantified.

The emergence of this new type of media has complicated marketers' decisions in formulating an integrated marketing communications strategy. This may be caused by the trend where most youthful people who own smartphones spend less time on traditional promotional media thereby affecting the timing of exposure and the apportionment of expenditure among different chosen media. Chadwick and Hamil (2010) concur with Kerpen (2011) on the finding that new media offers many opportunities, but outline the challenges in developing and integrating new media into the soccer enterprise as (1) identifying objectives and opportunities for integrating new media into marketing; (2) determining what specific new media technologies are appropriate for marketing communications; (3) developing or funding relevant new media management skills for marketing success; (4) creating new financial resources to maintain existing levels of media expenditure and funding to justify the cost; (5) developing necessary production skills within the enterprise to capture and store digital content and use it effectively and efficiently for product quality; and (6) sourcing the technological skills that will enable all the previous challenges to be overcome.

It is also common to find that soccer teams utilize publicity and public relations as their prime aspect of promotion. In most cases soccer teams appoint a Public Relations Officer to specifically take responsibility of all public affairs of the team. Although public relations is one aspect of promotion which in turn is a component of the marketing mix, public relations have developed into a specialised field of marketing (Etzel *et al.*, 2010) such that some institutions of higher learning are offering a programme that leads to the qualification. The soccer fraternity is one of the sectors that require qualified people in public relations. This situation in South Africa is a sign that professional teams are inclined to protect brand images of their teams in case there are negative threats in the external marketing environment.

3.3.4 Place (distribution)

Consumer learning is not complete if it does not include directives as to how to access the product. Place (distribution) is normally referred to as the fourth 'P' in the marketing mix. According to Panda (2007:428), distribution involves processes to place finished goods for use or consumption at the right location, in required numbers, and at the right time for final consumption and usage. It is further stated that distribution encompasses the flow of goods and change of ownership from manufacturer to the

customers. Cant and van Heerden (2013:293) refer to distribution as activities to make the needed products and services in required quantities at the exact time, and at the accessible place. These different authors approach the definition from the same point of view but in both instances the focus is only on consumers and other buyers e.g. business buyers are not thought of. Panda (2007:428) mentions usage in addition to consumption although it is not clear why he adds this term. Vasudeva's (2006:369) definition of distribution is that it is the course that goods take between production and the final consumers. Besides being very concise, it is also focused on consumers only. Other authors explain distribution in the context of the marketing channel.

McDaniel *et al.* (2013:449) define a channel of distribution as a structure of interdependent organizations that are involved in the business of making products or services available for use or consumption by end consumers or business users. According to Kotler and Keller (2012:437) a distribution channel is a set of interdependently-owned organizations engaged in the process of providing availability of products for use or consumption. McDaniel *et al.* (2013:449) and Kotler & Keller (2012:437) share the same view and also include other customers instead of consumers only. As far as Etzel *et al.* (2007) are concerned, the full scope of physical distribution in the context of the manufacturers includes the movement of raw materials from source of supply to production facilities and the further movement of finished products from production facilities to the final users' locations. Theron and Strydom (2010:171-172) explain physical distribution as the process of moving raw material, half-finished and finished products to and from the provider to the intermediaries, and then further to the customer. Physical distribution is regarded as synonymous with logistics in this text and intermediaries are stated as participants in the process. The definitions of distribution by Etzel *et al.* (2007) and Theron and Strydom (2010) are the most comprehensive since they trace the movement from the sources of raw materials right to the final users and also back to the provider, thereby taking into consideration the handling of faulty products and recycling products to manufacturers and dealerships for service and repairs.

There are important decisions that an organization must make with regard to the level and scope of distributing the product. The decision made with regard to the level of distribution will determine the structure and type of a distribution channel for the product as already discussed above. Distribution options available to a marketer are intensive distribution, selective distribution, and exclusive distribution of the product. The decisions to be made are influenced by the nature of the product, the characteristics of the target market, the prevailing situation in the market (micro) and macro marketing environments.

In intensive distribution the product is made available to any vendor that is willing to stock the product item to the extent that even spaza shops become part of the distribution channel. A Spaza shop is the smallest version of a retail outlet in the South African market. These small retail outlets are normally found in townships and in informal settlements. When the marketer chooses selective distribution, it happens in situations where the product is of a technical nature that the manufacturer requires intermediaries that are technically oriented to be channel members. This helps in order for them to handle customer complaints and also be in a position to explain and clarify any aspect of the product to the prospective buyer. If the marketer decides to distribute exclusively, only one intermediary is chosen to be the sole distributor of the product in a specific area such that if consumers want the product, it is only available at the retail outlets of one organization (Jobber, 2010:634). The distribution of soccer as an intangible product (entertainment) cannot be as simple as in the case of tangible products where the marketer can decide on a number of options as to how to distribute. Based on the historical background in Chapter 2, the only option available to professional soccer teams to make the product available to spectators (customers) is the association at the level which they are affiliated. The association is the only intermediary available for distribution since even the broadcasting rights are vested in the association. The name of the association and the league running the competition are very important to the brand of the soccer team because they are brands which the owners of the team (brand) would like to associate with. The-cobranding organization also benefits in the process.

The marketing mix would have been complete having discussed product, price, promotion and place (distribution) had it not been for the fact that there are products like soccer that require a different or appropriate marketing mix. This has been the prime reason why further studies were undertaken by different authors to accommodate the context in which the intangible products (services) are marketed. The conventional marketing mix used to comprise of the four Ps only as indicated above. That was during the time when the term product meant only the tangible product whilst excluding the intangible product (service). It would appear that the components of the marketing mix are more in the case of an intangible product or service. According to Lamb *et al.* (2010:470-472), in addition to the usual four components of the marketing mix, there are people, process, and physical environment, meaning there are seven Ps in total. The other group of authors who also identified seven Ps are Zeithaml, Bitner and Gremler (2009:24). Perhaps these additional three Ps were added because of the unique nature of the intangible product (service).

3.3.5 People

Lamb *et al.* (2010) and Zeithaml *et al.* (2009) refer to people as the component that includes workers who are employed to render the service as well as the customers to whom the service is rendered. The first group of people (employees) is said to be at the core of customer satisfaction in the manner they go about rendering that service. The second group of people (customers) is said to have tremendous influence in the level of service rendered by either accepting the service quality or rejecting the service because of dissatisfaction with the manner in which the service is rendered. The process component is explained as all activities, procedures, and mechanisms involved in the production and delivery of the service and it is stressed that process is important since it provides the customer with a form of evidence by which to judge a service. As far as the physical evidence of the intangible product is concerned, it is stated in both texts that the people (fifth P) are trained to do certain things to prove that the physical environment has been freshly attended to e.g. hotel staff fold the toilet paper to indicate that the room has been attended to after the previous guest had vacated. It is notable that Bühler and Nufer (2019:152-159) explain the people, process, and physical evidence in a similar approach as adopted by Zeithaml *et al.* (2009). After examining the fifth P (People), Bhattacharjee (2006:395) identifies quite a number of its attributes viz. employees, recruitment, training, channel partners, business process outcomes, motivation, rewards, teamwork, customers, and education. It would appear that this author did an in-depth analysis of this component of the marketing mix compared to other authors. The players, who are also brands as individuals, are people that the soccer team employs to render the service (soccer) as entertainment to spectators and fans. The players' behaviour on and off the soccer field can affect the brand of the team including that of the co-branding organization either positively or negatively. The process and physical evidence also have a decisive impact on the product, price, promotion and distribution.

3.3.6 Process and Physical Evidence

The discussion of process, and physical environment done by Bhattacharjee (2006: 416-436) does not distinguish between process and physical evidence. However, other authors describe process and physical space as very distinct components of the seven Ps. Process as described by Zeithaml *et al.* (2009) comprises of activities, procedures, and mechanisms put in place in the production and delivery of the service. For example, a hair salon customer could be put through a process of washing, shampooing, relaxing and drying of the hair before the preferred style is done. In the case of a hospital service, the patient is given a detailed explanation of the do's and don'ts, if agreed then the consent form

is signed. After this, the patient is prepared for the operation by identification of medical allergies, dressed up in the theatre attire, identification and allergies armbands are used, and the patient is given anaesthetics before the operation.

These activities and procedures must be carried in a manner that the patient may not complain either before or after the operation. The mechanisms put in place to perform the necessary activities and procedures must not cause the customer any kind of discomfort. In addition to process, the physical environment (physical evidence) must be characterized by an ambient atmosphere, design, and social factors to ensure a pleasant customer experience (Theron & Strydom, 2010:12). The ambience could be a combination of adequate aeration, comfortable temperature, pleasant odour, and ancillary services whilst waiting if the product has to be waited for. In the case of sport, physical environment would be the playing pitch, the bath and dressing facilities, the training facilities, etc.

A different approach to explaining physical evidence (service-scape) is the one used by Shanker (2010:77) where more details are given about the concept. Physical evidence is explained as characterised by the exterior of buildings, office furniture, internal facility layout, colour of the interior space, carrier bags, cash memos, tickets, labels, stationery, etc. In marketing intangible products, both peripheral and essential evidences are significant factors that influence consumer behaviour towards the product. If the clubhouse, offices, the practicing ground, equipment, etc. are state-of-the-art, enhance the image of the club as a brand including the other organizations co-branding with.

It is worrying though that Theron and Strydom (2010:12) have identified an additional component of the marketing mix viz. personal relationships as the eighth component of the extended marketing mix. In this text, it is explained that personal relationships established with different groupings and segments is a function of both employees (people) who are well-trained to handle queries and complaints in every interaction with the firm's operational processes in order to secure long personal relationships with satisfied customers. Theron and Strydom (2010) insist that personal relationships are an additional eighth P of the marketing mix. The question that arises out of this stance is whether personal relationships as explained differ from relationship marketing considered to be one of the most crucial catalysts to customer satisfaction.

According to McDaniel *et al.* (2013:10) relationship marketing is a practice that emphasises forging and maintaining relationships with existing customers. This definition assumes that many consumers and business customers prefer to sustain a relationship with one organization than to keep changing suppliers

in search of better value. The assumption implies that customers want to repeat buying from the same providers hence satisfied customers. Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:174) refer to relationship marketing as nurturing a personalised relationship with loyal customers as a form of non-product reinforcement, giving an example that if a customer knows that she will be advised of a forthcoming sale, or that selected merchandise will be set aside for her next visit, strengthens the loyalty that a consumer has for a retail store. Again, there is an assumption of a satisfied customer in this definition. Kotler and Keller (2012:42) state that relationship marketing is meant to build a long-term relationships with key customers in order to earn and retain their business support. Etzel *et al.* (2007:133) regard relationship marketing as the process of striving towards a long-term and mutually beneficial trust with selected loyal customers. The manner in which club officials and players relate to spectators and fans adds to the process of forging a long-term relationship with customers thereby enhancing the image of the team as a brand. This goes further to enhancing the image of the co-branding organization.

What is common in the definitions contained in Kotler and Keller (2012:42) and Etzel *et al.* (2007:133) texts is that relationship marketing is focused on selected key customers, which focus is narrow compared to the definitions of McDaniel *et al.* (2013) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2014) where the focus is on any customer. After examining the definition of relationship marketing by different authors, it appears that the insistence by Theron and Strydom (2010) that personal relationships should be isolated as an additional P in the marketing mix for intangible products has no justification. Relationship marketing which focuses on personal relationship with each customer is a process that cuts across both tangible and intangible products. It is important though to highlight the uniqueness of the intangible product (service) to justify the necessity for the additional three Ps that accommodate this concept of product.

3.4 THE NATURE OF SERVICE

Bains, Fill and Page (2008) define a service as any intangible offering or performance by one party to another for satisfying a need. Furthermore, consumption of the service is not characterised by gaining ownership of some kind even though the rendering of service may be linked to a tangible product. Bains *et al.* (2008) go on to explain characteristics that distinguish a non-tangible to a tangible product which are intangibility, perishability, variability, and inseparability. The intangibility is described as pertaining to the product that it cannot be touched, but not meaning that customers buy the services without being rational. Customers still use product-related cues to help make informed purchasing decisions thereby reducing uncertainty because of not being able to touch, see, smell, or hear the service. The authors

should be putting it differently that customers have to use other cues in circumstances where they cannot touch, see, smell or hear the service because some services can be heard like a music track or concert. This happens when fans and spectators are not in a position to be physically present at a stadium or watch television during the match, and they resort to listening to radio commentators about how the soccer match is proceeding.

However, the explanation is matched with the additional three Ps since they state that people make judgements based on a range of quality-related cues like other people delivering the service, the physical evidence with regard to location and the equipment used. Perishability is described as the fact that, if the service is not consumed like when the customer misses the bus, train, or aeroplane, the scheduled service has perished (McDaniel *et al.*, 2013:10). Another service has to be arranged to replace the one missed. Buying a ticket to watch a soccer match and failing to go to the stadium during the time of the match results in the service perishing since the value of the ticket is not refundable. As far as variability is concerned, the authors point out at a common situation when demand increases unexpectedly thereby putting a strain on the physical evidence such that the level and quality of service is often compromised until the facility is re-arranged or improved. This often happens when the soccer match has been oversold and there is a congestion at the stadium thereby compromising comfort. In the case of inseparability, the explanation given is that the service cannot be separated from the asset that is used to render it e.g. an aeroplane and the flight on an aeroplane. (Etzel *et al.*, 2007:133 explain lack of ownership of the service by referring to a seat in a theatre which can only be occupied for a defined period of time equated to the price paid. When the time expires, occupying that seat comes to an end and the seat remains the property of the owner of the physical evidence of the service.

To manage a new or an existing product requires product decisions one of which is branding. In their discussion of motivation, Schiffman, Kanuk and Wisenblit (2010:107) make reference to generic goals i.e. the generic categories of products that consumers seek as a means to satisfy needs without being specific. The authors go on to mention that product specific goals manifest themselves when consumers seek specifically branded products to satisfy their needs such that they ask for those products by name. This manifests itself when soccer fans seek and buy co-branded soccer jerseys of their preferred soccer clubs.

Branding of a tangible product is rather a process that is not as intricate as the one pertaining to an intangible product (service) although the basic steps are similar. Be that as it may, soccer as a product will have to be branded when it comes to different clubs competing in a particular association. Even

national teams have developed to a stage where they are now branded through nicknames given to them like Bafana Bafana in the case of the South African national soccer team. Since branding is the product element that causes consumers to go out of their way to specifically make their choices on the basis thereof, it is warranted that the nature of branding and the processes that underpin it be discussed in a separate section. The discussion will illustrate how differentiation helps the process of branding to enable consumers to make informed decision when choosing from one product to the next.

3.5 BRANDING

Branding is a crucial step in the process of new product development. Marketers always want the target market to be able to distinguish a brand from other similar products in the market. Perhaps the crucial remarkable professional technique applied by marketers is the ability to develop and sustain successful brands (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:255). A brand is meant to help the consumer to identify the product as distinct rather than generic. A brand is like an identity number of a specific person among other people in the population of a specific country. The evolution of marketing has resulted in situations where marketers realize a common objective and benefit, thereby agreeing to market a product reflecting to different brand names viz. co-branding. According to Rowley (2009:352), branding may be initiated by assigning and registering brand names, logos, brand marks and brand strap lines, and communicating brand awareness among the target audience. Having done that, the author emphasises that the marketer must take cognisance of long term goals in the process of branding. Such goals are said to be creating value through providing a persuasive and consistent offer which is regarded as the brand promise, attained through a gratifying customer experience with the brand that will satisfy customer needs and creating brand loyalty. As a product decision, companies have to choose between marketing a product as a generic (unbranded) or as a brand.

According to Kotler and Armstrong (2010:682), a brand is a name, or symbol that helps consumers to identify the product or services of a seller or a group of sellers thereby differentiating the seller or seller group from those of competitors. Branding is meant to achieve three main purposes viz. product identification, enhancing new product sales, and brand loyalty. The most crucial purpose of branding, however, is to enable the target audience to identify the product amongst others. Effective assignment of a distinctive name to a product brings about advantages to the marketer and the buyer (Lamb *et al.*, 2010:250). It may just be a name or term that does not necessarily indicate the nature of the product in cases where the owner deliberately does not want to reveal the nature or full name of the product for a specific reason e.g. KFC, BKS, RBK, etc. These authors are pointing at the fact that owing to changes

in the external environment of the market the owners of the brand may shorten the brand name to suit the situation. Because people are becoming increasingly more health-conscious, Kentucky Fried Chicken was shortened to KFC and repositioned to attract more health-conscious consumers thereby gradually changing the items on the menu (Lamb *et al.*, 2010:224).

What is highlighted by Lamb *et al.* (2010:224) here is a move that was appropriate when an uncontrollable social factor in the external marketing environment posed a threat to the brand. Verma (2010:24) defines a brand as a name and that such name is usually accompanied by a sign or symbol to facilitate differentiation and identification. Verma (2010) further illustrates the importance of branding by making reference to a fictitious hen that looks the same as other hens but internally different from others such that when it lays eggs hers are golden. When the hen strays to the neighbouring farm the neighbour cannot identify it in order to return it to the owner since externally it looks the same as others. The neighbour will only realise, when the hen lays a golden egg that it is different and that it is the one that is enquired about. Had the hen had a mark, or colour, or shape, or size, or name, or could recognize the owner, or made a sound different to other hens, it would have been easier for the owner to describe it to the neighbour. The author is clearly referring to a frustrating experience that a consumer would encounter when seeking a tried and tested product to satisfy a need but finding it difficult to identify such a product. The author's illustration paints a picture to enhance the understanding of the value and importance of branding. The value and importance of branding is very crucial when a marketer seeks a soccer team that would maintain or enhance the value of the brand used for co-branding in soccer because that would create a desirable reputation.

Trump, a very successful American businessman, (Sexton, 2008:9) refers to brands as “reputations” – what the organizations are perceived as in the minds of consumers and investors. Brands are regarded as the foundation of most organizations such that if the reputation is negative, the organization will find it difficult to achieve its business objectives whereas if the reputation is positive the impact thereof will manifest itself in the cash flow of the organization. Trump's opinion on branding is very important since he is an entrepreneur who has a track record of creating successful brands. Congruence between an organization with a reputable brand and a soccer team with reputable performance would be a fundamental reason for co-branding in soccer.

The simplistic concept of a brand as a just a name, sign or symbol is challenged by Trump (Sexton, 2008:16-17) as very limited in scope. It is pointed out that a brand is more than the name, logo, or tagline. In the argument, there are three key components of a brand viz. identifiers, attributes, and associations.

Identifiers refer to the name of a product or organization, the logo of the organization, the colour scheme, the shape of the product, or anything that will lead a customer to think of the company, product, or service. Attributes refer to anything the customer has in mind in response to a brand identifier. Associations are described as linkages between the identifiers, and the attributes when already wired together in the customer's mind. Based on this argument, Trump (Sexton, 2008:17) conceptualises a brand as anything that refers to the name or logo as well as what it stands for in the customer's mind. The strength of the association depends on what is stored in the customer's mind. It would appear that this definition encompasses positioning of a brand because it makes reference to the strength of the association with what the brand stands for in the mind of the consumer. Branding has its historical origin.

3.5.1 The origin of branding

Vincent (2012:5) initially approaches the subject of branding from a historical point of view by saying that if it started as a method of marking cattle and a claim for ownership, today it is a method to make a mark in consumers' minds and subsequently claiming a "mindshare". This approach stresses how important is the value that a brand creates in the minds of consumers rather than how illustrious and colourful the name or logo of the product. There is a similarity between this approach and the manner in which Trump explains the nature of a brand, since Vincent (2012:1) recalls the time when referring to reality check whilst interviewing a client whom he asked questions on: how indispensable his brand was; what his rate of employee turnover was; what was it that his brand did differently to any competitor's brand and the reason why it mattered; the ease with which competitors are able to replicate his brand experience; the ease with which customers are able to do business with his brand; and if the brand was withdrawn from the market, what would make anyone care. The client's answers to the questions posed would definitely indicate the negative impact of the disappearance of the brand from the market. This is always a concern to a marketer when a soccer team with which co-branding is practiced is relegated to a lower league.

A similar approach to explaining brands as a concept is that of Kornberger (2010:22) where brands are defined as factors that reconcile production and consumption, factors that balance the planned system of organization and market forces, factors that strike a medium between control and desire. It is further stated that brands form a new linkage that connects the inside and the outside, which also traverses society on the diagonal. In essence, this definition regards brands as tools to manage production and consumption. These approaches to defining what brands are and what branding is all about are

broadening the subject of branding to indicate that brands permeate all structures within the organization as well as society in general. Society in general includes local, national, and international tiers, and that is why there are soccer brands known world-wide.

From a psychological point of view, Post (2012) defines a brand as a tattoo made permanent in the consumer's brain, a mental indelible impression that is earned in time. The author goes further to say that a brand is a sum total of emotional, logical, and physical attributes, characteristics, performance, assets, liabilities, and promises blended together. In summary, the text refers to a brand as the sum of all actions surrounding a competing entity. This is most comprehensive definition of a brand since it covers all facets of an organization that constitute the brand, including actions of the organization. Further than that, this definition takes into consideration both the cognitive processes and psychological aspects of a brand. Such detailed information about an organization and brand it offers is currently characteristic of the websites that are available on the Internet.

The advent of the Internet has added a new dimension in marketing. In line with this development of online business is the increase in consumer spending. Probably this trend is encouraged by the fact that funds that were previously used in the traditional shopping around travelling is now re-channelled to actual buying. According to Rowley (2009:349), studies that have been conducted around branding have not been paying attention to branding in respect of this new dimension of business i.e. online marketing, which is surprising in the wake of the current increase in recognition of brand value. The author asserts that the development of online marketing has resulted in a new type of a shopper. Amongst other characteristics, the online shopper is different from the traditional shopper in the sense that this type of a shopper is more adventurous and also heavy on catalogue shopping. This unique shopper profile stretches the domain of consumer behaviour to another limit.

This factor of neglecting the subject of online branding is the one used to justify the reason for focusing on online branding as a topic warranting special attention. Firstly, reference is made to what is understood to be an online brand. It is defined as a brand that is promoted on the website. The author extends this definition by adding that an online brand represents how website channels are used to support brands, which in actual fact is the culmination of the characteristics of a product, service or organization having been perceived and experienced by the user, customer or other interested parties. Exploring literature, it was found that the success of website branding depends on what the business wants to achieve through its branding strategy on the website, and on the brand having clear website promotion objectives (Goswami, 2015:1). The author further reveals from literature that in computer-

based branding many organizations use a corporate website to anchor their online branding strategy. This trend is widely used because it creates a conducive environment for brand extension at a later stage if such branding strategy becomes necessary. Brand extension deriving from using a corporate website has potential to leverage an online brand in that it encourages customers' desire to seek more information about the brand and to also assess the nature of the firm. This in turn creates customers' reliance on the products and brands the firm makes available in the market thereby predisposing customers to believe in its claims of superiority in relation to other products and services (Tan & Rasiah, 2011:1). In this regard, most professional soccer teams also market themselves to the soccer public through their websites which include all sponsors (co-brands) that are associated with the team.

In summary, this approach to online branding helps an organization to enhance trust and relationships with customers. It would appear from this discussion of online branding that the marketing channel through which the brand will be marketed is the worldwide web which is different from the well-known marketing channels characterized by different physically visible channel members in the form of wholesalers, retailers, agents, and brokers. This has a bearing on the strategy pursued by an organization in branding.

An organization has to choose a branding strategy that suits its operations and products. The branding strategic options available to intermediaries like wholesalers and retailers are decisions to keep manufacturer's brands or private brands or captive brands or a combination that suits the business objectives, according to McDaniel *et al.* (2013:367). A manufacturer's brand is a product whose brand name belongs to a manufacturer e.g. Koo and All Gold, both belonging to Langeberg. A private brand also known as a store brand or house brand is a product that was manufactured and named according to the instruction of the store that ordered the product e.g. Spar Freshline and Savemor, both belonging to the Spar Wholesale Group or Checkers, Ritebrand and Pot o'Gold all belonging to the Shoprite Group. A captive brand strategy is pursued when a store keeps an exclusive brand which is not named after the store or is not linked to private brands but only available at the store on the basis of an agreement with the store and the manufacturer (McDaniel *et al.*, 2013:367). This was the case when OK Bazaars were still independent (prior to being part of the Shoprite Group) when they kept clothing products labelled Dolores in their shops. Branding strategic options available to manufacturers and other organizations not in the business of reselling are multi-branding or family branding also called umbrella branding or brand extension (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:254).

Manufacturers like Unilever, Procter & Gamble, and Colgate-Palmolive pursue the multi-brand strategy. Organizations like Samsung, Daewoo, Kellogg, and LG pursue brand extension strategy because all products coming from their factories are marketed under the factory's brand name. Another organization involved in manufacturing and sporting i.e. Ajax is pursuing this strategy by having Ajax Amsterdam, and Ajax Cape Town (Ajax Amsterdam official website). Whatever strategy is pursued by an organization in branding, it will bring about certain branding benefits.

3.5.2 Benefits of branding

Having explored various approaches to defining what a brand is and what a brand is supposed to achieve, it is necessary to discuss benefits of branding. The consensus among different authors is that branding facilitates identification of a product among similar products in the market. Identifying a brand among others is a perceptual function of the consumer's mind. Perception is characterised by a series of events viz. exposure, attention, and interpretation which constitute a process (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:272). According to these authors, perception is a mental process that starts when consumers are exposed to marketing stimuli, pay attention to such stimuli and ends with consumers interpreting what has been perceived. Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:132) conceptualise perception as the process by which an individual consumer responds to exposure by selecting, organising, and interpreting stimuli into a meaningful and coherent picture of the world.

The texts of Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2014) refer to perception as a process. In the context of marketing, a stimulus can be a brand, brand mark/logo, a retail outlet, the name of the firm owning the brand, or any combination of the aforesaid. Now, referring to how Vincent (2012:5) approaches the definition of branding where it is said that it is a way of marking minds and claiming mindshare, it becomes clear that perception as a process is crucial to the success of branding. This is so because mere identification seems not to be enough to achieve business goals. Mere identification was ample when branding was used to identify ones cattle and claim ownership in a situation where competition was not a central issue. In marketing brands, competition is a central issue.

Apart from identification, there are other benefits of branding. Purchasing the same brand repeatedly is a preference for a particular brand over competing brands (Belch & Belch, 2009:127). The preference referred to here, is preference to a brand and not a generic product (unbranded product). Brand essence also features as a brand benefit. Brand essence, also referred to as brand promise or brand mantra, encompasses the 'heart and soul' of a brand (Jooste, Strydom, Berndt & du Plessis (2012:368). The text

further explains that a brand slogan consists of a short, three-to-five-word catch phrase that captures the essence or spirit of the brand's values. The authors (Jooste *et al.*, 2012) warn that a brand slogan should not be taken to mean the same as brand image but should be understood as portraying the essence of the brand expressed in a unique way.

Brand essence consists of three components viz. brand function, descriptive modifier, and emotional modifier. Brand function represents the nature of the product and the type of experience or benefit the brand provides to customers whilst a descriptive modifier seeks to clarify the brand function in more words. The emotional modifier is there to express how the brand fulfils its promise. Brand image is different as it is defined by as a phenomenon which includes consumers' beliefs based on experience about the brand's physical attributes, its performance, the functional benefits, the kind of people who use it, the emotions and web of associations, and the symbolic meanings it generates in the market (Kazmi, 2010:353).

Another benefit of branding is brand equity. According to Bains *et al.* (2008:382), brand equity is how the brand measures in monetary terms in the minds of consumers. It is an evaluation of a brand's wealth by consumers and that is why it is sometimes referred to as goodwill. Bains *et al.* (2008:382) go on to say that a brand with a high value of goodwill is more likely to preserve its customer loyalty and avoid losing market share to competitors. This is explained in three parts viz. brand value based on financial statements; brand power characterised by consumers' loyalty to the brand; and brand description represented by the attitude customers portray towards a brand.

With the definition of a brand as explained, the logical question to ask is: how can an organization make the brand what it desires it to be? It would appear that branding is a necessity for marketing in particular and for business in general. Competition is allowed in all spheres of business thereby allowing all who want to participate in an industry to introduce their own similar products. That competitive right leads to situations where there are many similar products that the consumer has to choose from whenever a need has to be satisfied. The consumer is always bombarded with multiple promotional messages from different marketers to draw the attention of the consumer to each and every product in the market. The discussion above has revealed that branding is necessary to distinguish one marketer's product from other marketers' products.

Brands, as have been discussed are regarded as identities of different competing products. Giving a product an identity in the form of a brand name is not a complete and final process. The name given to

the product needs to be developed around the main theme of the differentiated product so that consumers who accept that brand name can form a clear concept thereof and the worth of that differentiated product in relation to competing products. The image that has been created in the minds of consumers could disappear or evaporate quite easily if it is not developed to its potential strength for best sales of the product among its competing products. Therefore to make the brand what the organization wishes it to be requires that the brand be carefully built and managed to achieve and sustain the marketer's objectives.

3.6 BUILDING AND MANAGING BRANDS

Deriving from various definitions of a brand in the previous section, it would appear that a brand is an asset to the organization that owns it. With specific reference to the definition by Post (2012), the actions of the organization are an integral part of the brand. The other consideration is that Trump (Sexton, 2008:9) refers to brands as what organizations stand for in the minds of consumers and investors. According to Kornberger (2010:22) brands form a new linkage that connect the inside and the outside, which also traverses society on the diagonal. These three definitions have far reaching implications regarding the value of a brand. The first implication is that brands have to be well-developed and secondly that they must be well-managed. To develop and manage a brand, a marketer needs to craft a brand strategy.

3.6.1 Brand strategy

A brand strategy depicts the brand position that is desired by the marketer with an aim of achieving the business objectives (Sexton, 2008:69). There are three main purposes of a brand strategy, viz. to link all the functions of an organization so that they are blended together to create and maintain a strong brand; to combine the organization's resources together to ensure the most effective use and focus on the brand; and to communicate to staff as to what they are expected to do in order to create and maintain a strong brand (Sexton, 2008:71). An organization wishing to realize the purposes as suggested, has to put in place a management structure that can accomplish such tasks effectively and efficiently. Horrigan (2009:57) suggests that the fundamental level of brand development is assessing its uniqueness, a process which accomplishes the aims an internal audit of the brand's value. The brand is evaluated against competing brands in different product categories with a view to identify the types of products or brands that are congruent with the target market's lifestyle. This view by Horrigan (2009) implies that a management structure put in place to maintain the brand must be the one manned by people who know

other products that are used by the target audience of their organization's brand in order to carry out the required brand assessment. To illustrate, if a retail shop specialising in lingerie must know which clothing label is liked the most by the target audience.

A management structure put in place to accomplish coordination, concentration, and communication as purposes of brand strategy, must take into consideration how and what do consumers think of brands. According to Vincent (2013:35), consumers have a tendency of categorizing brands into five dominant types, viz. culture, destinations, products, services, and ingredients. This theory is supported by many studies conducted by different authors. In a case study about the Foschini Group (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:415) it is stated that the image in the minds of consumers about the Foschini brand is that it is a destination of choice for women seeking fashionable, current apparel and footwear, offering good value in an environment that is modern and friendly. Three categories are found in the Foschini brand i.e. destinations (positioning), products (apparel and footwear), and services (in an amicable and conducive environment).

In another cases study of Clorox Greenworks Line (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:450) it is stated that Clorox never had a list of ingredients on its package since it was established, but it did when introducing the Greenworks Line of natural cleaning products to allay fears of customers that its line may be containing harsh chemicals that are not good for users and the environment. The aim of the marketer was to disclose ingredients used in manufacturing the products in order to position its product line as 'green products'. An Absa case study (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:564) reveals that the bank introduced an in-house TV channel that was connected to all the branches, prescribing a colourful corporate wardrobe by which employees were informed that their attitude towards customers and conversations with their colleagues even after hours has a direct effect on how people perceived the brand – the Absa brand. This internal campaign inculcated a culture among employees to "live the brand". What is reported about Absa is in line with the explanation of Kornberger (2010:22) that brands form a new linkage that connects the inside and the outside which also traverses society on the diagonal.

Post (2012) suggests inter alia that a brand is a promise or promises. This is evident in the manner in which the Virgin Group manages its brand. According to Johnson, Scholes and Whittington (2008:290) the Director of Corporate Affairs of the Virgin Group stated that at Virgin they know what the brand means such that when they put their brand name on something they are making a promise. This statement was made to address critics who were alleging that the Virgin brand had lost its impetus to always offer real expertise to the business which it endorsed. The critics are currently being proven wrong since the

brand has and is still fulfilling its promise, bearing in mind for example that it successfully salvaged the ailing fitness business of the erstwhile Health & Racquet Club by reorganizing it and re-branding it as Virgin Active in South Africa. Fulfilling a promise requires that a brand be developed to the level of ability to deliver what was promised. This mentality and objective when developing a brand is in line with Rowley's (2009:352) approach to branding that the brand must be able to fulfil the promise through a positive customer experience and satisfaction of the needs intended for offering the brand.

3.6.2 Corporate values and brand value

As it appears in the previous section, building a brand is a process that goes beyond just creating an identity or a logo – a brand required to be supported by a well-defined set of values and should be linked to the strategy of a business (Venter & Jansen van Rensburg, 2009:214). A set of values refers to culture and in this context, a corporate culture. This is in line with the categorization of brands by consumers (Vincent, 2013:35). Corporate culture is normally embodied in an organization's vision and mission, hence business strategy. This phenomenon is increasingly becoming more and more critical in the sense that nowadays there is a need for the non-marketing functions to back the brand up at all levels within the organization (Laforet, 2010:231). The author further explains that financial scandals and non-compliance with ethical production norms can harm the brand by demonstrating that it does not live up to its expectations. Two brand elements are identified in this statement, viz. promise (Post, 2012), and to communicate to staff as to what they must do to develop and sustain a strong brand (Sexton, 2008:71). Therefore, coordination of all functions of an organization is critical as suggested by Sexton (2008) if the brand is built to last. Further than that, the second focus in building a brand is on corporate reputation building (Laforet, 2010).

In explaining the element of corporate reputation building with regard to building brands, Laforet (2010) points out at the dilemma faced by modern brands, which is characterised by three risks taken by brand owners thereby causing their brands to have a lot in common with bad brands. The first risk they take is opting for short-term profits at the expense of long-term brand building activities which contribute to companies' long-term benefit, leading to brand values for customers which might lead to increased customer loyalty. The second risk is failing to build relationships with customers and to understand what they expect from the brand. The last and third risk is failing to react quickly to negative publicity. Venter and Jansen van Rensburg (2009:214), approach brand building by focusing on the fundamentals of brand identity and positioning, brand relationships and architecture systems, and the advent of developing channels meant to move brands beyond the isolation strategy in advertising to obviate clutter. This

approach advocates that marketers should recognize the need for brands to connect with multiple audiences and stakeholder who are shareholders, industry regulators, internal staff at all levels, media, customers, communities, intermediaries, suppliers, other funders, and industry analysts. Therefore, the necessity to recognize the audiences as stated means that the building and management of the brand is underpinned by a careful analysis of all relevant factors in the internal and external marketing environments.

As much as there are risks in branding strategies pursued by organizations, the importance of building strong brands still prevails. According to Jobber (2010:305), strong brands are important to both companies and consumers by referring to four benefits. The first benefit of a strong brand is that it adds value to the company's image. It is reported that Nestlé had to part with £2.5 billion for Rowntree, a UK confectionary manufacturer, the amount which was six times the amount appearing in Rowntree's balance sheet and that Procter & Gamble had to pay £31 billion for Gillette's brands worth only £10 billion in the balance sheet of Gillette. In addition to company value, a strong brand enhances consumer perceptions and preferences. In a study of the top ten brands that was conducted by Interbrand in the South African market it was revealed that consumers perceived brands from highest to lowest as Standard Bank; MTN; Vodacom; ABSA; First National Bank; Telkom; Castle Lager; De Beers; Old Mutual; and Pick n Pay (Lamb *et al* 2010:252). Obviously the brand value assigned to each brand by consumers is a reflection of how each organization is continuously building its brand over the years in terms of delivering on the promises as well as other aspects of a strong brand. The third benefit of a strong brand is that it builds a strong barrier to competition. It is reported from a study of blind taste and open taste where Virgin Cola could not successfully challenge Coca-Cola's dominance in the cola market. This indicates that if the new brand appears to be liked by prospective customers on blind taste testing, this may still be insufficient to remove the market leader from the top spot as far as open taste testing is concerned (Jobber, 2010:306). Deriving from blind taste and open taste results, it is becoming evident that consumer perception is the decisive factor in determining how strong a brand is.

3.6.3 Consumer perceptions in building brands

Consumer perceptions and preferences are influenced by how a brand was positioned in the first instance. According to a joint study by Toyota and General Motors (GM) in which the same manufacturing facility in U.S.A. produced two identical motor vehicles as twins where one was branded Toyota Corolla and the other was branded Chevrolet Prizm. The one branded Toyota Corolla was priced higher whereas the one branded Chevrolet Prizm was priced lower. The results of the study showed that

the demand for the Toyota Corolla was twice the demand for the Chevrolet Prizm because of the image that Toyota has when it comes to motor car reliability (Jobber, 2010:306). According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:7) positioning means the process of creating a unique image of the product or service in the mind of the consumer. The aim of such an image is to differentiate the offering from competitors and to successfully communicate to the target market that the particular product or service will satisfy their needs better than competing brands. Analysing this definition reveals a number of important factors that influenced the result this Toyota/GM joint experiment on consumer perception and preference. The first one is a distinct image of a brand. The image of Toyota was twice more positive than that of GM and the explanation given is that Toyota is known to be more reliable as a motor car than GM.

The second factor is differentiation, which is the corner stone of positioning (Lamb *et al.*, 2010:204). It appears in this case that Toyota's differentiation factor is reliability. Consumer perception and preference according to the Toyota/GM study indicate that Toyota fulfils the need for reliability which obviously is faithfully communicated to the target audience. The definition of positioning according to Schiffman and Kanuk (2014) as well as other authors, subscribe to the explanation that a brand is a promise (Post, 2012). Furthermore, this is in line with what is quoted to have been said by the Director of Corporate Affairs of the Virgin Group that whenever they attach their brand sign to any product, they are making a promise (Scholes & Whittington, 2008:290). Apparently, Toyota fulfils their promise.

The other reason why strong brands are important is that they provide the marketer or the organization with a barrier to competition (Jobber, 2010:305). This does not imply that the organization will operate in a monopolistic market situation but rather means that it will not be easy for every entrepreneur to develop a competing brand and introduce it successfully in the market. It actually means that building strong brands makes it difficult for smaller marketers to enter the industry and compete successfully. In India for instance, Pepsi Cola dominates the cola market whilst Coca-Cola dominates the cola market in South Africa because Pepsi Cola had an absence of their brand from the market during disinvestment that was advocated by the political movements. As it is currently, it is still difficult for Pepsi to regain their market share in the South African market because Coca-Cola is a strong brand. This fact is also subscribed to by Kornberger (2010:33) where it is stated that branding created entry barriers whereby it becomes too expensive for a newcomer to launch a new brand in the market where strong brands operate. Furthermore, a well-developed brand enables the organization to realize high profits (Jobber, 2010:316). Creating entry barriers to the industry through building strong brands is achievable because strong brands are normally accompanied by premium prices such that the author (Jobber, 2010) refers to Mercedes-Benz, Coca-Cola, Microsoft, Michelin, Heinz, and Kellogg as examples.

Strong brands benefit consumers by providing them with quality certification. Jobber (2010:317) relates what was happening in the erstwhile Soviet Russia where TV sets were manufactured by two manufacturers only, who were not allowed to brand their products in order that consumers would not be able to tell the difference. As consumers experienced problems with some of these television sets they eventually learnt that the ones giving them problems came from one of the plants and they started looking for some differentiating references to these plants. Consumers eventually established that each television set was coded at the back which reflected the manufacturer and that resulted in consumers being able to identify the television set that was of a better quality by identifying it by the code, which is similar to identifying a product of good quality through the brand name. This Russian experience is a manifestation of the need for product differentiation and positioning in order to promise quality and to maintain the promised quality level. Finally, trust can be achieved through a strong brand since consumers tend to trust strong brands when they have to make purchase choices (Jobber, 2010:307). For example, Nestlé has had a setback in the South African market after the incident when the brand Nido had to be withdrawn from shelves for health reasons. Since Nestlé is a strong brand, mothers have developed trust again in the brand after its re-introduction because over many decades the brand has never disappointed the target market. This situation around Nido being trusted again has a bearing on how the impression of the brand was established in the minds of the target market

3.6.4 Brand image and brand personality

The image of the brand in the external marketing environment is influenced by how the internal marketing environment is managed by the organization. According to Ferrell and Hartline (2011:74) corporate or organizational culture can be inculcated officially in workers' handbooks, codes of conduct or ethics, memoranda, and organizational events, but it may also be expressed impliedly through dress codes, activities outside working hours, and anecdotes. This was done using dress code and what is expected of employees in behaviour after hours at Absa (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:564). In addition to the variables utilized in brand development, social responsibility has become one of the most important factors. The proponents of brand building and management (Ferrell & Hartline, 2011:79) argue strongly that including ethics and social responsibility in the strategic planning is the evidence of a link between social responsibility, stakeholders, and marketing performance. A study by Ferrell and Hartline (2011) found that an organizational climate underpinned by ethics is normally complemented by employee commitment to product quality and intra-firm trust. The findings are reported to emphasize that building a strong competitive position for a brand requires an ethical climate.

According to EthicSA (Tustin *et al.*, 2005:44), the essence of ethics is contained in five core concepts. The first refers to values and standards of proper ethical conduct which are characterised by respect, integrity, honesty, and truthfulness. The second refers to obligations shown by the performance of duties and obligations in relation to others such as honouring promises and contracts to the letter. The third relates to rights i.e. ethics include rights that other people are entitled to, and rights are congruent with obligations. If obliged to deliver a service, the customer has an ethical and legal right to such service. The fourth covers consequences to the fact that the wellbeing of individuals and communities are always affected by business, and that ethics require the promotion of expected benefits and the avoidance or reduction of harm. The fifth and last is character. This is understood as that people with virtue and compassion will act ethically. The understanding is that people are naturally emotional when adopting values, honouring obligations, respecting others' rights and promoting positive benefits. These five core concepts of ethics, as posited by EthicSA (Tustin *et al.*, 2005) are very comprehensive such that all that is required is to inculcate the desired organizational culture is covered.

A well-developed brand with a distinct position in the minds of the target market eventually develops brand personality. Brand personality is characterised by human attributes that consumers associate with the brand (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013). This definition is in line with earlier definitions posited by Lee and Cho (2009:43) that consumers perceive brands to possess human personality traits, based on their performance. The cited authors go on to state that consumers equate certain brands to persons whom they want to have a relationship with. According to an additional study (Lee & Cho, 2009) consumers tend to view a brand as gentle and friendly like a human being due to advertisers' endeavours to portray brands as similar to human beings. To illustrate, an example is made with reference to Coca-Cola as often regarded by consumers as "cool, all-American, and real," while Pepsi is perceived as "young, exciting and hip" as often referred to humans. Lee and Cho (2009:42) based their research on the five human characteristics stated by Lee and Cho, (2009:41) normally associated with brand personality dimensions viz. sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness as is normally stated with reference to humans. Clorox Greenworks Line (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:450) are cleaning products made of natural ingredients instead of harsh chemicals that always harm the hands of the product users and also pollute the environment. The nature of the product is that it is gentle which is a personality trait commonly found in human beings. Therefore, Clorox Greenworks Line's brand personality is that it is gentle. Brand personality is a factor which is of critical importance in another branding strategy called co-branding.

What motivated Lee and Cho (2009) to research the dimension of brand personality is what they discovered when exploring previous studies. They established (Lee & Cho, 2009:41) that it was not known if sporting events had their own personality traits to excite spectators. They further discovered that there was no development of a reliable and valid scale to measure sporting event personalities. Thirdly it was realized that no researcher had provided marketers with guidelines as to the selection and sponsoring of sporting events and consumers' attitude towards sponsoring brands. At face value it sounds tempting to marketers to resort to measuring sports event personality. Lee and Cho (2009) argue that the sporting event personality can be deemed different from that of brand personality on the grounds of source of inference and the nature of personality traits. They substantiate their argument by asserting that brand personality is formed on product category associations, brand name, symbol or logo, advertising style, price, distribution channel, user imagery, the company employees or CEO, and brand endorsers as relevant traits (Lee & Cho, 2009).

In comparison, more often than not sporting event personality is derived from how customers regard players as their role models. The study revealed that commonality of personality traits between a brand and a sporting event depends on favourable attitudes towards the sponsoring brand, which later influences higher purchasing intentions of the sponsoring brand (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:564). In addition, the study showed that any congruence between a sponsoring brand and a sporting event in terms of personality predicts attitude towards the sponsoring brand. The study was the first empirical attempt to test the commonality between the brand and sporting event personality with regard to consumer attitude towards the sponsoring brand and with regard to consumer purchase intention. In addition, the method of measuring personality congruence provides marketers with a convenient practical tool for measuring and monitoring the personalities of sponsored events over a period of time. Finally, the study illustrated which sporting events brands must sponsor in order to bring about better consumer responses (Lee & Cho, 2009:61). This tool is crucial in making strategic decisions about the choice of events, timing, and place of events to sponsor as an approach to a brand building campaign. It can enable marketers to make educated decisions instead of using intuition involving huge capital layout. The tool can also equip the manager who makes the decision to defend the decision should some of the things do not go according to plan.

Congruence between brands and sporting events is a determining factor when marketers seek brands and events to enhance the image of their brands. International brands often seek to sponsor events like the FIFA soccer World Cup, the Afcon, COSAFA Cup, Europa League, UEFA Champions League, Copa America, etc. Other international brands seeks sponsorship of prominent clubs of certain national

leagues (Nicolau, 2011:281). Local brands, depending on their personalities and images would either choose to sponsor the national league or a specific soccer club in the national league whilst others are content with sponsoring soccer teams at lower leagues other than the Premier League. It is therefore essential that marketing managers are guided by a clear strategy for incorporating soccer sponsorship in their marketing mix in a manner that is congruent with the brand image and brand personality (Lee & Cho, 2009:41). Their strategy must be of such a nature that co-branding embedded in sponsorship is actually aimed at bringing about better brand equity.

Once the brand has been developed to its utmost level of strength, it has to be evaluated to establish if it possesses the desired equity among its consumers and in comparison with competing brands. Such evaluation must yield results upon which marketing management can be confident that external stakeholders can be attracted to the brand such that they would desire to co-brand with it (Ferrell & Hartline, 2011). The desired attraction can only manifest itself in sponsorships that will benefit the brand and its owner financially and emotionally. The assimilation of brand equity and co-branding (sponsorship) is a process that the corporate world needs to engage in to form the necessary strategic alliances (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:564).

3.7 BRAND EQUITY AND CO-BRANDING

With the corporate or product organizational culture established for building brands, the question that remains to be answered is whether culture is practiced in the task of managing brands. Managing brands is one of the crucial dimensions of business management since it emanates from the branding strategy pursued by an organization. The type of branding strategy pursued by an organization lays a foundation upon which a brand is built. In the finalization of building a brand the logical subsequent task is managing that brand. As Laforet (2010:232) puts it, building relationships with customers has never been more demanding. Building relationship with customers whilst trying different features, attributes and benefits with successes and disappointments along the way. Customers respond in unpredictable manner during the process of developing and managing the brand. It is further explained in the text that Internet development and negative word-of-mouth mean that companies are now more exposed than before. Such exposure brings along risk with it. Laforet (2010:233) identifies three types of risk relevant to managing brands, viz. brand equity, reputation, and marketplace.

Brand equity risk is said to arise when turning the brand into a commodity or differentiating it from competition, whilst reputation risk involves losing the brand quality and trust built over time, and

marketplace risk as reflected by the volatility effect of the external marketing environment on consumer spending in an organization's products. The first two types of risk i.e. brand equity risk and reputation risk, are directly linked to the branding strategy pursued by an organization. Brand equity is a value assigned by consumers to a brand (Ferrell & Hartline, 2011). Some brands are valued higher than others in the minds of consumers. As far as the marketplace risk where economic, legal, technological, and social factors are at play, a marketer has no control and no influence on what is happening in that environment (Lamb *et al.*, 2010:41). This type of environment is external to the organization and the marketer has to appreciate what is happening and formulate an appropriate strategy to enable the organization to deal with the factors at play in order to enable the organization to survive the turbulence. Any strategy pursued will affect how each brand is managed.

3.7.1 Co-branding strategy

With the evolution of marketing, some marketers have found another avenue to branding as an alternative branding strategy. Co-branding is a desired strategy in leveraging the equity of two brands for the benefit of both. This is practiced by having a sponsorship agreement with a soccer team by promoting a specific brand of the marketing organization where the logo of the team and that of the promoted brand both appear on the soccer jersey. Co-branding leverages two or more brand equities to the benefit of one product (soccer as a service). Co-branding also helps by signalling hidden product quality through links between the firm's brand and a well-known quality brand, thereby enhancing consumers' perception of product quality. It is therefore logical to say that the fundamental principles on which co-branding is applied, by featuring two brands on a single product, is to leverage another product's brand equity to uplift the primary brand's equity (Shiffman, Kanuk & Wisenblit, 2010:236). The unequal status of different brands in the minds of consumers has therefore led to a market development by which a brand with a lower equity is combined with another brand with a higher equity to enhance the image of the former. Chang (2009:80) points out though that the target market scope of a co-brand is limited compared to a single corporate brand.

Co-branding is a strategy that has gained momentum for both tangible and intangible products. According to Helmig, Huber and Leeftang (2008: 360), co-branding happens when one product bears names or logos of two brands. Co-branding represents an alliance of two brands in the long term. These authors extend the delineation of co-branding by identifying characteristics that constitute a branded product. Firstly, the participating brands should be well-established independent brands before, during, and after co-branding. Secondly, the owners of the participating brands must co-brand with a specific

purpose. Thirdly, co-operation between participating brands must be clearly visible to the target. Fourthly and finally, the branded product must be combined and connected to the two brands that constitute it. This is the most comprehensive definition of co-branding so far given by the authors in comparison to other definitions which are very brief and limiting the concept of co-branding. It has also become evident that co-branding is a strategic alliance entered into by two brand owners with a purpose to enhance their competitive advantage in the market (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:450).

The understanding and explanation of co-branding by Helmig *et al.* (2008) is also subscribed to by Chang (2009:77) where it is posited that co-branding is a marketing arrangement where multiple brand names feature on a single product. Chang also regards co-branding as a business strategic alliance between two or more organizations, which has become popular across many industries. A strategic alliance is a business arrangement where two or more organizations decide to pool their resources together to accomplish a mutual goal without combining their businesses (Kotler & Keller, 2012:73). The popularity of this branding strategy is underpinned by many advantages to participating organizations. This strategy is popular for taking advantage of the positive association of one marketer's brand to another or others and vice versa. The synergy created by the strategic alliance increases the number of customers for all participant brands (Chang, 2009:77). This situation is very common in co-branding through soccer e.g. Adidas, Vodacom, and Orlando Pirates FC logos on one soccer jersey, Kappa, Spar, and AmaZulu FC logos on a single soccer jersey, Nike, Vodacom, and Kaizer Chiefs FC on the club's jersey, etc.

The marketing situation may be different such that brands that are combined have equal or equivalent equities in the minds of consumers e.g. the co-branding of Simba Chips and Steers on a packet of crisps or dry potato chips. In this situation both brands are strong brands. The elements of branding strategies in the entertainment (film) industry are more visibility to target markets, synergy between the product and credible source association. Film branding strategies strive to attain more visibility, more credibility, and better synergy, as destination marketing organizations make their locations available to producers (Horrigan, 2009:54). The author goes on to mention that branded entertainment is characterised by taking advantage of new technologies to distribute the product content. It would appear from this definition and description of branding strategies in the film industry that the purpose in this regard is not identification *per se* as in other products but rather visibility, source credibility association with the product, and the synergy between the product and the source. This is exactly what is needed in co-branding through soccer. This dimension of branding strategy appears to be suitable for intangible products (Lee & Cho, 2009:41).

Despite this variety of benefits deriving from a strategic alliance in the form of co-branding, Chang (2009) identifies potential problems featuring individual brand managers in this type of strategic alliance. In some instances managers of brands formulate strategies characterized by ambitious revenue targets with the aim of allaying market fears. This tendency does not take cognisance of other stakeholders thereby compromising customer expectations, staff morale, and long-term competitiveness. These potential problems by Chang (2009) could lead to the catastrophic failure of the brand alliance unless parties craft a clear strategy to be pursued. A clear strategy would contribute to the development of the co-branded product since it was explained earlier (Post, 2012) that a brand is a promise and as such it creates customer expectations. If such expectations are not fulfilled, the image of the brand gets tarnished. That is why it has been highlighted in the case of the Virgin Group that they make a promise whenever they put their brand on something (Scholes & Whittington, 2008:290).

To ensure that the combined promises of the allied brands are fulfilled to the expectations of the customers, Chang (2009:78) suggests that the resulting co-branded product needs to be positioned. Positioning of the allied brand would align the efforts of all partners involved in co-branding strategy leading to finding a suitable cobranding method to achieve a mutual beneficial situation for all parties involved in the strategy. The success of this brand development strategy has to be underpinned by some specific factors. Chang (2009) outlines the critical success factors needing consideration for an allied brand as transition costs, cultural differences, consumer acceptance, core-positioning, and capital restructuring.

Transition costs of the co-branding alliance should be symmetric in the sense that all parties must contribute equally to the costs of creating an allied brand because if not symmetric some of the partners do not take responsibility for profit and liabilities. The author makes reference to the case of Siemens and BenQ where BenQ ran out of funds before the process could turn around the Siemens co-branded unit which was losing profit. The situation which was symmetric is that of Sony and Ericsson hence the roll-out of successful co-branded products that ensued. The two organizations entering into co-branding have to consider other important stakeholders as to what their take is on the matter (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:450).. This has also been the case between Aon and Manchester United in a two year co-branding deal from 2010 to 2011. When Prosperi, Aon's vice-president of Global Public Relations, justified the sponsorship, it became clear that the corporation wanted to co-brand with a professional soccer team known to have best talent and achievement in the soccer fraternity (Why AON Chose To Aim Big With Manchester United Deal 2009).

3.7.2 Co-branding and consumer acceptance

Consumer acceptance of the allied brand depends on how well the partnering organizations know the customers. It was found (Chang, 2009) that lack of this crucial knowledge saw Siemens and BenQ targeting teenagers as well as other target audiences at the same time resulting in consumer confusion and no acceptance. In terms of cultural differences, they can be organization-based or country-based. One company may be conservative whilst the other is innovative. BenQ employees committed themselves onto working with Siemens employees but to no avail since German employees were used to the work culture influenced by their labour legislation. Chang (2009) points out that the core competence of a brand attracts large numbers of customers. The implications of this fact is that the strong brand must identify its strength clearly and position its competitive advantage so that the second and other brands could integrate with it. In the case of a joint venture co-branding, the original companies have to re-organize their financial capital whilst in the case of merging brands the dominant company must re-organize the capital structure. It is not difficult to concur with the identification of these critical success factors since bringing together different brands to appear on one product cannot be a simple matter because of different differentiating factors that the individual brands were based on. The other reason for such concurrence is what Tasci and Denizci-Guilett (2011) call consumer-based brand equity (CBBE). The authors define the concept on the basis of how consumers respond to the marketing of the brand by showing that they have acquired a differential dimension to brand knowledge (Tasci & Denizci-Guilett 2011:775). There are five factors that intervene with co-branding's effect on CBBE. These factors are consumer familiarity with partner brands, perceived congruence between brands, complementarity of the co-branding products, strength of the co-branding products, and combined image of the co-branded product. Kaizer Chiefs FC supporters and fans are familiar with Hollard whilst AmaZulu FC supporters and fans are familiar with Spar and Buil-It.

Familiarity with the brand is based on consumers' past experiences with the brand. The nature of familiarity with the brand is explained by Tasci and Denizci-Guilett (2011) on a continuum that begins with brand awareness and increases with the degree of use. The more frequent the consumer is involved with the brand the more familiarity develops. The effect of this factor is that the high brand awareness and positive brand evaluations lead to positive evaluations of co-branded products. As far as the fit or compatibility between brands is concerned, authors established from documented research that if consumers see co-branded products as a fit, match, or compatible with each other, their positive attitude towards the partner brands may transfer to the co-branded product as well to the extent that in addition to the transfer there is a spill-over effect back to the original brands (Chang, 2009:78). In the case of

complementarity of the partner brands, it has been established that the factor allows the co-brand to inherit the desirable qualities of the parent brand.

With regard to the strength of the partner brands, experiments have proven that strong brands tend to dominate the transfer effect on the co-branded product compared to the weaker brands (McDaniel *et al.*, 2013:367). Finally, the co-brand has distinct features that collectively constitute what is known as the core of the brand. Such features are normally the blend of the desirable qualities of the original brands. If the attitude towards this combination is favourable, this leads to the favourable attitude towards the co-branded product that is characterised by the favourable core brand. The effect of these factors cumulatively culminates into the positioning of the co-brand as a new brand distinctly standing apart from the original brands if co-branding resulted into a product that is accepted by consumers (Chang, 2009:78).

Co-branding is a marketing development based on the fact that a product has to be branded to assume an identity of its own amongst similar products. Consumers do not buy just a cola carbonated drink but they buy Pepsi-Cola or Coca-Cola. They do not buy chocolate disks; rather they ask for M&M's (Fullerton, 2010:503-504). A strong brand is the one whose image is well-established in the minds of consumers, and it is normally referred to as a premium brand. Once a brand reaches that level of recognition, it is the desired state of affairs as far as the marketer is concerned. Such a desired state brings in benefits to a strategic partnership viz. getting quicker brand awareness is achieved at low-cost in the case of a co-branded product; a co-branded product enjoys a wider recognition; there is a lower-risk in test-marketing a co-branded product; and co-branded products are less price-sensitive, if both brands are premium brands (Scholes & Whittington, 2008).

As stated above that co-branding leverages two or more brand equities to the benefit of one product, the co-branded product derives its equity from the benefits listed as characteristic of co-branding. This is in line with Schiffman, Kanuk and Wisenblit (2010:236) explanation that the rationale behind co-branding is having two brand names appearing on a single product in order that one product can piggy-back on another product's brand equity to increase the primary brand's equity. This is characteristic of sponsoring events or competitions e.g. sponsoring a national football league, Olympic Games, FIFA World Cup, etc. Having pointed out that a co-brand product has a limited target market scope than a single corporate brand, Chang (2009:80) suggests that the parties to a cobrand have to choose tactics to adopt in pursuing strategies crafted for the brand alliance. They can decide to maintain all the existing individual brand strategies or abandon them for a single co-brand strategy. The choice to be made in this

regard obviously would depend on the types of product represented by each brand, the target market aimed at through each brand, and the original intention of the parties when they decided to form a branding alliance or co-brand. Whatever decision is arrived at, the co-branding strategy must be clear in terms of the target audience and the marketing strategic goals to be accomplished and the intended levels of accomplishment. This manifests itself in situations where soccer fans continue to purchase co-branded sports products in the form of jerseys, caps, etc. even if the team is not doing well because of successful branding and management thereof.

3.7.3 Levels of co-branding

Another development towards understanding co-branding is found in the further analysis of the concept. The experiences of what has been happening in co-branding of edible products (Simba chips and Steers) have helped realise different dimensions of co-branding as a branding strategy. The packet of Simba chips on which 'Steers flavour' was written created interest among consumers of dry chips. Helmig *et al.* (2008:361) indicate that one dimension is vertical co-branding and the other is horizontal co-branding. The nature of vertical co-branding is that brands at different levels of the value chain are combined to create a strategically branded product. Examples of vertical co-branding given relate to Coca-Cola and NutraSweet for making Diet Coke; and IBM and Intel in computer manufacturing. Horizontal co-branding is described in contrast as characterised by a co-branded product born of two brands at the same level of the value chain. Examples referred to were Sony and Ericsson mobile telephones as well as a Hershey's and Coca-Cola co-branded chocolate bar coupled with a Coca-Cola and Evian co-branded yoghurt drink. The authors go further by comparing brand extension with co-branding. It appears that there is one similarity between the two branding strategies in that both intended to make the parent brand stronger and enhance the value assigned by consumers to a new one. However, the strategies differ in that more benefit can be derived from co-branding than brand extension since the contribution of the perceived additional value to both the co-branded product and the primary brand is brought about by the second brand. Secondly, unintended effects can manifest themselves if two incongruent brands are combined and if negative publicity affects one of the participating brands in the branding alliance, the co-branded product could also be affected (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013). Lastly, managing co-branded products is operationally more complex than managing one brand since it involves having to align the interests of at least two stakeholders.

The comparison of these two strategies helps to indicate why many firms prefer co-branding to brand extension since in the case of negative publicity around one brand it is easier to terminate the co-branding

alliance than to distance the parent brand from the extended brand. As it happens in endorsements, when the celebrity appears in the front page of the media for wrong reasons, the brand owner normally releases a press statement to distance the brand from the celebrity e.g. what Nike did when a golfer was surrounded by negative publicity and also when owners of Status deodorant distanced themselves from the ex-footballer who was hitting the news for drunken driving in South Africa a few years ago. It was also rather difficult to deal with the matter when Nestle had to correct negative publicity around Nido, toddlers' brand in the South African market some few years ago when a nutritionist established that there was an unhealthy ingredient in the toddlers' feed.. The negative publicity around Nido affected Nestle as the main brand which is extended to Nido. Whatever the dimension of co-branding that is decided upon by the parties involved, Chang (2009) suggests that there are a few strategies that can be pursued by parties to ensure that the branding alliance is worthwhile for them. Co-branding partners can pursue *inter alia* market penetration, global branding, brand reinforcement, and brand extension as strategies compatible with co-branding objectives.

It must be noted though that most of co-branding literature focuses on co-branding consumer products. However, there is a dimension of business-to-business (B2B) co-branded products. According to Erevelles, Stevenson, Srinivasan and Fukawa (2008) co-branding alliances are categorised into four alliances viz. ingredient, composite/complementary, licenced, and umbrella co-branding alliances. The study by these authors focused on ingredient co-branding which is explained as a supply agreement between a manufacturer of a certain product and a supplier of a component or raw material to the manufacturer. Examples referred to are the one between Dell (the manufacturer) and Intel (supplier in the manufacturing of computer servers, Boeing (the manufacturer) and General Electric (GE) (the supplier) in the manufacturing of aeroplanes, Data Track (the manufacturer) and Bayer's Makrolon (the raw material supplier) in the manufacturing of CDs and DVDs, Symantec (the manufacturer) and U.S. Robotics (the gadget/tool supplier), and IBM (the manufacturer) and Siebel (the component supplier), just to mention a few. The nature of B2B co-branding is that this strategy centres on relationships, alliances, and networks. The partnering organizations endorse each other's products, cooperate in branding activities, and enhance co-brand equity in the marketplace through relationship building and establishment of networks.

The effort and risk taken in B2B co-branding is worth the trouble of the partnering organizations. Erevelles *et al.* (2008:941) state that co-branding 'breeds' symbiotic interdependence among alliance partners. It is stated that Intel ensures a stable, long-term customer by allowing preferential prices on Dell's orders. Intel is reported to be assisting in Dell's advertising and also offers co-branding incentives

which benefit consumers in the form of a lower prices. For Intel Inside logo to appear on Dell's computers and computer servers, Intel pays half of advertising thereby reducing marketing costs for Dell. In the case of Boeing, highlighting the use of GE aeroplane engines builds trust among the users of Boeing products (aeroplane) for passenger and goods whilst GE brand equity is enhanced by the reputation of supplying one of the largest manufacturers of aeroplanes. The appearance of the 'Made of Makrolon' logo on CDs and DVDs manufactured by Data Track increased the latter's market share to 30 per cent in the global polycarbonate market (Erevelles *et al.*, 2008:941). The co-branding logo helped Data Track in providing customers with confidence that purchasing their CDs and DVDs guarantees superior storage security and quality. As a spin-off the situation helps Bayer in keeping competitors at bay. The benefits of this branding strategy for both the manufacturers and suppliers are relationship benefits, competitive advantage, lower cost-benefits, competition reduction benefits, and promotional support benefits (Erevelles *et al.*, 2008). Relationship benefits are characterized by cooperation for mutual benefit, inter-brand endorsements, shared expertise, shared risk, trust, and shared experience. Competitive benefits may come about when suppliers reduce market entry by competitors whilst manufacturers may benefit from a jointly enhanced brand equity. Cost-benefits are characterized by a spin-off from reduced probability of lower-priced entry by competitors thereby obviating the cost of counter promotions. This in turn may enable the supplier to enjoy economies of scale through ensuring a stable long-term major customer. As indicated in the B2B co-branding between Intel and Dell, cash-based advertising support from the supplier to the manufacturer benefits customers who finally pay lower prices.

This co-branding strategy referred to as B2B in Erevelles *et al.* (2008) is the same strategy referred to by Helmig *et al.* (2008) where it is called vertical co-branding. The nature of vertical co-branding is that brands at different levels of the value chain are combined to create a strategically branded product. One of the benefits of B2B co-branding that it has potential of keeping competitors at bay, is also in line with the benefits of just branding as indicated by Kornberger (2010:33). The author stated that when branding was invented it created entry barriers whereby it became unaffordable for a newcomer gain entry into the market where strong brands already operate. However, well-built brands help to create brand communities (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013) as has already been indicated in the case of Real Madrid in Chapter Two.

It is not surprising why brands like Barclays would not relinquish the right to sponsor the EPL since the sponsorship was secured after the exit of Carling. The same bank has created a barrier in South Africa by securing and hanging on to the sponsorship of the PSL. If any sponsor would want to replace the

existing sponsors they would have to propose a substantially increased amount compared to the current one, and that would be very expensive. Heineken have also hung on to sponsoring the UEFA champions league by initially sponsoring it with Amstel Lager for many years and now sponsoring it with Heineken Lager.

3.8 BRAND COMMUNITIES, SELF-CONCEPT AND LIFESTYLE

Brand communities have been formed and been running for quite a number of years for Harley-Davidson motorcycles, Barbie dolls, PEZ candy, and Jeep motor cars. Consumers who are in possession of these brands regard themselves as members of the same family (Schiffman, *et al.*, 2010:283). These consumers form a brand community after identifying common interests and a feeling of belonging amongst themselves as a group. Communication has become more fluid amongst members of any brand community due to the introduction of the Internet and social networks in information technology. Soccer fans, whether formally organised by clubs into supporters' clubs or they know one another through sporting goods attire, are attracted to one another on the basis of groups to which consumers relate with for reference.

A reference group is a group with which an individual makes reference when making a purchase decision (Kazmi, 2010:69). According to Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2012:95) a reference groups is any person or group that serves as a role model when a consumer is establishing what is acceptable in terms of values, attitudes and behavioural patterns. The definition by Kazmi (2010) is not explanatory whilst the one given by Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2012) does explain the nature of what is called a reference group. Du Plessis and Rousseau (2007:69) classify groups into primary group and secondary group. The explanation by these authors goes further in sub-classifying reference groups into formal primary and informal primary as well formal secondary and informal secondary. The type of group that applies to a fan being a member of a supporters' club is the secondary informal group. There must be a fundamental reason why an individual selects an informal secondary group to belong to since there is always a focal point to which all group members are attracted.

In soccer, the focal point is a brand in the form of a soccer team. As a brand, a soccer team has a brand personality defined as human characteristics assigned to a brand. A human personality manifests itself in a self-concept or self-image. According to Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013:420), self-concept represents the individual's thoughts and feelings with regard to his or herself as an object of judgment. It is how an individual perceives his or her feelings in terms of behavioural traits and thoughts. An individual's self-image is composed of an attitude a person holds towards himself or herself. The authors

divide the self-concept into four basic parts viz. actual self-concept (the perception of who that person is currently), Target self-concept (what the person wishes to be), private self-concept (what the person wants to be to herself) and the social self-concept (what the person would like to be seen by others). Kardes, Cline and Cronley (2011) define self-concept as the beliefs and attitudes we hold about ourselves. This definition is in line with that of Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013).

When a person (a soccer fan) wears sporting goods relating to a soccer club, he or she would like to be seen as a supporter of the soccer club. If the person (a soccer fan) does not miss watching a soccer match where and when the liked soccer team is playing, it becomes that person's lifestyle. Lifestyle is defined as the way in which an individual enacts his self-concept or self-image (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013). The soccer fan then adopts a lifestyle of living soccer in behaviour, entertainment and wear.

As is the case with tangible products that consumers form brand communities which they would like to affiliate to as reference groups e.g. consumers of Harley-Davidson, Jeep, etc., it stands to reason that consumers of soccer can also form brand communities. This is done by joining soccer team supporters' clubs with branch structures and buying sports good co-branded with their preferred club which in turn brings about the formation of a new self-concept among supporters of the same team. By the same token of what happens in the case of tangible products, the formed same self-concept influences a particular common lifestyle among the brand community. The self –concept manifests itself in the common support of the team.

3.9 CONCLUSION

Soccer is an intangible product characterised by seven Ps like all other products and is subject to branding, positioning, and co-branding. The marketing mix of an intangible product has indicated how careful and thorough soccer teams need to be in managing the product that they offer to their customers (spectators and soccer fans). In addition to the management of the marketing mix, it is imperative for an organization to differentiate its product by branding it. Once the brand has been established, managing processes and activities that impact upon it is unavoidable by an organization if the brand is expected to be a valuable asset. That requires a clear brand strategy. Once that is achieved, the brand then develops equity which is a monetary value assigned to it by consumers. The brand equity that a soccer team achieves will result in other brands with equivalent or inferior brand equity to co-brand with it. Brand equity derives from a number of factors one of which is the performance of the brand. When a soccer

team performs well on and off the field it will surely attract other brands to co-brand with it through sponsorship which is a desired situation in professional soccer.

Apart from attracting lucrative sponsorships, a soccer team with a good brand image translating into brand equity causes fans to identify with it if it is congruent with their self-concept and lifestyle. Such a situation brings about purchase of sporting goods with the brand of the team thereby enhancing the financial resources of a team. The exploration of theoretical framework within which soccer can be managed, reveals that soccer administrators, players, and soccer fans must realise that soccer has become big business for valuable entertainment rather than just a pastime sport. It is therefore imperative to pay special attention to how branding and co-branding can best be applied in marketing through soccer for the better management and best results for investors and other stakeholders.

It is therefore appropriate to focus the discussion on how branding and co-branding are applied to soccer in the form of sponsorship. Soccer sponsorship is a dynamic approach to applying the concept of co-branding since the impact is not limited to the brand personalities of the partnering brands but extends to other factors represented by the additional Ps of the marketing mix as discussed above.

CHAPTER 4: BRANDING AND CO-BRANDING IN SPORT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Having discussed branding and the benefits thereof in general, branding in professional soccer and co-branding in sport will be discussed. Historical development of co-branding in sport warrants coverage to understand how it started and what were the objectives of the business corporate world. The coverage will also give an indication of the magnitude of investment in co-branding in sport followed by identifying unique characteristics of marketing through sport. This approach to marketing has its own practical issues that parties involved have to deal with. Dealing with those practical issues culminate in determining critical success factors that have to characterise sponsorship contracts if parties are to derive the desired benefits from their business relationship. The seriousness of the critical factors will be shown by covering them separately to indicate the impact they have on a sponsorship agreement. The discussion of these factors will highlight the importance of professionalism for both players and soccer clubs.

Sponsorship issues (Section 4.4), methods to deal with them as well as critical success factor (Section 4.5) that are now characteristic of how to manage soccer teams like all other big business for the benefit of all stakeholders will indicate how much has been happening in Europe and USA in sports management. This in turn will identify gaps between the level of achievement in developed countries and what is still lacking in the management of soccer teams in South African soccer. Branding in professional soccer is a must, having conceptualized the need to brand other types of products and the underlying reasons why such a process is necessary to those products. The process requires attention as to the how it should unfold for an intangible product.

4.2 BRANDING IN PROFESSIONAL SOCCER

Branding a product, as already been explained and discussed in the previous chapter, is a key activity that brings about success in the process of product development. Marketers always want the target market to be able to distinguish a brand from other similar products in the market. Building and managing brands is a critical and scarce skill that makes marketing professionals rise above other managers of business (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010:255). It is not for every business manager to build and manage a brand and succeed but a specialist marketing guru is suitable for this kind of task. According to Champniss and Vila (2011:3), brands made an appearance in business in the nineteenth century when the Industrial Revolution started to influence the change in which people led their lives. Champniss and

Vila (2011:3) refer to the so-called 'provenance cost' which describes the situation where no-one knew the quality of anything that was sold in the market, or alternatively when no-one had the ability to establish trust in whatever was sold. Brands are therefore created to try and lighten the provenance cost, to try to restore the level of trust in the products and to try and reduce the enormous search process that then confronted the new consumer. This explanation of how brands evolved in business is in line with Kotler and Armstrong's (2010: 251) definition that a brand, amongst others, is meant to identify who makes and sell a product or service. Apart from branding for identification, soccer teams need to pursue strategies that would enable them to build their brands in such a manner that their businesses can benefit in the long run with regard to gaining and retaining club supporters as well as sponsorships from well-developed brands. Co-branding based on sponsorship then becomes the buzz-word if the team were to be successful. Success is always characterized by a number of practical issues that need close attention for securing sponsorship (Sexton, 2008:9). When those practical issues have been attended to and put to bed, soccer clubs have to grapple with a number of success factors that require to be harnessed to ensure success.

To illustrate one of the practical issues in branding, a study on Chinese Satellite TV fans of the FAPL games yielded results that assisted club managers to identify factors needing attention in order to enhance professional football club equity (Bodet & Chanavat, 2010:56). A question was posed regarding the status of spectators of sport in general and spectators of soccer in particular whereby it was explored if it is necessary to engage in a discussion about supporters or customers. The study revealed that from the supporters' perspective, supporters do not regard themselves as customers although professional clubs, on the basis of fans' support of the clubs, regard them as such.

Branding in professional soccer is the foundation for co-branding in soccer. Without professional soccer clubs being branded, it would not be possible for marketers who want their branded products to enjoy maximum exposure to the target audience (Fullerton, 2010:503-504) to agree to proposals for sponsorship. The nature of branding in soccer teams is that it is a process that lends itself to be a catalyst to co-branding in soccer through sponsorship. In terms of business, such a process becomes a stream of much needed revenues to enhance the images of both brands appearing on one product. The brand alliance will satisfy the needs of brand communities as already been discussed in 3.7, thereby influencing lifestyles of the target audience.

4.3 CO-BRANDING IN SPORT

The practice of co-branding has extended to sporting activities in the form of sponsorship of clubs, events, and competitions. Co-branding, double branding, and dual branding are terms used interchangeably (Fullerton, 2010:503-504). Although there may be some risks or disadvantages in some co-branding partnerships, the benefits stated above appear to be standard and common in various marketing endeavours as will be discussed in subsequent paragraphs. Co-branding did not develop in stages like other concepts in marketing, but resulted from the process of marketing evolution (Etzel *et al.*, 2007:6-9).

Marketing through sport is a form of co-branding by which two brands, one belonging to the marketer and the other brand belonging to a sports entity, appear together on one sports product. This approach to marketing puts more emphasis on providing value for money in relation to the sacrifice normally made by customers, clients, partners, and society at large (Lamb *et al.*, 2013). The sports product has two components viz. the core product which could be an initial game, sporting event, and a competition of some sort (Bühler & Nufer, 2010:141). When two brands appear together in a sports product, it means that the marketer is sponsoring the sports entity that participates in a particular competition. This kind of co-branding is characterized by many strategies of sponsorship. Conventional co-branding in sport entails the development of a business relationship between a brand owner and a sporting organization e.g. Coca-Cola being the official sponsor of the 2012 Olympic Games in London, and Hyundai securing official sponsorship of the finals of the FIFA 2010 World Cup on South African soil (Fullerton, 2010:503-504). The other strategy is venue naming where the marketer gains the right to have its name attached to a physical facility e.g. the First National Bank saga around the naming of Soccer City in South Africa. The third strategy is sponsoring through licensing thereby allowing a marketer contractually to use trademarks and brand names of a sporting entity in the case of sporting goods manufacturer like Nike, Puma, Adidas, and others producing inexpensive T-shirts bearing logos and names of sporting clubs or rugby unions.

It is necessary to enquire what possibly motivated marketers to resort to co-branding in sport. One of the answers given, amongst others, would be that sport touches people's emotional core like no other activity. The report of the FIFA 2010 LOC gives an explanation that invariably sports players have a responsibility to make true the hopes, aspirations, dreams and self-esteem of supporters. What the (athletes) players do and how they do it on the contesting sports ground, impacts profoundly on fans.

The profound impact will be on the relationships fans have with the sport, and the sponsors and organizers of the activities that bring large numbers of people together (FIFA 2010 LOC website)..

In the South African scenario, co-branding in sport has been retarded in development by isolation from the rest of the world for almost thirty years owing to the country's previous political dispensation. However, since 1994 South African sport appears to have taken its rightful place in the international sporting arena when global sports brands re-entered the country's shores (The Dynamics of Sport Sponsorship and its Role in the Marketing Mix, 2011). Since then, sport sponsorship has increased at alarming rates. This has happened as a result of the national mood and perception affected by the losses and wins of national teams and athletes, local teams and preferred teams. It is a common phenomenon to a South African sports fan to focus on detailed field information, rugby and sponsors thereof during any soccer match of a local professional soccer derby or any other strongly supported teams' match or the rugby match of a Springbok against All Blacks test match or Super rugby tournament match. Despite this development, players and fans in South Africa appear to have fallen behind in understanding and behaviour commensurate with the expectations of a sponsorship, hence the poor performance of most of the PSL soccer players whilst rugby players seem to understand the implications of sponsorships when they perform on the field as related in the sponsorship of the All Blacks by Adidas (Motion *et al.*, 2003). However, the sponsored events and team's fixtures are characterized by hype that is created by media.

The hype that is created when the Supersport channels broadcast Professional Soccer League (PSL) matches, sponsored by ABSA Bank, for midweek and weekend fixtures, team jerseys bearing team logos and sponsors' logos are displayed on SABCTV 1 and DSTV 204, manifests the fact that South African soccer is on the path of being up to date with international soccer. The Nedbank Cup competition for example resembles the FA Cup of England in the manner in which it is structured since the competition involves Vodacom League, National First Division, and PSL clubs (Football in South Africa, 2014). It is this kind of hype that leads to curiosity and an enquiry into the essence of co-branding in sport. Involving all tiers of professional football in South Africa, the co-brand resulting from Nedbank and the PSL helps to make every soccer fan, every soccer player, and every soccer administrator realize that the competition does actually contribute to the development of the country. This is caused by the fact that over the years the competition is run, there have been a lot of upsets and surprise in match results caused by the contest of clubs in lower divisions than the PSL. In the process, a lot of talent has been uncovered.

With reference to the subject of co-branding in sport in general and what has happened in South Africa since 1994, it would appear that co-branding in sport is gaining momentum. Marketers are showing more inclination and commitment to including sport sponsorship in the marketing mix. Having highlighted that fact does not mean that the mind shift with regard to marketers is something that has happened overnight. Several studies reveal that this trend has been taking place for quite some time, although at a slow pace as can be noticed in the discussion in the ensuing section.

4.3.1 The development of co-branding in sport

Sport was originally regarded as a pastime activity to either keep one's body fit or to unwind after the daily pressures of normal life. It was one of the activities meant to ease any kind of tension. It was not as competitive as it has become. As years went by, sport gained momentum as an essential part of human life whether for active participation or participating as a spectator. As it drew more and more spectators, it became more and more competitive. It is no wonder that some marketers seized the opportunity of using sports personalities to promote their brands, like Wheaties did as early as 1933 (Fullerton, 2010:2).

As a manifest of this trend, sponsorship spending in Ireland was already at the level of £125 million in spite of the much-publicised economic meltdown as reported by Wynne, the then Director of Sport at Slattery Communications (Brand and Marketing, January 2011). Further than that, soccer has advanced in development such that more is now expected of soccer administrators to come up with strategies and propositions that will add value in order to cope with the trend of market demand if they are to continue to realise the goals of commercial investment in soccer. Brands were initially regarded as sponsors or benefactors, but the scenario has changed to regarding them as partners, which is in line with the definition of marketing by AMA (Lamb *et al.*, 2013). In the early stages of marketing, every other business was perceived as a competitor until co-branding surfaced as an alternative for strategic alliance. Marketers then realized that some other businesses are not competitors at all but potential partners for achievement of common goals. Marketers are exploiting the situation with consideration of sponsorship partners' interests in the process.

What attracts marketers to co-branding in sport are the numbers of spectators that love different games watched by masses ranging from cricket, rugby, soccer, tennis, and many other sports codes. Masses of spectators watching a specific game of choice are a captive target audience to marketers. This is why marketers would do anything to secure the rights of being an official sponsor of a much-loved event, competition, or team. Co-branding in soccer has been understood to represent cash or incentive expended

in relation to a particular sport, entertainment, an event, or organization in an endeavour to gain commercial advantage associated with sport (Cornwell, Weeks & Roy, 2005). The identified commercial potential here means convenience in accessing the desired target audience for the product that the marketer wants to promote. The desired target audience are spectators, fans, and supporters of the event or competition. The pairing of their brand with the name of the event is meant to establish an image in spectators' minds who are consumers of sport that their preferred brand is associated with leisure, pleasure and fun sought by them when watching a game. This association with the brand and other associations that a marketer may deem necessary to create around the brand form a schematic memory or schema of the brand. A schematic memory or schema of a brand is a web of associations anchored on distinctive themes preferred by the target audience (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:316). KFC, for example, sponsors the Indian Premier League for cricket and also once sponsored school soccer tournaments in South Africa. If the brand is also seen sponsoring another event or social cause that is preferred by the target audience, these sponsorships and the positioning of KFC as a fast food product will create a web of associations with the brand. The importance of relevant themes around the promotion of a brand is crucial for a schema of a brand.

4.3.2 The marketing objectives of co-branding in sport

The distinctive themes upon which a brand can be promoted are carefully selected to enhance exposure, which is the first step in the process of perception. In the case of KFC there is a family theme, a workers' lunch theme, an Indian cricket league theme, etc. For a stimulus to be successfully exposed to the target audience, it must be within the relevant environment of the target audience. Sport is a theme that is within the relevant environment of the sport-loving target audience (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010), therefore attracting attention in terms of perception. When sport is one of the themes making up the web of associations with the brand, it becomes part of the image desired by the marketer, created in the minds of consumers. This image is formed by different themes of the web of associations with the brand, which is achieved through brand positioning. One of the definitions of brand positioning is that it is a step by step coordination of activities by which a marketer develops an image in consumers' minds that the brand will satisfy needs better than competitors' brands (Etzel *et al.*, 2007) explaining why marketers seek well-positioned soccer brands to co-brand with. Sponsorship is a very successful cue for exposing a brand to the target audience.

Since exposure is followed by attention, interpretation, information processing and finally by learning and memory in the process of perception (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010), it therefore stands to reason

that co-branding as a vehicle in sports marketing is aimed at attaining a number of marketing goals for an organization and its product positioning. In New Zealand, Motion *et al.* (2003:1084-1085) examined the sponsorship of the All Blacks and Adidas from a detailed contract point of view in order to make the understanding of co-branding better and to build a theoretical basis for co-branding. This was and is still indeed achieved since the sponsorship contract between Adidas and the All Blacks has been renewed year after year such that it could be one of the longest relationships in sport sponsorship. These objectives include increasing awareness about the co-brand product, reinforcing brand image, and business growth. Sport sponsorship has additional advantages in the form of brands engaged in sponsorship promoting one another, and improvement of trade relations between co-branding partners (Dewhurst & Hunter, 2002:146). This approach to co-branding i.e. marketing through sport is characterized by a number of unique issues which makes it slightly different from normal co-branding efforts.

As a unique aspect of this marketing dimension, a study was conducted on attitudes and awareness of sponsorships meaning among recreational golfers where it became apparent that there is a need to segment target markets further in order to increase awareness of sponsorship. According to Lee, Harris and Lyberger (2011:193) the study focused on the effects of Ryder Cup sponsorship, particularly the 2008 Ryder Cup golf championship. The rationale behind targeting this championship was that the Ryder Cup is one of the premier professional golfing events. It is ironic to note that despite the premier nature of the Cup, the results of the study indicated a relatively low sponsorship awareness in the context of other popular sports. Another unique feature is that co-branding in sport relies on signage in the field perimeter to enhance spectator recognition of sponsors. This unique feature was confirmed in the results of the study conducted by Maxwell and Lough (2009:188-198) where it was established that signage perceived around the match venue does enhance recognition of the sponsoring brand. It is important that the perceptual effect of the signage enables spectators to learn a positive attitude towards the sponsoring brand. It is strange to mention that in one study it was revealed that the rates of remembering and recognizing a brand were comparable but were at a lower rate than in the Olympics and sporting events of high magnitude (Olson, 2010:180-199). The study was done to measure awareness of sponsorship by consumers at amateur sporting level. Obviously the level of the sporting event is a decisive factor in the degree of perception, recognition and recall of the brand information that was displayed at a stadium. A positive attitude towards the sponsoring brand is the ultimate objective.

Highlighting the integral part of attitude, a detailed model that works well was designed to deal with effects in both sports and sponsorship contexts in terms of high-level sponsorship, where after the

findings confirmed the importance of improving consumer attitude towards co-branding in sport and brand equity of the entity or event intended for sponsorship (Olson, 2010:180-199). A study on how tobacco products were used in sponsoring sport revealed a ploy by Rodeo to fight proposed legal restrictions on tobacco sponsorship through misusing Rodeo's acquaintance with athletes and fans (Ling, Haber & Wedl, 2010:32-41). In this instance sponsorship was not used for the good of the consumers or enhancement of the game of rodeo, but rather for tobacco industry survival. Whatever the case is, sport has become the focal point of the marketing mix, especially with regard to promotion as a component of the mix. This manifests dynamism in sport sponsorship.

Sponsorship in professional sports which are characterised by the volatile nature of brand equity and co-branding were also studied in New Zealand. It became evident that marketers need to be innovative and creative to ensure that co-branding relationship is underpinned by synergistic brand value. All companies chosen for the survey were involved in co-branding with a sports team (Frederick & Patil, 2010:44-57). This study was focused on popular soccer clubs and sponsors that are based in New Zealand. Some respondents (soccer fans) gave a reason of strategic value in sports sponsorship whilst others highly rated the emotions elicited by soccer, cultural and traditional aspects of soccer, and joy and happiness felt when watching a soccer match as synergistic values for co-branding in sports (Frederick & Patil, 2010:44-57). Brand leverage, brand equity, brand portfolio, media exposure, community awareness, goodwill, to mention a few, are the prime motives of organizations opting for sports sponsorship. Whatever the reason, supporting findings from another study (Olson, 2010:180) confirmed that sponsorship has the same effect across different sports codes. This emphasizes the fact that sponsorship has become the most popular promotion strategy to most marketers in all industries and in all countries, South Africa being one of them.

4.3.3 The magnitude of investment in co-branding in sport

Vodacom and MTN, as well as South African Breweries Miller (SABMiller) in telecommunications industry and beer industry respectively, have invested millions into soccer and rugby, and athletics. SABMiller in particular has been sponsoring the professional soccer league for many years using different brands i.e. Keg Lager and later Castle Lager. Of late the company is sponsoring national teams for cricket and soccer (South Africa Takes Its Position in International Soccer 2011). BMI Sport Info., on the one hand have estimated annual growth of sponsorship at 22% and that on average most sponsor companies' communication budgets are in excess of 20 per cent of total expenditure thereby indicating a major role in the marketing mix (South African Sport & Sponsorship Landscape 2011). For example,

it appeared in a newspaper promotion, that AmaZulu F.C. (AmaZulu) and Sun Coast Casino ran a competition in 2011. The competition was that readers of EYETHU Intshonalanga (Madlala, 2011:3) would win weekly prizes comprising R2000 worth of AmaZulu sporting goods, R800 vouchers for spending at the Sun Coast Casino complex, and a discounted season ticket to watch all home games of AmaZulu to the value of R490 if they entered using the appropriate form . On the other hand, advertising spending increased at a lower rate of than 10 per cent per annum. Co-branding in sport has become a critical component of the marketing mix (Hassan & Lusted, 2013:172) and a successful communication conduit to establish a relationship between the sponsoring brand and the sports lover, who could either be an active participant (player or follower of the sponsored team. This substantiates what Ko, Kim, Claussen and Kim (2008:80) stated that the rationale behind the increased expenditure in co-branding in sport is that sponsorship enables co-branding partners to reach large and diverse audiences. Sponsor awareness is a crucial factor in deciding to purchase or not to purchase a sponsor's product.

In Ireland, Wynne who is the Director of Sport at Slattery Communications comments that sponsorship spending in Ireland is reaching the region of £125 million despite the much-publicised economic slowdown. However, he goes on to say that the game has changed such that sports governing bodies are now under more pressure than ever before to deliver a value proposition and need to take these new market conditions very seriously if they are to continue to reap the benefits of commercial investment in their games (Blackshaw, 2006:1). Brands are no longer sponsors or benefactors, but partners. Co-branding in sports marketing is meant to serve a number of marketing objectives for a corporation and its products, including increasing brand awareness, reinforcing or enhancing brand image, and improving sales or market share. Additional objectives for sport sponsorship are cross-promotional co-sponsorship opportunities, as well as enhancement of trade relations and goodwill (Dewhirst & Hunter, 2002:146). These authors go on to highlight the fact that a sponsorship is indeed an act of strategic alliance between the sponsor and the sponsored as well as among co-sponsors when they mention that the strategic alliance or partnership formed by auto racing co-sponsors provide manufacturers with opportunities to attain visibility and exposure for their respective brands through co-sponsors' third party advertising.

4.3.4 Unique characteristics of marketing through sport

This approach to co-branding i.e. marketing through sport is characterized by a number of unique issues which make it slightly different from normal co-branding efforts (Miloch & Lambrecht, 2006:149). The study by Miloch and Lambrecht (2006:149) investigated sponsorship of grassroots and niche sport

events to assess consumer awareness through an examination of recall and recognition rates and purchase intentions. The results revealed lower recognition rates compared to recognition rates in the case of mega-sport events. This finding substantiates the fact that sponsors target sporting codes and sports teams with more intense hype for maximum exposure and brand recognition. This was also evident in a study by Lee, Harris and Lyberger (2011:197) on recreational golfers' attitudes and awareness of sponsorships which point to the need for further segmentation of target markets to increase awareness of sponsorship, with relevance to sponsorship of the Ryder Cup. On the issue of awareness, Maxwell and Lough (2009:188-198) analysed the reliance of signage to generate spectator recognition of sponsors whereby it became evident that sponsorship is nearly synonymous with the use of signage in sport venues as part enhancing brand recognition. The signage that is displayed in the perimeter of the sports field is a stimulus that is meant to attract the attention of the target market in order that the process of perception succeeds since the stimulus is placed within the relevant environment of the target audience.

It is indicated in Chapter 3 that distinctive themes are carefully selected to enhance exposure, which is the first step in the process of perception and that for a stimulus to be successfully exposed to the target audience, it must be within the relevant environment of the target audience (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:232). It is important for an organization deciding to use sponsorship as a strategy when developing its brand to put together an appropriate sponsorship portfolio. It has been established that more often than not, a brand's sponsorship portfolio includes, *inter alia*, high profile brands mixed with some which appear incompatible. Chien, Cornwell and Pappu (2011:142) define co-branding in sport portfolio as a sum total of brand sponsorships secured in sequence or simultaneously as well as individual contacts in sport, art, and charity used to liaise with various target audiences. This is in line with Frederick and Patil's (2010:46) explanation of co-branding portfolio as a multifaceted collection of partnering brands such that the consumer's knowledge network may be affected whenever a new brand is added to an existing portfolio. Because of the nature of this phenomenon, compatibility within the portfolio may assist consumers' understanding of a sponsorship portfolio and also enable them to evaluate the sponsor's brand image. Chien *et al.* (2011:142-149) compare the effects of brand extension and those of sponsorship portfolio. They argue that if a new product is added under an existing brand name in the product mix of an organization, such an act can provide to the umbrella brand and existing products, disregarding the fact that some sponsorships may be secured sequentially whilst others may be secured simultaneously.

Chien *et al.* (2011:143) conducted two experiments using fictitious brands and sponsorship portfolios to test consumer understanding of brands in a portfolio. The two dimensions that the authors were testing were recognition of compatibility in sponsorship portfolio and sponsorship category relatedness. The authors applied the associative network theory of perception. The associative network theory posits that the extent to which consumers can recognise relatedness of brands in a portfolio indicates their ability to associate each brand with others (Chien *et al.*, 2011: 144). This theory is closely related to the cognitive associative learning theory as explained by Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:166). This kind of theory derives from exposure of individuals and groups to events in the environment thereby resulting in the formation of relationships which creates expectations regarding the structure of the environment. It is upon this theory that marketers strive to make consumers learn about a brand such that they acquire memory of a sequence of related events. This is the memory of a person who experienced the series of events (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:315). In this objective, marketers are not concerned about what information is stored in the permanent storage of information but also about how the data are arranged in such memory. This augers well with the definition of learning (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:308) as any change in attitude towards a brand, behaviour towards the brand, and brand knowledge in the long-term memory as a result of elaborate activities in the brain. By worrying how the information is arranged, marketers promote brands in such a manner that the ultimate outcome is the formation of a schematic memory of a brand, which is also referred to as the knowledge structure of the brand or schema.

A hypothetical case was used where Pepsico promoted Mount Dew in different scenarios including sponsorship (of Rihanna's concert), parties (for celebrities and American annual parties like Halloween), supporting greening of the environment (re-cycled packaging) which culminated into four distinct themes viz. crisp (nature of the soft drink), fun, green, and cool. This created a web of associations for the brand which is referred to as the schema. The schematic memory of the brand is the same as the brand image (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:317).

Justifying the uniqueness of marketing through sport, a detailed model that works well was designed to deal with effects in both sports and sponsorship contexts in terms of high-level sponsorship, where after the findings confirmed the importance of improving consumer attitude towards co-branding in sport and brand equity of the entity or event intended for sponsorship (Olson, 2010:180-199). Briefly, the model improved upon previous studies where research focused only on sponsorship context. The study by Olson (2010) was the first attempt to compare the effects of high-level sponsorship across both sports and non-sports contexts, using a co-branding through sport model. The model also contributes to the

previous research by facilitating a thorough examination of predictors of co-branding effect. In this endeavour, relationships of construct previously tested in hypothetical single co-branding contexts were mostly confirmed. Another study on co-branding through sport sponsored by tobacco firms was conducted by Ling, Haber and Wedl (2010:32-41) it was revealed that the sponsorship was a ploy by Rodeo to fight proposed legal restrictions on tobacco co-branding in sport by misusing relationships with athletes and fans. Whatever the case is, sport has become the focal point of the changing marketing mix.

The developments that have taken place in the direction of sport sponsorship indicate that co-branding in soccer has become big business. This is borne by the magnitude of spending in soccer sponsorship where marketers are attracted by the level of exposure. It would seem that marketers have noticed the high level of exposure in co-branding in this type of sport. What remains to be established is whether the stakeholders in the soccer fraternity do realise the importance of co-branding that is growing in the industry. It is necessary though to explore the issues around marketers including co-branding in soccer as part of the marketing mix. The issues to be explored appear to be of prime importance thus warranting the necessary attention whenever marketers contemplate this kind of action in marketing their brands.

Although there are issues which characterise co-branding in soccer, it is still a documented fact that soccer as a product has succeeded over the years of its development and evolution to bring about changes in nations as have been discussed in Chapter 2. The issues to be highlighted and discussed are the ones that confirm the fact that co-branding in soccer is a dynamic dimension of marketing with many facets that require specific understanding and application of management principles to deal with. The issues are of co-branding through soccer are features of the product that results from the alliance that is meant to generate a larger scope of business compared to the scope of business of a single brand.

4.4 ISSUES IN SOCCER CO-BRANDING

It became apparent in the essence of co-branding in sport that sport has become the focal point in the marketing mix. Accepting that as a fact of the situation with regard to this type of co-branding, it has also surfaced that there are issues that require attention, especially in sports co-branding agreements. Most of these issues relate to soccer co-branding agreements as discussed in sub-sections that follow.

Numerous studies have been conducted around sport sponsorship and a large number of issues needing attention by the corporate world and sports administrators have been explored by marketing, advertising and other social science researchers over the years. The overview of issues identified are relationship with spectators, fans, and supporters; the length of the relationship (agreement); understanding by parties' management and stakeholders (players, spectators fans, and supporters) of the implications of the agreement; measurement of sponsorship objectives; sponsorship congruence; affective intensity and identification of sponsor's brand (Wakefield & Bennett, 2010); opinions of sport consumers; involvement of senior management of parties; conflicts in co-branding through sport, and lessons from a comprehensive critical study of English Soccer sponsorships (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2004).

4.4.1 Conflicting sport sponsorship and endorsements

The issue commonly found in co-branding through soccer is conflict of interest with regard to sports sponsorships and endorsements. This problem may occur e.g. when a soccer player, who has been approached individually by an organization to wear his own individual sponsored clothing, plays in a soccer contest sponsored by another sports clothing manufacturer, whereby the terms of the sponsored event (league or cup) dictate that all players are expected to wear the contest sponsors' sportswear bearing its distinctive logo. Another conflict of interest would occur when a player is individually sponsored by one marketer's brand whilst the team he plays for is sponsored by a competing brand e.g. a player is sponsored to wear a soccer jersey bearing Puma logo whilst the team is sponsored by Adidas. This issue is typical of soccer sponsorships. In the Football Association Premier League (FAPL) of England, some provisions are contained in the player's standard contract, which restrict the selfish use of a player's public status by marketers. The provisions form part of the contract to emphasize the club context as of prime importance (Blackshaw, 2006:1). In addition, the player's liberty to enter into other image rights agreements and promotional/public relations deals outside the FAPL contract is specifically dealt with clearly in the FAPL contract.

4.4.2 The professional management of sport sponsorship

Amongst other issues that were identified in the studies about sponsorship management in the English Premier League is the level of professionalism in sport sponsorship. It was found that sponsorships are failing because of the fact that sponsoring organizations do not appreciate the fact that soccer sponsorships are not easy to manage. The critical element contributing to such failure is the inability to professionally manage sponsorships which in turn undermines the effectiveness of co-branding through

soccer. Further than that, sponsorship decisions are more often not given priority and are not done in time. It is also common that soccer teams approach sponsors too close to the beginning of a new season. This means that sponsors often agree to co-brand with clubs in haste thereby failing to really justify why they enter into such co-branding relationships in terms of fit of purpose. Blackshaw's (2006:2) study further revealed that some co-branding partners are not creative in crafting strategies to derive the desired value from co-branding in soccer. The clubs are also not seen to be helping sponsors by not granting sponsors an opportunity to communicate directly with players and to access other club resources. In fact, some clubs tend to perceive sponsors as adversaries rather than business partners. This is an indication that in some clubs, management do not understand marketing as a business catalyst and this in turn results in failure to understand the potential business success that can derive from proper management of sponsorship agreements (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2004:50).

4.4.3 Management level of sponsorship agreements

It is also not uncommon to find that a sponsorship manager, who is at a middle level of management by rank, is expected to manage a sponsorship that had been agreed to without his involvement and signed by a marketing director. The marketing director would then cascade the responsibility to liaise with the soccer club down to a local branch manager. Some sponsors regard evaluation of the effectiveness of sponsorship as a costly, time consuming exercise, and not precise to justify the effort. It is inconceivable why such issues have not been tackled in a co-ordinated effort to consolidate common strategy among parties to a sponsorship relationship despite an earlier study by Chadwick and Thwaites (2004:49-51) in which advances in management of sponsorship in English professional soccer were investigated. The study identified six issues that need special attention in a sponsorship agreement, which are as follows:

- length of the sponsorship agreement;
- high profile of the club;
- club's on the field success;
- formulation of clear objectives;
- effective communication; and
- relationship marketing with supporters, membership clubs, and affinity and loyalty schemes

It may be possible that marketers are wary to deal with these issues in case other marketing issues surface as a spiral effect like clutter, environment relevance, etc.

With regard to senior management involvement in a sponsorship agreement, Nicolau (2011:281) established in a study of Real Madrid's case that the impact of the personal involvement of a firm's figurehead (the club's president) in the strategies towards goals scored by players augers well with team's corporate goals. The author stated that the empirical study revealed that the club's performance on the field impacts positively on the return on investment expected by the team. The implication of this finding is that a club's on the field performance is an issue which when attended to becomes a success factor in the co-branding through soccer relationship.

4.4.4 The effect of sponsorship clutter on sport consumers

The effect of clutter to consumers of sporting intangible products (services) in the form of bombardment with different logos within a short space of time is a concern (Choi, Stotlar & Park, 2006). The study by Choi *et al.* (2006:71) poses the question whether consumers are always actually aware of millions of appeals that different sponsors make to them at sporting event locations and whether the sponsors' promotional programmes do address the interests of the fans as consumers of sport and sponsoring brands. The question that has not yet been answered is whether consumers actually notice the multitude of logos whilst concentrating on the game. The other question is whether marketers ask themselves if all the logos are within the relevant environment of the target audience to be perceived at the level desired by the marketers. As long as these questions are not answered, the purpose of sponsorship is not clear and uncertain. Collection of primary data in this study will seek answers to these questions. At appropriate intervals the co-branding partners need to measure if objectives of sponsorship have been attained.

4.4.5 Measurement of attainment of sponsorship objectives

If sponsorship is pursued with strategic purpose in mind, are the communication objectives measured periodically or otherwise? Normally, strategic objectives are measurable goals and the effect of communication objectives or brand equity in sponsorships must also be measurable (Angelopulo & Overton, 1986:21, 25-26). It is not clear as to whether this is done in a sponsorship relationship between the sponsoring organization and the sponsored team. Results of a study of sponsored football teams in the Netherlands indicated that sponsors perceive brand exposure and sport coverage as factors that contribute differently to the enhancement of brand equity. This perception tendency motivated the development of a periodic assessment tool for sponsorship referred to as Sport Sponsoring Index with an aim of incorporating it in the co-branding agreement. It was targeted at sports administrators. There

is no recorded study confirming usage of this tool (Henseler, Wilson & Westberg, 2011:7). However, some studies have attempted to tackle the issue of measurement from other angles.

Smorlanov and Ayeku (2009:76) sought to develop factorial scales for the measurement of the communication objectives of sport sponsorships which were derived from all objectives for which sport sponsorships are known to have been used to attain. One of them, according to Hermann, Wallisser and Kacha (2011:259), is that sponsorship reduces the number of main competitor brands in the spectators' consideration set. The implication is that the level of clutter is the magnitude of clutter that the consumer has to deal with in analysing relevant marketing stimuli competing for the attention for the same consumer.

Apart from measurement as an objective, in a study by Dees, Bennet and Villegas (2008:79) it was revealed that a high brand equity motivates consumers' support of the corporate sponsors' brand. Purchasing the branded product is the ultimate goal of every marketer. This finding is also supported by another study (Ko, Kim, Claussen & Kim, 2008:84) where it is stated that numerous studies have proven that a positive attitude predicts consumer purchase intentions. The behavioural intentions here are those of purchasing the product of the sponsor. That is the main objective of the sponsorship pursued by any sponsoring company. The importance of image transfer was the main reason why Barclays Bank made themselves available in 1987 to replace *Today* newspaper as the sponsor of the FAPL (Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999:336). Soccer as the national fabric of British society provides a major event that offers high profile association with industry for image enhancement. It is further stated that it also provides an ideal medium for targeting the youth with the brand of the bank. Image transfer (goodwill) varies by sponsorship category and it also varies by degree of exploitation. The sport that Barclays Bank got involved with is a high profile category, especially in Britain (Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999). A pertinent question here is whether this objective is stated explicitly or not in sponsorship agreements. This is part of the objective of this study.

Assessing image transfer is one of the issues that are characteristic of a sponsorship agreement. However, it has been found that marketers neglect this kind of sponsorship evaluation owing to the alleged complexity of its assessment, lack of resources for sponsorship control and non-existence of knowledge of methods of assessment (Grohs & Reisinger, 2005:43). This appears to be a feeble excuse since other studies have revealed that it is quite possible from a business point of view to evaluate the effectiveness of sponsorship involvement. Pope (1998:124) avers that sales increase is an objective measure of the impact of sponsorship. The study also revealed that Visa experienced market growth

after the 1988 Olympics whilst Volvo reported a six times return for every dollar spent on its sport sponsorship programmes, meaning that one dollar achieves six dollars in return. It is also on record that the sales of Puma tennis rackets were only 15 000 per year in 1984. As a result of co-branding in sport, when Boris Becker won the Wimbledon for the first time playing with Puma tennis racket in 1985, the sales of Puma tennis rackets increased to 150,000 per year. Pope (1998) went on to mention that impressive results of co-branding in terms of sales figures may make other sponsorship partnering organizations reluctant to measure the effect if they cannot produce objective figures to support their spending decisions. Others would be reluctant to measure the sponsorship effect in fear of losing their jobs if the returns do not justify the increments in sponsorship investment. Besides measurement of effectiveness perceived as a daunting task by marketers, there are other issues around soccer sponsorship like sponsorship congruence, and affective intensity and sponsor identification.

4.4.6 Sponsorship congruence

A number of studies focussed on sponsorship congruence. Dees, Bennett and Ferreira (2010:25) found that fan identification and product involvement had significant direct effects on NASCAR driver-sponsor congruence. Coppetti, Wentzel, Tomczak and Henkel (2009:17) found that a situation where there is no compatibility of brands in a co-branding agreement such can be salvaged by an effective marketing communications strategy and target audience participation. These two factors can cause an improved sponsorship evaluations results due to more favourable attitudes towards the sponsoring brand and successful image transfer from the event to the sponsoring brand. The congruence between the sponsoring brand and the sponsored organization, sponsored cause, sponsored event, or sponsored individual has been and still an important construct for predicting sponsorship effect (Olson & Thjomoe, 2011:57-70). This additional discovery of this issue confirms what was found earlier in a study by Grohs and Reisinger (2005:43) to be prevailing in sponsorships.

The marketing communications strategy of the anticipated new co-branding agreement requires to be co-ordinated by both partnering organizations in order that same media are used and the same message is disseminated to the target audiences of both organizations. It is also important that previous and expired co-branding agreements must be clearly indicated as such for the benefit of the affected target audience (Frederick & Patil, 2010:47). This was the case when one of the then National Soccer League teams in South Africa terminated a sponsorship agreement with Total South Africa and for some reason not all players were aware of such a development. This was manifested when one of the players scored a goal and in celebration thereof showed a hands gesture resembling a “T” thereby promoting the

sponsor's brand the sponsorship agreement of with which had been discontinued for the introduction of a new one.

Woisetschläger and Michaelis (2012:511) conducted an investigation to measure pre-post event survey on experiment basis prior to and shortly after the FIFA 2006 World Cup that was hosted by Germany. The authors carried out the investigation in which 268 respondents of the sample participated in both pre-survey and post-survey. These researchers cited the definition of brand image as perceptions of the brand represented by a web of brand associations that consumer have in memory (Kotler & Keller, 2013). They further assert that learning that takes place during the marketing communications strategy in relation to the sponsoring brand e.g. trademark and sponsorship has been found to be the method by which the web of brand associations is built, strengthened, and maintained. The results of the experiment by Woisetschläger and Michaelis (2012:511) revealed that 59 per cent of the respondents did not remember the sponsoring brand after the event whereas 73 per cent of the respondents remembered the sponsor, which indicated that some of the respondents learnt about the sponsor during the event. Comparing the results of their study with those of the then documented studies, the researchers established that such studies revealed that fit between the sponsoring brand and the sponsored event is a prerequisite for the change in how the consumers perceive the brand. The study by Woisetschläger and Michaelis (2012:519) rather revealed that a positive attitude towards a co-branding agreement where there is no congruence (i.e. event is assigned more value than image of the sponsoring brand) before the event is commissioned has potential of improving the image of the sponsoring brand after the event. To reconcile these studies, it is apparent from both results that fit between the sponsoring brand and the sponsored event will improve over a period of time as long as communication thereof is perpetual to make sure that maintenance rehearsal enhances learning into long-term memory.

The extent to which fans are regarded as stakeholders in sponsorship agreements is addressed in the study conducted by Woisetschläger, Backhaus, Evanschitzky, and Michaelis (2009). Having explored various sources of literature in this regard the authors identified two determinants of sponsorship fit (congruence) viz. individual fan perceptions and sponsorship characteristics. Individual fan perceptions are multi-dimensional since they cover commonality of the target audience, relatedness to the sponsored event and team, perceived benefits in the co-branding agreement, identification of a regionally based sponsor, the sponsor's sincerity and commitment to the co-branding agreement, which partner is dominant in the partnership, and resentment of the sponsorship by sport fans. Sponsorship characteristics manifest themselves in the level of sponsorship investment each year, and in the commitment shown by length of time the sponsor is willing commit to the sponsorship contract. These issues were investigated

via an internet survey among fans of the 18 clubs of the first German soccer league. A total of 1,579 respondents participated in the survey and fully answered all questions (Woisetschläger *et al.*, 2009).

The findings of the study by Woisetschläger *et al.* (2009) revealed that what is perceived by stakeholders as beneficial determines the sponsorship congruence at the individual fan level. The implication is that sponsors must clearly communicate to the target audience as to what benefits will their engagement bring to the co-branding agreement. Results also showed that regional identification is a predictor of sponsorship congruence since organizations that show financial interest in the region of the club are perceived by fans as regional compatriots thereby regarded as befitting the club's objectives. Sincerity of the sponsoring brand as perceived by stakeholders (fans) was also shown to be a predictor of congruence in co-branding through sport if the sponsor publicly communicates the reasons for selecting the club for sponsorship. The study also revealed that the sponsor should be modest in its communication to avoid being perceived as a dominator of the club. However, the results showed that commonality of target audience and perceived resentment are not strongly related to congruence in co-branding through sport. At sponsor level the study revealed that previous and currently expected length of sponsorship contribute in a positive sense towards the congruence in co-branding through sport. This is very important when a marketer has to decide which event or team to sponsor in order to invest funds where return on investment can be realized and justified. Such a decision will also determine affective intensity.

4.4.7 Affective intensity and sponsor identification

Affective intensity and sponsor identification were studied by Wakefield and Bennett (2010:99) and found to mean the likelihood of consumers to identify prominent and related sponsors precisely. The most important aspect of the findings of the study is that a reason for remembrance of prominent and related sponsors is that the best-performing brands attract prominent and related organizations as sponsors and how intense is the affection towards a brand enhances how consumers take cognisance of sponsors of successful entities. This is in line with two of the issues that were identified by Chadwick and Thwaites (2004) i.e. the high profile of the club and the club's on the field performance as issues needing attention in sponsorship. A supporting study of degenerative episodes in sport by Westberg, Stavros and Wilson (2011:603) revealed that bad publicity relating to athletes belonging to the sponsored sport organization tends to threaten the brands of both sponsorship partners with the potential of weakening or dissolving the co-branding partnership. The findings of the studies under discussion

indicate that the role or behaviour of soccer players (athletes) is an important issue to be dealt with when the relationship of sponsorship is developed.

The opinions of consumers have also been explored e.g. the attitudes of consumers towards food and non-alcoholic beverage products' appropriateness in sponsoring sporting events in relation to other products whereby the studies revealed that attitudes towards food and non-alcoholic beverage sponsorships were more positive than to alcohol brands (Cornwell, 2014:155). In a case study of Mountain Dew and Action Sport Sponsorship by Bennett, Ferreira, Lee and Polite (2009:14-15) it was revealed that sport support, actively engaging in the sport, and video-gaming, actually predict consumption of Mountain Dew soda among the people attending a sponsored sporting event. Target market awareness of the sponsoring brand at a grassroots and niche sport event when evaluated in terms of remembrance and recognition levels, and intentions to purchase was assessed by Miloch and Lambrecht (2006:147-154) and subsequent studies confirmed the findings of this study. This is an indication that fans and supporters are important stakeholders to be considered in the choice of a sponsor in terms of fit (congruence) which later affects the consumer purchase intentions of the products of the sponsor.

There are also conflicts in co-branding through sport. One conflict may arise when one athlete (player) in a sponsored team has an additional individual clothing sponsor wanting that athlete to show its logo when he plays for the team which he is a member of. It is even worse if the sponsor of the team is a competing brand in relation to the individual athlete's sponsor. This is acute in football. Blackshaw's study (2006:2) reveals a solution to the problem as currently practiced in Europe to deal with this conflict whereby Clause 4 of the new players' standard contract has strict provisions that restrict the misuse of a player's status as a celebrity with regard to using the player's image in club's sports gear. Such restrictions bind the player legally in what is referred to as "Club Context". Clause 4.5 provides guidelines for players as to how to go about dealing with sponsors approaching them for individual promotional activities of their brands.

In a study by Chadwick and Thwaites (2005:328-338) widespread concerns were established regarding management practices in the wake of the development of management practices in English soccer. It has been established that sponsors tend to treat sponsorship casually– as a promotions ploy – rather than as a strategy to build long-lasting relationship, to acquire and develop an important business resource, or to create a networking base. It also appears that warnings already sounded to the soccer fraternity regarding evidence of failure to manage sponsorship are going unheeded. Such attitude reveals a

transactional marketing approach rather than a relationship marketing approach which has long term benefits in a sponsorship partnership. In a transactional marketing approach the marketer is only interested in the current marketing deal with no interest to a customer or partner after the deal has been concluded.

In an earlier study about the South African scenario (van Heerden & du Plessis, 2004:427-439), three key decision-making areas viz. sport sponsorship objectives, leverage, and measurement were identified as factors that have to be associated in a sponsorship agreement. It appeared then that there are success factors that need careful attention in handling a relationship of sponsorship in order to create a platform for the evaluation of the relationship and to create a platform for attainment of common objectives between the sponsor and the sponsored. This was the case in an eye-raiser deal for two seasons between Aon and Manchester United where the vice-president of the sponsoring corporation made it clear that they would be evaluating their return on marketing investment (Why Aon Chose To Aim Big With Manchester United Deal, 2009). Some of the issues discussed above are of the nature that they also feature as success factors in sponsorship effectiveness for all parties involved. The results of different studies where these issues were investigated in relation to the planning and actual negotiation of sponsorship agreements reveal that some of the issues are important in forming the basis of a worthwhile and fruitful relationship between sponsorship partners. This scenario renders some of the issues as critical to the success of a sponsorship in professional soccer.

The discussion of critical success factors as will be done hereunder is essential in narrowing the focus of this study. This will assist in identifying specific aspects of the study when exploring the themes that derive from the objectives of the study listed in the introductory chapter (Chapter 1) in section 1.3. The exploration of the themes as already stated will assist in throwing the required light onto the questions raised about the application of co-branding in soccer with a view to achieving marketing objectives. The discussion will also highlight factors the proper address of which may assist PSL clubs in KwaZulu-Natal in particular and PSL clubs in South Africa in general to manage their businesses more professionally. The proper understanding of the issues in co-branding through soccer can enable management staff of both the sponsor and the soccer team to identify and utilise success factors for the attainment of co-branding goals.

4.5 CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS IN SOCCER SPONSORSHIP

Sponsorship in soccer is meant to benefit both the sponsoring organization and the sponsored club. However, there are quite a number of critical success factors that would characterize a worthwhile sponsorship investment and relationship. The critical success factors are discussed in sub-sections of the section. Different researchers have gradually and incrementally discovered a list of different critical success factors, as soccer continues to develop in leaps and bounds as the most widely promoted game with the passage of time. Exploring documented studies indicate that the process of discovering these success factors gained momentum in the 1990s. This trend of perceiving soccer as the most widely promoted game was confirmed in a study by Clark (2007:453) in which it was stated that the world's most popular sport is soccer, justified by the Soccer World Cup numbers of spectators attracted to the finals with estimated worldwide television audiences in the billions. This has resulted in a gradual accumulation of the list as already referred to earlier on. Whilst there is gradual interest in contributing to a body of knowledge on different devices based on new technological advancement to measure performance, it is notable to take cognisance of the fact that soccer as an intangible product has not been getting the same level of attention as other consumer products. The trend is also confirmed in another study by Lago-Ballesteros and Lago-Peñas (2010) who assert that empirical analysis of player performance is relatively limited. Documented findings have been confined to exploratory focus on patterns of how different clubs approach the game in terms of positional physical contribution of individual players. The critical success factors form the basis for developing a performance management system (PMS) tailor-made for professional soccer teams, which would assist the teams to monitor performance levels that would enhance opportunities to secure lucrative sponsorship agreements in the long-term. The critical success factors are discussed hereunder.

4.5.1 The length of the relationship with stakeholders (sponsors and spectators)

In a classical example of a typical sports related study based on rugby management (Herbst & Schreuder, 1999:41), it was found that ensuring marketing effectiveness is dependent on the quality of the relationship with spectators as a crucial success factor that is influenced by the length of the relationship, value for money and the propensity to leave. Marketing effectiveness and the quality of the relationship with spectators are underpinned by the length of the relationship of the sponsorship. Relationship quality is defined by (Callejo & Forcadell, 2006:60) as an important component of relationship marketing. Relationship quality is characterised by costs of terminating the co-branding relationship, benefits derived from co-branding relationship, values common between parties, behaviour facilitated by

opportunity, and communication. For the relationship to last long, relationship marketing should be harnessed to the process.

Relationship marketing is defined as a process whereby a marketer forges a long term relationship with customers (Etzel *et al.*, 2010:17). According to Bühler, Hefferman and Hewson (2007:294), relationship marketing manifests itself when a marketer establishes, maintains and enhance long-term relationships with customers and other partners with a view to achieve and sustain profitability. Marketers who deal in durable and semi-durable products bring into effect such relationship through club magazines, follow-up SMS's or telephone calls, postcard or letter of assurance of quality by the manufacturer, etc. In the case of a sponsorship agreement, effective promotion and optimal use of the components of the co-branding agreement were discovered by Chadwick and Thwaites (2005:335) as one of the key success factors. This was confirmed in a study of how Real Madrid is managed (Callejo & Forcadell, 2006:60). Real Madrid seems to be succeeding in relationship marketing by taking advantage of new technologies offered by Siemens IC Mobile as their sponsor. Through the contract on co-branding in soccer a model has been crafted at Real Madrid Football Club with an aim to allow the team to relate to spectators and its fans with vital information that supporters need to know. Using this model, the club is able to communicate with cardholding supporters who are in hundreds of thousands in number. This initiative transforms the followers and supporters into effective customers.

Besides a short-lived sponsorship agreement (Chadwick and Thwaites, 2005:335), dependability and quickness in response dimensions of the quality of service were found to have a tremendous impact on soccer fans' repurchase intentions according to a study conducted by Theodorakis, Koustelios, Robinsons and Barlas (2009:460). The researchers investigated if the loyalty between a spectator or fan and a sponsored sports team is a predictor of repurchase of match tickets and co-branded merchandise (desired behaviour) by spectators. What motivated these researchers was the exploration of previous study results which indicated that a spectator's identification of the team influenced the spectator to attend the future scheduled games as well as purchasing and repurchasing merchandise that bear the logos of the sponsorship partners (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013). Literature studied in Chapter 3 (Sect. 3.8) also indicated that fanatic spectators were inclined to spend ridiculous amounts of money buying co-branded merchandise to emphasize their identity with their team. The study revealed that if the service rendered by employees of professional sporting teams is of superior quality, spectators would be influenced to always want to come back to buy match tickets and team merchandise from the same employees. It was also found that teams in Greece had a habit of employing casual staff to deal with team supporters without having been thoroughly trained to do such a job. The perceived service quality

was found to be at a very low level among Greek fans. In essence, the results of the study revealed that superior service quality was the indicator and influencer of repurchase intentions by sports spectators, particularly those who identify closely with their teams (Theodorakis *et al.*, 2009:468) thereby re-emphasizing relationship marketing as recorded in the case of Real Madrid.

4.5.2 Clear sponsorship objectives

The sponsorship between Siemens and Real Madrid has lasted longer than some of the noticeable sponsorship agreements. It would seem that Real Madrid management took cognisance of the club's on the field performance, formulation of clear objectives, and effective communication as important success factors in the sponsorship relationship. Without good communication, many co-branding through soccer agreements resemble short-lived marriages without a proper foundation which eventually end in a divorce characterised by deep hatred (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2004:49). For facilitating relationship marketing that can bear results in the long-term, a short-term sponsorship relationship must be avoided. One of the success factors in avoiding a short-lived sponsorship relationship is to select suitable avenues for co-branding through sports. Hansen, Martensen and Christensen (2005:75-77) developed a Sponsorship Value Model which links responsiveness, co-branding value, to its four catalysts that are positive and negative attitudes towards the sponsorship, and positive and negative emotions towards the sponsorship. The concept of the model was to develop a framework that will guide the sponsor in its selection of relevant sponsored partners before committing to a co-branding agreement.

Relevance as a barometer, manifested in the type of emotional reaction of the target audience to the sponsored organization, will rub-off to some degree on the sponsor. It therefore stands to reason that the model is meant to show the path to the sponsor in choosing sponsored partners capable of contributing towards the development of the overall value of co-branding through sport for the sponsor. The result of the study by Hansen *et al.* (2005) when testing the model empirically reveal that attitudes are seen as more pivotal to the function of the model than emotions. This finding indicated that effects of co-branding through sport must be derived from a subconscious level rather than on a cognitive level. The guide in selecting relevant sponsored partners should logically lead to the identification of such stakeholders. In a case study by Parent and Deephouse (2007) it was established that there is correlation between stakeholder attributes and stakeholder salience. The study also made it clear that stakeholder salience depends on stakeholder power. The salient attributes of stakeholders bring about a positive emotional reaction of the target audience to the stakeholder, which will rub-off onto the sponsor. The salient attributes desired in an identified stakeholder are, according to these authors' study, are

definitiveness, and dominance. The factor that has an effect on stakeholder salience is power followed by urgency and legitimacy, but there must be some degree of commonality between partners in co-branding through soccer.

4.5.3 Shared value, trust, and congruence

The necessary catalyst to sustain the salient attributes of stakeholders is shared value. A shared value is a corporate value that is common among the soccer team and the sponsoring organization. It is critical that there must be shared value a co-branding association (Motion *et al.* 2003). The more commonality there is regarding the core values subscribed to by both partners, the greater the potential to enhance equity of the co-branded product or service (Frederick & Patil, 2010). Another critical factor that could assist in manifesting shared values is brand extension. Brand extension occurs when a marketer introduces a new product using the colour scheme, proximity, or the name of an existing brand name (Besharat, 2010:1242). For example, in the case of AmaZulu and Spar, Spar has in the past few years introduced a liquor outlet in the name of Spar Tops. The Spar Tops Drinktionary (SABC television advertisements) campaign is promoting avoidance of drinking and driving, amongst other things, which obviously is a value shared by AmaZulu as a PSL team and Spar as an international store brand. The shared value here is social responsibility. Shared values require an appropriate platform to be sustainable and they derive from sponsorship congruence which is an issue needing thorough exploration before a sponsorship agreement is reached.

Trust is a platform on which shared values could survive. According to Bühler *et al.* (2007:295), trust is seen as a factor that underpins discipline areas that are crucial in making co-branding relationships successful. For sponsorship partners to continue trusting one another, commitment to develop a stable relationship is required from both parties. Such commitment must manifest itself in both partners willing to sacrifice in the short-term in order to sustain the relationship and to believe that the relationship will be stable according to Bühler *et al.* (2007). The driver of commitment is effective communication between parties to a sponsorship agreement. Communication between business parties, as in sponsorship agreement, is a typical example of commitment towards coordinating behaviour that enhances the success of a relationship. Apart from parties communicating effectively, the length of the relationship is an important characteristic for testing the effect of commitment in a shared value. Chadwick & Thwaites (2004:49) found that a sponsorship agreement of one to two years creates uncertainty of the relationship whilst the one that is formed for five years and longer indicates real commitment of the parties involved.

The 'fabric' of a sponsorship agreement woven with these critical success factors brings about satisfaction among the parties involved.

The importance of sponsorship fit, also referred to as sponsorship congruence manifests itself in the frequency and rigour with which different researchers pay attention to it. A study by Woisetschläger, Backhaus, Evanschitzky, and Michaelis (2009) confirms this when making references to various other authors who have identified variables that characterize sponsorship congruence which is fundamental for co-branding relationship success. Broadly speaking, there are two variables viz. individual fan perceptions and sponsorship characteristics. Individual fan perceptions are multi-dimensional since they cover similarity of effect, relevance to the sponsored sport, benefits of the co-branding from stakeholder perspective, regional proximity of the sponsor, the sincerity of the sponsor, which partner is dominant in the partnership, and resentment of the sponsorship. Sponsorship characteristics manifest themselves in the co-branding value i.e. the total investment to the co-branding agreement per annum, and in the commitment shown by the sponsor borne by the length of the co-branding through sport contract. Available resource to a soccer team would also be a catalyst facilitating the length of the co-branding relationship.

4.5.4 Availability of resources

In a study of the importance of success in a football team Espitia-Escuer and Garcia-Cebrian (2006), discovered the efficient use of available resources as a critical factor. The study targeted the Spanish First Division teams. The authors explain how their study differs from research undertaken earlier on in sports management. The differences pointed out are that (1) the target population (Spanish First Division) had never been studied before; (2) they used Data Envelopment Analysis to measure efficiency in soccer; and (3) their study is not only capable of determining which teams use resources sparingly but goes further by also calculating what the team could have potentially achieved in points had it used its resources efficiently during the period of seven seasons from 1998/1999 to 2004/2005 inclusive. The study was extensive in the sense that it measured the potential of each team throughout the period stated and also that the Spanish First Division league comprises 20 teams.

Co-branding through soccer in the form of sponsorship is done by marketers expecting the game to be well organized and managed. One of the important resources required to make this happen as expected is the availability of suitably qualified referees. The USA, being one of the countries building their soccer development structures, have made sure that each of the 55 states have a properly functioning

soccer association. The 55 State Referee associations role in providing high quality instruction is said to be paramount in determining whether the U.S. Soccer Federation Referee Program attains its objective or not. The programme makes referees from U.S. Soccer able to officiate in professional matches, leagues, and competitive events. The Professional Referee Organization (PRO) produces world class match officials for the entire North America, including Canada, in professional soccer (Referee Program 2015). In the wake of what is happening in the USA, Espitia-Escuer and Garcia-Cebrian's (2006:1024) study resulted firstly in developing a technical efficiency index for calculating resource usage efficiency for each team per season, based on an output-oriented perspective. The researchers then secondly calculated the number of points the team could have achieved with an efficient utilization of resources per season. Finally, the authors created a league log of teams based on the potential points calculated using the index and actual points achieved during the season. The results obtained by the researchers enabled them to conclude that the quantity and quality of resources used efficiently contribute to the team's results per season.

Another resource that is often disregarded by some professional soccer teams is communicating as a team during the match. A simple shout, hand gesture or a nod can be used as a subtle way to make a teammate aware of an open space for a pass or desired through ball. It is also helpful to let somebody know in the team that an opposing striker will not shoot with his left foot. A goalkeeper who commands the back line always keeps on communicating with such players as an efficient use of this kind of resource (Verbal Communication Is Key to Team Success 2015).

Emanating from a study, it was appropriate for Espitia-Escuer and Garcia-Cebrian (2006) to conclude that the place at which the team finishes on the log of the league is determined by the level of efficiency with which the quality and quantity of resources were utilised during the season. The authors then highlighted that communications media, commenting experts, and soccer fans alike only focus narrowly on the sports results without due consideration of the resources factor when judging teams' activities. The authors believe that the calculations made in their study would enable the critics to critique a team's performance objectively on the basis of available resources and their efficient utilization compared to the current trend. The authors then aver that an educated assessment of the team's results could provide trainers and sports managers' with relevant knowledge to craft strategies of improving their teams' results.

This conclusion is supported by the other commonly observed resource of using a player who is positioned No. 10 in a team. It became noticeable in the Brazilian team Santos where Pelè was the

kingpin player behind strikers which was also the case for the national team. It was later evident in the case of Maradona and the Argentina national team. At Barcelona in Spain the jersey Number 10 although normally worn by Lionel Messi, the player who actually plays that role is Andres Iniesta. Utilizing such a player is a resource meant for team success among other resources as already stated (The Number 10, 2015)

Deriving from usefulness of the results to trainers and sports managers with regard to the quality and quantity of the team's resources, the aim of the study by Espitia-Escuer and Garcia-Cebrian (2006:1028) was to evaluate performance of the Spanish First Division teams, hence the use of Data Envelopment Analysis. Furthermore, the study was done at the right time when the authorities in Spain were working on the proposal to subject all sporting entities in the country to evaluation based on economic performance and sustenance thereof like all other business corporations. This proposal had far reaching legal implications but at the same time had similar implications to those of business requirements by sponsors. This study could not have come at a better time for the Spanish First Division and the country but also for the soccer fraternity as a whole. A similar intervention meant as an essential resource has been in operation for some quite some years in the USA. The US Soccer Foundation started a Soccer for Success, an afterschool programme to address children's health issues and delinquency.

After six years of its implementation, the soccer body was proud to announce its success in bringing about social change. The success resulted in professional soccer teams tapping into the resource for recruiting young players (The results are in! Soccer for Success to Improve health Outcomes 2015). Perhaps a related issue here, which could impact upon the availability of the required resource in the form of players, is the incentive effect of long-term player contracts on performance influenced by longer sponsorship agreements. It is necessary to explore the effects of the length of a player's contract with regard to the length of the sponsorship contract and the ability of the team to retain a player.

4.5.5 Length of sponsorship contracts

Feess, Gerfin and Muehlheusser (2010:1) analysed the impact of long-term sponsorship contracts on player performance. The authors had to contend with the difficulty in getting adequate and appropriate performance measures as well as the potential negative effects of long-term contract which are undermined by selection when workers with higher abilities are signed for longer contracts. The study covered six seasons from 1994/1995 to 1999/2000 in the German Bundesliga. The researchers took into consideration the effects of the Bosman judgment referring to one of the court cases pertaining to player

contracts and terms thereof. This judgment would affect the last three seasons out of five since it was not yet made during the first two seasons. Data was collected from two leading German sport magazines viz. Kicker, and Sport-Bild in the form of player performance, contract duration, and annual remuneration. The study revealed that the more the contract draws closer to its end the less the performance of the player. It was further established that longer contracts influence the distribution of performance asymmetrically in the sense that they increase the probability of poor performance but do not necessarily reduce the probabilities of good performance. Another challenge that negatively impact upon the length of the sponsorship contract is player misbehaviour. This phenomenon was confirmed in a study conducted at more or less the same time by Westberg, Stavros and Wilson (2011:605). It was established in this study that negative individual player behaviour can become a destructive factor in the co-branding through soccer relationship characterized by negative and serious consequences like premature termination, disguised exit or modification of basis of sponsorship.

The destructive effect of negative player behaviour was explained and attributed to the insurance effect of long-term contracts that leads to lower efforts outside the pitch, with regard to general lifestyle, practice habits for matches, and the motivational focus on the job where players have to make appearances for both the team and sponsors based on the contract. The degree to which the undesirable behaviour changes the co-branding relationship is determined by the manner in which management of the sporting organization deals with the negative behavioural incidents as well as how strong the co-branding relationship is. However, in an earlier study, Chadwick and Thwaites (2004:50) stated that the willingness of many sponsors is to extend the co-branding relationship beyond the first agreed term creates real opportunities for co-branding relationships to develop to a level of partnership. The authors went on stating that a reconciled strategic marketing plan between the parties can be established if the relationship tends to become longer than was anticipated. That is what has been the case in the sponsorship agreement between Adidas and All Blacks rugby team as it is accounted for in Motion *et al.* (2003:1087). A similar situation has been recorded with regard to the extended sponsorship relationship between real Madrid and Siemens thereby making Real Madrid fairly stable financially as a professional soccer club for many years (Callejo, Fransisco & Forcadell, 2006:59). It makes good business sense to state that sustenance of a co-branding through soccer agreement is also dependent upon player remuneration

4.5.6 Normal pay and incentive pay

An investigation by Magowan (2013:14) into the clauses that characterise professional soccer contracts revealed quite a variety of factors with regard to salaries. It quoted the director of player management at the Professional Footballers' Association in UK explaining that a player's contract would include a basic salary, signing-on fees, loyalty fees, objectives based on games (performance), sub-agreements for image rights, and any other clauses that may be negotiated. Despite performance-based objectives characteristic of players' contracts, a journalist probe revealed that many soccer administrators had a fear that soccer players and their agents would not accept a performance-based pay when applied by professional soccer teams. It is stated that when Soriano introduced the performance clause linked to salary at Barcelona FC in Spain critics averred that he was inexperienced and delusional. They were stunned when Soriano's model was accepted and remained the practice at Barcelona. Its success at Barcelona FC enabled Soriano to transplant it to Manchester City FC in England when he became their Chief Executive (Lynam, 2013:1).

Given the findings by Magowan (2013) and Lynam (2013), different authors are left wondering why the moral hazard problem could not be solved by incentive pay. However, having found that less than 10% of the average player's annual salary is incentive pay, it was further established that practitioners in the soccer fraternity argued that there are good reasons for the problem to be not solved through incentive pay. One reason put forward is that although performance is observable on the pitch it is not possible to incorporate it in the contract owing to the nature of other complex tasks that players have to deal with and rewarding the number of goals and assists. Such a practice would lead to distortions well-known from multi-tasks principal agent problems. One more argument is that paying high amounts for being in the team would most likely increase the injury risk and may lead to sabotage when players have to compete for the same position. The last argument is that high incentives diminish team spirit. The researchers do not want to get involved in the discussion of the arguments against incorporation of incentives in the remuneration package for players. The researchers only wanted to emphasize that incentives are generally low to be used to solve the moral hazard problem.

There are reasons put forward by the practitioners for not including performance differentials in player contracts. Firstly, with regard to studies on soccer player performance measurement models and the resulting criteria produced by such studies, individual criteria are objective enough to quantify in determining the remuneration package since they are the kind of data that is quantitative. With reference to the second argument, the risk of injury is always there in soccer since it is a physical contact sport

hence strict rules on which referees have to rely to control the games. Players may also sabotage one another for other reasons than incentives built-in into contracts. As far as the last argument is concerned, players are not equally rated in any team because of different variables pertaining to each individual player. Strikers as attackers are normally evaluated higher than midfielders whilst the latter are generally evaluated higher than defenders because of the ultimate objective of play i.e. scoring goals (Finch, 2015).

Given the arguments of the practitioners as stated in Feess, Gerfin and Muehlheusser (2010:25-26), other scholars have researched the dimension of the impact of pay based on individual player performance. Another study was conducted in the Serie A of the Italian Football League as to how pay packages for soccer players are calculated in what they term golden teams. According to research, golden teams are characterized by a work environment where all team members are highly skilled and paid well for such skills overall. The authors refer to teams affiliated to sports leagues like the National Basketball Association, Major League Baseball in the United States of America or the English FA Premier League and the German Bundesliga in Europe as typical golden teams. They are referred to as such because the team members are highly skilled employees worldwide in their respective jobs and are paid exorbitant salaries in comparison with normal employees in a corporate entity operating in manufacturing or commerce (Torre, Giangreco & Maes, 2014:87).

It would also appear that there quite a few variables that are factored in during the determination of a player's remuneration. Professional players do not just make a basic pay but many of them earn extra money through bonuses, sponsorship deals and endorsements. According to Finch (2015) the amount of money that players can make is normally dependent upon how good or well-known they are, and world-class players are capable of making more money from deals than they earn in salary. An example is David Beckham who was earning \$6 500 000 per annum when he played for Los Angeles Galaxy but in total he earned \$255 million during the five years he spent with the club. This means that he earned \$222 500 000 from the other variable in addition to his salary. It is further reported that after the retirement of David Beckham, the highest paid footballer is Cristiano Ronaldo of Real Madrid whose annual salary is about R266 million. In South Africa, the highest paid soccer players are Teko Modise (Mamelodi Sundowns), Siphiwe Tshabalala (Kaizer Chiefs), Itumeleng Khune (Kaizer Chiefs), Elias Pelembe (whilst at Mamelodi Sundowns), and Anthony Laffor (Mamelodi Sundowns). The pay of these players are averaging between R300 000 to R450 000 per month. Benny McCarthy is reported to have been earning about R450 000 per month at Orlando Pirates (Fuzane, 2014).

Different authors in general posit that according to the tournament theory, pay levels according to the hierarchy distribution are expected to motivate employees to perform at a higher level because they create a situation in which employees are paid according to their ability to perform thereby getting increments automatically. Empirical evidence from previous studies strongly support hierarchical pay distribution in work environments where employees execute tasks that are independent of others and individual employee performance is objectively measurable. In meritocracy higher his pay is given to employees who are more experienced, reputable, and regarded as high performers (Montanari, Silvestri & Bof, 2008:31). Based on the findings of literature explored by the researchers, it gave them reason to suggest that a defender is likely to compare remuneration with that of the other defenders rather than with midfielders or strikers. The findings of the study reveal that pay levels correlate with individual performance. In addition, results suggested that a high variance in pay levels of players of the same team also performing the same role in golden team work environments is meant to be an incentive for lower paid players to work harder to achieve more pay.

The findings on the relationship between pay and performance were explained on the basis of integrating equity, expectancy, and tournament theory. In another explanation, Gupta, Conroy and Delery (2012:110) suggested that pay variations at the same grade encourage higher performance if (a) the employees' regard pay as valuable, (b) performance goals are perceived as achievable, and (c) perceive performance and pay to be correlated. It was further confirmed that an integrated theoretical approach to determine pay levels and pay dispersions is needed. In summary, the study in general reveals that when football players consider their pay to be linked to performance. The findings of this study address the concerns and fears of practitioners in the soccer fraternity (Feess, Gerfin & Muehlheusser, 2010:25-26) about factoring incentives in determining individual soccer player wages in order to enhance individual performance. It is clear from these findings that the three variables viz. absolute pay, relative pay, and pay dispersion can be factored in as a combination to compensate high individual performance and to incentivize other players to strive for improved performance since individual performance influences team performance which in turn enables the team to attract lucrative sponsorships. If the team performs at a level agreed upon with the sponsors, there will be satisfaction from both parties to the contract.

4.5.7 Player performance and behaviour

In the case of team performance at the agreed level by the team and sponsor, satisfaction is brought about by cooperative interactions experienced by parties to a sponsorship contract in the past. The

complimentary actions experienced in the past are the essence of cooperation between the parties. Team performance is the factor that attracts a sponsor when identifying a sponsoring partner. When that is done in the process of creating the relationship, subsequent complimentary actions between the parties are crucial in keeping the team performance or record at the level desired by both parties. According Böhler *et al.* (2007) spectators have a tendency to attribute the victory of their favourite team to internal causes while attributing losses to external causes. This is so because sports fans have a tendency to link a team's success and failure with their personal success and failure. Such conclusion is supported by Theodorakis, Koustelios, Robinsons and Barlas (2009:460). There are quite a number of factors that affect team performance.

The primary critical factor that is also one of the most researched factors that normally affect a team's ability to attract lucrative sponsors is player performance. Player performance depends on player fitness and skill. Player performance has to be guided by skilful play and teamwork as a check and balance (Lynam, 2013:2). This combination of factors is more crucial than others since it affects the behaviour of fans as well. In a study on the effect of interactive fan festivals (Jowdy & McDonald, 2003:296) it is stated that the motive for consuming sport is to satisfy an intangible desire to associate with and participate in a team sport or a branded product in the long-term. Grohs and Reisinger (2005: 43) also suggest from their study that companies should support sports or activities where involvement of consumers is high. Active participation of consumers of soccer was found to be a key consumption variable in a study by Ko, Kim, Claussen and Kim (2008:80). It appears that player performance underpinned by fitness and skill plus consumer involvement are an influential critical factor in the success of a sponsorship. This combination is in essence about behaviour of both the players and fans in relation to a sponsorship.

There must be some kind of acceptable behaviour of these stakeholders from the point of view of sponsors. Some professional soccer teams have been heavily fined by the PSL for violent spectator behaviour and in some instances other teams had to host their matches without spectators at the stadium as a punitive measure unleashed to ill-disciplined fans (Laduma, UKZN Press). This is an indication that professional soccer bodies do not tolerate fan bad behaviour. This now raises a question as what kind of match behaviour is envisaged by a sponsor when entering into a sponsoring agreement with a soccer team. Westberg, Stavros and Wilson (2008:125) studied how deviant behaviour by players of a professional sport on the sport impact upon a team's relationship with sponsors. The authors go on to say that of focused on the potential impact of a player's negative image on sponsors' relationships with the team. In the wake of the potential for image transfer in a co-branding through sport agreement, a

player's negative image may cause sponsors to revisit the association between their brand and the team on the basis of what is acceptable to the sponsor's customers or the community at large. The study was able to confirm that sponsors have been forced to include clauses that specify player acceptable behaviour in the co-branding through soccer agreements because of the fact that player transgressions are normally of high profile nature. This finding has far reaching implications for managing co-branding contracts in sport.

If many sponsors have been demanding the inclusion of a clause on acceptable player behaviour in the co-branding agreement, player performance is also regarded as behaviour that is crucial to sponsorship success. Torgler and Schmidt (2005:1-29) conducted a study on eight seasons of the German soccer league, Bundesliga with a particular focus on the relationship between pay and performance. The findings established that salaries do have a positive influence on players' individual performance, but with diminishing returns. This means that the salary increment reaches a point where the additional amount brings about less and less additional increment in performance. This has been proven in other studies where the law of diminishing returns was established in the study of the effect of money as a factor of motivation to employees. This has been and still is the case with the players of a PSL club well-known of being the highest salary payer in the country and probably in Sub-Saharan Africa. Its players have not been performing in accordance with the level of pay for a number of seasons (Fuzane, 2014). There is an interesting dimension to this pay/performance relationship that was established in the eight seasons study of the Bundesliga is that the position of a player has a strong impact on his performance. With regard to the scoring goals attackers have the best chance to perform better, followed by midfielders and lastly by defenders. The difference between midfielders and attackers' chances of performing better disappears when focus is on assists, while the difference in chances to score goals in respect of the defenders remains the same. It then stands to reason that clauses relating to acceptable level of club performance are supposed to be included in sponsorship agreements as a success factor in the relationship. Sporting performance is also a characteristic of Real Madrid's sponsorship agreements (Callego & Forcadell, 2006). It is no wonder that Real Madrid only keeps high performing players in their squad. The attainment of a set level of performance as the desired player behaviour depends on a number of factors e.g. player fitness, support structure in the team, objectivity of referees (absence of match-fixing), etc.

Player and team performance do not seem to be of secondary importance since it is one of the success factors in a team like Real Madrid. It needs to be clearly stated as one of the criteria in evaluating the effect of the sponsorship relationship. To illustrate how important performance is as a success factor and

a criterion on which evaluation of a sponsorship relationship can be done, Espitia-Escuer and Garcia-Cebrián (2006:1028) conducted a study of performance of teams in the Spanish La Liga. The factors that were found to be characteristic to ensure that teams perform as expected by sponsors were efficient use of resources and the actual final position of a team in the league log. The position on the log depends on the team's efficient use of its resources like players, technical and tactical capabilities. The study revealed that attainment of the desired position on the league log through efficient use of resources could practically be possible through performance management. In all situations, be it in soccer or any industry, management of performance requires a performance management system that underpins employment contract of employees. Players of a soccer team are the team's employees.

Player fitness both mentally and physically is critical if the team has to attract the most lucrative sponsorships. The importance of this factor was shown in a study conducted by Rampinini, Impellizzeri, Castagna, Coutts and Wisloff (2007a) where the authors measured technical performance in the Italian Serie A soccer league. Before the authors conducted the study, they explored literature around the performance factor of soccer players where it was found that running and sprinting in high intensity decrease between the first 45 minutes and the last 45 minutes of the match. Those studies attributed the decrease to cumulative physical fatigue. Other studies relating to the EPL had revealed that the experienced decreased physical performance in the second half depends on the degree to which each player exerted himself during the first half. That has led to another study by which the development of a test battery for player fitness was achieved. The motivation for this study (Turner, Walker, Stembridge, Coneyworth, Reed, Birdsley, Barter, & Moody, 2011:29-30) is to assess aerobic capacity of players; how they accelerate, how they sprint, and if they can endure the speed; degree of agility; strength and power; and how strong do they react. Aerobic capacity is characterised by criteria such as running distance, time in possession of the ball and the number of sprinting incidents during a match. This parameter correlated with team success in terms of its position in the league log. Agility is known to mean the capacity to change direction rapidly without being off-balance. The test for strength is relevant in the sense that in soccer the player requires to execute powerful movements such as kicking, sprinting, backing-up and jumping, repeatedly. It is desirable to have such capabilities in a player for team success. As these player capabilities result in team success, it stands to reason that team performance in the context of co-branding in soccer is a critical success factor that is important in a sponsorship agreement.

4.5.8 Team performance

In the wake of various studies on team performance as a critical factor in co-branding through soccer and documented results thereof, Rampinini *et al.* (2007a) set out to examine if there is any decrease of scores in the technical performance between the two halves of the match. The authors also included the examination of the difference in technical and physical performance between top teams and bottom teams during the 2004/2005 Italian Serie A league. The study involved 186 professional players in 416 individual games. The criteria used to measure the performance factor of the two groups of teams were (1) the incidents of ball possession by a player; (2) the number of ground short passes; (3) the number of successful ground short passes; (4) the number of ground long passes; (5) the number of successful ground long passes; (6) the number of ground long crosses into the eighteenth yard area from either side of the pitch; (7) the number of times in aerial contact with the ball; (8) the number of situations where a player is in physical contests for the ball; (9) the number of situations where a player in possession of the ball tries to dribble past an opponent; (10) the number of scoring attempts; and (11) the number of on target scoring attempts. The method used to collect data during the match was a computerised, semi-automatic video match analysis system. The system comprises of six cameras (three for each side of the pitch) and allows collection of the match analysis data of all the players involved in the game. The detail covered in the study outlined above is supported by da Costa, Garganta, Greco, Mesquita and Seabra ((2010: 83) where the authors concluded that tactical ability is crucial for better performance in soccer. It was further confirmed that besides body size and fat-free mass the rate of maturation in terms of relative age in the game influences performance aerobic power, muscular strength, power, endurance, and speed,. The same findings were revealed in Turner *et al.* (2011: 29-39). The characteristic introduced in this study as additional to those already stated is relative age maturity which has implications that diversity in this factor is essential in the starting line-up for team success.

An additional study on the effect of diversity in a soccer team is that of Malesky and Saiegh (2014) in which it is stated that soccer teams are engaged in the pursuit to score goals and win games. Amongst other characteristics, the authors identified styles of play, defensive tactics, strategies for set pieces, and even the organization of players on the field differ across different countries. It became apparent in the analysis of the study that (1) bottom team players completed more physical work compared to top team players; (2) the players bottom teams completed more distance without the ball; (3) the players from the more successful teams completed more distance with the ball; (4) involvement with the ball, short passes, successful short passes, tackles, dribbling, shots and shots on target were higher in top teams compared to bottom teams; (5) players covered more distance in the first half compared to the second

half; and (6) the percentage of ground short passes did not diminish in the second half with regard to players from both groups of teams. These findings confirm those of Callego and Focadell (2006) where it was established that the sponsorship agreements between Real Madrid and sponsors are anchored on player performance on the field of play as one of the desired behaviour by sponsors. Furthermore, it appeared that the results of the study had some limitations owing to the method used to collect and analyse data. The limitations identified by Rampinini, Castagna, Coutts, Sassi and Impellizzeri (2007b:1018) in a subsequent study, are (1) the method used previously required filming of individual players in action and later coding locomotive activities manually through a video replay; (2) the method as explained was found to be time consuming and labour intensive; (3) the approach prevents the broad use of time and motion analysis for evaluation of physical match performance in top level soccer; and (4) it fails to explain other important physical match performance aspects such as the influence of the opponent team's activities .

Given these limitations, Rampinini *et al.* (2007b:1019) resorted to the recently developed computerised semi-automatic video match analysis image recognition systems that enables quantifying extensive match performance data of top soccer teams within a few hours after the match. The significant improvements embedded in these systems is that (1) they permit a comprehensive factor analysis relating to the physical capability and notional analysis; (2) they can track each player's single movement, as well as the movement of the ball during the match; (3) the data collated enable a systematic integrated evaluation and analysis of performance and each player's involvement with precision; the system allows a compilation of each player's activity profile with and without the ball; and (4) they can also quantify the running speeds of each player. Based on an earlier study like the one just outlined, researchers on football performance (Performance analysis 2015) have improved upon time-motion analysis of soccer player performance. Parameters have been categorized into technical and tactical parameters. Technical parameters on the one hand comprises number of passes, types of passes, passes made into specific areas, pass accuracy, pass to opposition/interceptions, tackles won/lost, and shots on/off target. Tactical parameters on the other hand comprise ball possession in a certain area of the pitch, ball possession as a sequence, and tactical ability/formation/playing style. Summing it up, the system facilitates usage of collective information for comprehensive evaluation of the physical and tactical demands of top level soccer players. The authors report that many of the world leading clubs are using this system.

In consideration of the fact that the modern micro-technology to testing soccer player and team performance has been adopted by top teams in the developed countries, tracking soccer players is essential for individual and collective team behaviour evaluations during training sessions and games.

The nature of the game is that it is intermittent and involves multiple motor skills required of a professional soccer player. According to Haugen and Seiler (2015:10-11) the applicability of key skills is developed to a high level while other capabilities are developed to a lesser degree. This development in monitoring individual performance and collective performance has resulted in a trend where mediocre players are replaced by other players, while such players may be sold to other teams that need them.

These tests auger well with studies (The Number 10 2015) meant to (1) determine if the opposing team's capability impacts upon match-related running performance; (2) determine if playing position influences the degree of contact with the ball during the game; (3) verify if performance during the first half influences performance of the second half of a match; (4) determine variations within matches and replicability of match analysis data; and (5) determine match-related running performance variations throughout the season. In a study on player fitness and health (The Results Are In! Soccer for Success Proven to Improve Health Outcomes, 2015) it is asserted that a combination of all data collected suggests that the findings may be of use to soccer coaches and soccer scientists in evaluating the effects of training and tactical interventions with regard to match performance and success. It would appear therefore that physical fitness amongst other factors underpins team success and as such more detail on this factor warrants a discussion.

4.5.9 Physical fitness of players

In the wake of the growing momentum in researching the critical success factors in the game of soccer in other countries, Clark (2007:453) embarked upon a study to investigate professional soccer player physical fitness and difference in fitness status between different playing positions in South Africa. The study was based on a sample of 140 players playing for different teams in the PSL, who volunteered to participate in the process of the intended investigation of physical fitness and difference in status of fitness between different positions. The measurements of various aspects of fitness were done at the Institute of Sport Research of the University of Pretoria during the summer short break normally given to PSL players after all first round matches have been played. Players were categorized into goalkeepers, defenders, midfielders, and forwards. They underwent training at the same time their respective teams normally subject them to physical exercise. The aspects of fitness that characterized the study were body mass, flexibility, strength endurance, power, speed, agility, aerobic endurance, and repeated sprint testing. The results indicated that goalkeepers were taller and heavier than players of other positions hence their performance was also different. All other players of different positions performed similarly in various physical fitness tests. These results indicated a disagreement with previous studies of

European players. The limitation of this study is that the physical fitness tests were done in a non-competitive situation where there is no influence of the players of the opponent teams and in some cases the prevalent weather of the day. It lacks the fitness demanded by the skills required to handle ball possession situations. However, it was a start for South African soccer. To go further in illustrating the impact of player fitness, a similar study was conducted parallel to the one that was conducted in respect of basketball players. The study investigated the cause for player effort in professional soccer. Team-game data was used based on three seasons of the German Bundesliga. Two parameters that were used are total distance run and number of intensive runs. The results showed that running distance remains positive in relation to team success (Welmar & Wicker, 2008).

In addition to studies previously conducted, Di Salvo, Baron, Tschan, Calderon Montero, Bachl and Pigozzi (2007) approached the measurement of performance in professional soccer from a multi-faceted point of view. They introduced their study by mentioning that there had been an increasing trend in soccer match analyses in the previous decade, meaning the years prior to the second soccer season of research i.e. 2003/2004. Their study was a large-scale one taking cognisance of the necessity to developing a sport specific training protocol based on the physiological demand on top level soccer players' performance in relation to positions they play in competitive matches. The aim of the study was to analyse activity profile, running distance, competitive intensity, pressure on energy systems and muscles. The focused competitive aspect of the examination was 20 Spanish Premier League matches and 10 UEFA champion's league matches, concentrating on outfield players only, (excluding goalkeepers). Outfield players were categorized into central defenders, external defenders, central midfielders, external midfielders, and strikers. The purpose was to create each player's techno-tactical profile.

Di Salvo *et al.* (2007:223) analysed four selected categories of intensity viz.: (standing, walking, and slow running), moderate-speed running, high-speed running, and sprinting using a computerised time-motion analysis system. In explanation, the system comprises eight stable, synchronised cameras placed on top of the stadium. After profiling 300 players, signals and angles obtained by encoders were sequentially converted into digital data and recorded on 6 computers for post-match analysis. Using specially developed software for this kind of analysis i.e. the Athletic Mode Amisco Pro, developed at Nice in France, different intensity categories as stated above were analysed. The analysis of whole match activity on positional difference of the observed soccer matches demonstrated that central midfield and external midfield players covered a significantly greater distance compared to both defender groups as well as the group of forwards. The distance covered by external defenders did not differ from that

covered by forwards. However, the distance covered by central defenders was slightly shorter than that of any other group. The distance covered in the first half was longer than that of the second half but the difference was insignificant. It was also established that the results were in accordance with results of studies that had been recently published after using sophisticated measurement technologies. This approach to determining player fitness emphasises what was found in time-motion analysis (Performance analysis 2015).

All these measurements of distance covered included both on-the-ball and off-the-ball activity since it was during an actual competitive match whereas the results of the study, which are reported by Clark (2007), are narrowly focused on physical exercise off the field of play. What is interesting though is that the findings by Rampinini *et al.* (2007a) are closely related to the findings of the study undertaken by Di Salvo *et al.* (2007) discussed in the previous paragraph. There are similarities found in the sampled matches as well as competitions under which those matches were played. There are also similarities in the sophisticated measurement technologies used as well as the methodologies applicable to the manner in which data is collated during the post-match analysis. In addition, both studies measured player performance in relation to positional differences in the team of players and the findings do not have significant results.

Another more advanced different dimension approach to examining player performance was pursued to establish the other factor upon which attainment of a set level of performance is dependent on, which appears to be team support structure emanating from talent disparity in a soccer team.

A study of six seasons in the German Bundesliga comprised 1836 games in total. Franck and Nüesch (2010:221) identified player capabilities like passing to free-standing teammates, retaining ball possession, running with the ball or dribbling, creating goal assists, marking opponents, intercepting the opponents' passes and shots, clearing the ball away from danger zone, and last but not least, scoring goals. This study further looked at the use of similar performance criteria based on statistics derived from the use of the Opta Sports Data Company where 1530 games and 1153 players were involved in data collection. The statistics provide a number of goals scored, successful goal assists, successful passes, successful cross passes, dribbling success rate, shots on target, red cards, yellow cards, clearances, blocks, and interception of opponent passes, and goal saves ratio by the goalkeeper. These statistics indicate that the performance measurement criteria include teamwork. The researchers (Franck & Nüesch, 2010:220) also aver that a team consists of 11 players classified as attacker (strikers), midfielders, and defenders and a goal minder. On this basis, tactical and technical capabilities and

cooperation between players is an additional success factor in testing the team's performance level effect on talent disparity. The dimension that this study explored and the results that were derived therefrom are both important contributions towards the body of knowledge in the success of soccer as a game but more so as a product that can benefit from co-branding characterised by sponsorship. However, it does not address the question why teams differ in performance though they may equally recognize importance of team support to success.

4.5.10 Team performance indicators

Lago-Ballesteros and Lago-Peñas (2010:86) realised when reviewing documented research on measurement of performance in soccer, that very little research had been conducted on performance indicators and profiles. The specific limitations identified in studies preceding this study is failure to illustrate the dependability of the data gathering system and also that the previous researchers had selected matches from a once-off tournament. Such selection means that selected teams whether successful or unsuccessful were not balanced in terms of the strength of opposition and the number of matches played as well as the number of teams selected. The previous measurements of performance lacked the element of endurance characteristic of a season long involvement. Owing to these limitations, the results would not successfully yield performance indicators for successful teams with the exception of the study by Turner *et al.* (2011: 29). Therefore, the authors conducted a study which uses a summative season long comparisons to attempt identifying performance indicators that might be used to better understand factors associated with a team's success and to separate top teams from others based on significantly different pitch action performances.

Lago-Ballesteros and Lago-Peñas (2010) then structured their study to focus on the sample of 380 games during the 2008/2009 season of the Spanish soccer league. Reliability of the data was done by coding the data of five matches and comparing them with data generated through Gecasport where the Kappa values ranged between 0.9 and 0.98. Gecasport is an organization that makes it their business to assess performances of teams playing in the Spanish La Liga. The findings revealed that the top of the log four teams had recorded more shots and shots on target than the middle of the log and bottom of the log teams. It was also revealed in another study about the Greek Soccer First League where the authors (Lago-Ballesteros & Lago-Peñas, 2010:18) reported that top teams recorded more shots with a better goals/shots ratio than bottom teams. Moreover, top and middle of the log teams played more effectively such that they needed fewer shots to score a goal than bottom of the log teams. What was also more notable about the previous studies is that authors thereof had drawn conclusion that the frequency and

effectiveness in the shots at goal and passing determines differences between winning and losing teams. The revelation in the current study confirmed such findings that winning teams have more resources and capability relating to scoring goals than losing and drawing teams as referred to in Malesky and Saiegh (2014). As far as the performance indicators relating to offence, there were significant differences between goal assists relating to top teams than to middle teams, top teams having higher numbers. The study generated values that could be regarded as a norm in designing and evaluating practices and competitiveness in soccer. Despite these values, according to Feess, Gerfin and Muehlheusser (2010: 26) high incentives diminish team spirit. This means that a well thought out pay structure must be developed to avoid negative effects of overdoing pay in the form of incentives.

Having referred to the historical background about the fact that South Africa has lagged behind in the development of sport sponsorship, particularly in soccer as a result of having been isolated from the world owing to the political situation that prevailed, it is appropriate to conduct research to determine the level at which South African soccer has developed since the country regained its inclusion in world sporting contests. To facilitate such research with envisaged considerable success, the themes identified in literature review will be explored to be discovered if they are characteristic of South African professional soccer. The authors categorized the measuring variables into three namely goals scored, offence, and defence. Goal related variables were scored goals, goals conceded, number of shots, shots on target, accurate shooting. Offence related variables included assists to score, crosses to the goal area, off-sides positions, fouls committed, and ball possession. Variables concerning defence activities were crosses against, off-sides against, fouls against, corners against, yellow cards earned, and red cards earned.

4.5.11 The impact of market forces on player remuneration

With all these different approaches to measuring player and club performance with a view to improve performance and to include a performance clause in a player's contract, there is a factor that might undermine all these efforts if there is no equilibrium in the players' labour market. In an investigation conducted by Garcia-del-Barrio and Pujol (2004) it became apparent that market forces can dictate terms on which remuneration of players is determined without necessarily basing it on individual performance only but considering other factors to make an all-inclusive decision. This free market dispensation has caused cities and regions to become more prominent than in the past thereby changing European society from a dominant international order to a more complex transnational regime (King, 2003). Investigation of the Spanish soccer labour market to establish the impact of the presence of monopsony in one segment

of the market was also meant to clearly define a labour market characterized by monopsony. It is defined as labour markets where a few companies compete for many workers. The major objective of the investigation was to establish in the Spanish soccer player market if there exists more than one market mechanism in hiring players for their services, rendering itself a dual labour market.

The investigated monopsony in Spain would be characterized by a few clubs having to hire many potential candidates of mediocre performance. The other part of the market would be addressing the situation of few superstar players for which too many clubs are competing to hire their service. An analysis of data pertaining to the Spanish professional soccer league for the 2001/2002 season was done to explain the huge wage differentials that could not be explained due to performance differentials. In addition to monopsony as an influential factor in the professional soccer player market, it has been established that if differences in player salary are higher in the market, the impact of the nett difference will be weaker on individual player performance, in the wake of higher level incentives already affecting pay dispersion in the professional player market (Torre *et al.*, 2014:95).

Structuring player remuneration has proven to be a complicated as well as a risky business if soccer administrators do not take all factors into consideration e.g. economic factor. According to Lynam (2013:1) paying too much is dangerous, as evidenced in Europe by more than 120 clubs going into insolvency since 2007. At the same time it would appear that being too cautious would also be damaging to a team wanting to sign high calibre players in the market since there is a strong correlation between wages and wins. That is why it is important to state that the results of Garcia-del-Barrio and Pujol's (2004:2) study revealed that sportive performance is the explanatory factor of a soccer player's economic value. The third variable discovered to influence a player's economic value is the age which is a relevant evaluation aspect of experience in professional soccer. It also became evident that the economic value of attackers has an additional incremental factor in the determination of pay for performance.

Exploring the going rates of professional soccer player salaries reveals that the soccer players' average annual salary in the US Major League Soccer for the 2013 season was \$148 693.26. This average is affected by variances of pitch positions occupied by players such that goalkeepers were earning \$85 296.48; defenders \$109 119.61; midfielders \$129 573.88; and strikers \$251 805.21 (Finch, 2013). It is further revealed in the same study that in the English Premier League the average annual salary in the 2011/2012 season was around \$2 509 572. The level at which professional soccer players are paid in South Africa is the highest in the context of the continent hence the migration of players from other African states to South Africa. This is confirmed by the fact that South Africans would rather migrate

to other continents particularly Europe when seeking a fortune than to African states. According to Reiners (2015:1) off-the-record discussions reveal that the top salary ranges between R300 000 and R450 000 per month, while the bottom salary ranges between R15 000 and R30 000 per month. It has been reported recently that some players want to earn between R500 000 and R800 000 per month. With reference to these salary scales, the author explains Bafana Bafana's failure to progress in international contests as attributed to the extremely high salaries good players are demanding in the PSL. One soccer administrator describes what the market forces in South Africa have caused in the form of exorbitant salaries as an artificial economy.

A CEO of player management firm Prosport International expressed his amazement at an enormous rise in soccer player earnings in South Africa. It is further clarified that the trend is not due to goals scored but rather a result of the business of sport on the player market (SA Soccer Players Earn up to R500K/PM 2015). This salary trend has also spread to salaries earned by coaches in the PSL which is no wonder why some PSL teams afford foreign coaches including those coming from Europe (Mseleku & Mothowagae, 2011). The trend of professional soccer player salaries has recently sparked off suggestions that the PSL should look at capping the salaries. This came about when there was controversy surrounding the delay in the renewal of a contract of a prominent goalkeeper attached to one of the big clubs of the PSL to the extent that analysts were even speculating that there could be possible performance clauses that would come about if the player goes back to the same club (Cowzille, 2015). Such speculation implies that there were no standard performance clauses that existed prior to the controversy. This is unlike the situation in the FAPL in England where all indications are that Premier League and Football league contracts are standardised, articulating expectations from the player and club, and how protected is each entity (Lawrenson, 2013).

The research findings by various researchers on the impact of player remuneration on performance change the face of co-branding through soccer. Club administrators and technical teams are now expected to harness together quite a number of variables in determining the overall pay structure as well as determining the pay for superstars. It would also seem that different evaluation and measuring techniques will have to be correlated to arrive at figures that can be defended by soccer management. It would also appear from reviewing the literature that professional soccer in South Africa needs attention in the form of a study to establish the level at which it has developed in relation to the development trends already recorded in published studies about other countries where spectators are very passionate about soccer.

4.6 CONCLUSION

Branding and co-branding in sport seem to be based on the same marketing principles with other non-sport products. However, taking a closer look at the intricacies involved in sports management, it becomes evident that this is a unique dimension of marketing. The motive behind the business corporate world embarking upon marketing through sport when it started reveals that to them sport was perceived as a better platform and medium to promote their brands. The business world then had to grapple with the unique characteristics of this marketing dimension and learn new approaches and practices to make it work.

The more the captains of business got involved with sponsoring sport, soccer in particular, it became necessary for them to become aware of issues that characterise marketing through sport. The issues are quite numerous and require an in-depth understanding by the corporate world in order to avoid pitfalls in engaging with sports brands. The understanding of the issues involved in sponsorships brings to the attention of parties in sponsorships that there are also a number of critical factors that need to be harnessed when sponsoring agreements are discussed and drawn. The critical success factors identified from literature are the length of the relationship between stakeholders; clear sponsorship objectives; shared value; trust; congruence; availability of required club resources; length of sponsorship contracts; player remuneration; individual player performance; team performance; physical fitness of players; team performance indicators; and the impact of market forces on player remuneration.

On the basis of documented literature on this matter, it would appear that soccer clubs in developed countries like Europe and USA are applying advanced methods to enhance performance of their teams as well as advancing to more professionalism of players. Different types of measurement and evaluation instruments have been developed and tested for validity and reliability by several teams in Europe. It is however, not surprising that the situation is as described since Europe was the first continent in which soccer was introduced from the country of its origin. Besides instruments and gadgets developed thus far towards improvement of management of soccer clubs, the relationship with stakeholders like soccer fans are also recorded as having contributed to financial viability of soccer clubs that manage this aspect closely and successfully.

According to explored literature, teams that have succeeded in this regard have achieved formation of brand communities that support the team through purchasing sporting goods that bear the brand name and logo of the team, sometimes coupled with the brand name and logo of the sponsoring organization.

Soccer teams in developed countries have identified specialists in different relevant fields to attend to individual player fitness, individual player social life in terms of Employee Assistance Programme (EAP) as well as team performance indicators which are factored in when sponsorship agreements are concluded. Some teams even factor in player performance indicators in individual player contracts to lay a platform for performance management. It is therefore necessary to explore if South African professional soccer has developed to understand and apply all the components of successful sponsorships.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The concept of research is herein briefly explained followed by the paradigms for research which in turn determine the methods used to carry out the investigation aimed at solving the research problem. The discipline under which research is undertaken is important in selecting the process for conducting the study such that the methods used in planning and executing this study will be discussed under a number of subheadings in the ensuing sub-sections. The focus of the inquiry as the foundation for the study to be undertaken will also feature in the process. Following this, the research paradigm relevant to the research focus is determined. An outline of the population of interest, indicating the focus of the study, will be done followed by sampling. Sampling, sampling designs and sampling techniques will be explained. The research design and the sampling techniques suitable for the study will be discussed. This discussion lays the foundation for the kind of data that had to be gathered for realising the objectives of the study. The type of data that was to be collected led to the selection of data collection methods that were chosen on the basis of the research design. The other factors that influenced the selection of appropriate data collection instruments are the nature of the study and the natural setting of the focus of the inquiry.

5.2 THE NATURE OF RESEARCH

Research is normally conducted to either solve a problem or to come up with suggestions to solve a problem. In the academic context, research is conducted in a formal manner by which an attempt is made to adopt an attitude of being thorough, systematic, and accurate. Similarly, all what research is about is finding an approach to problem solving which normally begins by defining a research problem or research question to investigate. For academic and scientific purposes, investigating a problem or question is done systematically by planning the investigation, collecting and measurement of data, analysing data and then reporting findings of the analysis (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:4).

Being formal and systematic about research involves observing a problem, reflecting on the problem, planning how to handle the problem, acting to solve the problem, observing the results, reflecting on the results, and planning the next action. Furthermore, the difference in the aims of research speaks to different paradigms upon which research can be based. A research paradigm is understood to be a theoretical framework that determines the manner in which a phenomenon in question is investigated and the results thereof are interpreted (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Deriving from the paradigms, there

are three research designs namely, causal research design, qualitative research design, and descriptive research design (Tustin *et al.*, 2005:65). The different research paradigms that guide and determine different approaches to research are discussed later on in the chapter.

5.3 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGN

The nature of this study is a narrative inquiry which is characterised by digital collections of written, audio, and video narratives. Also a narrative inquiry is normally pursued by showing an interest in the experiences of other people's lives as they are related by those who have lived such life. It should be noted that narrative theorists define narrative inquiry as a distinct form of in-depth investigation aimed at putting in order or shaping the format of experience with a view to understand oneself or others' actions through organizing events and objects into a meaningful whole. The aforesaid approach to research assists in connecting and seeing the consequences of the experience under study (Denzin & Lincoln, 2013:55). It is important to note that according to Markula and Silk (2011:4) an investigator in qualitative research assumes the role of an observer who participates in the world that is observed. However, it is surprising to find that the researcher's orientation may influence the research process which in turn might shape the results. This then raises the question as to how the researcher can divorce himself from the research process and results. It must be noted that there are checks and balances that have been developed to address this question in a manner that rules out 'contamination' of the process and the results, as will be discussed later.

The reason behind the suggestion by Markula and Silk (2011:4), is the primary goal of qualitative inquiry. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2013:312) the main purpose of a narrative inquiry is to access data that brings about richer, comprehensive and more in-depth levels of understanding. Qualitative research yields qualitative data which are intense, engaging, challenging, non-linear, contextualised, and highly variable. It is further stated that qualitative data are potentially productive of fresh insights and deep understanding (Bazely, 2013:3). The nature of qualitative research inquiry is explained further in order to highlight its uniqueness. Physical culture includes scholarly disciplines like physical activity, dance studies, leisure studies, outdoor education, physical cultural studies, physical education, recreation, sport development, sport history, sport management, sport pedagogy, sport philosophy, sport policy, sport and exercise psychology, and the sociology of sport (Markula & Silk, 2011). These authors have divided the qualitative research process into seven Ps viz. purpose, paradigms, process, practices, politics of interpretation, presentation, and the promise.

5.3.1 The research paradigms

According to Edwards and Skinner (2009:17) the word paradigm refers to a model, pattern or example upon which something can be done. However, in a philosophical context, it refers to the basis on which the world underpinning theories and methodology of science in a particular period of history can be viewed. A paradigm helps researchers to explore the world or a phenomenon under study thereby assisting in predicting its behaviour. Scotland (2012:9) states that a paradigm consists of ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods. Having defined a paradigm, it would suffice to mention that there are three paradigms of research that have been identified in the works of different scholars of research viz. positivism, hermeneutics, and constructionism.

Each of these paradigms is a system of interrelated ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions. Ontology refers to the assumptions about the nature of the world - deriving from what is there to be known, how that world operates, what is the nature of the reality to be investigated, and what can we know about it (Scotland, 2012:10). According to Mahoney and Rueschemeyer (2003:374) ontology consists of the bases on which deep causal structures of the world can be understood in order to formulate theories about the world. Epistemology is explained as consisting of assumptions about the knowledge of the world or phenomenon under study, how researchers should go about knowing that world or phenomenon, and what kind of relationship exists between the researcher (knower) and the researched phenomenon (known). Methodology refers to the actual methods used by researchers to conduct an investigation. It is based on addressing questions as to whether researchers use objective measures based on statistical manipulation or qualitative measures that delve into texts or themes including utterances from participants showing what their view is of the social world. In a nutshell, the researcher's ontology will determine his/her epistemology which in turn will determine his/her methodology (Ahrens & Chapman, 2006: 823).

One of the paradigms of research stated above is positivism which is a philosophical position. Based on this position researchers assume that there is a world or phenomenon out there to be discovered which can also be objectively observed and discovered. The aim of this paradigm is to discover facts and laws in order to determine the cause-effect relationships about phenomena in the world which in simpler terms means to establish the what and why of the phenomena, as objectively as possible (Mertens, 2005:8). Therefore the assumption from the positivists' point of view is that the social world is static such that it can be predicted on the basis of quantitative data such as cause and effect rules.

Epistemologically, the point of departure regarding positivism is that the social and behavioural facts can be determined by objective, quantitative measurements in a situation where the researcher is detached from the facts that are observed. Anchored by these assumptions, the methodology in this regard is characterised by tests, questionnaires, objective interviews, structured interviews, experiments, quantification and statistical processes. These quantitative methods in essence assume that the reality of the world can be controlled and manipulated. In this instance, the research approach can either be quantitative or qualitative. This means that according to both quantitative and qualitative approaches, the phenomena under research eventually are reduced to numerical data which are subjected to statistical manipulation (Olsen, 2004:7). However, in the case of qualitative research approach, the data are initially collected in the form of themes from which later in the process provided by CAQDAS software, nodes are produced from patterns that show how themes relate to one another (Barnard, 1996:280). The aim of this research paradigm is to provide a plausible explanation of the laws and activity processes operating in the world.

The other approach to research methodology is what is referred to as hermeneutics. According to McCaffrey, Raffin-Bouchal and Moules (2012:219) hermeneutics seeks to comprehend, explain and delve into the feelings and experiences in human terms and in rich detail. It enables the researcher to capture the subtle meaning and context of the phenomena under investigation by digging into the underlying thoughts of the participants. Unlike positivism which is interested in generalizability and prediction of discrete variables, hermeneutics are interested in conceptualization and detailed interpretation of rich human experience. According to this paradigm, research aims to comprehend the underlying thoughts and what has been experienced by engaging with the research participant, observing and establishing perpetual themes in the respondent's descriptions of what has been experienced. The meanings referred to here are those that are behind the social actions.

The ontology in this regard is that the social world is defined by people's experiences instead of being defined by data that exists outside people's subjectivity. Therefore, the actual phenomenon to be studied is what people have experienced of the internal world. The epistemological point of departure is then that comprehension of people can be achieved only by conversing with them empathically in a natural setting given that the underlying thoughts and feelings under study will come to surface through in-depth conversation. This is characteristic of an interactional or inter-subjective epistemological stance (Krauss, 2005:759). On this basis, the methodology includes observation of respondents, unstructured interviews which are empathic conversations and behavioural/thought interpretation such as thematic analysis

instead explaining people experiences on the basis of numerical data (Mays, 2000:52). The process of research is then characterised by posing a research question, sampling, data collection and data analysis.

The third approach is constructionists research also known as semiotics. According to this paradigm, research aims to identify the function of attitudes and knowledge. One example of this are the truths that are accepted and taken for granted in producing, maintaining and entrenching ideologies in society. The focus is on how knowledge fits into broader social and political contexts or systems of meaning. Knowledge in this regard is not referred to as the real world out there as it is the understanding of the positivists. It is also not seen as referring to subjective thought, experiences and feelings of the subjects as it would have been understood in interpretive research (McCaffrey, Raffin-Bouchal and Moules, 2012:217). It is rather seen as generating and sticking to certain facts or premises about the phenomena.

The ontological point of departure here is that the social world cannot be described objectively as a culmination of social components. Social construction is the production of how people express their views and behave accordingly towards what they think is real. In this regard, what is thought to be real is a catalyst of social construction components and narratives. The epistemology then assumes that the emphasis of research should be the strongly held beliefs or discussion of subject matters that constitute the social world which can be studied by analysing what people actually say and do (Mays, 2000:51). The methodology that follows would include the analysis of language and discourse which includes cultural and ideological critiques. The overall aim of research in this instance is to show how interpersonal common course aspects are generated in thorough discussion and how these inspire certain actions.

There are mainly three research designs viz. descriptive research design, exploratory research design, and causal research design). There are also different research paradigms as already discussed. Having outlined the different paradigms, the nature of this study indicates that it requires a hermeneutics approach to explore the feelings and experiences of soccer players, soccer officials, sponsors and soccer fans in the context of soccer in general as well as sponsorship in particular. Since the type of data to be collected is qualitative, qualitative research methodology is outlined hereunder to illustrate the procedure that was followed in dealing with data.

5.3.2 The role of the researcher

In a situation where the nature of the study is a narrative inquiry, the researcher is faced with a range of responsibilities that the researcher has to shoulder. Edwards & Skinner (2009:55) postulate that qualitative research exercise demands that the researcher possesses peculiar strengths to gain insight into the phenomenon studied instead of being confined to data collection standards which causes some critics to claim that to a certain degree there is lack of methodological prescriptions in qualitative research. This research approach has a feature of designing the naturalistic inquiry on the basis of a detailed outline. The outline consists of steps by which a focus for the inquiry is determined; the relevance of the research paradigm to the research focus is established; the location and targeted respondents from whom data will be collected is determined; deciding on the successive phases of the inquiry; establishing if additional instrumentation is required beyond the researcher as the human instrument; deciding on the modes of data collection and recording; making a choice of data analysis procedures to be used; arranging the logistics of data collection including scheduling and budgeting; and identifying techniques to be used in determining trustworthiness. A researcher can be guided by such a suggestion but not to necessarily follow each and every step since one study differs from the other. Bradley, Curry and Devers (2007) also support the notion that there is no structured appropriate way to analyse qualitative data besides the norm that analysis is conducted as a continuous iterative process characterised by primary stages of data collection that later progress in intensity through the inquiry.

The responsibility, peculiar to qualitative research, placed upon the researcher is caused by the purpose of a narrative inquiry. It is established by asking questions like, why should the researcher engage in qualitative research? What are the ethical considerations? What kinds of qualitative research are meaningful? The purpose is fulfilled by assisting the process through paradigms. Paradigms are determined by asking questions like, what specific parameters does the qualitative researcher choose for the research project? Is it post-positivist, humanistic, poststructuralist/modern (Scotland, 2012:9)? Process is characterised by how a qualitative research project looks like. Practice and politics of interpretation are the outline of common methodological practices and the ways in which to interpret empirical material in qualitative physical culture studies. Presentation deals with the different ways of writing up qualitative research results and the various ways in which qualitative research can be presented to different audiences (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004:106). A pertinent question may be posed as to what analysis is appropriate for handling data collected from a narrative inquiry. The available approaches are quantitative analysis and qualitative analysis. These are different approaches to research.

5.3.3 Differences between quantitative and qualitative approaches

A comparison of the different content analyses by Zhang and Wildemuth (2009) makes the approaches distinctive of one another in a manner that eventually simplifies the qualitative content analysis process. Making reference to three different definitions of qualitative content analysis, the authors deduce that qualitative data analysis focuses on integrating the meanings of opinionated speeches, utterances, texts in specific contexts which surpasses mere counting of words/actions by extracting objective content from texts to establish themes and patterns that may be manifest or latent in each text. The qualitative and quantitative content analyses are then compared. Firstly, quantitative content analysis on the one hand is said to be used widely in mass communication characterised by quantifying textual elements thereby missing syntax and semantics embedded in the text. Qualitative content analysis on the other hand was developed in anthropology, social sociology, and clinical psychology for the purpose of exploring the meanings hidden in physical messages.

In addition to the comparison of the quantitative and qualitative analyses, a comparison of the three possible approaches to analysing qualitative data is warranted. What makes this necessary is the fact that the comparison by Zhang and Wildemuth (2009) makes it clear that the appropriate approach to analysing data collected from an inquiry is exploratory content analysis. Welsh (2002) identified three possible approaches to exploratory content analysis labelling them as literal, interpretive, and reflexive. The literal method is characterised by an analysis process that emphasizes evaluation of the exact use of a particular language or grammatical structure. The interpretive method seeks to make sense of accounts of personal experiences related by research participants' thereby enabling the researcher in attempting to interpret the given speeches and utterances. The reflexive approach draws the attention to the researcher's actions and control of the process as contribution to the generation of the required data and analysis process thereof.

Whatever approach is chosen by researchers, they still have to choose between using either manual and/or computer-based data analysis methods. Secondly, descriptive data analysis is normally intended to test hypothesis by deducing meaning from quantities determined and to attempt answering questions arising from theories and previous research. Qualitative data analysis starts from simple to complex, rigorously examining the themes and topics thereby drawing inferences from them. Thirdly, random sampling and other probabilistic approaches in data collection are pre-requisite for quantitative content analysis. By contrast, purposively selected samples form the basis for collecting texts for qualitative content analysis thereby facilitating insight into the research questions being investigated.

Finally, the results derived from these two methods are different (Pope, Zietbland & Mays, 2000). The quantitative data analysis generates numbers that are normally manipulated via statistical processes. To the contrary, the qualitative data analysis normally generates texts, opinions and feelings emanating from participants indicating what their views are regarding the social world (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009:2). The nature of this study is narrative hence qualitative data collection and analysis. This lends the study to the challenges of qualitative data analysis.

5.3.4 The development of qualitative data analysis software

In consideration of the differences in characteristics between quantitative content analysis and qualitative approaches to data analysis, the developments that have occurred in introducing and using different qualitative content analysis software requires a discussion. Barry (1998) begins the discussion by highlighting the advantages and disadvantages of computer assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) to illustrate the nature of these software packages. According to this author, as much as the advent of these software packages has brought some relief from the tedious processes that were experienced by researchers in the past, there are still tasks that the researchers have to contend with. Whilst discussing software called ETHNOGRAPH it was stated that the software suffered from a cumbersome and complex coding process such that the perception was that it distanced the researcher from the data. This perception was confirmed by Welsh (2002:1) after the software had been used in tandem.

This situation experienced with the ETHNOGRAPH therefore encourages researchers to pursue the route of CAQDAS. A study by Welsh (2002) clarifies the reasons why researchers are attracted in this direction. The author stated the ease and speed with which text can be coded on computer screen than having to cut and paste pieces of text under a single code onto pieces of paper. The added advantage of using software is the ability to write memos electronically within the programme instead of writing them manually in a notebook. In addition, integrating textual data electronically is practical to facilitate the generation of themes whilst processing data. The author mentions though that in order to make sense of the themes one has to resort to manually checking links between electronic memos and hand-written codes on a piece of paper. This process is confirmed in a study by Thorne (2000) where it is stated that ETHNOGRAPH entails manually sifting and sorting through pieces of data to facilitate thematic categorisation, check for inconsistencies and contradictions, and draw conclusions on the ramifications of the process.

In terms of spinning and weaving, the pattern of themes derived from the process is like a tapestry which then analogically renders the software a loom that nits together all codes and themes (Gaiser & Schreiner, 2009:120). However, as much as the processes of the software are this advanced, it cannot make out what the final picture is on the results of the study but it does save time in generating linkages of the texts (pattern formed by the themes) and it may also limit the errors of the weaver (researcher). The researcher still has to have an overview of what concepts are aimed at by the analysis. The researcher has to be able to make sense of the themes. One of the currently widely used software i.e. NVivo cannot automatically make sense of the themes but it can better show how the themes link with each other through its model explorer tool. It then has to be assisted by the researcher since it is not easy to display the whole picture on the computer screen. The researcher, as the author suggests, has to summarise the order of the patterns deriving from each node in order to confirm the themes across the data. The author concludes that CAQDAS is designed to bring about ease of administrative tasks and efficiency in organizing data and should be used optimally. With regard to NVivo, the author avers that the searching tools in NVivo enable interrogation of data by the researcher at a desired level and that like other similar software it cannot address the aspects of credibility and trustworthiness in the thematic patterns emerging from the data analysis process.

5.3.5 The focus of the inquiry

The broad field of study is marketing in specialised markets. The specialised market in this regard is sponsorships. The sponsorships in particular are the ones that pertain to soccer where business organizations and other organizations co-brand with soccer clubs to leverage the images of their brands. In this context, the research problem is perceived lack of appropriate behaviour and understanding by both players and fans with regard to the objectives of the sponsors in the South African soccer fraternity. The poor performance by players in their respective clubs as well as in the national team as a consequence is a cause for concern. The purpose of the study, in a nutshell, is to discover if there is any congruence in the understanding between the teams and sponsors with regard to the purpose and implications of sponsorships. In addition, the study seeks to discover the level of soccer player professionalism with regard to their behaviour on and off the field. The nature of the study as discussed above warrants an outline of different research paradigms in order to determine which research approach is appropriate for the study.

5.4 THE QUALITATIVE RESEARCH PROCESS

In the qualitative research design discussion in 5.3, the nature of the study under investigation is that of a narrative inquiry. Based on this type of research, the data to be collected is qualitative. The differences between quantitative and qualitative data analysis have also been discussed. Therefore the research process to be followed in this study is that of qualitative research as presented in the subsections that follow.

5.4.1 The population of interest

The target population were soccer fans of all Professional Soccer League (PSL) teams with a following in the province in KwaZulu-Natal, soccer players of the three PSL teams in the province, soccer team managers of the three PSL teams in the province, and sponsors of the three teams. The number of adult soccer spectators nationwide as estimated by BMi SportTrack, the body that tracks sports in South Africa, is approximately 13 million. The KZN portion of that estimate is 2 927 000 soccer spectators (2011 BMi Adult SportTrack). The number of soccer fans that normally fill the Moses Mabhida Stadium in big matches is 55 000 (Soccer fans flock to KZN). This number includes fans belonging to teams like Kaizer Chiefs, Mamelodi Sundowns, and Orlando Pirates, just to mention the ones with large followings. The three Professional Soccer League (PSL) teams in KZN have a combined total of 104 registered players, 28 club officials, and 14 sponsors/partners (PSL official website). Before this data could be updated on the PSL website, the teams have since reduced the number of registered players to an average of 22 per team owing to costs of keeping too many players in the books of each club, resulting in the estimated total of 66 players. This constitutes the sample frame for the three PSL soccer clubs in the province excluding soccer fans for focus groups. With each soccer club the researcher targeted the main sponsors e.g. Spar in the case of AmaZulu F.C. and other sponsor as permitted by club management.

5.4.2 Sampling

Selection of participants was purposive and judgmental with regard to team officials and managers, sponsor representatives, and soccer players. The reason for applying purposive sampling to the selection of players is that players who have a good command of English and are not rookies in professional soccer, are known by club officials hence probability sampling would not be suitable. The participants who are soccer fans were selected through snowball (multiplicity) sampling in order to make sure that all KZN teams and the major teams outside the province are represented in each focus group. With this

method of sampling, a few suitable participants are chosen purposefully by the researcher and subsequently requested to spread the word to others with the same characteristics to participate in the study (Tustin *et al.*, 2005:349). The criterion that was used when judging who will be suitable is the knowledge of the researcher about some individuals who like professional soccer and which teams they support among the three KZN PSL teams. Those individuals assisted in identifying others they know who support the other teams popular to soccer lovers as stated under population of interest. This sampling method has assisted in making sure that a diversified soccer support base was achieved whereby all big and famous teams which are well-supported were represented in focus groups.

The sample size is limited to the specified officials, fans, and specific players to be interviewed. Included in the sample were 14 PSL soccer players, four club officials, four sponsor officials, and soccer fans. This meant that about 20 per cent of players per team were selected to the sample because of the reduced population of players per team. The number of fans per focus group discussion varied between five and 11 participants in each of the four identified areas where discussions were planned. Soccer fans who participated in focus group discussions were 11 soccer fans in P.M. BURG); five soccer fans in DURBAN NORTH; nine soccer fans in DURBAN SOUTH; and 10 soccer fans in EMPANGENI/RICHARDSBAY, resulting in 35 soccer fans in total. This soccer fan total combined with 14 soccer players, four club officials, and four sponsor officials, and one independent soccer expert (the soccer analyst) results in a grand total sample size of 58 participants. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013), sample sizes between 30 and 500 are suitable for most research. Furthermore, Mason (2010) states that samples for qualitative research are normally smaller than those applicable to quantitative studies. The reason put forward is that there is a point of diminishing return to a qualitative sample, meaning that as the study keeps on collecting more data, it does not necessarily lead to more information in terms of themes. The plan that guided the process of conducting focus group discussions is shown in table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Details of focus group planning

Area	PSL club support	No. of focus groups
Pietermaritzburg	Maritzburg United; AmaZulu; Kaizer Chiefs; Orlando Pirates; Mamelodi Sundowns, etc.	1
Durban (North)	AmaZulu; LGA; Kaizer Chiefs; Orlando Pirates; Mamelodi Sundowns; etc.	1
Durban (South)	AmaZulu; LGA; Kaizer Chiefs; Orlando Pirates; Mamelodi Sundowns; etc.	1
Empangeni/Richardsbay	AmaZulu; LGA; Kaizer Chiefs; Orlando Pirates; Mamelodi Sundowns; etc.	1

Participants in the sample were identified through multiplicity sampling except in the case of club and sponsor officials where sampling was judgmental. Purposeful sampling was suitable since not all club or sponsor officials would have been able to provide the data required for the study. The sample size with regard to soccer players was influenced by the number of long-serving players per club. As far as the number of club and sponsor officials are concerned, the researcher had to identify an official who is well clued up and has worked for the organization for at least five years. In the case of club officials the additional criterion was access to individual players and knowledge of the conditions of sponsoring brands.

5.4.3 The basis of interview planning

The poor performance of PSL soccer player raised concerns and questions whether they understand the professional expectations and the co-branding implications of their performance. Emanating from this concern it became necessary to explore if officials of clubs and officials of sponsors also understand the implications of co-branding through soccer. This was necessary because soccer players are subordinates of the officials. In addition to the concerns already stated, the observed unruly behaviour of soccer fans in relation to club performance at the stadia appeared to pose a threat to the co-branding relationship between a soccer team and official sponsors in terms of brand images. The factors characterising the

observed professional soccer situation in South Africa presented a platform on which data collection instruments were developed.

The design of interview schedules for soccer player, sponsor official, and club official in-depth interviews as can be noticed from Annexures 2, 3, and 4 respectively was meant to pose open-ended questions to explore a comprehensive list of themes. Focus group agenda (Annexure 1) was also designed to enable facilitation of focus group discussions. The data collection instruments were designed on the basis of themes derived from literature review in Chapter Four. Each data collection instrument was designed in consideration of the capacity of the population of interest to understand questions posed, hence translation of questions into isiZulu with regard to Annexure 3 since some soccer players have not developed capacity to understand and express themselves very well in English. Sponsors and soccer officials normally understand English fairly well hence there was no need to translate the interview schedule. The interview schedule for soccer players was pre-tested on five ex-PSL soccer players found in Pietermaritzburg and was validated by comparing responses with the constructed open-ended questions. There was a direct relationship and relevance between questions and responses.

The type of themes that had to be explored through in-depth interviews are based on knowledge of club sponsors, understanding of sponsors' interests, internalization of sponsors' interests, recognition of players in sponsorship agreements, recognition of fans in sponsorship agreements, level of management seniority involvement in sponsorship agreements, measurement of sponsorship objectives during agreement duration, the importance of the length of sponsorship relationship/agreement, sponsorship congruence, player behaviour in relation to sponsorship agreement, sponsorship and marketing mix, affective intensity and sponsor identification; and conflicts in sports co-branding.

The type of themes that had to be explored through the focus group agenda are based on fan exposure to club information, sponsorship objective awareness, knowledge of club sponsors, understanding of sponsors' interests, internalization of sponsors' interests, the importance of the length of sponsorship relationship/agreement, sponsorship congruence, affective intensity and sponsor identification, understanding of no interference with club management, and implications of bad behaviour to club and sponsor brand images. Before data could be collected, consideration of credibility and trustworthiness had to be done with regard to the manner in which data were to be collected, the role of the researcher and the degree to which the findings would be justifiably generalized to other similar situations i.e. other PSL teams in other provinces.

5.4.4 Data Collection

A covering letter detailing what the study is about and the necessity of the interviews was sent by e-mail to each club and each sponsor, seeking permission to interview employees and players. Follow-up telephone calls were made to secure appointments with club officials. A letter of informed consent was signed by each focus group and in-depth interview participant before the beginning of each data collection session. The players to be interviewed were notified of the planned interviews with the assistance of the club officials who normally work closely with them by organizing their interviews.

The identified officials of clubs or sponsors, and players were informed of their right not to answer questions they were not comfortable with or to divulge information they were not supposed to divulge. The officials to be interviewed were identified by the clubs and sponsoring organizations. The interviews were conducted according to the availability and consent of each and every participant. The participants were assured of the anonymity and privacy of their participation.

The methods used to collect data were focus groups of soccer fans and in-depth interviews of club officials, sponsor representatives, and players. Players from each of the three KZN teams were interviewed in-depth to establish their understanding of their role in sponsorship/co-branding agreements. Permission to interview players was obtained from the responsible club officials of each team as per appendices attached hereto. Players were interviewed voluntarily at a location of their convenience (preferable to them) in Durban and Pietermaritzburg. Four key club officials from the three KZN teams were interviewed in-depth to discover their understanding and the manner in which they involve or inform other important stakeholders about implications of co-branding in soccer. These interviews were conducted at the offices chosen by participants and others were conducted over the telephone.

The club officials of KZN clubs were interviewed in-depth on the basis of their relevant positions, e.g. Public Relations Officer (PRO), Supporters' Manager, Marketing Manager, etc. depending on the management structure of each club or sponsor. Four focus group discussions consisting of 12 or less participants were conducted. Focus group participants were members of the general public and as such permission for their participation was sought on individual basis. The focus groups were conducted at venues that were easily accessible to the participants who were identified through multiplicity sampling and discussions were recorded using a voice recording device equipped with a memory card. Permission

to record the discussion was sought from focus group members in each instance. In-depth interview schedules and focus group agenda are attached hereto as annexures.

In summary, there were four focus group discussions, 14 in-depth interviews of both players and officials. In addition to the 18 in-depth interviews as already explained, a further four in-depth interviews of sponsor representatives were conducted by permission from club officials, and an additional interview of the soccer analyst. Of the 23 in-depth interviews conducted, one was over the telephone, two were via e-mail, and 20 were face-t-face. There were two focus groups in Durban i.e. one at Umlazi, and one at KwaMashu/Ntuzuma. Other focus group discussions were conducted at Empangeni/Richardsbay (University of Zululand main campus), and one in Pietermaritzburg at Imbali. AmaZulu FC and other bigger PSL teams outside KZN have fans in Empangeni/Richardsbay area and all over the province whereas Maritzburg United and Lamontville Golden Arrows (LGA) have followers concentrated in Pietermaritzburg and Durban respectively. Therefore, focus groups were arranged on that basis. Two focus group discussions were conducted at two different venues in Durban because of AmaZulu FC and Lamontville Golden Arrows FC followings. The transcripts and other records of the interviews are available if needed.

5.4.5 Credibility and Trustworthiness

According to Guba's Model of Trustworthiness (Krefting, 1991: 215-217), credibility and trustworthiness are achieved through truth value, applicability, consistency, and neutrality as the pillars of the concept. The truth value is obtained from the recording of what humans have actually experienced and perceived in their life encounters. Applicability refers to the degree to which the results of the study can be generalized as applicable to other similar groups or natural settings given the same circumstances. Consistency refers to whether the results would be the same if the inquiry were to be repeated with the same participants or in a similar context. Neutrality means the freedom from influence by the manner in which research procedures were followed and results were generated. When summarizing Guba's model, (Krefting, 1991) suggests that an important credibility strategy for the researcher is to spend a lot of time observing and engaging with informants to the extent of knowing exactly about the aspects of the phenomenon under study. In another view of these concepts, Graneheim and Lundman (2004: 109-110) suggest that credibility deals with the plan of the study and also refers to the degree of confidence as to how data was collected and processed for analysis to address the phenomenon under study whilst trustworthiness includes the degree to which the findings of the study can be said to be relevant and applicable to other similar groups or settings.

In addition to the issue of transferability of findings, credibility is critical for those presenting the information and also vital for the survival of the research project. Credibility describes the extent to which users trust the information and to what length they can rely upon such information (Robins & Holmes, 2007:387). The characteristics of credibility as already explained constitute its definition. It is defined as believability, trust, reliability, accuracy, fairness, and objectivity. Under the explanation of the role of the researcher it was stated that qualitative data research places a lot of responsibility on the researcher in relation to the strength that has to be shown by the researcher in dealing with the situation. One aspect of such strength tested in the researcher is being involved in the process of collecting data by mixing with participants (respondents) but divorcing himself from involving himself in the data content. There is a difference between credibility and, cognitive authority and information quality. Cognitive authorities are those people who influence other people's thoughts because such people regard them as legitimate. Cognitive authorities affect information quality. Information quality is people's subjective judgement of what is good and useful of information in certain information use scenarios with regard to what they wish and expect of information or with regard to other information available (Hilligoss & Rieh, 2007:1468-1469).

It is also important to state that data were collected using a digital voice recorder in order to capture all verbal aspects and verbal details of each focus group discussion or in-depth interview. After the discussion a word for word transcription was done. The use of the recording device made sure that the researcher could not influence the thoughts of the participants or ask leading questions. The transcriptions are a true reflection of the interviews that were conducted. The results of the findings will be easily be applicable (transferable) to other clubs, players and fans since they share the same characteristics although not based in one province and also that different PSL teams play in the same division irrespective of the province of origin. The manner in which data was collected does facilitate analysis of qualitative data as outlined hereunder.

The manner in which data was collected in this study complies with the principles of credibility and trustworthiness. This is borne by the fact that data were collected using in-depth interviews which are characterized by spending an extended period with the informants such that the average time spent in each in-depth interview was one and half hours whilst the average time spent with each focus group discussion was two hours. Furthermore, confidence exists that the responses were based on the record of information on what has actually been experienced and perceived by the informants in their life encounters i.e. accounts of what they exactly know, practice and experience in their involvement with soccer. Reliability is an important issue in qualitative research in demonstrating that data analysis is

rigorous. It is important to make sure that recorded data are not transcribed in summary but verbatim in order to distance the researcher from influencing the content of data (Lacy & Luff, 2007:20-26). Reliability was ensured by transcribing the focus group discussions verbatim.

5.4.6 Application of qualitative data analysis software

Data analysis in qualitative research is characterised by systematically searching and arranging the in-depth and focus group interview transcripts, observation notes, or other non-verbal materials that the researcher has accumulated to enhance the understanding of the phenomenon in question. The process of analysing qualitative data mainly consists of coding or categorising data. Basically, it involves interpreting huge volumes of data by rationalizing on the volume of raw information, followed by establishing significant patterns, and eventually drawing conclusion from data and subsequently developing a theory (Wong, 2008:14).

Aronson (1994:1) provides a practical approach to thematic analysis wherein four steps are outlined. The first step involves transcribing conversations from audiotapes and listing patterns of experiences. Listing patterns can come from direct utterances or paraphrased version of ideas. The second step is characterised by establishing if there is any data that relate to the already classified patterns. In the third step of thematic analysis, related patterns are integrated into sub-themes. The themes refer to units derived from patterns such as conversation topics, common vocabulary, perpetual activities, meanings, feelings, opinions, perceptions, folk sayings, idioms and proverbs. Themes that emerge from the informants' stories are integrated to form a coherent picture of their collective experience. When gathering sub-themes it is easy to notice a pattern emerging that leads to a coherent picture. The last step following this activity is to build and justify a valid argument for choosing the themes. Once the themes have been chosen and relevant literature has been explored, the researcher can formulate theme statements to create a story line. These steps are similar to the stages identified by Lacy and Luff (2001:12-28). These authors point out that any qualitative analysis is a very time consuming and demanding process such that non-verbal cues like silence, laughter and gestures are taken into consideration in the process as meaning something.

The intricacy of qualitative research is borne by the fact that the data collected can be in the form of text, video or audio files. In all cases the data can be from an interview, a focus group, an observational note or an observation of some type of behaviour. The procedure followed is normally some form of coding by which data are identified in some meaningful way to aid in the analysis. The output of data processing

can vary from a collection of video edits to written report on paper conveying the research findings (Gaiser & Schreiner, 2009:114). Gaiser and Schreiner further point out that when choosing qualitative data software from a number of different programmes, it is prudent to take into consideration that the way a particular programme functions, technologically, may influence the study findings. The few programmes stated by these authors are HyperResearch, NVivo, Atlas/ti, Ethnograph, and MAXQDA.

The researcher used NVivo software (version 10) because it was designed to facilitate common qualitative techniques for creating categories of data, thematic analysis of data and sharing analysed data in the form of patterns that emerge from the process and conclusion. This software enables qualitative inquiry beyond performing tasks such as coding, sorting and retrieval of data. To substantiate this statement, it was also designed to integrate all qualitative data analysis tasks (Wong, 2008: 15). This tool provided insight into underlying causes of attitudes, beliefs, feelings, and perceptions of club officials, soccer players, sponsors and soccer fans. Further than that, the researcher decided to use this tool because there already are other colleagues who have used it and have shared their experiences of using it. It also appeared that the institution where promoters assigned to guide the researcher through the study has another support structure for the use of NVivo (version 10). The use of NVivo (version 10) for the analysis of data generated the results per theme as presented in the subsequent section.

The choice of the software depends on the availability of support structures that are put in place by an institution to guide the researcher. In other words, colleagues assigned to assist the researcher do have an influence on software that is finally used in data processing. However, this does not necessarily prevent the researcher from insisting on the preferred software having been informed of the characteristics of each one. Besides the probable influence of institutional influence, the choice is also dependent upon the support structures provided by the supplier/distributor of the software. Furthermore, QSR International has developed NVivo Version 11 which is more comprehensive with five different options to suit a researcher's need (e-mail promotion). This renders this software more attractive when choice has to be made.

Deriving from the literature reviewed, there were 13 themes that were to be discovered and matched with the ones identified in data collection through in-depth interviews and nine themes to be discovered and matched through focus groups discussions with regard to soccer fans, players and managers. Some themes overlap between these two data collection methods In-depth interviews were characterised by open-ended questions and were both administered by the researcher who used probing to encourage the participant to tell as much as they possibly could (Tustin *et al.*, 2005). The developed software for this

purpose is NVivo. Wong (2008) points out though that the computer does not analyse data but is merely a tool to assist. Researchers still have to categorise, coding, decide what to arrange in order, establish the patterns and conclude from the results of data analysis. The programme merely assists in obviating the marking, cutting, and sorting tasks as was done in the past with a pair of scissors, paper and note cards. The software chosen for this study is NVivo Version 10.

In accordance with research methodology already discussed, the ten interviews with soccer players and the three interviews with club officials were conducted face-to-face by the researcher whilst the other one club official interview was through e-mail and one sponsor official interview was conducted by the researcher telephonically since they were not available for face-to-face interviewing because of their busy schedules. The other two sponsor official interviews were conducted face-to-face by the researcher. All the in-depth interviews were conducted at the times and venues that were chosen by the respondents and also convenient for the respondents. Out of three PSL teams targeted for the study only two responded. Endeavours to solicit support for the study as far the third team is concerned came to nothing after a lengthy delay. One official representing a major sponsor of one of the participant teams took too long to participate in the contribution of the needed data to such an extent that a delay of six months was caused. It was not easy to abandon the endeavour to make the official see the need to participate because the data required was critical to the study. The patience and fortitude exercised by the researcher paid off in the end because an interview with the said official was eventually successfully conducted.

The four focus group discussions were personally conducted by the researcher at four different venues that were convenient for all participants and at the time commonly convenient for all participants. The focus group interviews were recorded with the permission of the participants and later transcribed onto paper for data analysis. All the in-depth interviews were recorded initially in handwriting and later typed on computer for convenience of data analysis. Among the soccer players who were interviewed it became apparent that some had played for more than one team including teams that are based outside KwaZulu-Natal which made the data for the study to be very informative. The in-depth interviews and focus group discussions recorded on computer were then stored electronically on flash disks as files for data processing and analysis as will be discussed in Chapter 6.

However, it must be reiterated that out of three PSL soccer clubs as the intended population of interest, two out of three clubs agreed to participate in the study. Several attempts were made to make the club manager of the third team to understand the importance of the study and the expected benefits thereof, but to no avail. He always pretended to have understood and promised to furnish the required data but

to no avail. This carried on and on for about a year whilst data was collected from other respondents on a continuous basis as opportunities to do so presented themselves. Based on research ethics, the attempts were abandoned when it became clear that the club manager cannot be trusted and that he was neither willing to participate nor allow current players to be interviewed. For that reason, players who had played for that team within three years of the beginning of the study were interviewed to provide what is referred to as a means to collect alternative but relevant data. The players of the clubs that participated assisted by giving names of players that they knew to have played for the non-participating club. This was therefore achieved through snowball sampling. This then implies that in addition to the purposive and judgmental sampling methods as initially intended, snowball sampling was used as circumstances required. As a blessing in disguise, unintended though, those players have also individually played for three different clubs in the Gauteng Province, one club in the Limpopo Province, one club in the Free State and the other two clubs that participated in the study in KwaZulu-Natal thereby making a strong case to generalize the results for the whole country (South Africa).

5.5 CONCLUSION

Research as a concept was defined particularly with regard to the fact that academic research tends to be thorough, systematic, and accurate. The aim of research was explained as always to find out about certain phenomena and also to find a solution to a specific problem. It was clearly indicated that this study is a narrative inquiry that seeks to understand human actions and to organize texts and themes into a coherent picture whilst connecting and seeing the consequences of human actions over time. It was further explained that research of a narrative type seeks to understand, describe and explore the feelings and experiences in human terms and in rich detail. In this regard, the researcher is a 'situate' observer who divorces himself from the research data and the results.

The focus of this narrative inquiry was also stated as the study of marketing in specialised markets viz. soccer sponsorships. It became clear that the nature of this study indicates that it requires a hermeneutics approach to explore the feelings and experiences of soccer players, soccer officials, sponsors and soccer fans in the context of soccer in general as well as sponsorship in particular. This approach was determined by the research problem (Step 1 in the process), perceived lack of appropriate behaviour and understanding by both players and fans with regard to the objectives of the sponsors in the South African soccer fraternity. The definition of the research problem resulted in realising that embedded in the problem is the poor performance by players in their respective clubs as well as in the national team.

The research paradigms were briefly discussed and explained. From the discussion, the research approach that was found to be suitable for this study is hermeneutics. Since the study is a narrative inquiry characterised by qualitative data collection, the process of qualitative data research and explanation thereof in relation to the research process has been covered. In the discussion of the research problem, population of interest, sampling, data collection, credibility and trustworthiness, and qualitative data analysis were explained as components of the process. The software that was found suitable for the study was explained including the factors that influence the researcher to choose a specific software suitable for the study. This chapter leads to the analysis of data and findings in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER SIX: ANALYSIS OF DATA AND FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Emanating from the theoretical background to the nature of the study and the type of data collected as indicated in Chapter Five, a discussion of the development of qualitative data analysis software, and the application of software to qualitative data is done in this chapter. Subsequent to such discussion, analysis of data collected is shown by giving attention to each theme that was discovered in order to present findings on the basis of the themes. Tables of how data was analysed are also presented in this chapter.

6.2 DATA ANALYSIS

The analysis of data is explained in the sub-sections arranged hereunder. The analysis will reveal the results of exploring every theme that forms part of the scope of the study. Detail is given on how results were derived per theme explored among different participants. It will also be indicated as to how many participants responded or had an input in the discussion of the themes.

6.2.1 Knowledge of club sponsors

This theme was explored separately among soccer players and soccer fans to establish club sponsorship awareness without confusing the respondent group orientation and background. The nodes were labeled slightly differently for ease of independent analysis as Knowledge of Club Sponsorship and Knowledge of Club Sponsors respectively, although the themes have the same meaning. Whatever kind of responses generated after exploring this theme assist in establishing the attitude of club officials towards communication of important information to relevant stakeholders.

The analysis reveals situations where two players independently know about sponsors of three different teams; one player knows about five out of seven sponsors of own team; two players independently know about one sponsor of one team; one player knows about sponsors of four different teams and more than one sponsor per team; one player knows about three out of seven sponsors of own team; one player knows about four out of seven sponsors of own team; and two players are ignorant of sponsorship. The results are displayed in Table 6.1.

TABLE 6.1 Knowledge of club sponsorship (soccer players)

Analysis	Percentage
Number of players with knowledge of sponsorship	80
Number of players each knowing sponsors of 3 different teams	20
Number of players each knowing 1 sponsor of 1 team	20
Number of players each knowing 5 out of 7 sponsors of own team	10
Number of players each knowing 4 out of 7 sponsors of own team	10
Number of players each knowing 3 out of 7 sponsors of own team	10
Number of players each knowing sponsors of 4 different teams	10

As far as the knowledge of the 22 PSL soccer fans who voluntarily shared information at different focus group discussion sessions are concerned, the analysis reveals that 14 fans independently know about two sponsors of favourite team; four fans independently do not know the sponsors of favourite team; two fans independently know about three sponsors; and two fans independently know about one sponsor of favourite team. The outcome of analysis is shown in Table 6.2.

TABLE 6.2 Knowledge of club sponsors (soccer fans)

Analysis	Percentage
Number of fans each knowing 2 sponsors of favourite team	64
Number of fans each with no knowledge of favourite team sponsor	18
Number of fans each knowing 3 sponsors of favourite team	09
Number of fans each knowing 1 sponsor of favourite team	09

With regard to how the club sponsorship knowledge has been acquired by fans, only six fans were able to state their sources of information. The one supporting AmaZulu FC stated that the information is known through newspapers. A Mamelodi Sundowns fan gets to know from the club's Public Relations Officer. One Orlando Pirates fan stated that information is known from club newsletter and also from newspapers. The other Orlando Pirates fan reads and get information from KICK-OFF magazine. Another Orlando Pirates fan gets to know about club sponsorship by watching UP THE BUCS television programme, through Facebook and club's website. A Kaizer Chiefs fan accesses information on the club's website, Twitter, Kaizer Chiefs TV and the club's Marketing Manager.

6.2.2 Understanding the sponsor's interest

Soccer players and soccer fans are stakeholders of different orientations with regard to co-branding through soccer because soccer players are employees whilst soccer fans are customers of the product called soccer. Despite this difference it was necessary to explore this theme among both categories of respondents. It is important to explore this theme in the study of this nature since it reveals how information is disseminated to important stakeholders by soccer clubs in respect of sponsorship partnerships.

The theme is understood by six out of 10 players, resulting in six players responding that they have to avail themselves as individuals when the sponsor wants them to promote their brand; three players responded by indicating that they are expected to support the sponsor's brand by buying; and six players responded by stating that they also have to perform at the highest level on the soccer field but without being specific about performance clauses and criteria. Table 6.3 illustrates the results.

TABLE 6.3 Understanding the sponsor's interests (Players' perspective)

Analysis	Percentage
Personal availability for sponsor's brand promotion	60
Performance at the highest level on the soccer field	60
Supporting the sponsor by purchasing sponsor's products	30

With regard to the perspective of soccer fans at different focus group interviews, nine out of 22 fans who responded stated that they buy products of the brands that sponsor their favourite teams. This accounts for 41 per cent of soccer fans who understand the expectation of the sponsoring brands.

6.2.3 Recognition of stakeholders

The feelings and opinions of players were explored with regard to their recognition as stakeholders as well as recognition of fans as stakeholders. The findings around this theme would reveal the understanding and open-mindedness of club officials towards the role that can be played by both players and soccer fans with regard to sponsorship agreements. Players had to state whether they are informed of the sponsorships by the clubs. They also had to indicate how they respond to provoking fans and how they regard fans in relation to club existence. Seven out of 10 players responded affirmatively to being informed of the sponsors whilst one player responded to the contrary. All 10 players responded by

indicating that they would respond independently and in a mature manner to fans provoking them during a match. The results are depicted in Table 6.4.

TABLE 6.4 Recognition of stakeholders (Players' perspective)

Analysis	Percentage
Respond with respect and maturity when provoked by fans	100
Informed about sponsor after signing of agreement	70
Regard fans as important for club success	60
Not informed about sponsor	10

A related theme in respect of what the feelings and opinions of sponsors are, regarding who they recognize as stakeholders in sponsorship agreements was also explored to establish sponsors' expectations when entering into such agreements with soccer clubs. Four sponsors participated in the study. The results reveal that three sponsors indicated that they expect players to behave positively throughout the duration of the agreement; three sponsors stated that they expect soccer fans to behave well at soccer stadia and to market the sponsoring brand to other fans; and one sponsor voiced an opinion that they expect soccer players to perform at their best. The results of exploring the theme are revealed in Table 6.5.

TABLE 6.5 Recognition of stakeholders (Sponsors' perspective)

Analysis	Percentage
Fans to behave sell and market the brand to other fans	75
Players to uphold good behaviour at all times	75
Players to perform at their best	25

When affective intensity and sponsor identification was explored among soccer players it was revealed that three players voicing their opinion that they do not have to identify with the sponsor; three players stated that they feel happy when seeing the sponsor's brand; two players state that they affiliate with the service offered by the sponsor; one player stated that it is easy to recognize a sponsor's brand because of commitment; and one player revealed behaviour habit of wearing sporting gear with sponsor's brand or logo. Table 6.6 portrays the results.

TABLE 6.6 Affective intensity and sponsor identification Players' perspective)

Analysis	Percentage
No need to identify with the sponsor's brand or logo	30
Happy to see a sponsor's brand or logo	30
Affiliating with the service offered by sponsors	20
Easy to recognize a sponsor's brand because of commitment	10
Wearing sporting gear bearing sponsor's brand and logo	10

6.2.4 Affective intensity and sponsor identification

Considering the effort put into negotiating a sponsorship agreement and the amount of money involved in lucrative sponsorship agreements, it was also important to discover this theme by conducting in-depth interviews and focus group discussions. These exploratory endeavours revealed that players and soccer fans understand the role they are expected to play in support of sponsorship agreements.

When exploring this theme among club officials, different responses were received. One club official did not understand the question such that the response was not relevant. One club official stated that affinity must develop between individual players, club officials and supporters (fans) towards the sponsoring brand whilst the other two club officials stated their identification with all sponsoring brands.

This theme was also explored among soccer fans who participated in the focus group discussions and 16 responded during the discussion. Nine fans made it clear that it is easy to recognize the sponsor's brand among competing brands; six responded by stating that they support the sponsor's brands by buying the products; five revealed that they feel happy when seeing the brand of the sponsor; one confessed to have never bought a sponsor's brand; and one stated that quality is what influences purchasing a brand instead of affective intensity deriving from sponsorship. The results depicted in Table 6.7.

TABLE 6.7 Affective intensity and sponsor identification (Fans' perspective)

Analysis	Percentage
Recognition of sponsor's brand is easy	56
Support of sponsor's brand through purchase	38
Happy when seeing a sponsor's brand	31
Buy a brand on the basis of quality rather than owned by sponsor	06
Never bought a sponsor's brand	06

6.2.5 Conflicts in sports co-branding

The players were asked as to whether they have been approached and sponsored individually by a secondary sponsor and whether their respective clubs allowed it to happen. Exploring this theme assists in establishing how flexible the soccer teams are with regard to individual player sponsorship and also to establish how soccer teams protect the interests of the main sponsors. It transpired that nine players had experienced being approached and sponsored individually whilst one stated having had no such experience. Eight out of 10 players indicated that their respective club would not mind if they are individually sponsored by a secondary sponsor whilst one player stated that it would only happen after consultation with the club and permission given. It was established that clubs would allow it if it does not have anything to do with the soccer jersey, shorts, and socks. The players' responses are contained in Table 6.8.

TABLE 6.8 Conflicts in sports co-branding (Players' perspective)

Analysis	Percentage
The club does not mind being sponsored individually	80
The club must be consulted first for permission	10
Never been approached individually for sponsorship	10

This theme was further explored among club officials to establish their perspective in order to compare it with that of players. All the four club officials independently stated that the clubs allow players to be sponsored individually by a secondary sponsor if it is footwear only and if the secondary sponsor is not a competitor of the main sponsor.

6.2.6 Internalization of sponsors' interests

The respondents' feelings, emotions, and interests in the environment where the sponsoring brand is perceived were explored from both soccer players and soccer fans. This theme helps to establish if the effort and the level of spending put in by sponsors is really worth it or not. For the purpose of not mixing responses, the theme was varied slightly for recording different responses of soccer fans although the meaning is the same.

As far as players' perspectives are concerned, nine out of ten players confirmed that there is no performance management at clubs with regard to individual player contracts; eight players feel that players should treat one another as a family; seven players stated that sponsors expect exceptional performance from players; six players stated that sponsors put pressure on clubs to change unproductive players and coaches; six players feel that they should behave as ambassadors of the sponsor's brand; four players acknowledge that they must support the sponsor's brand by purchasing products on offer; four players expressed their opinion that sponsors are important because they fund the team; and one player stated without specifying that there is a performance clause in the contract. These results are displayed in Table 6.9.

TABLE 6.9 Internalization of sponsor's interest (Players' perspective)

Analysis	Percentage
There is no performance management and performance clauses	90
Players must treat one another as members of one family	80
Sponsors expect exceptional performance from players	70
Sponsors put pressure on clubs to change unproductive players	60
Players must behave as sponsor's brand ambassadors	60
Sponsors are important because they fund the club	40
Players are obliged to support sponsors by purchasing products on offer	40
There is a performance clause in the contract	10

The perspectives of 22 soccer fans who participated in focus group discussions were also separately explored to establish if there are similarities or differences between their perspectives and those of players. The majority of soccer fans with the exception of only one fan understands and accept the obligation to support the sponsor by purchasing the products it offers in the market. Table 6.10 depicts the results.

TABLE 6.10 Internalization of sponsors' interest (Fans' perspective)

Analysis	Percentage
Support sponsors by purchasing sponsors' brands	95
I do not support the sponsors' brands	05

6.2.7 Implications of the length of sponsorship

It was necessary to explore the importance and implications of how long the sponsorship should be, from different points of view of the club officials, sponsors and fans' since this theme exposes the commitment of parties to the sponsorship partnership and the intention towards a long and meaningful relationship. Four club officials are in agreement of the fact that the length depends on the club performing to sustain top flight status. Three club officials stated that a considerable length of the sponsorship enables the club to design plans in the medium term to long term rather than a short term. One club official stated that a long term sponsorship allows both parties time for creating brand association. The results are shown in Table 6.11.

TABLE 6.11 Sponsorship length and implications (Club perspective)

Analysis	Percentage
Depends on club performance to remain in the PSL	100
The length enables the club to plan for medium to long term	75
The length enables time for creating brand association	25

The exploration among sponsors revealed that two sponsors believe that a long term sponsorship is desirable for understanding the other party and relationship formation, based on continued need. Two sponsors stated that the length is important if clear deliverables are agreed and regular meetings are held to monitor the status whilst one sponsor stated that premature failure of the agreement is inevitable if supporters are not considered important and promises are not honoured. One sponsor considers three years as a desirable minimum period. The results are displayed in Table 6.12.

TABLE 6.12 Sponsorship length and implications (Sponsor perspective)

Analysis	Percentage
A life time commitment is desirable based on continued need	50
Clear deliverables are agreed and regular meetings are held	50
A minimum of three years is desirable	25
Premature failure inevitable if supporters are not considered	25

When exploring this theme 13 participants (soccer fans) at different focus groups engaged in the discussion. It was revealed that three soccer fans indicated that five years or more are desirable; one suggesting that one to four years would be suitable whilst one indicated that three years would be appropriate; one stated that no matter how long the period is, it is important to review the agreement annually; and one stated that the length would depend on the negotiations between parties. When asked if sponsors can continue sponsoring a team that has been relegated to the National First Division (NFD) two soccer fans responded independently by stating that Bonitas Medical Fund continued sponsoring Jomo Cosmos and that Vodacom continued sponsoring Chippa United when the latter had been relegated to NFD respectively. This was very interesting to note especially if this kind of information is coming from fans' knowledge about soccer sponsorship. The results are presented in Table 6.13.

TABLE 6.13 Implications of the length of sponsorship agreement (Fan perspective)

Analysis	Percentage
Five years or more is suitable	23
One to four years would be appropriate	08
Three years would be better	08
There must be an annual review no matter how long it is	08
It will depend on negotiations between the parties	08

6.2.8 Sponsorship and the marketing mix

This theme is relevant to both club officials and sponsors. They were all subjected to in-depth interviews. Exploring the theme is important in establishing underlying marketing objectives of organizations that resort to sponsorship in order to promote their brands. The responses of the four club officials converge on the reasons why sponsors choose soccer teams to expose their brands to the wider public audience. They also agree on the fact that sponsorship enables soccer teams to attain their goals easily through the

funding involved. The response that sponsors seek soccer clubs to enable themselves to benefit from maximum media coverage is common among all club officials. Their responses are grouped in Table 6.14. One official stated that some sponsors are sought in order to increase finances.

TABLE 6.14 Sponsorship and marketing mix (Club perspective)

Analysis	Percentage
Soccer offers a platform for promotion and association with a club	100
Large media coverage and enhancement of the sponsoring brand	100
The target audience of the sponsor is the same as that of the club	100
Sponsors are supplier partners for co-branding and funding	75
Some sponsors are sought after by the team just to beef-up finances	25

With regard to the point of view of the officials representing the sponsors, four in-depth interviews were conducted with sponsor officials. Their responses revealed varied answers with a degree of common orientation in some issues of the soccer sponsorship. It appears that the reason for sponsoring soccer is that it has the biggest audience than any other sport. The relevance of soccer for inclusion in the marketing mix was explained by officials from different angles. Two officials indicated that their organizations share the same values and interests as soccer clubs. One of the remaining two officials stated that their organization uses soccer as a platform to promote their product (nature conservation as a value) to untapped markets whilst the other one indicated that their organization includes soccer and cricket in their marketing mix in order to assist the teams financially in terms of player incentives. As far as the expectations from the sponsorship agreement is concerned, two officials stated independently that the sponsored team must remain in the PSL and that each partner must deliver what was agreed upon. Of the remaining two officials, one did not respond to the question whilst the other stated that their organization's expectation from the sponsorship agreement is to be the official and exclusive entertainer of the club. It would also appear that all interviewed sponsors' target markets are related to soccer. What the interviews revealed is presented in Table 6.15.

TABLE 6.15 Sponsorship and marketing mix (Sponsor perspective)

Analysis	Percentage
Soccer has the biggest audience compared to other sports	100
The target market for sponsors and soccer clubs is the same	100
Sponsors and soccer clubs share the same values and interests	50
Both parties to the sponsorship must deliver what is expected	50
The club must remain in the PSL is the sponsorship expectation	50
The sponsor expects to be the official and exclusive club entertainer	25
Sponsor assist soccer and cricket teams financially	25
Soccer fans are an untapped market to promote nature conservation as a value	25

6.2.9 Level of seniority in dealing with sponsorship agreements

The level of management seniority involvement in sponsorship was also explored when interviewing four officials of sponsoring organizations. This theme reveals the attitude of sponsoring organizations' management towards the importance of managing sponsorship agreements and the level of consideration of the amounts of money involved in the exercise. The results revealed that sponsoring organizations make different decisions when it comes to the level of management seniority in negotiating an initial sponsorship agreement; administering the negotiated agreement; and re-negotiating after expiry of the previous agreement. The results are shown in Table 6.16.

TABLE 6.16 (Level of management seniority in handling sponsorship agreement)

Analysis	Percentage
Negotiation of an initial agreement by senior management	100
Administration of agreement by middle management	50
Re-negotiation by both senior and middle management	50
Re-negotiation of new agreement by senior management	50
Administration of the agreement by junior management	25
Administration of the agreement by senior management	25

6.2.10 Measurement of sponsorship objectives

Sponsorship agreements are entered into with objectives of enhancing the images of brands in alliance (co-branding) from both the perspective of sponsors and the perspective of soccer clubs. In the wake of the fact that co-branding objectives are the fundamental reason for entering into sponsorship agreements, it makes sense to establish if evaluation of the relationship is done to assess the degree of success or failure to attain the objectives at certain intervals and at the end of the sponsorship agreement. This theme was explored among both club officials and sponsor officials. All the eight officials were asked if their respective organizations do measure if the attainment of sponsorship objectives was achieved and what parties do if the objectives were not attained.

The responses of the four club officials respectively to the question as to whether they measure the degree to which sponsorship objectives have been met were as follows:

- “Yes, we do measure the attainment of objectives.”
- “No, because the sponsorship is a mutual association based on common values.”
- “Meetings are held to monitor the selection of players for the games and to help one another to meet mutual goals.”
- “Meetings are held twice during the season to evaluate the situation and to carve the way forward.”

The responses of the four sponsor officials respectively were as listed hereunder:

- “We want the club to display our brand in a number of matches when playing a specific top club in the PSL.”
- “Objectives are set out in the agreement at the beginning and measured at the time of renewal.”
- “They are impossible to measure.”
- “We measure with regard to our sales every month.”

Responding to the question about the steps taken if objectives were not attained, each of the four club/sponsor officials replied as outlined hereunder.

The responses relating to each club official are as follows:

- No answer.
- “Each party has a right to vary the level of sponsorship if not happy with what was agreed upon but not achieved.”
- “Most of the time the sponsor has more leverage in deciding to continue or not whilst the club has a lesser leverage.”
- “Parties help one another to attain agreed objectives.”

The responses of sponsor officials were as follows:

- “We re-strategize how to do things differently.”
- “Based on good faith we engage and rectify directly whatever needs to be fixed.”
- “No step is taken.”
- “Not applicable.”

6.2.11 Congruence between club and sponsor

Congruence between parties entering into a sponsorship agreement is a critical factor during negotiations as well as after the agreement has been signed. It was therefore necessary to explore this theme with both club officials and sponsor officials. The responses of each respondent are presented hereunder.

Responses of the club officials were as listed below:

- “Congruence is taken into consideration although some of the organizations agreeing to sponsor may not have the same characteristics.”
- “Congruence is maintained by working together.”
- “A lot of sponsorship is now based on what kind of business is achievable in the relationship.”
- “Mutual association is based on common values.”

Responses relating to each of the sponsors' officials were as follows:

- "Not applicable."
- "We review demographics by way of season ticket sales."
- "Congruence is factored in."
- No answer.

Responses from soccer fans revealed the following:

- "I can now understand. Vodacom and Orlando Pirates have each huge followings and that is why Vodacom wanted to sponsor Orlando Pirates because the latter has many supporters who might use Vodacom airtime."
- "I think they (Vodacom) refrained because an agreement could not be reached. AmaZulu are a big club and are a very old team even older than Orlando Pirates. The main problem was that Vodacom's sponsorship package was not satisfactory to the club seeing that they wanted the club to promote their brand but at a low value sponsorship."
- "What is common among the two parties is to do business. They are both big companies and consider it worthwhile to help one another."
- "There is commonality or congruence in that Nike sales and Kaizer Chiefs performance and how the team is supported by its fans. They have a lot in common. I think such characteristics become prominent in their talks."
- "Yes, since Vodacom would not have chosen a team with 83 supporters when there is a team with many supporters like 3000 for example."
- "I think Nike is quality, quality brand and everything about them is quality. I also think that Kaizer Chiefs is a quality team from management down to their players. So those are the common characteristics."
- "Vodacom and Orlando Pirates have both performed consistently and thus are similar."

- “About Nike, I do not think there is anybody who does not like Nike. When you talk of Nike you talk about quality and when you talk of Mamelodi Sundowns you also talk about quality.”
- “I may mention that fans of Golden Arrows support their team no matter it is winning or losing. MTN users also stick to the brand even if the network is disappointing at times. They do not change to other brands.”
- “Kaizer Chiefs, Hollard and Vodacom have something in common. Hollard is a strong brand and so is Kaizer Chiefs, a specialist in Cup competitions. The main similarity is that Hollard is the Number 1 strong brand in insurance. Kaizer Chiefs, although they may lose some games they are also strong. When it comes to Vodacom they are the leading brand among all networks and they are still penetrating the market whenever there is a game between Kaizer Chiefs and Orlando Pirates. Before the game starts they do promotions in the form of advertising and sales promotion.”
- “Kaizer Chiefs know how to get involved in community activity. Vodacom also looks at people first by trying their best to satisfy their customers. They do not put profits first. Both parties have a good image in the public eye.”
- “Kaizer Chiefs is a big team in South Africa with a lot of fans. Hollard is doing well in insurance and Kaizer Chiefs has good publicity.”
- “There is not much I can say since we are now far from what is happening at the team, we have been marginalized.”

6.2.12 Implications of fans’ interference in club management

The participants were asked as a group whether they have a right to interfere in club management by throwing missiles at the soccer pitch or to the bench of the coach and the technical team. It was also probed as to whether it is their right to put pressure on the officials’ bench by hand gestures suggesting that there should be substitution. They were also asked as to what they think such behaviour will do to the image of their respective favourite clubs. The other question posed was how they felt if their favourite club was heavily fined by the PSL for bad fan behaviour. Eight fans felt that clubs must make an effort to educate supporters about behaviour that is expected of them. Six fans felt that interference should not

happen and the technical team must be trusted no matter what. Four fans stated that they felt bad when their favourite team is heavily fined. Three fans stated that sometimes it is warranted that the coach be beaten when it becomes apparent that he does not want to listen to his assistant. Three participants stated that the image of the team gets tarnished if fans behave badly. Three other participants indicated that sponsors would pull out if fans behave badly. Two participants blame players for fans' behaviour suggesting that they do not perform at their best. The other two participants stated that bad fan behaviour is sometimes caused by bad judgment by one of the match officials, prejudicing one of the teams that are playing. Presenting the data in a table would not serve any useful purpose since participants were responding randomly from different directions of answering the questions.

6.2.13 General responses

The researcher felt that more or not thought of data could be accessed to assist the study by giving respondents an opportunity to volunteer information deemed to be general. This was accomplished by adding a 'general data' section at the end of the interview schedule. This section generated among others diverse data related to professional soccer from soccer players. This responses given by soccer players, some of which related to literature review, are as follows:

- "The team does assist in personal problems requiring professional help."
- "The clubs should give youngsters some sort of professional assistance in terms of how to use their money/salary because some of them are overwhelmed by huge salaries earned in professional soccer."
- "The development of professional players is poor in South African soccer."
- "Financial advisors should visit soccer players for financial advice and social behaviour."
- "Some coaches expect percentages of your salary as a player to be included in the starting line-up as a bribe. This makes it hard for clubs to find players who have talent."
- "The team helps us with individual social problems i.e. financial, gambling, alcoholism, etc. When we seek professional help, we are treated like family."
- "The team helps with social problems of any sort e.g. rehabilitation."
- "As senior players we need to do more to support our communities and younger players."

Club officials and sponsor officials were afforded an opportunity to volunteer more data of a general nature but important for the study. Both categories of respondents were requested, among others, to

answer the question as to whether they had experienced an increase in brand equity emanating from a soccer sponsorship. On the one hand, the responses of the club officials are as follows:

- “Yes of course.”
- “It is difficult to answer because there is no main sponsor yet.”
- “Yes, because the staff of the main sponsor support us such that we are now able to attract quality players.”

On the other hand, the responses of the sponsor officials to the question of increase in brand equity revealed the following:

- “Yes indeed. Our brand is now known by the market.”
- “Yes. It gives us a lot of brand awareness through TV advertisements, and banners during games.”
- “Determination of the increase could never be isolated and due to a single factor because of our wide approach.”
- “How much has brand equity increased is not easy to measure.”

General comments not resulting from a specific question from soccer fans were as follows:

- “It would be appreciated if curtain-raiser matches fielding juvenile teams would be revived since it encouraged grass root players.”
- “It would be appropriate if teams were reaching out to unemployed soccer fans on certain occasions by issuing them with complimentary tickets to watch a local fixture.”
- “In foreign countries players’ contracts include a performance clause. The manner in which you play is very important in clubs abroad. If a player’s performance has dropped abroad, the player is loaned to clubs of a lower division which is not done in this country because administrators do not take performance as serious. If a performance clause features in each contract I believe the standard would improve a lot.”

6.3 CONCLUSION

The number of themes that were listed separately in relation to the four different categories of targeted participants (respondents) per the research proposal is thirteen for in-depth interviews and ten for focus

group discussions. The total as listed separately is 23 themes. During the collection of the data they were also discovered separately as can be noticed from Annexures 1 to 4 of this document.

Since some of the themes were cutting across the different data collection instruments, this resulted in finally having to analyse findings of only eleven themes. This was achieved by analysing each common theme under one heading although responses came from different perspectives as can be noticed in the analysis in the previous sections. This showed the richness of data collected through open ended questions as well as discussion agenda items in a focus group.

The ability to condense themes that were common among different target audiences has helped in identifying the importance of establishing different perspectives out of themes with common characteristics. The responses derived from players who had played for other PSL team as well in other provinces were similar to players who had only played for teams in KwaZulu-Natal. Players who had played in other provinces each had played for Bloemfontein Celtic, Moroka Swallows, Dynamos, Orlando Pirates, and Mamelodi Sundowns. This indicated the trustworthiness of the results. This will aid the interpretation of the findings based on all analysed themes and relevant aspects of the reviewed literature as will be shown in Chapter Seven.

CHAPTER 7: INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Having analysed the primary data in Chapter Six, the results will be discussed in relation to the research objectives and relevant aspects of the literature reviewed in Chapters Two, Three, and Four.

The discussion will focus on the themes which the researcher intended exploring at the beginning of the study as a result of the literature review in order to verify if the themes were successfully established during the study. A comparison of the responses to the common themes by the different categories of respondents will also be done. The findings on the explored themes will also be discussed in relation to issues and critical success factors with regard to co-branding in soccer even though some of these were not directly explored in the discovery of the themes targeted as per Chapter One.

7.2 INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

The analysis helped to discover the extent to which the themes do actually paint a picture of how co-branding in soccer is managed in KwaZulu-Natal in the context of South Africa. It also assisted in revealing why South African soccer fans behave towards their beloved teams and towards sponsors in the manner indicated in the research problem.

7.2.1 Knowledge of club sponsorship (soccer players, and fans)

The results revealed that the majority (80 per cent) of the players interviewed have general knowledge about the sponsorship of the clubs they play for. However, deriving from a finer analysis of the specific knowledge, it became apparent that two out of 10 players know sponsors of three different teams including the team currently playing for whilst two out of 10 players know one sponsor per team. In addition, one player revealed knowledge of sponsors of four different teams including the team currently playing for. When it comes to how much knowledge does a player have about sponsors of his own team, it is noted that although three players play for the same team, their respective knowledge varies.

A direct comparison of one player knowing three sponsors of a team played for with two soccer fans each knowing three sponsors of favourite team indicate that the level of knowledge and awareness compares almost evenly in terms of percentage among players and fans (Table 6.1 and Table 6.2). Professional soccer players ought to know more about sponsors of the teams they play for in comparison

to the knowledge that soccer fans have because soccer fans are not employees of the soccer teams. This finding is an indication of a negative attitude among professional soccer players towards club sponsorship. This South African situation is not congruent with the finding by Lee, Harris and Lieberger (2011) where it was revealed that marketing through sport is characterised by player attitude and awareness of sponsorship. If player attitude is negative, the success of co-branding through soccer in South Africa is doubtful. It appears that professional soccer players in the country are self-centred to the detriment of the seriousness of co-branding through soccer. This is borne by the concern raised by soccer commentators, supported by responding soccer fans on Soccer Africa programme of Supersport (DStv) as stated in Chapter One Section 1.2. The seriousness of the sponsorship is borne by the magnitude of investment in co-branding in sport. Brands like Vodacom, MTN, and SABMiller have been reported to have pumped in millions of rand into sports sponsorship (South Africa Takes Its Position in International Soccer 2011).

This theme was not explored amongst club officials since they are directly involved with processes of securing and signing of sponsorship agreements. The data thereof would not be fairly compared to the other two categories of respondents already stated.

7.2.2 Understanding the sponsors' interests

The results reveal that there is more understanding of the sponsors' interests through buying sponsors' products among soccer fans compared to the level of understanding by soccer players (Table 6.9 and Table 6.10). This is surprising since many fans are unemployed as always stated in different public media news regarding the state of the economy of the country (South Africa) whilst soccer players are employed. The unemployment status of some soccer fans was stated by participants on the day in which the focus group at Ntuzuma Township that some of the participants who had agreed to participate in the discussion could not make it anymore. The reason put forward was that they were attracted by a free entry concession given by AmaZulu FC, which had a fixture at Princess Magogo Stadium, as a gesture to entertain unemployed soccer fans. That is why there were five participants in that focus group discussion (less than what was expected). This situation confirmed the unemployment status of some of soccer fans.

However, it is surprising to find that players stated that they understand that they are expected to perform at the highest level on the soccer field yet in the research problem it was stated among other things that the perceived poor performance of professional soccer players in South Africa is a cause for concern,

hence the historical poor performance of the national team in continental and world soccer contests. The cause for concern by both soccer administrators and soccer fans over player performance is justified because of a study by Bühler *et al.* (2007) where it was established that superior team performance attracts sponsors who want to identify sponsoring partners. This study was confirmed by another study by Callego and Focadell (2006) in which it was established that the anchor to the agreements between Real Madrid and sponsors is player performance on the field as one of the desired player behaviours. Team performance as a culmination of individual player performance on the soccer pitch was found to be a critical success factor in a study by Lago-Ballesteros and Lago-Perias (2010). It was found that top teams made more shots at goals and had a better ratio of goals scored and shots than bottom of the log teams. This is not the case with South African professional soccer players. The mere fact that the players quoted having said that they are expected to perform at the highest level without mentioning the specific aspects of performance is an indication that they do not understand exactly what the desired type of performance is with regard to sponsorship objectives.

7.2.3 Recognition of stakeholders

The results of exploring this theme indicate a common understanding between soccer players and sponsors that soccer fans are important stakeholders in a sponsorship agreement. All players interviewed were of the same opinion that despite provocation by soccer fans they need to respond with respect and maturity. This view is shared by sponsors as well when the participating sponsors stated that they expect soccer fans to behave well at stadia and to market the sponsoring brand to other soccer fans through word of mouth. This finding supports the findings of a study by Herbst and Schreuder (1999) that marketing effectiveness and the quality of the relationship with spectators are underpinned by the length of the relationship of the sponsor. It was therefore surprising to establish from two soccer fans of long standing, supporting the same PSL club, that they have been marginalized by the team. This finding is contrary to the findings of a study by Olson (2010:180-199). The study highlighted the integral part of attitude, a detailed model of high-level sponsorship effects that augers well with sponsorship contexts was developed, where after the findings confirmed the importance of improving consumer attitude towards the co-branding through sport and the sponsoring brand equity. Spectators or fans are consumers whose attitudes have to be positive for club success. A further confirmation of this interpretation is found in a study on the effect of interactive fan festivals (Jowdy & McDonald, 2003:296) where it is stated that informed consumers of sport support the product with an intention to associate in the long-term with a team sport or a branded product.

The expectation of sponsors that soccer players should behave positively throughout the duration of the sponsorship agreement indicates that sponsors regard players as important stakeholders as well. Studies explored have revealed that the primary critical factor, that is also one of the most researched factors that normally affect teams' ability to attract lucrative sponsors, is player performance. It is further reported that player performance depends on player fitness and skill. Player performance has to be guided by skilful play and teamwork (Bühler *et al.* (2007). The responses of three quarters of players that they get to know about the sponsors after the agreement has been signed indicate that soccer clubs do not consider player opinions when negotiating sponsorship agreements. These responses imply that player performance as a critical factor in sponsorships is not considered prior to signing the agreements.

7.2.4 Affective intensity and sponsor identification

Exploring this theme amongst one group of players yielded unexpected results since they stated that they see no need to identify with the sponsor. Another group of players of the same number as the first group stated that they felt happy when seeing the sponsor's logo. An additional group (players) of a lesser number stated that they affiliate with the services of the sponsor. On the part of the soccer fans, the findings indicated that the feelings of soccer fans show more affective intensity when they notice the sponsor's logo or coming across sponsors' branded products. This is substantiated by the fact that more than half of the number of soccer fans stated that it is easy to notice a sponsor's brand whilst a group of fans of nearly half of the first group stated that they support the sponsoring brands through purchasing their products.

The findings with regard to soccer fans prove the findings of a study by Wakefield and Bennett (2010:99) where affective intensity and sponsor identification were also found to be indicating that consumers have a tendency to identify prominent and related sponsors precisely. The negative findings on the part of soccer players are in line with the findings of study of degenerative episodes in sport by Westberg, Stavros and Wilson (2011:603) where it was revealed that negative personal images of athletes representing the sporting organization more often than not threaten the brand images of both the sport/team and the sponsor and has potential to weaken or dissolve the co-branding partnership. The findings of this study indicate that the role or behaviour of soccer players (athletes) is an important issue to be dealt with when the relationship of sponsorship is developed.

Exploring this theme amongst club officials revealed that one club official stated that affinity must develop between individual players, club officials and supporters (fans) towards the sponsoring brand

whilst the other club official stated identification with all sponsoring brands. This is in line with the documented fact that sports fan's knowledge of co-branding through sport at grassroots level and niche sport event through an examination of remembrance and purchase intentions rates was assessed and proven to be influential by Miloch and Lamprecht (2006:147-154) and subsequent studies confirmed the findings of this study. This is an indication that fans and supporters are important stakeholders to be considered in the choice of a sponsor in terms of fit (congruence) which later affects the consumer purchase intentions of the products of the sponsor.

7.2.5 Conflict in sports co-branding

Amongst the trends established in European countries, it had to be established how PSL teams handle the situation whereby a single player is identified by a sponsor and sponsored as an individual by exploring this theme. Furthermore, the extent to which PSL clubs strive to protect the interests of main sponsors had to be discovered. A small number of players revealed that their respective clubs do not mind them having separate secondary sponsors whilst one player stated that it would only happen after consultation with the club and permission was given. The other players were certain that they had right of be sponsored as individuals whilst the one players had to seek clarity and permission.

This problem of conflict in sports co-branding normally arises where a player with his own individual clothing sponsor, plays in a sporting event which is sponsored by a rival clothing manufacturer whilst the event sponsors require that all competitors are required to wear that rival's sportswear bearing its logo. In another sense a player may also be individually sponsored by one marketer whilst his team sponsor is a competitor of his individual sponsor (Shaw, 2006). The author goes on to highlight that in the English Football Association Premier League (FAPL), some provisions are contained in the player's standard contract, which restrict the exploitation of a player's celebrity status by marketers. The provisions form part of the contract to emphasize the club context as of prime importance.

The other side of the feelings towards this sponsorship conflict was also looked at by finding out from club officials as to what the perspectives of the clubs are. All four club officials independently stated that the clubs allow players to be sponsored individually by a secondary sponsor if it is footwear only and if the secondary sponsor is not a competitor of the main sponsor. This unanimous agreement in response towards this situation indicates that the teams are flexible in this regard and also that they make sure that they protect the interests of the main sponsors. This unanimous decision by South African soccer administrators is congruent with stipulation in a soccer player contract that a player shall not

wear, sponsor or endorse any football clothing which may conflict with the interests of the club's sponsors (Football South Coast – Standard Player Contract, 2015). It is also the case in the soccer player's contract of the Premier League where it is stated in Clauses 4.2 and 4.4 that the player is not allowed to display any badge mark, logo trading name or message on any piece of sporting clothing without the written consent of any authorised official of the club. It is further stipulated that the player must not on his own behalf undertake promotional activities in a Club Context ((English Premier League Contract). It would be applauded if there are clauses of safeguarding the interests of the club sponsors in a soccer player's contract in South African soccer.

7.2.6 Internalization of sponsor's interests

The vast majority (90 per cent) of players who participated in the study confirmed that there is no performance management at PSL clubs whilst 70 per cent acknowledge the fact that sponsors expect players to perform exceptionally on the soccer field. Sixty per cent of participating players felt that they are expected to be the sponsors' brand ambassadors whilst under half of the number of players (40 per cent) support the sponsor by purchasing sponsor's products. Only one player stated that there is a performance clause in his contract but was not able to elaborate on the aspects thereof. Soccer fraternity practitioners (managers) were arguing that incentive pay cannot be used effectively to solve pay issues. According to them the arguments were a manifestation of the nature of critics who always have to question anything and everything that is proposed as a solution to a problem. The practitioners (managers) were arguing that incentives would cause players to be over eager to perform better to qualify for the incentives and get injured in the process (Feess, Gerfin and Muehlheusser, 2010:25-26). The researchers only wanted to emphasize that incentives are generally low to be used to solve the moral hazard problem. It would appear in the performance researchers' opinion that the reasons put forward by the practitioners for not including performance differentials in player contracts are unfounded since in the absence of performance clauses players do get injured anyway. In addition, the soccer player's pay commensurate with performance was studied and found to be true in the Italian Serie A as researched by Torre *et al.* (2014: 87).

Fees *et al.* (2010) argue against differential pay for professional soccer players. It is stated that firstly, with regard to studies on soccer player performance measurement models and the resulting criteria produced by such studies, individual criteria are objective enough to quantify in determining the remuneration package since they are the kind of data that is quantitative. With reference to the second argument, the risk of injury is always there in soccer since it is a physical contact sport hence strict rule

on which referees have to rely to control the games. Players may also sabotage one another for other reasons than incentives built-in into contracts. As far as the last argument is concerned, players are not equally rated in any team because of different variables pertaining to each individual player. Strikers as attackers are normally evaluated higher than midfielders whilst the latter are generally evaluated higher than defenders because of the ultimate objective of play i.e. scoring goals. Therefore, these arguments are not supported by other studies because it has been found that the law of diminishing returns begins to show at a certain stage of pay levels and pay increments. Torgler and Schmidt (2005:1-29) conducted a study to determine if there was any correlation between a player's salary and performance using data from eight seasons of the German Bundesliga. The results of the study established that salaries have a positive influence on how individual players perform, but with diminishing returns. This means that the salary increment reaches a point where the additional amount brings about less and less additional increment in performance.

The results of exploring this theme amongst soccer fans yielded a fact that the majority of soccer fans with the exception of only one fan understand and accept the obligation to support the sponsor by purchasing the products it offers in the market. They even showed sponsors' branded products that they were wearing at the focus group discussion. The feeling is the same with regard to the majority of players as indicated above.

7.2.7 Implications of the length of sponsorship

All the club officials were in agreement that the length depended on the club performing at the level that enables sustenance of top flight soccer status. Three out of four club officials voice an opinion that a longer period of sponsorship is desirable to enable the team to plan for the medium to long term objectives instead of short term only. It must be stated that performance appears to be the key to the possibility of a long term relationship between the club and the sponsor. In a study by Ko, Kim, Claussen and Kim (2008:80) it appeared that player performance underpinned by fitness and skill plus consumer involvement are influential critical factors in the success of a sponsorship. These findings confirm those of Callego and Focadell (2006) where it was established that the sponsorship agreements between Real Madrid and sponsors are anchored on player performance on the field of play as one of the desired behaviour by sponsors.

One sponsor was explicit in stating that three years is a desirable minimum period. Whilst two sponsors believe that a long term sponsorship is desirable for understanding and relationship formation, based on continued need. This response is in line with the feelings of three club officials as already stated. These findings support the study by Feess, Gerfin and Muehlheusser (2010:1) where it was established that longer contracts influence the distribution of performance asymmetrically in the sense that they increase the probability of poor performance but do not necessarily reduce the probabilities of good performance. Chadwick and Thwaites (2004:49) found that a sponsorship agreement of one to two years creates uncertainty of the relationship whilst the one that is formed for five years and longer indicates real commitment of the parties involved. That is why the majority of club officials are of the opinion that a longer sponsorship agreement is desirable to enable a team to plan for medium to long term in terms of financial stability.

7.2.8 Sponsorship and marketing mix

After exploring this theme it was revealed that the four club officials are in agreement on the reasons why sponsors choose soccer teams. It was stated that the common reason is to expose their brands to the wider public audience. However, one club official revealed that other sponsors are brought on board simply because they are willing regardless of them not being suitable in terms of the marketing mix.

It appears from exploring this theme amongst sponsor representatives that the reason for sponsoring soccer is that it has the biggest audience confined to sport. The relevance of soccer for inclusion in the marketing mix was further explained by officials from different angles. Two officials added another dimension by indicating that their organizations share the same values and interests as soccer clubs. One of the remaining two officials stated that their organization uses soccer as a platform to promote their product to untapped markets whilst the other one indicated that their organization includes soccer and cricket in their marketing mix in order to assist the teams financially in terms of player incentives. This is in line with the established theory that for a stimulus to be successfully exposed to the target audience, it must be within the relevant environment of the target audience. Sport as a theme is the stimulus that is within the relevant environment of the sport-loving target audience (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010).

Shared value as a critical factor in sponsorship agreements was established in two different studies. According to Frederick and Patil, (2010) the greater the core values that are common among partners, the more likely it is for equity of any co-branded product or service to increase. Trust has also been found to be a platform on which shared values could survive. According to Bühler *et al.* (2007:295),

trust is seen as an important variable in discipline areas, a crucial construct for the success of co-branding through soccer relationships. Trust need to be anchored on shared value or congruence between parties meaning that it is a secondary factor whilst fit is a primary factor. The importance of sponsorship fit, also referred to as sponsorship congruence manifests itself in the frequency and rigour with which different researchers pay attention to it. A study by Woisetschläger *et al.* (2009) revealed that sponsorship characteristics manifest themselves in the sponsorship value i.e. the total amount of money paid by a sponsor each year, and in the commitment shown by the sponsor in the duration of the sponsorship contract. The more shared value perceived by the sponsor the more commitment is normally shown by the sponsor in co-branding through soccer.

The commitment of the sponsor deriving from perceived shared value has its foundation on the decision by marketing managers to include co-branding in soccer as part of the marketing mix. Fast (2011) stated that despite economic constraints faced by the corporate world, there is surging interest among marketers to find new sponsorship vehicles. This is further confirmed in another study that corporate sponsorship and celebrity endorsements constitute a remarkable portion of the marketing mix among global businesses, and that the recession has had no negative influence on the trend (Nishno & Geyer, 2010). Co-branding through soccer is no doubt one of the sought after sponsorship vehicles.

7.2.9 Level of seniority in dealing with sponsorship agreements

The attitude of sponsors in South African soccer towards the importance of sponsorship agreements was explored under this theme. Although the results varied it was established that there is a trend similar to the one found in studies conducted in other countries where the administration of the agreement is relegated to managers junior to those who negotiate such contracts. According to Chadwick and Thwaites (2004: 49-51), it is also not uncommon to find that a sponsorship manager, who is at a middle level of management by rank, is required to manage a sponsorship contract that had been signed by a marketing director without his involvement. The marketing director would then cascade the responsibility to organize links and liaise with the soccer club down to a local branch manager. This was established in in-depth interviews with soccer officials that management of the sponsorship is delegated to Public Relations Officers (PROs). The established attitudes of senior manager manifested itself in delegating the administration of sponsorship agreements to junior managers is a true reflection of owing to lack of understanding the importance of regarding professional soccer as an important product for enhancing the sponsor's brand in the form of co-branding.

To confirm that the practice documented in the study by Chadwick and Thwaites (2004) is an indication of failure to appreciate the importance of managing sponsorship agreements at senior level of management, a similar study was conducted by Nicolau (2011:281). This is a study about the impact of Real Madrid team goals to the owner company's goals set by the president. The aim was to establish if the personal involvement of a firm's figurehead in a first-class sports club can have a positive influence on the firm's value if each person employed is doing well in the task entrusted to that person. The author stated that over 1 409 days and 215 matches, it was found that the club's performance on the field has a significant impact on the economic returns of its president's company goals

7.2.10 Measurement of attainment of sponsorship objectives

The level of investment in sport sponsorship is a factor that has implications for marketing objectives that formed the basis of agreement and the measurement thereof. It has been documented that telecommunications companies such as Vodacom and MTN, and beer giant, South African Breweries Miller (SABMiller), have invested millions of Rands into the most popular team sports like soccer, rugby, and athletics. SABMiller in particular has been sponsoring the professional soccer league for many years using different brands i.e. Keg Lager and later Castle Lager. Of late the company is sponsoring national teams for cricket and soccer (South Africa Takes Its Position in International Soccer 2011). The records of BMI Sport Info., investment in co-branding through sport in South Africa has been growing at an estimated 22 per cent annually and is responsible for an excess of 20 per cent of most sponsor companies' communication budgets.

When this theme was explored amongst sponsor officials generated different responses indicating different orientations. In the case of one sponsor the club is only expected to perform at their best ability to display the sponsor's brand in a number of matches when playing a specific top club in the PSL. The second sponsor's official stated that objectives are measured at the time of renewal whilst the official of the third sponsor stated that objectives are impossible to measure. Only one sponsor appeared to be certain about this when their official stated that the sponsor measures the attainment of objectives with regard to their sales every month. This finding indicates that the majority of sponsors are not oriented to measure the sponsorship objectives and that they are only satisfied with the display of their brands during soccer matches.

The finding stated above could be attributed to lack of skill or appropriate methods of measuring the level of attainment of co-branding objectives. Different researchers in sport sponsorship have uncovered

useful dimensions of measuring whether the objectives set at the signing of the sponsorship contract have been attained or not. Angelopulo and Overton (1986:21, 25-26) sought to develop factorial scales for the measurement of the communication objectives of sport sponsorships which were derived from all objectives for which sport sponsorships are known to have been used to attain. One of them, according to Hermann, Wallisser and Kacha (2011:259), is that sponsorship reduces the number of main competitor brands in the spectators' consideration set. The implication is that the level of clutter is the magnitude of clutter that the consumer has to deal with in analysing relevant marketing stimuli competing for the attention for the same consumer.

Apart from measurement as an objective, in a study by Dees, Bennet and Villegas (2008:79) it was revealed that a positive value of the sponsoring brand most influential on consumers' intentions to support the corporate sponsors by purchasing their brands. This means that purchasing the brand is the ultimate goal of every marketer. This finding is also supported by another similar study (Ko, Kim, Claussen & Kim, 2008:84) where it is stated that a remarkable number of other studies have shown that attitude variables towards the sponsoring brand are important motivators for positive behavioural intentions by consumers. The behavioural intentions here are those of purchasing the product of the sponsor. That is the main objective of the sponsorship pursued by any sponsoring company. The importance of image transfer was also the main reason why Barclays Bank made themselves available in 1987 to replace *Today* newspaper as the sponsor of the FAPL (Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999:336). With reference to these documented findings by researchers referenced in this paragraph, two sponsors are making an endeavour to measure the attainment of sponsorship objectives whilst the other two consider it impossible. This attitude is also evident in the sponsorship of Carling Black Label Cup which features only two teams in the PSL as champions even if they have not won any trophy at the end of the season. This was also stated by soccer fans in focus group discussions that there are other sponsors who carried on sponsoring teams that had been relegated to the National First Division League (NFD) as stated in Section 6.2.7 on page 174. The sponsors referred to are Bonitas Medical Fund and Vodacom. This issue is discussed in Chapter Four as an important consideration in harnessing soccer as a product cobranded with other products.

7.2.11 Congruence between club and sponsor

One of the critical factors identified in reviewing literature on sports sponsorship is this theme. Its exploration yielded results that indicate differences in understanding the importance of this factor amongst club officials and sponsor officials. Two sponsor officials stated that congruence is factored in

during the negotiations for a sponsorship agreement whilst one sponsor official gave no answer and one stated that it is not applicable (Lee & Cho, 2009). The independent responses of the four different club officials reveal that they all consider and understand congruence as a crucial factor in negotiating sponsorship agreements. One club official stated that their main sponsor was identified because of having their head office in the province. This dimension relating to stakeholders (soccer supporters) in identifying a regionally based sponsor was found to be characteristic of co-branding in soccer in a study by Woisetschläger *et al.* (2009).

Different researchers in this regard have established the importance of congruence between the club and the sponsor to be a crucial success factor. Dees *et al.* (2010:25) found that fan identification and product involvement had significant direct effects on NASCAR driver-sponsor congruence. Coppetti *et al.* (2009:17) found that an incongruent sponsorship can be salvaged by effective communication to the target audience and encouragement of target audience's participation which in turn would lead to improved sponsorship acceptance, improved brand attitudes and an enhanced image transfer from the event to the sponsoring brand. The congruence between a sponsor and a sponsored organization or individual has been shown to be a critical variable in predicting co-branding through sport effects (Olson & Thjomoe, 2011:57-70). The further discovery of this issue confirms what was found by Grohs and Reisinger (2005:43) to be prevailing in sponsorships. The effective communication of the anticipated new merged outcome has to be planned and has to occur simultaneously across a range of media. It is essential that previous co-branding agreements be explained as having been terminated and that the new association is clearly introduced to the consuming public (Frederick & Patil, 2010:47). This was the case when one of the then National Soccer League teams in South Africa terminated a sponsorship agreement with Total South Africa and for some reason not all players were aware of such a development. One of the players scored a goal and in celebration thereof showed a hands gesture resembling a "T" thereby promoting the sponsor the relationship with which had been discontinued for the introduction of a new one. This was a true reflection of the fact that previous associations had not been disarticulated.

It is notable that the soccer fans who participated in focus group discussions revealed that they perceive congruence between their respective favourite team and the sponsors, stating factors manifesting the congruence in each case. This was confirmed by their commitment to purchase products related to their teams' sponsoring brands. The fans' knowledge of brands that sponsor their teams is also amazing deriving from their responses during focus groups.

7.2.12 Implications of interfering in club management

The findings reveal that soccer fans know and admit that it is wrong to interfere with club management. This theme seeks to explain the problematic behaviour by South African soccer fans at the stadia when things do not go according to their liking. Having admitted that this kind of behaviour is not good for the club image and that it might chase away sponsors, some of the participants put forward reasons behind such behaviour. One of the reasons given is that match officials sometimes do not manage the match even-handedly. Others blame players for poor performance and they attribute this situation to the lack of clear performance clauses in professional soccer player contracts. Others confuse the right to choose the team to play in an exclusive once a year competition (Carling Black Label Cup) as a blanket right to interfere in other matches. Some believe that the reason is lack of education amongst fans about how to behave thereby suggesting that clubs must educate their supporters using supporters' branches or through social media. Others fans justify this bad behaviour on their observation that a head coach may seem not to listen to his assistant thereby warranting hand gestures suggesting substitution of some players during the match. There was a unanimous response that fan bad behaviour tarnishes the image of the club and also that they feel bad when their favourite teams are fined heavily by the league (PSL). This kind of behaviour is not documented in any study relating to first world and second world countries where soccer has become big business. It would appear that it is a unique South African characteristic of soccer fans as it is also the case with the noise of vuvuzelas made by South African soccer fans.

It was established that this kind of behaviour indicates that soccer fans in South Africa do not accept the fact that they must not interfere with club management. They justified their actions as driven by anger and frustration when they notice that their club is not doing well. This is so because South African soccer fans have been isolated from international and as such are lagging behind compared to European fans with regard to acceptable behaviour during a match despite what the result of the game is. The historical background related in Chapter Two provides a reason for this behaviour which is not peculiar to a particular club but is noticed and reported in newspapers as cutting across all professional soccer clubs.

7.2.13 General responses

The findings relating to answers to questions that were not specifically categorized under the themes that were purposefully explored provided data that support findings of specific themes. However, some responses revealed good practices by certain clubs aimed at assisting players with personal problems and looking after the interests of players. The responses also revealed bad practices or habits by certain

coaches, practices that can be categorized as criminal. One other response suggests that PSL teams should organize financial assistance and planning for young players who may be overwhelmed by earning huge sums of money.

This response under general probing reveals a dimension of soccer administration that has already been documented from related studies. Based on the fact that EAPs are generalized across all industries, Manzini (2012) highlighted circumstances that warrant the provision of EAPs in professional soccer. One is that soccer players are recruited at their early teens and can play up to their early 30s and that the soccer player's career is relatively shorter than other careers such that it averages between 10 and 15 years. Since some soccer players start when they are fairly young, they need financial advice and guidance because of huge salaries that they earn at a very young age. Further than that, they are always overwhelmed by celebrity status which brings about a lot of changes in their individual lives to the extent of finding themselves having changed for the worse. It is further stated in the study that media inflates their status and can also break them by blowing incidents out of proportion when they stumble in personal behaviour because they end up not regaining their private life after assuming celebrity status. All these circumstances highlighted in the study by Manzini (2012) are characteristic of the careers, lives, and plights of soccer players and the role media plays in making or breaking them. It is also a fact that the soccer fraternity worldwide needs to look into the peculiar circumstances of soccer players as employees of the industry.

It sounded promising that South African professional soccer teams are developing in the right direction at international level when three out of ten participating soccer players stated that their team helps players with financial and personal problems (South Africa Takes Its Position in International Soccer 2011). This is in line with the findings on EAPs by Manzini (2012) that soccer teams need to address productivity and personal issues of players. This soccer player issue would enhance co-branding in soccer if handled properly by soccer teams.

7.3 DISCUSSION

Themes that are common between in-depth interviews and focus groups will be discussed as combined for ease of discussion and reconciliation of research results. Those that are not common to both data collection methods will be discussed independently.

7.3.1 Sponsorship and the Marketing Mix

The interpretation of the finding that marketers deliberately include sponsorship in their marketing mix for maximum exposure of the sponsoring brands as confirmed by all sponsors interviewed is in line with the findings of previous studies as can be referred to a few here. For example, a schematic memory or schema of a brand is a web of associations anchored on distinctive themes preferred by the target audience (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010:316). Another example is that of KFC which currently sponsors the Indian Premier League for cricket. If the brand is also seen sponsoring another event or social cause that is preferred by the target audience, these sponsorships and the positioning of KFC as a fast food product will create a web of associations with the brand. The importance of relevant themes is crucial for the schema of a brand. That is also why one of the sponsors that participated in this study stated that they sponsor soccer and cricket by which they want to form a web of sport associations connected to their sponsoring brand.

It has also been established that when sport is one of the themes making up the web of associations with the brand, it becomes part of the image desired by the marketer, created in the minds of consumers. This image is formed by different themes of the web of associations with the brand, which is achieved through brand positioning (Ettel *et al.*, 2007). Sponsorship is a very successful cue for exposing a brand to the target audience and to create a positive image of the sponsoring brand in the minds of the target audience. This has been confirmed in this study when exploring the internalization of sponsor's interests among soccer fans as indicated in the analysis.

This confirms a positive attitude towards the sponsoring brand manifested in the internalization of the sponsor's interest which is in line with the earlier study by Olson (2010:180-199). Highlighting the integral part of attitude, a detailed model of high-level sponsorship effects that augers well with sponsorship contexts was designed in the study, where after the findings confirmed the importance of improving consumer attitude towards the sponsors' brand equity and the sponsored organization's brand equity. It was also documented that brand leverage, brand equity, brand portfolio, media exposure, community awareness, goodwill, to mention a few, are the prime motives of organizations opting for sports sponsorship (Frederick & Patil, 2010:44-57). This study was based on popular soccer clubs and their sponsors based in New Zealand. The analysis of results revealed that sponsor officials conceded that their reason for targeting soccer teams for sponsorships is maximum public media exposure that the sport is capable of achieving.

It would appear from this discussion that sponsorship and the marketing mix can easily be reconciled with internalization of sponsors' interest. Before this reconciliation can happen and make sense, it could only be possible once the marketer includes sponsorship in the marketing mix which is the logical step that follows to identify a soccer club that fits the characteristics of the company/organization and the sponsoring brand.

7.3.2 Sponsorship congruence

Although one of the four club officials stated that they accept other sponsors to come on board even if they do not fit (not congruent) or have no common characteristics with the brand simply to supplement financial support needed by the club, others insisted on the need for congruence between the club and the sponsoring brand. On the basis of the position the sponsoring brand occupies in the minds of consumers who are also supporters (fans) of a soccer team, the position the name of the club (brand) occupies in the minds of the same consumers (fans) must be somehow related to the positioning of the sponsor. The studies by Coppetti *et al.* (2009) and Dees *et al.* (2010), to mention a few, revealed the importance of this phenomenon in co-branding. The other cues, other than positioning, used in establishing congruence between parties planning to engage themselves in a sponsorship agreement are shared value and trust. Congruence is the crucial aspect of a co-branding through sport agreements (Motion *et al.*, 2003). The more congruence there is between partners, the bigger is the potential increase in equity of co-branded products or services (Frederick & Patil, 2010). Trust is also a platform on which shared values could survive. According to Bühler *et al.* (2007:295), trust is perceived as a crucial variable in discipline areas, an important variable for the success of co-branding through sport contracts. According to a response from soccer fans the importance of shared values and trust were manifest when Bonitas Medical Fund continued sponsoring Jomo Cosmos even when the team had been relegated to First Division soccer league.

Exploration of this theme among soccer fans revealed that fans of different PSL clubs find it easy to notice characteristics that are common between the respective favourite teams and the respective sponsoring brands. The responses from soccer spectators indicate that their (fans) ability to recognise sponsors' brands associated with their respective favourite teams is influenced by affective intensity and sponsor identification. This was confirmed when 56 per cent of participating fans stated that it is easy to recognise a brand sponsoring the favourite team; 37 per cent of participating fans stated that they support the sponsoring brand by purchasing its products; and 31 per cent of participating stated that they feel happy when seeing the logo of a brand sponsoring their favourite team. It was interesting to explore

this theme among South African soccer fans and to record such findings because such research results relate to the effect of clutter to consumers of sporting intangible products (services) in the form of being bombardment with different logos within a short space of time. Clutter is always a concern for marketers (Choi, Stotlar & Park, 2006).

The study by Choi *et al.* (2006:71) explores the question of whether consumers actually perceive the marketing communications directed at them at the sporting events and whether on-site sponsor programmes relate to the interests of the fans. The question that has not yet been answered is whether consumers actually notice the multitude of logos whilst concentrating on the game. The other question is whether marketers ask themselves if all the logos are within the relevant environment of the target audience to be perceived at the level desired by the marketers. The findings of this study answer the questions raised in the study by Choi *et al.* (2006). This then makes the purpose of sponsorship in soccer clear and certain instead of being blurry and uncertain as it looked in communities where the study by Choi *et al.* (2006) was conducted. This factor was also proven to be driven by internalization of the sponsors' interests where 95 per cent of soccer fans responded by stating that they support the team sponsors' brands by purchasing the branded products. This finding reveals that soccer fans who behave like this are forming brand communities.

It is evident from supporting themes that the internalization of the sponsors' brand results from the phenomenon of reference groups. The soccer fans of different soccer teams make the teams they support together with supporters' clubs as their reference groups, extending this association to the sponsorship relationship between the club and the sponsor as the most important reference group. This development in South African soccer is in line with the fact that brand communities have been formed and been running for quite a number of years for Harley-Davidson motorcycles, Barbie dolls, PEZ candy, and Jeep motor cars. Consumers who are in possession of these brands regard themselves as members of the same family (Schiffman, *et al.*, 2010:283). These consumers identify others with the same interests and form a brand community. Soccer fans, whether formally organised by clubs into supporters' clubs or they know one another through sporting goods attire, are attracted to one another on the basis of reference group concept.

According to Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard (2012:95) reference groups are explained as any person or group that is regarded as a point of reference for an individual consumer in subscribing to certain values, attitudes and behavioural patterns. The responses from all these related factors prove that PSL teams have to a great extent made considerable strides in signing sponsorship agreements with sponsors

where congruent characteristics are considered to be a critical factor. This factor is critical for marketing objectives set by marketers of the sponsoring brands. In turn this hinges on the time length of the sponsorship agreements.

7.3.3 Implications of the length of sponsorship agreement for financial stability

Once congruence between the parties has been explored and established, the intention to enter into a contract are strengthened. However, the length of the sponsorship has far reaching implications. This became clear from responses of the majority of club officials that a long-term relationship with a sponsor enables the club to plan for medium to long term goals. The soccer fans also share the same sentiments on this factor since the majority of those who responded stated that five years or more would be suitable for a meaningful sponsorship. The findings of this study confirm the findings of studies conducted in the past.

The sponsorship between Siemens and Real Madrid has lasted longer than some of the notable sponsorship agreements. It would seem that Real Madrid management took cognisance of club's on the field performance, formulation of clear objectives, and effective communication as important success factors in the sponsorship relationship (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2004:49). Without good communication, many co-branding through soccer agreements are like short-lived marriages without proper pre-marriage communication which ultimately end in a hostile termination. For facilitating relationship marketing that can bear results in the long-term, a short-term sponsorship relationship must be avoided. One of the success factors in avoiding a short-lived sponsorship relationship is to choose suitable vehicles for sponsorship. Hansen *et al.* (2005:75-77) developed a Sponsorship Value Model which integrates the response variable and sponsorship value, to positive and negative attitudes towards the co-branding through sport, and positive and negative attitudes towards the co-branding association. It is noted that the catalyst for a long-term sponsorship as it is the case between Siemens and Real Madrid is clear sponsorship objectives set by the sponsor. It can also not be argued that Siemens selected an appropriate vehicle for a successful sponsorship by primarily selecting soccer and secondarily selecting a team like Real Madrid.

It is also not a surprise to find that Fiat has extended the sponsorship deal with Juventus FC of Italy to the value of €17 million per season for the next five seasons to 2020/2021. This financial boost will enable Juventus to be financial stable which in turn will enable the team to achieve its strategic goals (Juventus agree US\$136 million Fiat extension). Such deals confirm the sentiment shared by both club

officials and soccer fans in this study that a longer sponsorship agreement is desirable for effective co-branding through soccer.

7.3.4 Level of seniority in dealing with sponsorship agreements

It would appear from the discussion of the three factors in previous sections that co-branding in soccer is a process and project that has many intricacies and demands of professionalism and appropriate experience. For this reason, the theme to be discussed here was directly explored among participating officials representing sponsors and participating officials representing soccer clubs. The interpretation of the analysed results meant that the participating officials had different understanding and feelings towards the level of seniority warranted to deal with this dimension of marketing strategy. The issues involved in co-branding through soccer and the relevant success factors are of a nature that warrants discussion and evaluation of the responses analysed in this regard.

When exploring this theme in this study among sponsor officials, it was established that there is a trend similar to the one found in studies conducted in other countries where the administration of the agreement is relegated to managers junior to those that negotiate such contracts, once signatures have been appended to the agreement. According to the findings of Chadwick and Thwaites (2004: 49-51), it is also not uncommon to find that a sponsorship manager, who is at a middle level of management by rank, is required to manage a sponsorship that had been signed by a marketing director without his involvement. The marketing director would cascade the responsibility to organize links and liaise with the soccer club down to a local branch manager.

The attitude shown by executive and senior managers revealed in this study is indicating the trends that were established in previous studies. It is not surprising to find that this trend is also prevalent in South Africa since it is a worrying factor with regard to the attitude shown in first world countries. It would seem that the sponsoring companies or organizations do not take cognisance of the magnitude of sponsorship spending. Sponsorship spending in Ireland has been recorded as hitting the region of £125 million despite the much-publicised economic meltdown (Wynne, 2011). It has further been noticed that Vodacom and MTN, and beer giant, South African Breweries Miller (SABMiller), have invested millions of Rand into the most popular team sports like soccer, rugby, and athletics. SABMiller in particular has been sponsoring the professional soccer league for many years using different brands i.e. Keg Lager and later Castle Lager. Of late the company is sponsoring national teams for cricket and soccer (South Africa Takes Its Position in International Soccer 2011). The report by BMI Sport Info.,

stated that sport sponsorship in South Africa has been growing at the rate of 22 per cent per annum and accounts for an excess of 20 per cent of most sponsor companies' communication budgets (South African Sport & Sponsorship Landscape 2011).

This level of investment in soccer is a clear indication that soccer is no longer a pastime as it used to be in the past but a serious vehicle through which marketers can successfully promote their brands. This development in the nature of what soccer has become coupled with the magnitude of spending in co-branding through soccer warrants a higher level of seriousness from parties involved. Despite the undesirable attitude of sponsoring organizations' management, the President of Real Madrid is an exception in this regard. The behaviour that would indicate how serious management are to the magnitude of sponsorship spending is factoring in how the sponsorship objectives would be measured before the negotiations are concluded (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2004:49).

7.3.5 Measurement of attainment of sponsorship objectives

The analysed data pertaining to this theme have revealed beyond doubt that organizations that pursue co-branding through soccer do not make it a matter of prime importance that at an appropriate stage of the partnership it must be measured if the goals of sponsorship are attained or not (Angelopulo & Overton, 1986:21, 25-26). Although the responses of officials of the different sponsoring organizations vary, only one official stated that they monitor their monthly sales. Even this response does not elaborate as to how the sales are measured and against which distinct yardstick. The other notable response is that objectives are impossible to measure. These vague attempts to mention how measurement is done, coupled with the honest answer by one of the sponsors that sponsorship objectives are impossible to measure, make it clear that the magnitude of investment in this direction of marketing is not fully appreciated by the officials responsible (Rampinini *et al.*, 2009:1024). This attitude towards accounting for the expenditure explains why the responsibility of administering the sponsorship agreement is normally relegated to junior managers who did not participate in the negotiations for the partnership.

One of the common response that the club must remain in the PSL is not commensurate with the millions of Rand invested in this aspect of promoting the sponsoring brand. The club could remain in the PSL but not winning or even participating in major competitions that would enhance the image of the sponsoring brand. This situation cannot expand the web of associations pertaining to the sponsoring brand i.e. the schematic memory of the brand may not be enhanced (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013). The inability to measure the degree to which sponsorship objectives are attained or the lack of

accountability to measure the attainment of the objectives do not mean that the inclusion of sponsorship in marketing mix is not appropriate (Rampinini *et al.*, 2009:1024). It is just that the findings reveal that the inclusion of sponsorship in the marketing mix is not given the worth and the importance it deserves. It would seem that soccer objective and specifically stated club performance underpinned by individual player performance is an integral factor on part of the soccer team's responsibility to assist in making the objectives of the sponsor measurable and attainable.

7.3.6 Club performance and individual player performance

Responses of soccer players and those of club officials revealed that there are no specific performance clauses in individual professional player contract (Theodorakis, Koustelios, Robinsons & Barlas, 2009:460). Data collected and analysed from focus groups revealed that a performance clause is an important factor in most clubs in first world countries where soccer is thriving as an integral part of the marketing mix. Quite a number of studies have been conducted (Rampinini *et al.*, 2009:1024) to confirm that performance of players of different positions in the soccer field can be measured and assessed. Goalkeepers have a performance yardstick i.e. a number of clean sheets in a season. Defenders can be measured in a number of goal-preventing blocks per season and per match whilst midfielders are measured on a number of goal assists per season and per match. Strikers are measured on a number of goals scored per season.

The fact that sponsorship goals can be linked to player performance was established in a study by Callego and Focadell (2006) where it was established that the sponsorship agreements between Real Madrid and sponsors are anchored in player performance on the field of play as one of the desired behaviour by sponsors. It cannot be disputed that Real Madrid is a team characterised by high performance players and high standards of performance management. This image of the team is underpinned by the hands-on approach of the club president (Theodorakis, Koustelios, Robinsons and Barlas, 2009:460).

Some teams have an official whose responsibility is to analyse each match to enable the coach and the technical team to reflect on the performance together with players who were fielded (Callego & Focadell, 2006). This was confirmed in figures generated by the Opta Sports Data Company where 1530 games and 1153 players participated in data collection. The statistics provide a number of goals, goal assists scored, through pass success rate, cross passes success rate, dribbling success rate, shots on target, red cards earned, yellow cards earned, ball clearances, blocks, and interception of opponent passes, and

save-to-shots ratio by the goalkeeper. These statistics indicate that the performance measurement criteria include teamwork. The researchers (Franck & Nüesch, 2010:220) also aver that a team consists of 11 players classified as attacker (strikers), midfielders, and defenders and a goal minder. On this basis, tactical and technical capabilities and cooperation between players is an additional success factor in testing the team's performance level effect on talent disparity.

Research was conducted to illustrate how possible is the measurement of player performance in a study of six seasons of the German Bundesliga comprising 1836 games in total. Franck and Nüesch (2010:221) identified player capabilities like passing the ball to teammates, retaining ball possession, running or dribbling, creating goal assists, marking opponents, intercepting the opposition's passes and shots, clearing the ball from pressure situation, and last but not least, goal scoring.

All these performance measurement techniques depend on individual player fitness level. This was established when Rampinini *et al.* (2009:1024) studied player fitness intensity in relation to the movement of the ball. This was subsequent to an earlier study by the same authors (Rampinini *et al.*, 2007) where a computerised semi-automatic video analysis image recognition system was developed for tracking every movement of each player during the match. Player fitness can also be measured using a video replay of manually coded player locomotive activities (Coutts, Sassi & Impellizeri, 2007:1018). Fitness of players also has a bearing on the league log-standing of a soccer club where it was found that teams with more shots and shots on goal are normally in the top four (Lago-Ballesteros & Lago-Perias, 2010).

The documented evidence in these studies confirm that soccer teams need to make individual player and team performance a critical success factor (Lynam, 2013:2) that would help set and attain sponsorship objectives. This is possible because when looking at the developmental impact of soccer in the Middle East (Dorsey, 2012) has resulted in teams like Faisali rising to the occasion by ending the dominance of Wihdat in winning national competitions as related in Chapter Two. Further than performance at club level, it was stated in Chapter Two that soccer as a product has developed in the Middle East to a level where they participate in the World Cup competition with a formidable side. Lack of such measures in club management could be the reason why there is a poor performance of professional players at club level as well as at national level in South Africa. It is disappointing that in the wake of high soccer player salaries, clubs and the country are faced with this performance problem in relation to professional soccer players. This phenomenon indicates that soccer has not developed to the level where it should be in South Africa. According to Hassan and Lusted (2013:172), it does not auger well with the magnitude of

sponsorship funding invested in soccer in the country. The situation does not enhance the objectives of co-branding in soccer.

7.4 CONCLUSION

The interpretation of the results was made to explain the findings of exploring all the themes that were identified in order to attain the objectives of the study. In addition, where necessary, the discussion reconciled results relating to themes the exploration of which showed relationship with regard to the objectives of the study. This approach to discussion aimed at linkages among the various themes that have been discovered. This was necessary to illustrate what the analysis provided in terms of pointers to the explanation of the research problem.

The interpretation of the findings of this study indicates that there is a lot that needs to be done to improve player and team performances to justify the magnitude of investment in marketing through soccer i.e. co-branding through soccer in the form of sponsorship agreements. The interpretation also highlighted lack of synergy in the tasks, strategies, and activities directed at making co-branding in soccer a successful marketing strategy. However, it must not be forgotten that for other reasons soccer has also played a significant role in the political development in the Middle East. The impact has been the same in South Africa whereby despite segregation the game (as a product) broke the barriers of politics when the NFL was dissolved and teams of all colours competed under one league (NPSL). Considering what soccer has managed to achieve in the Middle East where it was introduced very recent compared to South Africa, soccer administrators in South Africa should have done more to bring the game to the standard of successful countries. Conclusions and recommendations as to how success of co-branding in soccer can be accomplished will be made in the ensuing Chapter Eight where after a framework will be proposed to assist teams to harness all factors for better performance and attainment of co-branding through soccer objectives..

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of the study, in a nutshell, was to explore if there is any congruence in the understanding between the teams and sponsors with regard to the purpose of sponsorships. The aim was extended to explore if soccer fans understand the dynamics of soccer sponsorships in relation to their behaviour as supporters of soccer teams. The combined aim of the study was separated into primary and secondary objectives. The primary objective of this study was to find out if co-branding in soccer is managed professionally to enhance the images of the sponsoring brands and the sponsored team. It was also of primary importance to explore if soccer players are professional in their on and off the field behaviour with regards to enhancing the images of the sponsors' brands and the sponsored team.

Owing to the research problem already stated, the difficulty facing national coaches to select a competitive squad of professional soccer players to represent the country has been and is still a major concern to the soccer administrators as well as soccer fans of the whole country. In order to attain the primary objective the supporting (secondary) objectives were set as follows:

- To establish players' awareness levels of what the sponsors expect of players as participating stakeholders in terms of performance and behaviour
- To determine whether the club officials understand and appreciate the interests of the sponsors other than publicity meant to promote the brand
- To determine whether the club supporters are considered as stakeholders to the extent of action planning for their behaviour that might affect the co-branding contracts
- To determine whether managers of sponsoring organisations do measure the attainment of sponsorship objectives
- To develop a framework that can be used by parties negotiating towards a sponsorship agreement as a guide to them as to how and when to recognise other stakeholders who shall be impacted upon by the agreement, with a view to forge a buy-in by the affected stakeholders.

The empirical research findings have been analysed and interpreted in Chapters Six and Seven. A reconciliatory discussion has also been done in Chapter Seven. The overall conclusion of the study, recommendations, and the development of the framework to assist PSL club managers to enable teams to meet the expectations of sponsors will be presented in this chapter.

8.2 RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS

Emanating from the interpretation of the findings of the study, conclusions are drawn by addressing each of the five objectives that were set to achieve the overall objective of the study. Conclusions are from every theme that was explored to achieve the overall aim of the study.

8.2.1 Sponsors' expectations on performance and behaviour: player awareness

The responses of all players who participated in the study with regard to expected performance and behaviour revealed that players are aware of the fact that they have to perform at their best. Performing at their best was not qualified by any of the players in terms of scoring goals, preventing opponent goals, creating chances for other players to score goals. All the responses were very casual and lacked the specifics of what is expected despite probing during the interviews. This was not surprising considering that no single player stated specific performance criteria contained in performance clause. It became clear that a specific performance clause is not an integral part of player contracts in South African soccer.

This generalization is appropriate in the sense that players who were interviewed after identifying them through snowball sampling have also individually played for three different clubs in the Gauteng Province, one club in the Limpopo Province, one club in the Free State and the other two clubs that participated in the study in KwaZulu-Natal thereby making a strong case to generalize the results for the whole country. It can be concluded that the absence of specific performance clauses in professional soccer player contracts is the cause for the vague understanding of what is expected by the players.

8.2.2 Understanding and appreciating the sponsors' interests: club officials

The theme was explored through other themes i.e. sponsorship and marketing mix, and players performance. All participants were in agreement that the basic reason why many marketers have resorted to including soccer in their organizations' marketing mix is to get maximum exposure of their sponsoring brands. This is an indication that club officials understand the expectations of sponsors for spending money in soccer as a vehicle for enhancing their brands. However, they do not appreciate the seriousness of sponsors' commitment and the degree to which their clubs must achieve in top-flight soccer to enable sponsors to attain their goals.

This is borne by the fact that all club officials are of the opinion that if their respective clubs remain in PSL, is the desirable objective of the sponsoring organizations. Research findings about soccer sponsorships in Europe reported in this study make it clear that sponsors expect that the sponsored teams qualify for prestigious competitions like the UEFA league or the Europa league besides the domestic top league. It can be argued that the decision by Siemens and other sponsors to maintain long term sponsorship relationships with Real Madrid is based on the team featuring in such competitions and even winning such competitions because of high performance by players and high standard of management in the team. Some PSL teams do not stay on top of things regarding how the team as a unit performs match by match and how individual player work performance impacts upon the performance of the unit until it is too late to rectify a bad situation.

8.2.3 Recognition of soccer fans as important stakeholders in soccer sponsorships

Exploration of this theme threw light onto a lot of factors behind the behaviour of South African soccer fans. A related theme about interference of soccer fans in the management of the team revealed that soccer fans have feelings that they are not regarded as important stakeholders with regard to sponsorship agreements. Some fans even stated that they have been marginalised by their respective favourite teams by not being allowed to say anything and yet they are expected to spend money on watching matches. This finding confirms the reasons for the unruly behaviour of South African soccer fans as stated in the research problem. It was however gratifying to find that despite their frustration they still show affective intensity towards the sponsoring brands by purchasing sponsors' products. This shows that they still identify with the sponsors. The soccer fans are also aware of the negative implications of their bad behaviour at stadia towards the club and sponsor brands. Although all soccer fan participants in focus groups condemned unruly behaviour at stadia, the common reason put forward by soccer fans as to why they interfere to the extent of wanting to influence substitutions, firing of coaches, and throwing missiles on the pitch is that they are not considered important stakeholders. This is contrary to the responses of club officials and sponsor officials that they regard soccer fans as important stakeholders in their respective sponsorship agreements.

These findings suggest that clubs are not doing enough and are not doing things properly to make soccer fans feel part and parcel of sponsorship objectives. It is however ironical that one of the reasons given by soccer fans as a right to interfere in club management is that they are given a right to choose a team to play in the exclusive competition sponsored by SABMiller which allows only two teams of the PSL to feature despite their performance in the previous season. This concession given to soccer fans appears

to be misconstrued as a right to interfere in other matches as well. Maybe the teams involved and the sponsor have to re-visit the manner in which this Carling Black Label Cup is run.

8.2.4 Measurement of attainment of sponsorship objectives

The findings deriving from exploration of this theme have a bearing on the findings on understanding and appreciating the sponsors' interests by club officials and players' awareness of sponsors' expectations on performance and behaviour. It was established that both club officials and sponsor officials do not have specific measurable objectives factored in the sponsorship agreements. This is also confirmed by the attitude towards managing the sponsorship agreements. Exploration of the theme on the level of seniority in dealing with sponsorship agreements revealed that once the agreement has been signed, it is relegated to a junior manager to administer as it is the case with regard to documented studies in Europe. It was therefore not surprising that some of the club official and sponsor official participants stated that it is difficult to measure the attainment of sponsorship agreements.

These findings are supported by what was also revealed in exploring the theme on internalization of sponsors' interests from soccer players' perspectives where it became clear that a performance clause in the professional soccer players' contracts is not a normal feature. These findings also provide an answer as to why South African professional soccer is plagued by poor performance of players at club level as well as national level. When a player is not performing as expected in South Africa, the coach normally suggests to the club that the player must be sold or his contract must not be renewed. Other top paying teams just keep the player on the bench in order to frustrate him until he leaves.

It would seem that the soccer administrators at club level, soccer administrators at national level, and sponsors are not keen to know why player performance is at a higher level in developed countries as established in the studies conducted and documented in Europe as already been discussed. It would appear that they do not attend conferences, workshops and seminars to keep up to date with the latest developments in soccer administration and management. This may be owing to not being aware (on the part of club officials and sponsor officials) of the studies that have been documented in this regard. The studies referred to provide objective and user-friendly techniques to make the best out of clubs as units and individual players in terms of performance. If this important factor is well managed it would make it possible and practical to measure the attainment of sponsorship objectives for the enhancement of both club and sponsor brands. Maybe a model to tackle these issues is warranted.

8.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

With reference to conclusions drawn on the basis of interpretation of research results, it becomes necessary to recommend or suggest actions that soccer administrators and sponsors can take to deal with sponsorship issues and to address success factors to sponsorships. If actions are taken, it is believed that attainment of co-branding objectives in soccer will be a success.

8.3.1 Sponsors' expectations on performance and behaviour: player awareness

What the professional soccer players in South Africa are aware of regarding sponsors' expectations on performance and behaviour is not commensurate with the commitment of the sponsors to the game. In order for professional soccer players to be fully aware of the sponsors' expectations there has to be a performance clause in a player's contract specifying the targets set for the individual player for the entire season. The targets may be goals, goal assists, goal preventing blocks, minimum number of goals conceded, etc. depending on the position played by the soccer player. Such targets must be set having benchmarked with other professional soccer leagues in the continent and other countries abroad in order to factor in the attainability of the targets. This can be managed and monitored throughout the season by using and maintaining fitness level techniques stated in this having been tried and tested abroad.

8.3.2 Understanding and appreciating the sponsors' interests: club officials

Club officials must introduce performance management in order to keep the professionalism of soccer players at the level that will enable the team to perform in a manner as to enhance the image of the sponsoring brands. This is a critical success factor towards performance that will indicate that soccer fans are important in a soccer sponsorship by making them enjoy the games with the necessary excitement as value for the money that they have paid to watch the match at the stadium. It will further encourage the soccer fans to show more affective intensity towards the sponsors and internalization of sponsors' interests by buying more of the sponsors' sporting goods. Related to sponsors' expectations on performance and behaviour, soccer fans enjoy the scoring of many goals by players in a match more than anything else hence specific performance clauses in soccer player contracts are required.

8.3.3 Recognition of stakeholders in soccer sponsorships

The pivotal role played by soccer fans in supporting their respective favourite teams and soccer as a sport makes them the most important stakeholders in a sponsorship agreement. Soccer teams should maintain a cohort of soccer fans (team supporters) of long standing to retain the club culture amongst all fans. This will enable the soccer teams to have strong supporters' branches which would be tasked with the education of young and new supporters to behave in a manner that will enhance the club's image and the sponsor's image. The clubs must also allow sponsor officials access to supporters with a view to encourage the latter to behave and to support both parties to the sponsorship agreement. It must be avoided that passionate supporters are marginalised by the club since the success of soccer as a product explained in Chapter Three and Chapter Four will entice many marketers to co-brand with the clubs. This in turn will help South Africa to catch up with countries where soccer as a product has developed to a level where marketers compete for sponsoring the game. It is important to note though that some studies (Chadwick & Hamil, 2010) reveal that some soccer clubs tend to prevent sponsors from accessing supporters in Europe. However, these incidents are very isolated.

8.3.4 Measurement of attainment of sponsorship objectives

It is important that both parties to the sponsorship agreement set measurable objectives when the agreement is negotiated such that even the methods and techniques of measuring the attainment of such objectives have been agreed upon. Such agreement will be based on benchmarking with other successful professional soccer teams with whom there is a relationship as it is currently the case with South African teams having teams in the F.A.P.L. that they have close ties with. This will obviate a scenario during the season or at the end of the season to find that officials find it difficult to objectively measure whether the objectives that were set at the beginning have been attained. In order to achieve this milestone, it was one of the intentions of this study to develop a framework that professional soccer teams may adopt to try and improve upon the observed and much spoken or written about situation of poor performance of South African professional soccer players. The framework has characteristics of guiding a soccer team's officials to take into consideration all aspects of the team that have a bearing on its success. The proposed sequence of activities is created to make sure that the relationship between the team and the sponsoring brand is built upon a strategic approach to club and sponsor attainment of objectives. The framework is designed to address issues and critical success factors that relate to player and team performance. It is also designed to enable both parties to a sponsorship agreement to attain enhancement of their brands as return on investment. The framework is presented and explained in section 8.4 below.

8.4 DEVELOPMENT OF A FRAMEWORK FOR SPONSORSHIP AGREEMENTS

A framework is a structured approach to tackle a major project or to tackle a problem for arriving at justifiable solutions (Vohra, 2001:6). According to Anderson, Sweeney and Williams (2001:6) frameworks are representations of real objects or situations and can be presented in various formats. Hillier and Hillier (2003:6) state that frameworks or approximate representations are an integral part of everyday life and are characterised by assumptions. A framework will guide officials of both parties to synchronize all relevant critical success factors of the envisaged relationship. The main goal of a sponsorship relationship is to enhance the images of the brands of both parties thereby making co-branding in soccer a successful marketing strategy.

The framework that is suggested to deal with the issues researched upon in this study is as follows:

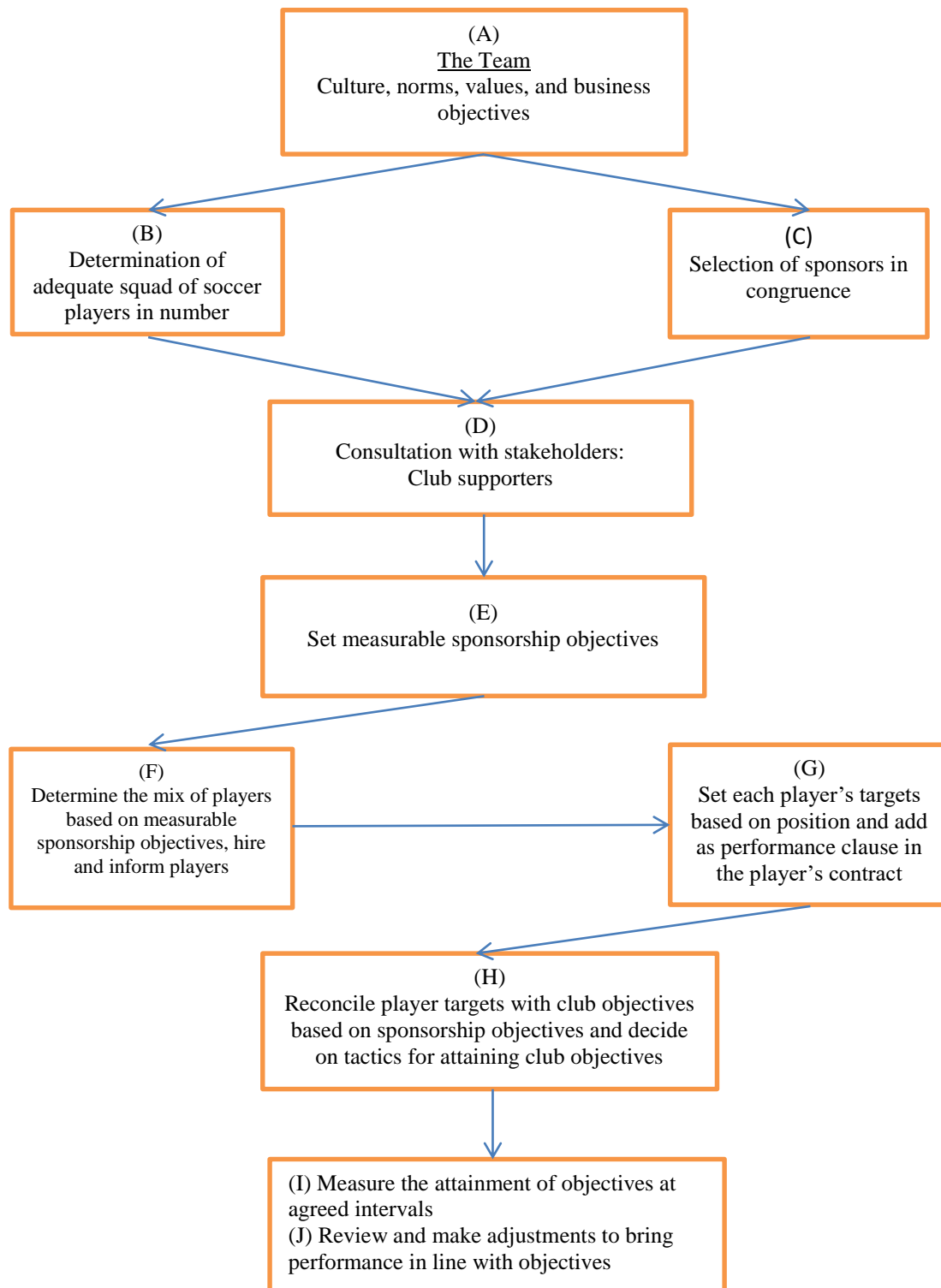


Figure 8.1: A Strategic Framework for Sponsorship Agreement Success

8.4.1 Explanation of the Strategic Framework

The assumption of the framework is that the coach always has clear performance objectives which are measurable. From the outset: **(A)** every professional team has a culture defined by norms and values. Norms are standards set by the team by which all players have to abide by in their respective individual behaviour as well as their collective behaviour as a unit. Norms also stipulate how things have to be done within the team and in relation to stakeholders. Values of a team derive from the perspective of a person or persons who established the team at inception. Values are stipulations of do's and don'ts among members of the team and in relation to the public the team has reference with. Values determine what behaviour is acceptable or not acceptable in the context of the team and in the context of the environment in which the team exists and operates. The norms and values constitute the culture of the team. The adopted culture of the club inspires the business mission of the club. Whatever the team engages in and does happens on the basis of its adopted culture. This has a bearing on the team's interaction with other teams in the competitions it participates in and the associations it is affiliated to.

This culture of the team includes how the team runs its business which in turn determines the manner in which it seeks relationships with its employees (players and officials) and co-branding partners. These factors lead to how the team determines the type of the squad of players and officials **(B)** and the numbers required to form the desired squad in relation to its mission and vision. Once that has been achieved within the financial constraints characteristic of the club. Having formed that foundation, the club embarks upon a campaign of identifying and seeking sponsorships **(C)** whose characteristics are congruent with those of the club in order to supplement club finances whilst the sponsors want maximum exposure of their brands through soccer. Sponsors that are sought are those who are willing to include co-branding through soccer as part of their marketing mix. The more commonality there is regarding the core values subscribed to by both partners, the greater the potential to enhance equity of the co-branded product or service (Frederick & Patil, 2010). Apart from parties communicating effectively, the length of the relationship is an important characteristic for testing the effect of commitment in a shared value. Chadwick and Thwaites (2004:49) found that a sponsorship agreement of one to two years creates uncertainty of the relationship whilst the one that is formed for five years and longer indicates real commitment of the parties involved. Once sponsors have been identified, selected, and secured through co-branding through soccer agreements, consultation **(D)** with stakeholders is done to solicit their support. Individual fan perceptions are multi-dimensional since they cover commonality of the target audience, relatedness to the sponsored event and team, perceived benefits in the co-branding agreement, identification of a regionally based sponsor, the sponsor's sincerity and commitment to the co-branding

agreement, which partner is dominant in the partnership, and resentment of the sponsorship by sport fans (Woisetschläger, Backhaus, Evanschitzky, & Michaelis: 2009). Soccer fans are very influential in supporting the products of the sponsoring brand and as such are a very important part of stakeholders who have to be consulted. Once sponsors have been identified. In addition to soccer fans, players of the soccer team are also an important part of the stakeholders needing to be considered and consulted for their opinion in this regard e.g. Coca-Cola is a soda that is not popular in India because of its relatively high acid content. Other examples would be when a professional soccer team is sponsored by a municipality that is notorious of poor service delivery. There was also a problem in the early 1980s when Kaizer Chiefs secured an IWISA Maize Meal sponsorship from Premier Milling with a degree of strategic partnership which caused the club's fans to revolt against since there were rumours that the owner was trying to sell the team to Premier Milling. Having solicited the support of important stakeholders, the club and the sponsors set measurable objectives **(E)** after bench-marking with advanced clubs in other countries, particularly those with which there are relationships e.g. the relationship between AmaZulu FC and Manchester City FC. The consultation of the stakeholders as stated enables the soccer team to forge a long-term relationship for the success of co-branding through soccer.

It would seem from the level of success which Real Madrid have achieved that management took cognisance of the club's on the field performance, formulation of clear objectives, and effective communication as important success factors in the sponsorship relationship. If for example the team has set a target of 60 goals for the season it would need six strikers, eight midfielders, six defenders, and two goalkeepers to make a 22 player squad **(F)**. The need for six strikers enables the team to spread the responsibility for the goals' target amongst more players than to burden a few who might be injured during the season **(G)**. From this each striker would have to score at least 10 goals during the season in case of injuries to one or two the team can still achieve its target; midfielders each would be set a minimum number of successful goal assists (attacking midfielders) and a number of successful defence tackles (defensive midfielders); defenders each would be set a minimum number of successful goal-saving blocks and defence tackles. Goalkeepers would each be set a minimum number of conceded goals or alternatively a minimum number of clean sheets per season. The player targets have to be reconciled **(H)** with the club objectives based on measurable sponsorship objectives and deciding on the tactics to be applied in strategic planning for matches.

The absence of player targets in many teams has always been a flaw in club strategies, resulting in players sometimes colluding in causing the head coach to be dismissed. This has been easy for players

in the absence of performance clauses and performance management with regard to players' jobs. This has been a trend in some of PSL teams thereby causing instability resulting from unfair coaching staff dismissals. This trend has caused coaches to apply tactics that are more defensive than goal-scoring oriented. South African professional teams that played in the 1970s under the auspices of the erstwhile NPSL used to score many goals per match and the line-up formations had more attackers than defenders. This has been confirmed by one of the well-known and experienced soccer analysts who is currently assisting at Ukhozi FM with match analyses on freelancing basis. The analyst remembers that during the time period referred to above, the player line-up formation called 3-2-5 that prevailed is presented in Figure 8.2, team line-up formation (a) in Annexure 1.

The analyst stated that spectators (soccer fans) enjoyed matches more than now since there were plenty goals and it is known that each time a goal is scored there is more excitement. As the conversation continued with the analyst it became clear that teams that were using this formation were interested in winning by scoring more goals than the opponent rather than being afraid of conceding any goal. It also came out that during this time players were employed elsewhere and played soccer primarily out of passion and to supplement income as a secondary reason. They practiced and trained after work and they were not paid as much as the current professional players. The other characteristic of players of that period in time was that their careers were longer than now. Commentators did not always refer to a player's age whilst playing as it happens now. This indirectly influences the spectators to condemn the player as no longer required because of his age despite good performance. Players are also de-skilled by not being allowed to show their talent to full potential as it is the case with African migrant players in other countries, especially Europe (Taylor:2008).

It is ironical to note that now when there is massive investment in soccer there are no goals more matches, comparatively speaking. It is probable that the tactics used (formations) are the cause of this lack of goals problem. The commonly noticed formations are 4-5-1(lone striker); 4-4-2; 3-4-3 (diamond); 4-3-3; and 3-3-4. The formations to be referred to in the explanation given hereunder are contained in Annexure 1 as Figures 8.2 team line-up formation (b); 8.3 team line-up formation (c); 8.4 team line-up formation (d); 8.5 team line-up formation (e); 8.6 team line-up formation (f); and 8.7 team line-up formation (g).

In order for a team to score as many goals as possible during the season, it should avoid team line-ups represented in Figure 8.3 and Figure 8.4 but rather opt for formations represented by Figure 8.5, Figure 8.6, and Figure 8.7, if Figure 8.2 is feared for conceding many goals. As a tactic appropriate for scoring

as many goals as possible are concerned, the coach should be given to choose between the last three options in order not to stifle strikers' initiative and responsibility to score goals. That must be clearly stated in the coach's contract since it shall impact upon the measurable objectives set for him. The reconciliation of each player's performance contract, coach's performance contract, and the club strategic goals will enable attainment of the co-branding objectives. Other teams in Europe were sceptical about the feasibility of having performance contracts for soccer players. A journalist probe revealed that many soccer administrators had a fear that soccer players and their agents would not accept a performance-based pay when applied by professional soccer teams. It is stated that when Soriano introduced the performance clause linked to salary at Barcelona FC in Spain critics averred that he was inexperienced and delusional. They were stunned when Soriano's model was accepted and remained the practice at Barcelona. Its success at Barcelona FC enabled Soriano to transplant it to Manchester City FC in England when he became their Chief Executive (Lynam, 2013:1).

Team line-up formations in Figure 8.3 and Figure 8.4 undermine any professional club's strategic reason for buying strikers for the purpose of goal scoring. It has been revealed in the research findings that soccer fans derive more joy from numbers of goals scored in each match than the percentage of possession by the supported team in a match (Malesky and Saiegh, 2014). The scoring of goals entertain soccer spectators to the extent that they perceive it as value for money paid to watch each match. To facilitate the reconciliation of the players' targets with those of the team, team line-up formations in Figure 8.5, Figure 8.6, and Figure 8.7 would have to be adopted since their use increases the probability of scoring as many goals as possible in one match. Such a result in a match would enhance the images of both the sponsored team and the sponsoring brand and increase the number of spectators wanting to watch the team each time it plays. This would also help parties to a sponsorship agreement to attain affective intensity and sponsor identification among soccer fans who are expected to buy products of the sponsoring brand and also to support the sponsored team. Despite the fact that team line-up (a) was common in South African soccer in the 1970s and that it also produced the highest number of goals compared to the current situation, it must be noted that coaches are scared to field a team on that basis thinking of the effect of quick counter-attacks. However, the coaches must also take into consideration that to rely on line-up (b) the team must have a world-class striker to achieve the desired results. Having said that coaches must also note that having a world-class striker that is extremely exposed to opponent team defenders as a lone striker often results in the striker getting more serious injuries in one season.

Having explained the implications of the team line-up formations, the professional soccer teams must consider to apply more of team line-up formations that increase the probability of scoring more goals in

order to entertain soccer fans and to attain sponsorship objectives. In addition to that, professional soccer players with specific performance clauses would be expected to perform against measurable and achievable objectives. This would facilitate performance management of players in relation to high salaries that they earn. This would further minimize the tendency by soccer players to deliberately under-perform in order to have the coach and his technical team fired. This would finally assist professional soccer teams to keep successful soccer coaches for lengthy periods for stability in a situation where the whole team including players is subjected to performance management. This is the reason why professional soccer teams need to adopt the model for better results aimed at internalizing the sponsors' and supporters' interests.

In terms of annual league strategies, the application of the recommended line-up formations would assist teams to set achievable goals for strikers. Say for instance the team has at least four strikers, fielding two or three in the same starting line-up per game can enhance the team's potential of scoring more goals per match. Each striker could be give a target of scoring at least 16 goals per season and such a target be embedded in the player's performance clause. Out of a minimum of four strikers the team can set a target of at least 64 goals out of 30 games, which in essence averages slightly above two goals per game. This is not a tall order considering what individual strikers and individual teams can achieve in Europe and Latin America in terms of goals scored per season. As already stated, this would balance the scale for coaches and technical teams thereby causing the team to be a well-oiled machine provided there is no match-fixing. In this manner, the amounts of money invested in sponsorship would make co-branding in soccer a worthwhile vehicle to enhance the brands of both parties to the sponsorship agreement. Soccer spectators who spend their money to watch soccer matches would regard their effort and spending as good value for money. The objectives of co-branding through soccer at club level and national level will be easier to evaluate if both players and coaches have measurable performance goals. This is turn will bring about improvement in the professional level of soccer players for South Africa's competitiveness.

8.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The scope of this study is co-branding through soccer. Furthermore, co-branding through soccer in this study was limited to club level whereas there is a need to conduct a study of how this marketing strategy is applied and evaluated in terms of sponsoring leagues and national teams in South Africa. The study also falls short of exploring if club management in PSL teams do interfere or not with the coach and technical team as far as selecting a team's first line-up of players to fielded in each game.

Another additional dimension to this study would be to explore as to how performance management would be perceived by South African professional soccer players if introduced. Performance of a team has many variables that intervene in the process of achieving co-branding through soccer. This study also falls short of providing information in the sense that it did not explore how the ability to scout talented players as a variable impacts upon attaining the desired team performance for the success of co-branding through soccer. In addition to this dimension of research (scouting of players) this study did not find out as to why each participant professional soccer player chose to play soccer as a career.

8.5.1 Recommendations for future research

Other studies are required to explore how co-branding through other sport codes is applied as a marketing strategy and whether parties to the co-branding agreements are able to objectively measure the degree to which co-branding goals have been attained. The results of such studies would enable a comparison of the level of co-branding success in soccer and other sports codes. The recommended studies could also be done at union (provincial level) and at national level in terms of sport codes like rugby and cricket.

Further studies in co-branding through soccer are required where the researchers concentrate in exploring whether soccer administrators make decisions that enhance the brands of sponsoring partners or decisions that inhibit the enhancement of the brands of sponsoring partners. In other words the studies would be exploring the effects of their interventions and interferences with regard to the team performance which affects co-branding agreements. The observed poor performance by professional soccer players make it necessary to explore factors behind they below par performance compared to other African States as well as the rest of the world. It is envisaged that the findings would assist in establishing if all players are passionate in playing soccer or they simply chose the career because of having no qualification to earn a living in other jobs. Additional research to this study would add more information into co-branding through soccer for the purpose of improvement of sponsored team performance for the benefit of either party to the contract in the wake of the ever increasing spending in soccer sponsorships.

8.6 CONCLUSION

The over-arching objective of this study was to explore the practices adopted by professional soccer teams generally in South Africa and specifically in KwaZulu-Natal. The study was motivated by the frustrations of soccer fans reported in different media with regard to the performance of professional soccer players at national level as well as at club level despite soccer being heavily sponsored. The history of the development of soccer in South Africa indicates that it is the kind of sport that is very robust considering the difficult times which it went through and survived. Soccer survived in a manner that it eventually overtook other sport codes which were originally promoted as leading sports codes during the previous political dispensation. Its robustness led to the development of the most popular product of entertainment in South Africa. The nature of intangible product, which soccer is, was discussed at length as a point of departure with regard to branding, brand development and brand management in the context of co-branding through sport sponsorship. A further discussion was made in respect of brand equity in relation to co-branding through soccer with specific reference to the attainment of sponsorship objectives. Issues that characterise co-branding through soccer were identified as important variables that affect the application of co-branding through soccer. Subsequent to the coverage of important issues the discussion then focused on success factors in applying co-branding through soccer

It was established that soccer as an intangible product is unique from tangible products although sharing the same four Ps of marketing. The difference in characteristics is in the form of people, process, and physical evidence as additional three Ps to the marketing mix. With regard to the people involved, it became apparent that in addition to officials and soccer players there are soccer fans who are spectators of the game. Soccer fans are important stakeholders in the process of co-branding through soccer because they are brand communities with regard to different soccer brands (soccer teams). Consumers of other intangible products like transport, cinema, etc. do not have to belong together to form brand communities as it is the case in soccer. Consideration of soccer fans as an important stakeholder is one of the success factors in co-branding through soccer. It also became apparent that this type of stakeholder requires relationship marketing in order to channel its energy to supporting co-branding through soccer.

Developing strong brands and maintaining them as an essential task in marketing became evident that it brings about brand equity. Brand equity in co-branding through soccer manifests itself finding that a soccer team draws crowds to stadia when it tours and also attracts millions of fans around the world to watch its matches on television. Internalisation of sponsors' interests that manifests itself in soccer fans

buying co-branded sports goods and also buying products of the sponsors from retail outlets was established to be existing among soccer fans and soccer players in South Africa. It appears that this is an important issue that needs to be considered when a co-branding through soccer agreements are negotiated and signed since it contributes to the desired objectives of the sponsoring brands. This issue has a bearing on some of the critical success factors with regard to co-branding through soccer.

The critical success factors that were established to be driving internalisation of sponsors' interests are physical fitness of players, individual player performance and behaviour, and team performance the high level of which combined enhance the brands of co-branding parties. The ripple effect resulting from this process increases the internalisation of sponsors' interests among consumers of sponsor products. However, this desired result cannot be sustained over a long period of time in the absence of clear sponsorship objectives, shared values, trust, and lengthy sponsorship contracts. This is so because club officials agree unanimously that they desire that co-branding through soccer contracts provide stability and ample time to plan and implement co-branding strategies. It is noted though that most professional soccer clubs in South Africa would enter into a co-branding through soccer contract with a sponsor even if there is no direct congruence between two brands. This is normally done clubs in desperation to increase sponsorship funding to finance the operations of the club.

Individual player performance as a critical success factor in co-branding through soccer is not strategically supported by PSL teams in South Africa since responses of soccer players who have played for teams at different provinces revealed that there are no specific clauses in player contracts. The absence of such clauses in player contracts explain the reason behind the observed poor performance by professional soccer players at both club and national levels. This means that there is no performance management in professional soccer whilst professional soccer players are employees of the clubs that hire them like any other person employed to do a job elsewhere. This has resulted in a culture of lack of responsibility by professional soccer players for their below par performance. This is a major concern with regard to normal pay and incentive pay as a critical success factor. It was established in the study that PSL players are in general paid the best salaries in the context of the African continent. It was also established that some sponsors fund incentive pay for players.

Despite competitive salaries and incentive pay prevailing in South African soccer there are no performance clauses in player contracts to justify the level of pay. This situation is not in congruence with the magnitude of investment in co-branding through soccer. It has been established that the level at which individual PSL teams are sponsored has increased dramatically since 1994. The amounts

invested by sponsors into various competitions relating to professional soccer have also increased dramatically, e.g. the investment by Supersport International, Absa, and Nedbank to mention a few prominent ones. It is disappointing to note that soccer has not brought about fruitful development in the country's competitiveness as it has happened in the Middle East. These countries take part in international soccer and they are formidable sides although they have not been involved in soccer for centuries like countries in other continents i.e. Europe and America (Dorsey, 2012).

It is important to note that Head Coaches of PSL teams have been and are still losing their jobs for poor team performance without players being held responsible for such whilst they are part of the teams that are not playing to the satisfaction of owners, sponsors, and soccer fans. This trend creates uncertainty and instability at clubs thereby affecting their respective long-term strategies. The high turnover rate of Head Coaches is not helping the development of South African soccer to be at the level of other countries in the continent and the rest of the world. It does not seem that SAFA can address this matter successfully if performance of players are not managed for the satisfaction of both the sponsors and soccer fans.

The framework in particular will guide executive managers of both the soccer team and the sponsoring brand into committing themselves to a procedure and a process that brings about discipline in managing sponsorship agreements. The framework will inculcate a culture of regarding soccer as a product that is effective in promoting the sponsoring brand image with an embedded policy of setting, measuring and reviewing player performance for the benefit of team performance and avoidance of terminating Head Coaches' employment unjustifiably. The study as a whole will broaden the horizon for club management and sponsoring brand management as to what other aspects of the game need to be included in the sponsorship e.g. PMS for each player, evaluation of sponsorship goals, policy making on team formations that enhance success of the team and the image of the sponsoring brand provided there is no match-fixing.

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ANNEXURES

(Annexure 1)

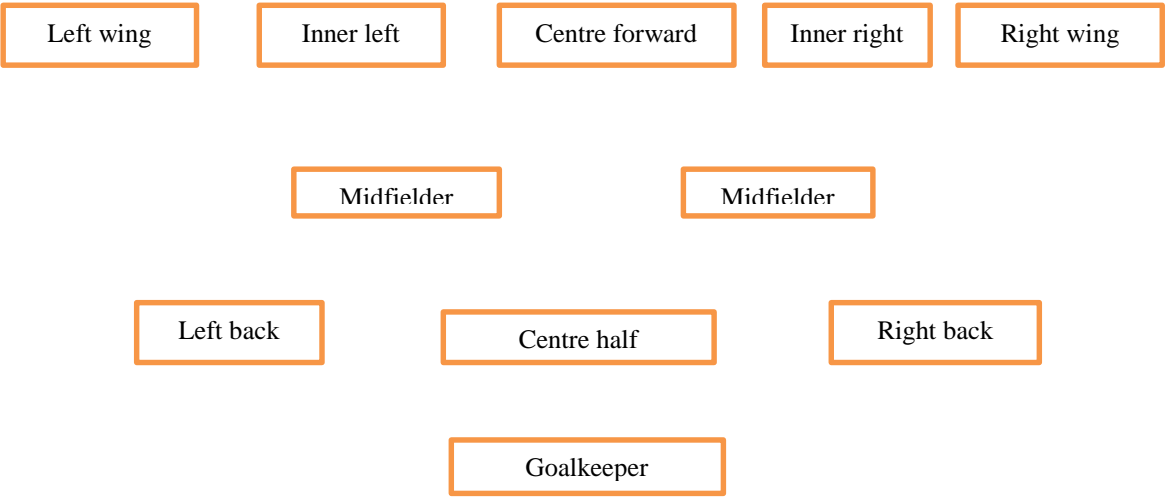


Figure 8.2: Team line-up formation (a)

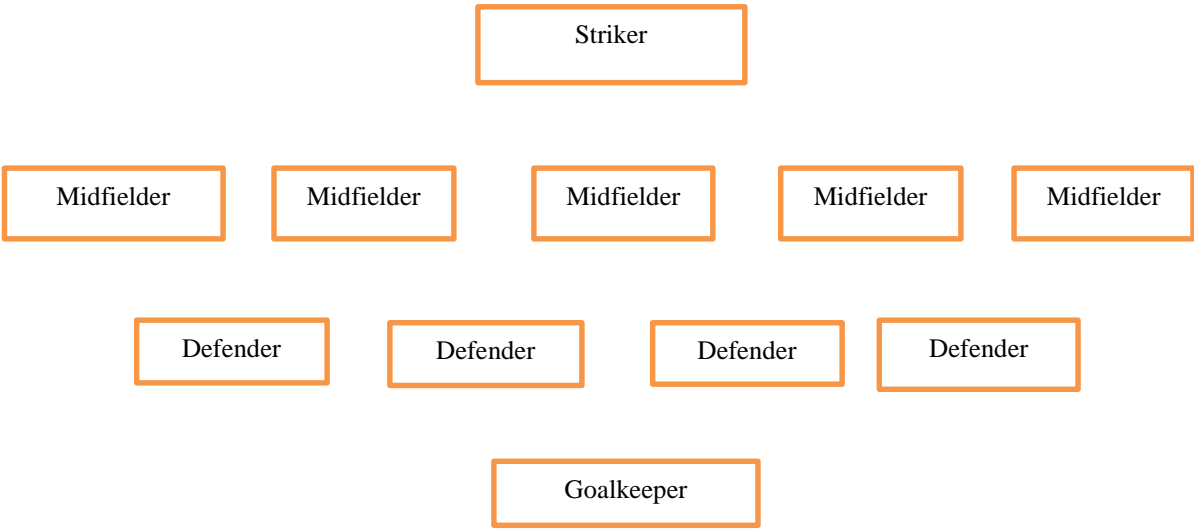


Figure 8.3: Team line-up formation (b)



Figure 8.4: Team line-up formation (c)

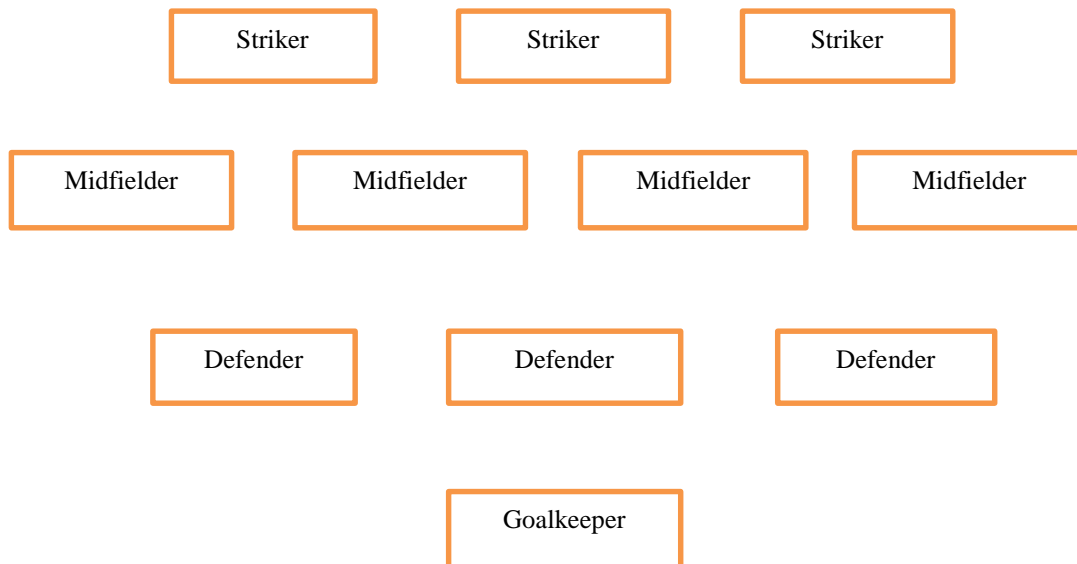


Figure 8.5: Team line-up formation (d)



Figure 8.6: Team line-up formation (e)

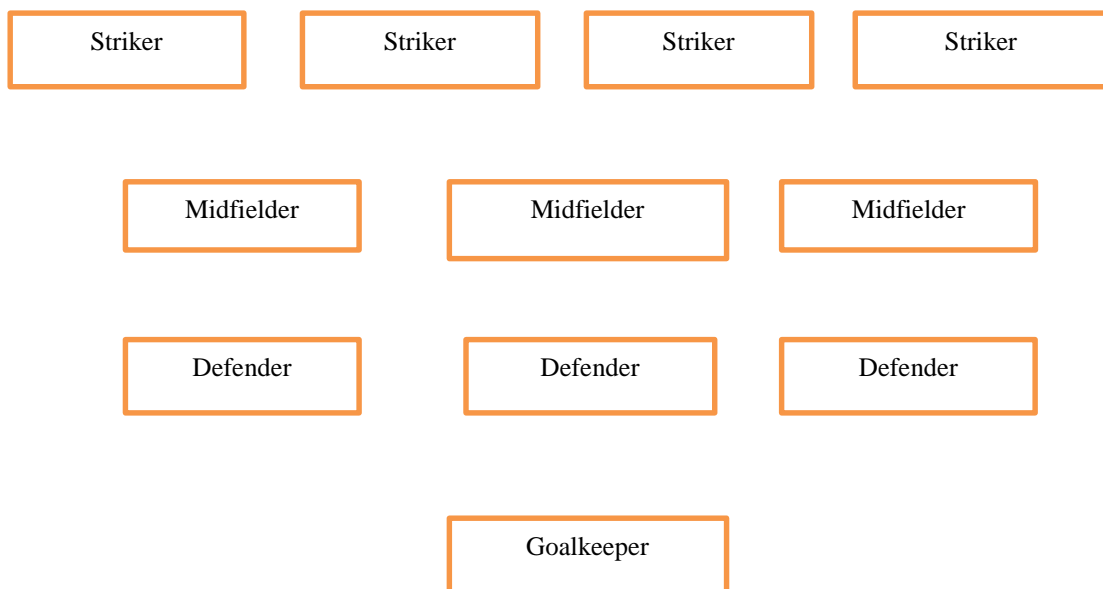


Figure 8.7: Team line-up formation (f)

(Annexure 2)

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION
(PSL SOCCER FANS OF DIFFERENT CLUBS)

Moderator (Facilitator) details

Name: _____

Physical address: _____

Telephone: Home: _____

Work: _____

Cellular Telephone: _____

E-mail address: _____

THEMES FOR DISCUSSION

After introduction, explanation of participants' rights and establishing rapport with the group, the moderator (facilitator) shall lead the discussion by covering the themes listed hereunder:

- Fan exposure to club information
- Sponsorship objective awareness
- Knowledge of club sponsors
- Understanding of sponsors; interests
- Internalization of sponsor's interests
- The importance of the length of sponsorship relationship/agreement
- Sponsorship congruence
- Affective intensity and sponsor identification
- Understanding of no interference with club management
- Implications of interference or bad behaviour to club image

(Annexure 2a)

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION

(Operational Guide)

1. Set-up: Twelve participants must have name boards in front of them and they must be comfortably seated. They must be made aware that the discussion will be recorded for accurate transcription thereafter, and they must agree to that request. The name boards must indicate club preference to facilitate checking of transcription. Participants must be made aware that there is no incentive but a meal with soft drinks will be served at the end of the discussion.

2. Process: Each theme must be explored using questions to break them down for understanding and ease of analysis. Before starting, explanation of participants' rights has to be done. A warm introduction must be done to break the ice in order to put participants at ease.

2.1 Fan exposure to club information

- How much information do you have about your team of choice?
- How did you access that information about the club?
- Of what importance is that information to you?

2.2 Sponsorship objective awareness

- Are the PSL soccer clubs sponsored?
- Why are they sponsored?

2.3 Knowledge of club sponsors

- Who are the sponsors of your favourite club?
- What is the importance of knowing your favourite team's sponsors?
- How do you get to know when the sponsorship agreement has come to an end?

2.4 Understanding of sponsor's interests

- Why does a sponsor choose a particular PSL team to sponsor?
- What does a sponsor expect from the team?

2.5 Internalization of sponsor's interests

- What do you think is your role in the sponsorship agreement between a sponsor and your favourite club?
- As a customer of many products, how do you understand your role in support of the sponsorship?

2.6 The importance of the length of the sponsorship agreement

- How long do you think the sponsorship should be?
- Why is the length of the sponsorship important?

2.7 Sponsorship congruence

- What is it that is common between your favourite team and its sponsors?
- What is the importance of common characteristics between sponsorship partners?

2.8 Affective intensity and sponsor identification

- Do you recognize brands sponsoring your favourite off the field?

- How do you feel when you see that brand in another setting?
- Are you persuaded to support that brand by buying, remembering that it sponsors your favourite team?

2.9 Understanding the no interference with club management

- How do you feel when your favourite team is not doing well in a match?
- Do you have a right to force a substitute?
- Do you have a right to attack or intimidate officials?
- What about throwing missiles onto the pitch?

2.10 Implications of interfering behaviour on club image

- How do you think the sponsor feels when fans do such things?
- How do you feel when your favourite team is penalized for its fans' behaviour?
- What do you think happens to the club's image?

Thanking everyone for participating, the facilitator summarises the focus group interview with words of encouragement for participating in future.

Date of the interview:

Names of participants and teams represented:

.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

(Annexure 3)

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE (SOCCER PLAYER IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW)

Sponsor details:

Name of player	The respondent will be allowed to be anonymous if so preferred.
----------------	---

Physical address

Contact Numbers: Cellphone

Landline

Name of team playing for

THEMES TO DISCOVER

1. Knowledge of Club Sponsorship/Ulwazi ngabaxhasi beqembu

- 1.1 Which organization(s) sponsor your team to promote its brand?
Iziphi izinkaphane ezixhasa iqembu lakho ukuze zigqamise amagama azo?
- 1.2 How long has your team been sponsored by the organization(s) stated in 1.1 above?
Sesiside kangakanani isikhathi iqembu lakho lixhaswe izinkaphane ezishiwo ku 1.1 ngenhla?

2. Understanding of sponsor's interest/Ukuqonda okufunwa ngumxhasi

- 2.1 What do you think is the reason the sponsors have signed a sponsorship agreement with your team?
Uma ucabanga, yiziphi izizathu ezenza abaxhasi basayine isivumelwano neqembu lakho?
- 2.2 What are the core expectations that affect your contract as a player in relation to the sponsorship agreement of your team?
Yikuphi okulindeleke kuwena ngqo mayelana nesivumelwano sakho njengomdlali ngokuhlobene nesivumelwano phakathi kweqembu nabaxhasi?
- 2.3 Does the sponsoring organization relate to people who support your team? Please explain.
Ingabe abaxhasi banokuthile okubahlanganisa nabalandeli beqembu lakho? Chaza.

3. Internalization of sponsored interests/Ukuqonda ukubanjwa kweghaza elihambelana nabaxhasi

- 3.1 How do you think your behaviour on and off the field can affect your team's image?
Uma ucabanga, ukuziphatha kwakho ngaso sonke isikhathi kungalithinta kanjani idumela leqembu lakho?
- 3.2 How do you think your behaviour on and off the field can affect the image of your team's sponsor?
Uma ucabanga, ukuziphatha kwakho njengomdlali kungalithinta kanjani idumela labaxhasi beqembu lakho?
- 3.3 How do you think you should perform in a soccer match in the understanding of the answers given in 3.1 and 3.2 above?
Uma ucabanga, kufanele wenze kanjani emdlalweni webhola lezinyawo mayelana nezimpendulo ozinikeze ku 3.1 no 3.2 ngenhla?
- 3.4 What do you think your behaviour towards your fellow players and performance should be in relation to the sponsor's interests?
Uma ucabanga, ukuziphatha kwakho mayelana nabanye abadlali nendlela odlalisana ngayo nabo kufanele kube njani malungana nokufunwa ngabaxhasi?
- 3.5 How do you think the sponsor is affected when you do not win most of your games?
Uma ucabanga, baphatheka kanjani abaxhasi uma ningaphumeleli emidlalweni eminingi njengeqembu?
- 3.6 What do you think may happen to the sponsorship should your team be relegated?
Uma ucabanga, yini engenzeka esivumelwaneni somxhaso uma iqembu lehliselwa kwiligi engenzansi?
- 3.7 What do you think happens to the name (brand) of your team if you do not win most of the fixture games?
Uma ucabanga, kwenzekani egameni leqembu lakho uma ningaphumeleli emidlalweni eminingi enihlelelwe yona?
- 3.8 What do you think is your expected role in supporting the products of the sponsoring organization?
Uma ucabanga, yini elindeleke kuwena mayelana nokusekela imikhiqizo yabaxhasi?

4. Recognition of players as stakeholders/Ukuqashelwa kwabadlali njengababambe iqhaza

- 4.1 Are sponsors introduced to you as a team by team management, if so, how?
Ingabe abaphathi beqembu bayabethula abaxhasi kinina njengeqembu, uma kunjalo, bakwenza kanjani?
- 4.2 When you were signed as an individual player, were you officially informed of sponsorships and what is expected of you in terms of behaviour and performance? Please explain.

Ngesikhathi usayiniswa njengomdlali ingabe watshelwa ngokusemthethweni ngabaxhasi nangalokho okulindeleke kuwe ngokuziphatha nendlela okufanele udlale ngayo? Chaza.

4.3 What do you think is expected of you in terms of behaviour towards soccer fans?
Uma ucabanga, iyiphi indlela okufanele uziphathe ngayo mayelana nabalandeli beqembu?

4.4 What do you think will happen to the club's image if you behave badly towards the soccer fans?
Yini ocabanga ukuthi ingenzeka edumeleni leqembu uma uziphathe kabi mayelana nabalandeli bebhola lezinyawo?

5. Affective intensity and sponsor identification/Umuzwa ojulile wokuzibandakanya nabaxhasi

5.1 How do you identify with each sponsor as an individual in respect of supporting the brand and its image?
Uzibona usondelene kangakanani ngokomqondo nabaxhasi mayelana nokusekela igama labo nedumela labo?

6. Conflicts in sports co-branding/Ukushayisana kwezinhloso ekuhlanganiseni amagama emidlalweni

6.1 How would you respond to an organization that wants to sponsor you as a single player?
Ungasabela kanjani enkaphaneni efuna ukuxhasa wena wedwa njengomdlali?

6.2 What would be your reaction if your team does not approve of such a move?
Ungazizwa kanjani uma iqembu olidlalelayo lingakuvumeli lokho?

7. GENERAL DATA/UKWAZISWA JIKELELE

7.1 If you do not mind, can you tell how long have you been a professional soccer player?
Uma kungakuhluphi ukuphendula, mingaki iminyaka ungumdlali okhokhelwayo?

7.2 What problems have you encountered during that period?
Yiziphi izinkinga osuhlangabezane nazo kuleso sikhathi?

7.3 Were those problems resulting from being sponsored as a soccer team?
Ingabe lezo zinkinga zazibangwa ukuxhaswa kweqembu olidlalelayo?

7.4 Has your team been continuously sponsored by the same sponsor when the team has been relegated to a lower division?
Ingabe iqembu lakho lake laqhubeka lixhasiwe noma selehliselwe kwiligi engenzansi?

7.5 Is there anything else you would like to add to what has been said?
Ingabe kukhona ofuna ukukwengeza kulokho osukushilo kakade?

Thank you for your participation and patience!
Siyabonga ngokuhlanganyela kwakho ophenyweni nokubekezela!

(Annexure 3a)



CONSENT

Statement of Agreement to Participate in the Research Study:

• I hereby confirm that I have been informed by the researcher, _____

(name of researcher), about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of this study - Research Ethics Clearance Number: _____,

- I have also received, read and understood the above written information (Participant Letter of Information) regarding the study.
- I am aware that the results of the study, including personal details regarding my sex, age, date of birth, initials and diagnosis will be anonymously processed into a study report.
- In view of the requirements of research, I agree that the data collected during this study can be processed in a computerised system by the researcher.
- I may, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent and participation in the study.
- I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and (of my own free will) declare myself prepared to participate in the study.
- I understand that significant new findings developed during the course of this research which may relate to my participation will be made available to me.

Full Name of Participant
Thumbprint

Date

Time

Signature / Right

I (Name of researcher) herewith confirm that the above-named participant has been fully informed about the nature, conduct and risks of the above study.

Full Name of Researcher

Date

Signature

Full Name of Witness (If applicable)

Date

Signature

Full Name of Legal
Guardian (If applicable)

Date

Signature

(Annexure 4)

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE
(OFFICIAL SPONSOR IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW)

Sponsor details:

Name of Organization _____

Physical address _____

Postal address _____

Representative's details:

Name of Representative _____

Position occupied _____

Contact Numbers: Cellphone _____

Landline _____

Sponsorship details:

Name of soccer club sponsored _____

Nature of sponsorship _____

Duration of sponsorship _____

Date when sponsorship started _____

THEMES TO DISCOVER

1. Sponsorship and marketing mix

1.1 Why has your organization chosen soccer to promote its brand?

1.2 How does soccer form part of your marketing mix?

- 1.3 What specific objectives do you base your agreement on with the sponsored team?
- 1.4 What are the core expectations that characterize the sponsorship in relation to your organization's brand and the sponsored team?
- 1.5 Is the sponsored team directly related to your brand's target audience? Please explain.

2. Sponsorship length implications

- 2.1 How important is the length of the sponsorship agreement for the success of your organization's brand?
- 2.2 What checks and balances do you include in the agreement to avoid a premature failure of the sponsorship agreement?

3. Level of management seniority involvement

- 3.1 Which level of management in your organization gets involved in the negotiations for a sponsorship agreement?
- 3.2 Which level of management is assigned to administer the sponsorship agreement when it has been concluded, and why?
- 3.3 If the initial contract was successful, which level of management gets involved in the re-negotiation of a new contract?

4. Stakeholder consideration

- 4.1 How does your organization regard players in the process of concluding a sponsorship agreement?
- 4.2 What is expected of players in respect of performance and behaviour during the duration of the sponsorship agreement?
- 4.3 How does your organization recognize soccer fans' role when negotiating a sponsorship agreement with a team?
- 4.4 What is expected of the fans in respect of behaviour during the duration of the sponsorship agreement?

5. Measurement of sponsorship objectives

- 5.1 Does your organization measure if objectives set at the beginning of the agreement are achieved, e.g. brand equity and how?
- 5.2 Is congruence between your organization, the sponsoring brand and the sponsored team factored in when measurement is done, if so, how?
- 5.3 If the measurement reveals unsatisfactory results, what steps are taken by both parties?

6. Conflicts in sports co-branding

- 6.1 In sponsoring a team, does your organization allow that team to be co-sponsored by another organization, if not, why?
- 6.2 When sponsoring a team, does your organization allow a single player to be co-sponsored by another organization at the same time for the purpose of promotion during a soccer match, if not, why?

7. GENERAL DATA

- 7.1 If you do not mind, can you tell how long have you been involved in sponsorship agreements?
- 7.2 What problems have you encountered during that period?
- 7.3 Have you ever experience an increase in brand equity due to sponsoring a soccer team?
- 7.4 Has your organization continued sponsoring a team that has been relegated to a lower division?
- 7.5 What is the reason for the answer given in 7.4 above?
- 7.6 Is there anything you would like to add after this interview?

Thank you for your participation and patience!

(Annexure 5)

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE
(CLUB OFFICIAL IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW)

Sponsor details:

Name of sponsored club _____

Physical address _____

Postal address _____

Representative's details:

Name of Representative _____

Position occupied _____

Contact Numbers: Cellphone _____

Landline _____

Sponsorship details:

Nature of sponsorship _____

Duration of sponsorship _____

Date when sponsorship started _____

Name of sponsoring organization(s) _____

THEMES TO DISCOVER

1. Sponsorship and marketing mix

- 1.1** Why has your organization chosen the sponsors stated on your website to promote its brand?

- 1.2 What specific objectives do you base your agreement on with the sponsor?
- 1.3 What are the core expectations that characterize the sponsorship in relation to your organization's brand and the sponsoring organization?
- 1.4 Is the sponsoring organization directly related to your brand's target audience? Please explain.

2. Sponsorship length implications

- 2.1 How important is the length of the sponsorship agreement for the success of your organization's brand?
- 2.2 What checks and balances do you include in the agreement to avoid a premature failure of the sponsorship agreement?

3. Level of management seniority involvement

- 3.1 Which level of management in your organization gets involved in the negotiations for a sponsorship agreement?
- 3.2 Which level of management is assigned to administer the sponsorship agreement when it has been concluded, and why?
- 3.3 If the initial contract was successful, which level of management gets involved in the re-negotiation of a new contract?

4. Stakeholder consideration

- 4.1 How does your organization regard players in the process of concluding a sponsorship agreement?
- 4.2 What is expected of players during the duration of the sponsorship agreement?
- 4.3 How does your organization recognize soccer fans when negotiating a sponsorship agreement with a sponsor?
- 4.4 What is expected of the fans in respect of behaviour during the duration of the sponsorship agreement?

5. Measurement of sponsorship objectives

- 5.1 Does your organization measure if objectives set at the beginning of the agreement are achieved, e.g. brand equity and how?

5.2 Is congruence between your team, the sponsoring brand and the sponsoring organization factored in when measurement is done, if so, how?

5.3 If the measurement reveals unsatisfactory results, what steps are taken by both parties?

6. Affective intensity and sponsor identification

6.1 How do you identify with each sponsor as an individual in respect of supporting the brand and its image?

7. Conflicts in sports co-branding

7.1 When sponsored as a team, does your sponsor allow the team to be co-sponsored by another organization, if not, why?

7.2 When sponsored as a team, does your sponsor allow a single player to be co-sponsored by another organization at the same time for the purpose of promotion during a soccer match, if not, why?

8. GENERAL DATA

8.1 If you do not mind, can you tell how long have you been involved in sponsorship agreements?

8.2 What problems have you encountered during that period?

8.3 Have you ever experience an increase in brand equity due to being sponsored as a soccer team?

8.4 Has your team been continuously sponsored by the same sponsor when the team has been relegated to a lower division?

8.5 What is the reason for the answer given in 7.2 above?

8.6 Is there anything you would like to add after this interview?

Thank you for your participation and patience!



(Annexure 6)

LETTER OF INFORMATION

Dear Participant

You are kindly requested to voluntarily participate in the collection of data for a study that seeks to contribute to the improvement of sponsorship management for the benefit of both the sponsored club and the sponsor. Your participation is of vital importance for the success of the study. The information about the study is provided hereunder.

Title of the Research Study: Co-branding through soccer in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa

Principal researcher: Mr M.V.M. Ndlovu, BCom; MBA

Brief Introduction and Purpose of the Study:

Over the years of the development of soccer as sport, it has become the most popular sport thereby attracting more businesses to co-brand with individual clubs as well as associations. When businesses invest money in the promotion of their brands through soccer, they expect some kind of behaviour and level of performance to enhance the sponsoring brand. Some habits have become culture among fans and players in KwaZulu-Natal (in the context of South Africa) and are not always in congruence with the expectations of the sponsors. It has also been established through studies that the behaviour of managers is also not in line with the objectives of sponsors. The objectives of this study are to establish awareness of players and fans with regard to sponsors' expectations. It will be established if players are aware of the fact that they are expected to be brand ambassadors. The study shall also explore if club officials appreciate what sponsors' expect and also to find out if club officials regard supporters as stakeholders in sport co-branding. Furthermore, the study will enquire if managers of sponsorships do measure if the objectives of sponsorship have been attained. Deriving from the findings, a model will be developed to suggest a strategy to improve the situation.

Procedures for collecting data: You are expected to answer questions posed as honestly and accurately as possible. The questions will be asked from an interview schedule handled by a trained interviewer sitting together with the respondent at a venue that is suitable to the respondent and chosen by the respondent. If you are a soccer player, you would have been chosen by a club official on the basis of the requirements communicated to the club official. If you are a club official or a sponsoring company employee, you would have been selected by the club management or the sponsor's management respectively. You will not be subjected to any medical or physical treatment during collection of data.

Risks or Discomforts to the Participant:

You will not be put under any risk whatsoever since the interviewing of players, club officials and sponsor representatives will have been sanctioned by a relevant body of authority.

Benefits of the study

Clubs and sponsors will benefit from the study in sense that the results of the study will be made available to them for their own analysis and decision to take action or not regarding recommendations. The researcher will publish the results of the study without direct reference to any specific club, sponsor, or individual player or official, but rather reporting the situation in general for the benefit of the soccer fraternity.

You can withdraw from the study at any moment if they feel like with no consequences. Instances like illness or any emergency/personal situation during collection of data will warrant the withdrawal from participation since participation is voluntary

There will be no remuneration for participation. You will bear no expenses with regard to the collection of data during the interview.

The information provided will be handled in the strictest confidentiality such that the findings of the study will not mention any names of either organization or individual. There will be no research injury the study since participation is not physical and you will only be required to provide the required data in spaces that are danger-free.

In case of any problem or query during data collection, please contact the researcher at 082 505 5262, my promoter, Dr J.P. Govender (083 555 1026) or the Institutional Research Ethics administrator on 031 373 2900. Complaints can be reported to the DVC: TIP, Prof F. Otieno on 031 373 2382 or dvctip@dut.ac.za.

General:

Potential participants must be assured that participation is voluntary and the approximate number of participants to be included should be disclosed. A copy of the information letter should be issued to participants. The information letter and consent form must be translated and provided in the primary spoken language of the research population e.g. isiZulu.

(Annexure 6a)

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE
(SOCCER ANALYST IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW)

Respondent details:

Name _____

Physical address _____

Postal address _____

Contact Numbers: Cellphone _____
Landline _____

THEMES TO DISCOVER

1. Level of player commitment

- 1.1 How were soccer players committed to the game in the 1970s?
- 1.2 What specific performance by them do you base your answer on?
- 1.3 How do you compare the number of goals then and now?
- 1.4 What do you think is the cause of the deterioration of performance and orientation now?

2. Employment, training and preparation for games

- 2.1 What was the employment status of the players of the 1970s?
- 2.2 How did players find time to train and prepare for matches?

3. Length of player careers

- 3.1 Up to which age did the players of the period in question play the game professionally?
- 3.2 How do you compare that with the current players?
- 3.3 If there is a difference, what do you think is the cause?

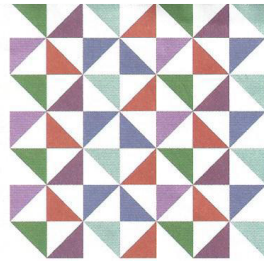
4. General data

4.1 Is there anything you would like to add?

4.2 Do you have any suggestions to the performance problem?

Thank you for your participation and patience!

(Annexure 7)



Institutional Research Ethics Committee

Faculty of Health Sciences
Room MS 49, Mansfield School Site
Gate 8, Ritson Campus
Durban University of Technology

P O Box 1334, Durban, South Africa, 4001

Tel: 031 373 2900

Fax: 031 373 2407

Email: lavishad@dut.ac.za

http://www.dut.ac.za/research/institutional_research_ethics

www.dut.ac.za

23 August 2013

IREC Reference Number: **REC 18/13**

Mr M V M Ndlovu
22 Frey Road
Marianhill Park
Pinetown
3610

Dear Mr Ndlovu

Co-branding through soccer in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa

I am pleased to inform you that Full Approval has been granted to your proposal REC 18/13.

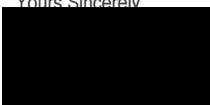
The Proposal has been allocated the following Ethical Clearance number **IREC 067/13**. Please use this number in all communication with this office.

Approval has been granted for a period of one year, before the expiry of which you are required to apply for safety monitoring and annual recertification. Please use the Safety Monitoring and Annual Recertification Report form which can be found in the Standard Operating Procedures [SOP's] of the IREC. This form must be submitted to the IREC at least 3 months before the ethics approval for the study expires.

Any adverse events [serious or minor] which occur in connection with this study and/or which may alter its ethical consideration must be reported to the IREC according to the IREC SOP's. In addition, you will be responsible to ensure gatekeeper permission.

Please note that any deviations from the approved proposal require the approval of the IREC as outlined in the IREC SOP's.

Yours Sincerely



Prof J K Adam
Chairperson: IREC

(Annexure 8)



*Research Proposal and
Ratification of Research Proposal by the Higher Degrees Committee*

Faculty	Management Sciences	Date:	06 November 2012
Department	Marketing, Retail, and Public Relations		
Qualification registered for (e.g. MTech: Fashion)	Doctor of Philosophy: Marketing		
Offering type	Full time registration	Part time registration	X
Prior qualification (e.g. BTech: Fashion)	MBA		

Student Surname	NDLOVU			Student No.	20926904	
First Names	Mduduzi Victor Mphathi			Title (Mr, Ms)	Mr	
Postal Address	22 Frey Road, Mariannhill Park, PINETOWN, 3610					
Tel (W)	Tel (H)	Cell	Fax		e-Mail	
031 907 7267	031 700 1076	082 505 5262	086 234 9633		mphathi@mut.ac.za	
Provisional title of Dissertation/Thesis		Co-branding through soccer in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa			Full	X
					Partial	
					Dissertation/Thesis	
Ethics clearance required	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3		Level 4	
	X					

Summary of the study (150-200 words)

[Please include a brief account of the nature and scope of the study, its purpose, and the research approach and methodology to be used.]

Over the years of the development of soccer as sport, it has become the most popular sport thereby attracting more businesses to co-brand with individual clubs as well as associations. When businesses invest money in the promotion of their brands through soccer, they expect some kind of behaviour and level of performance to enhance the sponsoring brand. Some habits have become culture among fans and players in KwaZulu-Natal (in the context of South Africa) and are not always in congruence with the expectations of the sponsors. It has also

been established through studies that the behaviour of managers is also not in line with the objectives of sponsors. The objectives of this study are to establish awareness of players and fans with regard to sponsors' expectations. It will be established if players are aware of the fact that they are expected to be brand ambassadors. The study shall also explore if club officials appreciate what sponsors' expect and also to find out if club officials regard supporters as stakeholders in sport co-branding. Furthermore, the study will enquire if managers of sponsorships do measure if the objectives of sponsorship have been attained. Deriving from the findings, a model will be developed to suggest a strategy to improve the situation. Since the study is of a qualitative nature, exploratory research design will be an approach to collect data.

Promoter	J.P. Govender				
Position	Dr		Present Qualifications		
Tel (W)	Tel (H)	Cell	Fax	e-Mail	
031 373 5398		083 555 1026		govendej@dut.ac.za	
Co-Promoter	S. Penceliah				
Position	Professor		Present Qualifications		
Tel (W)	Tel (H)	Cell	Fax	e-Mail	
				pencelid@dut.ac.za	
<i>N.B. Any subsequent change of supervisor/s needs to be submitted to the HDC for ratification (i.e. in a memo).</i>					

Section A: Budget (Motivate below)			
1.	Consumable Details (Motivate)		R
2.	Outside Specialist Services (Motivate)	Language editing	R 2 000-00
3.	Books/Journal/Documents		R
4.	Library Charges		R

5.	Equipment (Motivate)		R
6.	Travel Costs (Motivate)	Travelling to Richardsbay, P.M. Burg, and around Durban collecting data for the study. (400 X R2.90/km)	R 1 160-00
7.	Other (Motivate)	Buying food and drinks for focus group and in-depth interview participants (R3 040). Professional fees for conducting 4 focus groups R8 800).	R11 840-00
	TOTAL		R15 000-00

Date research proposal approved by FRC	06-11-2012
Budget amount approved by FRC	R15 000-00

The candidate has submitted a research proposal with relevant forms that fulfil the requirements of the Department and has completed a recognised course in research methodology.

The Faculty Research Committee has approved this proposal.

The supervisor and co-supervisor have signed the acceptance forms committing themselves to the supervisory tasks.

PLEASE SIGN THIS SECTION ONLY AFTER FRC APPROVAL:

HEAD OF DEPARTMENT

DATE

CHAIRPERSON OF
FACULTY RESEARCH COMMITTEE

DATE

Once the proposal has been approved by the FRC, the HOD is to send the signed originals of pp 1 and 2 (and 3, if this runs over) to the HDC for proposal ratification. Copies of pp 1 and 2/3 should be made and filed with the full proposal.

N.B.START SECTION B ON A NEW PAGE TO FACILITATE REMOVAL OF PP1 AND 2/3, TO BE SENT FOR RATIFICATION OF THE PROPOSAL BY THE HDC.

Section B: To be typed in Arial 10-point font in single line spacing (expand sections to fit contents, but keep within the specified maximum lengths.)
1. Field of Research and Provisional Title
<p>Provide the field of research and the provisional title of the research project, with a brief description, if the title is not self-explanatory.</p> <p>The field of research is marketing in specialised markets viz. sponsorships, and the provisional title is: Co-branding through soccer in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.</p>
2. Context of the Research
<p>This section provides the general information regarding the research that will be undertaken and should make it clear why the problem is worth addressing. It sketches the background and, where appropriate, should provide a brief theoretical framework within which the problem is to be addressed. (Maximum length: 250 words)</p> <p>Co-branding leverages two or more brand equities to the benefit of one product. According to Grewal & Levy (2008:287) co-branding enhances consumers' perceptions of product quality by signalling "unobservable" product quality through links between the firm's brand and a well-known quality brand. Etzel, Walker, & Stanton (2007:269) define co-branding as a situation whereby two separate companies or two divisions within the same company agree to place both of their respective brands on a particular product or enterprise. They also refer to co-branding as dual branding and further indicate that co-branding can provide added revenues for one or both of the participating firms.</p> <p>According to Schiffman, Kanuk & Wisenblit (2010:236), the basis of co-branding (double branding) in which two brand names are featured on a single product is to use another product's brand equity to enhance the primary brand's equity.</p> <p>The practice of co-branding has extended to sporting activities in the form of sponsorship of clubs and competitions. Co-branding, double branding, and dual branding are terms used interchangeably as meaning one thing.</p>
3. Research Problem and Aims
<p>This section should either set out the specific question(s) to which the student hopes to find an answer, or the research problems which are to be solved or state any hypotheses to be tested. In the case of open-ended topics in the Humanities, outline the subject/area/field to be critically investigated. It should indicate clearly what the research intends to achieve and the intended products of the research.</p> <p>Some professional sports clubs change sponsors within a short space of time whilst sponsors envisage a long term relationship aimed at realising expected specific benefits and outcomes (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2005:328-338). The rapid change of sponsors is likely to confuse club supporters as they are stakeholders as well. Through observation of local professional league games, there is evidence of poor performance</p>

amongst most athletes (players) in soccer which is an indication of either lack of professionalism or lack of understanding of what is at stake with regard to sponsorships and their direct performance. Maybe they are not aware that performance is the core value in the sponsorship agreement between Adidas and All Blacks. This is confirmed by the New Zealand Rugby Union's (NZRU) marketing manager, Jack Ralston, that All Blacks earned the right to own the brand value of "respect" because of their long history and impressive win rate (Motion, Leitch & Brodie, 2003:1087).

It is not certain whether all officials and players fully understand the co-branding implications in sponsorship agreements in South Africa. Two Mamelodi Sundowns players, for example, are reported to be resisting to go on camp with other players such that the team is considering getting rid of them (*Ilanga*, 2011:25). Sponsors' senior managers world-wide negotiate contracts with teams and thereafter delegate the management of such sponsorships to junior managers who did not form part of the negotiations. Further than that, South African fans tend to interfere with club management on the field of play by gestures, on many occasions putting pressure on the coach and his technical staff to substitute certain players during the game. This was evident in the game between AmaZulu and Kaizer Chiefs which was played in the week beginning 19 December 2011. Fans of Kaizer Chiefs voiced complaints about the coach because of the club's performance. This required that the team manager intervenes and calm them down (*Ilanga*, 2011:26).

Fans even threaten the life of a coach whose club is not performing according to their satisfaction to the extent of the police having to intervene to protect the coach from assault. This has been happening to some of the popular PSL teams in Gauteng. Other fans even throw missiles onto the soccer field. Because of such behaviour, some clubs end up paying hefty fines to the governing body. When that happens, the image of the team is tarnished which indirectly impacts upon the image of the sponsor. This kind of behaviour is not a characteristic of rugby and cricket matches in South Africa. That is why one of the core values underpinning the agreement between adidas and NZRU is behaviour of both players and fans (Motion et al, 2003:1087).

Deriving from this problem, it appears that fans of soccer in South Africa need to know and understand the limitations of their role in club affairs. It is also doubtful if players and soccer managers/administrators understand the objectives and rationale behind a brand owner's effort when investing funds in sponsoring a soccer club.

The objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To establish players' awareness levels of what the sponsors expect of players as participating stakeholders in terms of performance and behaviour
2. To determine whether the club officials understand and appreciate the interests of the sponsors other than publicity meant to promote the brand
3. To determine whether the club supporters are considered as stakeholders to the extent of action planning for their behaviour that might affect the co-branding contracts
4. To determine whether managers of sponsoring organisations do measure the attainment of sponsorship objectives

5. To develop a model that can be used by parties negotiating towards a sponsorship agreement as a guide to them as to how and when to recognise other stakeholders who shall be impacted upon by the agreement, with a view to forge a buy-in by the affected stakeholders.

The field of study is marketing in specialised markets. The specialised market in this regard is sponsorships. The research problem is perceived lack of appropriate behaviour and understanding by both players and fans with regard to the objectives of the sponsors. The purpose of the study, in a nutshell, is to discover if there is any congruence in the understanding between the teams and sponsors with regard to the purpose of sponsorships.

4. Literature Review

This section includes a brief review of the main, seminal literature sources (mainly scholarly journals, but text books, media articles, Internet and other sources can be used). Use the Harvard Method of referencing. Show clearly how the literature is linked to your topic, the problem statement and the research objectives. (Maximum length: 500 words)

4.1 Co-branding in sports

Co-branding is a marketing development based on the fact that a product has to be branded to assume an identity of its own amongst similar products. Consumers do not buy cola; they buy Pepsi-Cola or Coca-Cola. They do not buy chocolate disks; rather they ask for M&M's (Fullerton, 2010:503-504). It would be appropriate to explore what is happening in South Africa.

Since 1994, when South African sport took its rightful place in the international sporting stage after many years of isolation, and global sports brands re-entered our shores, sport sponsorship has grown at exponential rates. Sport is an inextricable part of the South African culture and fabric. The defeats and triumphs of national teams and athletes, local teams and preferred teams affect the national mood and self-perception. For example, during any 90 minutes of a Kaizer Chiefs versus Orlando Pirates or any other strongly supported team match, 80 minutes of a Springboks versus New Zealand game, consumers of sport focus on every bit of information related to the action on the field, the game and its sponsors.

(http://www.themarketingsite.com/live/content.php?Item_ID=199).

Major local telecommunications companies such as Vodacom and MTN, and beer giant, SAB, have led the way, investing millions into the most popular team sports: soccer and rugby, and athletes. According to BMI Sport Info., sport sponsorship has been growing at an estimated 22% annually and accounting for an excess of 20% of most sponsor companies' communication budgets, taking a prominent role in the marketing mix and share of the demand creation budget. For example, currently in a newspaper promotion, AmaZulu F.C. (AmaZulu) and Sun Coast Casino are running a competition whereby readers of EYETHU Intshonalanga (2011: 3) win weekly prizes comprising R2000 worth of AmaZulu sporting goods, R800 vouchers for spending at the Sun Coast Casino complex, and a discounted season ticket to watch all home games of AmaZulu to the value of R490. On the other hand, advertising investment grew by significantly less than 10 percent. Sponsorship of sport or other events is now an essential element in the marketing mix and a proven communication vehicle or medium to facilitate the relationship between the sponsor and the sport

consumer, who is either an active participant or spectator of the sponsored team (http://www.themarketingsite.com/live/content.php?Item_ID=199).

In the case of Ireland, James Wayne who is the Director of Sport at Slattery Communications comments that sponsorship spending in Ireland is hitting the region of £125 million despite the much-publicised economic meltdown. However, he goes on to say that the game has changed such that sports governing bodies are now under more pressure than ever to deliver a value proposition and need to take these new market conditions very seriously if they are to continue to reap the benefits of commercial investment in their games. Brands are no longer sponsors or benefactors, but partners. (http://www.themarketingsite.com/live/content.php?Item_ID=199)

Co-branding in sports marketing is meant to serve a number of marketing objectives for a corporation and its products, including increasing brand awareness, reinforcing or enhancing brand image, and improving sales or market share. Additional objectives for sport sponsorship are cross-promotional co-sponsorship opportunities, as well as enhancement of trade relations and goodwill (Dewhirst & Hunter, 2002:146). This approach to co-branding i.e. marketing through sport is characterized by a number of unique issues which make it slightly different from normal co-branding efforts.

A study by Lee, Harris & Lyberger (2011) on recreational golfers' attitudes and awareness of sponsorships point to the need for further segmentation of target markets to increase awareness of sponsorship, with relevance to sponsorship of the Ryder Cup. Maxwell & Lough (2009: 188-198) analysed the reliance of signage to generate spectator recognition of sponsors whereby it became evident that sponsorship is nearly synonymous with the use of signage in sport venues as part enhancing brand recognition.

Olson (2010: 180-199) designed a comprehensive mode of high-level sponsorship effects that works well in both sports and cultural sponsorship contexts, where after the findings confirmed that the importance of improving attitude towards the sponsorship and object equity. A case of tobacco sports sponsorship was conducted by Ling, Haber & Wedl (2010: 32-41) revealed that the ploy by Rodeo to use relationships with athletes and fans to fight proposed restrictions on tobacco sports sponsorship. Whatever the case is sport has become the focal point of the marketing mix.

4.2 Co-branding issues in sporting agreements.

Numerous studies have been conducted around sport sponsorship and a large number of issues needing attention by the corporate world and sports administrators have been explored by marketing, advertising and other social science researchers over the years.

A brief outline of these studies is given in the ensuing paragraphs of this section. The overview of issues identified are relationship with spectators (fans), the length of the relationship (agreement), understanding by parties' management and stakeholders (players and fans) of the implications of the agreement, measurement of sponsorship objectives, sponsorship congruence, affective intensity and identification of sponsor's brand, opinions of consumers/fans, involvement of senior management of parties, conflicts in co-

branding through sport, and lessons from a critical assessment of English Soccer, are all individually referenced hereunder.

Motion et al (2003: 1084-1085) examined the co-branding of the All Blacks and adidas from a discourse perspective in order to facilitate the understanding of co-branding and the development of co-branding theory. The study by Choi, Stotlar & Park (2006:71) explores the question whether consumers actually notice the multitude of logos that the sponsors bombard them with at the sporting events and whether on-site sponsor programmes indeed match the interests of the fans. Angelopulo & Overton (1986:21, 25-26) sought to develop factorial scales for the measurement of the communication objectives of sport sponsorships which were derived from all objectives for which sport sponsorships are known to have been used to attain. A similar study of the football clubs in the Netherlands by Henseler, Wilson & Westberg (2011:7) developed a formative measure of sponsorship, termed the Sport Sponsorship Index and links the measure with brand equity. Cornwell (2008:41) point out that sponsorship as a mainstay of marketing communications has developed arguably to be entrenched in a new evolving marketing mix.

According to Hermann, Wallisser & Kacha (2011:259), sponsorship also reduces the number of main competitor brands in the spectators' consideration set. In another related study by Dees, Bennet & Villegas (2008:79) it was revealed that goodwill had the most impact on consumers' intentions to support the corporate sponsors via purchasing behaviours. A study of the sponsorship situation in South Africa by van Heerden & du Plessis (2004:427-439) discusses the setting of sponsorship objective, the integration of marketing communication variables into sponsorship to create a leverage effect and the measurement of sponsorship success.

Three other studies focussed on sponsorship congruence. Dees, Bennett & Ferreira (2010:25) found that fan identification and product involvement had significant direct effects on NASCAR driver-sponsor congruence. Coppetti, Wentzel, Tomczak & Henkel (2009:17) found that an incongruent sponsorship can be salvaged by articulation and audience participation which leads to improved sponsorship evaluations, more favourable brand attitudes and an increased image transfer from the event to the sponsoring brand. The fit between a sponsor and object (i.e. sponsored organization, cause, event, or individual) has been shown to be an important construct in predicting sponsorship effects (Olson & Thjomoe, 2011:57-70).

Affective intensity and sponsor identification was found by Wakefield & Bennett (2010:99) to be indicating that consumers are more likely to correctly identify prominent and related sponsors. A study of degenerative episodes in sport by Westberg, Stavros & Wilson (2011:603) revealed that negative incidents involving athletes representing the sport entity may threaten the brands of both the sport and sponsor and can weaken or even dissolve the partnership.

The opinions of consumers have also been explored e.g. the opinions of consumers toward the appropriateness of food and non-alcoholic beverage sponsorships of sporting events in relation to other products whereby it was revealed that attitudes toward food and non-alcoholic beverage sponsorships were more favourable than alcohol (Danyichuk & MacIntosh, 2009:69). In a case study of Mountain Dew and Action Sport Sponsorship by Bennett, Ferreira, Lee & Polite (2009:14-15) it was revealed that spectatorship, participation, and videogaming, actually predict drinking Mountain Dew soda among the people attending an action sporting event. Consumer awareness of sponsorship at a grassroots and niche sport event through an examination of recall and recognition rates and purchase intentions was assessed by Miloch & Lamprecht (2006:147-154).

In a study based on rugby management (Herbst & Schreuder, 1999) it was found that in order to ensure marketing effectiveness, the quality of the relationship with spectators is a crucial success factor, influenced by the length of the relationship, value for money and the propensity to leave.

With regard to senior management involvement in a sponsorship agreement, Nicolau (2011:281) established in a study about the impact of Real Madrid goals to the president's company goals that the personal involvement of a firm's figurehead in a first-class sports club can impact positively on the firm's value if the person is doing well in the task entrusted to that person.

There are conflicts in co-branding through sport. One conflict may arise when one athlete (player) in a sponsored team has an additional individual clothing sponsor wanting that athlete to show its logo when he plays for the team which he is a member of. It is even worse if the team sponsor is a

competitor of the individual athlete's sponsor. This is acute in football. Blackshaw (2006) reveals a solution practiced in Europe to deal with this conflict whereby clause 4 of the new players' standard contract has strict provisions that restricts the exploitation of a player's celebrity status when it comes to using the player's image in his club kit. Such restrictions are legally binding on the player in what is referred to as "Club Context". Clause 4.5 provides guidelines for players as to how to go about dealing with sponsors approaching them for individual promotional activities of their brands.

Chadwick & Thwaites (2005:328-338) established widespread concerns with regard to management practices in the wake of the development of management practices in English soccer. It has been established that sponsors tend to adopt a conventional view of sponsorship – as a marketing communications tactic – rather than a relationship building, resource acquiring/developing, or networking. It also appears that warnings already sounded to the soccer fraternity regarding evidence of failure to manage sponsorship are going unheeded.

4.3 Critical success factors for sport sponsorship

The literature accessed in this regard has, among other things, revealed factors that appear to be critical in enabling co-branding in sport viable and goal achieving. Unfortunately, in South Africa, because of the relative infancy of the industry compared to the United States of America and Europe, many corporations have jumped blindly into the sport sponsorship business with good intentions but no well-thought out strategies, if any at all. The most commonly ignored factors resulting in sponsor's money going down the drain are as follows:

- Clear Strategic Objectives
- Sport's Relevance to Consumer.
- Credible Product or Service
- Sponsorship Leverage
- Long-term Focused Strategy
- Sponsorship Rights and Obligations

(http://www.themarketingsite.com/live/content.php?Item_ID=199).

5. Research Methodology

In this section the student is advised to state the research paradigm; qualitative/quantitative or both. The research approach/strategy will also need to be stated.

e.g. Qualitative: Action research, developmental research, case study research, ethnographic research, grounded theory research, etc.

Quantitative: Mathematical, modelling and simulation, experimenting, testing, etc.

(Maximum length: 200 words)

The research approach will be a qualitative, cross-sectional and descriptive study aimed to explore and investigate the dynamics that impact upon co-branding through soccer in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN).

5.1 Population of interest

The target population are soccer fans of all Professional Soccer League (PSL) teams with a following in the province, soccer players 3 PSL teams in the province, soccer team managers of the 3 PSL teams in the province, and sponsors of the 3 teams. The number of adult soccer spectators nationwide as estimated by BMi, the body that tracks sports for in South Africa, is approximately 13 million. The KZN portion of that estimate is 2 927 000 soccer spectators (2011 BMi Adult SportTrack). The number of soccer fans that

normally fill the Moses Mabhida Stadium in big matches is 55 000 (<http://www.google.co.za/>). This number includes fans belonging to teams like Kaizer Chiefs, Mamelodi Sundowns, and Orlando Pirates, just to mention the ones with large followings. The three Professional Soccer League (PSL) teams in KZN have a combined total of 104 registered players, 28 club officials, and 14 sponsors/partners (<http://www.psl.co.za/>). With each soccer club I will be targeting the main sponsor e.g. Spar in the case of AmaZulu F.C. or the alternative sponsor as permitted by club management.

5.2 Sampling

Selection of participants will be purposive and judgmental with regard to team officials and managers, sponsor representatives, and soccer players. The reason for applying purposive sampling to the selection of players is that players who have a good command of English and are not rookies in professional soccer are known by club officials hence probability sampling would not be suitable. The participants who are fans will be selected through snowball (multiplicity) sampling in order to make sure that all KZN teams and the major teams outside the province are also represented in each focus group. With this method of sampling, the sample members are initially chosen judgmentally and subsequently asked to identify others with the desired characteristics (Tustin, D.H., Ligthelm, A.A., Martins, J.H. & de J van Wyk, H., 2005:349). The criterion to be used when judging who will be suitable is the knowledge of the researcher about individuals who like professional soccer and which teams do they support among the three KZN PSL teams. Those individuals will then assist in identifying others they know who support the other teams popular to soccer lovers as stated under population of interest. This sampling method will assist to make sure that a diversified soccer support base is achieved whereby all big and famous teams as well as well-supported will be represented in focus groups.

5.3 Data Collection

A covering letter explaining the purpose of the study and the necessity of the interviews will be sent to each club and each sponsor, seeking permission to interview employees and players. A letter of informed consent will be signed by each focus group and in-depth interview participant before the beginning of each data collection session. The players to be interviewed will be notified with the assistance of the club official who normally works closely with them, to organise their interviews.

The identified officials of clubs or sponsors, and players will be informed of their right not to answer questions they are not comfortable with or to divulge information they are not supposed to divulge. To avoid a possibility of bias, the players will be interviewed before club officials and sponsor officials.

The data collection methods will be focus groups of soccer fans and in-depth interviews of club officials, sponsor representatives, and players. Three (3) long serving players from each of the three KZN teams will be interviewed in-depth to discover their understanding of their role in sponsorship/co-branding agreements. Permission to interview players will be obtained from the responsible club officials of each

team as per appendices attached hereto. Players will be interviewed at a location of their convenience (preferable to them) in Durban and Pietermaritzburg. Three (3) key club officials from each of the three KZN teams will be interviewed in-depth to discover their understanding and the manner in which they involve or inform other important stakeholders. This will be done at the offices chosen by them.

The club officials of KZN clubs will be interviewed in-depth on the basis of their relevant positions, e.g. Public Relations Officer (PRO), Supporters' Manager, Marketing Manager, etc. depending on the management structure of each club or sponsor. Four focus group discussions consisting of 12 participants each will be conducted. Focus group participants are members of the general public and as such seeking permission for their participation will be done on individual basis. The focus groups will be conducted at venues that will be easily accessible to the participants identified through multiplicity sampling and will be recorded using a voice recording device equipped with a memory card. In-depth interviews will also be recorded in the same manner with permission of the participants. In-depth interview schedules and focus group agenda are attached hereto as appendices.

In summary, there will be 4 (four) focus group discussions, 18 (eighteen) in-depth interviews of both players and officials. In addition to the 18 in-depth interviews as already explained, a further 3 (three) in-depth interviews of main sponsor representatives will be conducted as permitted by club officials. There will be 2 (two) focus groups in Durban, 1 (one) at Empangeni/Richardsbay area or nearby venue, and 1 (one) in Pietermaritzburg. AmaZulu FC and other bigger teams have fans in Empangeni/Richardsbay area and all over the province whereas Maritzburg United and Lamontville Golden Arrows (LGA) have followers concentrated in Pietermaritzburg and Durban respectively, hence focus groups in those areas as well. Two (2) focus group discussions will be conducted at two different venues in Durban because of AmaZulu FC and Lamontville Golden Arrows FC.

The following table depicts the plan of the focus group discussions:

Area	PSL club support	No. of focus groups
Pietermaritzburg	Maritzburg United; AmaZulu: Kaizer Chiefs; Orlando Pirates; Mamelodi Sundowns, etc.	1
Durban (North)	AmaZulu; LGA; Kaizer Chiefs; Orlando Pirates; Mamelodi Sundowns; etc.	1
Durban (South)	AmaZulu; LGA; Kaizer Chiefs; Orlando Pirates; Mamelodi Sundowns; etc.	1
Empangeni/Richardsbay	AmaZulu; LGA; Kaizer Chiefs; Orlando Pirates; Mamelodi Sundowns; etc.	1

The list of themes (*not part of the table*) to be discovered in in-depth interview schedules are:

- Knowledge of club sponsors
- Understanding of sponsors; interests
- Internalization of sponsor's interests

- Recognition of players in sponsorship agreements
- Recognition of fans in sponsorship agreements
- Level of management seniority involvement in sponsorship agreements
- Measurement of sponsorship objectives during agreement duration
- The importance of the length of sponsorship relationship/agreement
- Sponsorship congruence
- Player behaviour in relation to sponsorship agreement
- Sponsorship and marketing mix
- Affective intensity and sponsor identification
- Conflicts in sports co-branding

The list of themes to be discovered through the focus group agenda are:

- Fan exposure to club information
- Sponsorship objective awareness
- Knowledge of club sponsors
- Understanding of sponsor's interests
- Internalization of sponsor's interests
- The importance of the length of sponsorship relationship/agreement
- Sponsorship congruence
- Affective intensity and sponsor identification
- Understanding of no interference with club management
- Implications of bad behaviour to club image

5.4 Credibility and Trustworthiness

According to Guba's Model of Trustworthiness (Krefting, 1991: 215-217), credibility and trustworthiness are achieved through four aspects which are truth value, applicability, consistency, and neutrality. The truth value is obtained from the discovery of human experiences as they are lived and perceived by informants. Applicability refers to the degree to which the findings can be applied to other contexts, and settings or other groups; it is the ability to generalize from the findings. Consistency refers to whether the findings would be consistent if the inquiry were replicated with the same subjects or in a similar context. Neutrality means the freedom from bias in the research procedures and results. When summarizing Guba's model, the author suggests that an important credibility strategy is to spend an extended period of time with informants. In another view of these concepts (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004: 109-110) is that credibility deals with the focus of the research and refers to confidence in how well data and processes of analysis address the intended focus whilst trustworthiness includes the question of transferability, which refers to the extent to which the findings can be transferred to other settings or groups.

The manner in which data will be collected in this study complies with the concepts of credibility and trustworthiness. This is borne by the fact that data will be collected using in-depth interviews which are characterized by spending an extended period with the informants. Furthermore, confidence exists that the responses will be based on discovery of human experiences as they are lived and perceived by the informants i.e. accounts of what they exactly know. The results of the findings will be easily applicable (transferable) to other clubs, players and fans since they share the same characteristics although not based in one province. The manner in which data will be collected does facilitate analysis of qualitative data as outlined hereunder.

5.5 Qualitative Data Analysis

Data analysis in qualitative research is defined as the process of systematically searching and arranging the interview transcripts, observation notes, or other non-textual materials that the researcher accumulates to increase the understanding of the phenomenon. The process of analysing qualitative data predominantly involves coding or categorising the data. Basically, it involves making sense of huge volumes of data by reducing the volume of raw information, followed by identifying significant patterns, and finally drawing meaning from data and subsequently building a logical chain of evidence (Wong, 2008: 14).

Aronson (1994: 1) provides a pragmatic view of thematic analysis wherein four steps are outlined. The first step involves transcribing conversations from audiotapes and listing patterns of experiences. Listing patterns can come from direct quotes or paraphrasing common ideas. The second step is characterised by identifying all data that relate to the already classified patterns. In the third step of thematic analysis, related patterns are combined and catalogued into sub-themes. According to Taylor & Bogdan, cited in Aronson (1994), themes are defined as units derived from patterns such as conversation topics, vocabulary, recurring activities, meanings, feelings, or folk sayings and proverbs. Themes that emerge from the informants' stories are pieced together to form a comprehensive picture of their collective experience. When gathering sub-themes to obtain a comprehensive view of the information, it is easy to see a pattern emerging. The last step following this activity is to build a valid argument for choosing the themes. Once the themes have been collected and the literature has been studied, the researcher is ready to formulate theme statements to develop a story line. These steps are similar to the stages identified by Lacy & Luff (2001: 12-28). These authors point out that any qualitative analysis is a very time consuming and demanding process such that non-verbal cues like silence, laughter and gestures are taken into consideration in the process as meaning something.

Deriving from literature review, there are 13 (thirteen) themes to be discovered and matched with the ones identified in literature review through in-debt interviews and 10 (themes) to be discovered and matched through focus groups with regard to soccer fans, players and managers. Some themes overlap between these two data collection methods. All the cited authors share the view that traditionally researchers cut and paste, and use coloured pens to categorise data. This is not much of a cumbersome manual exercise if data collected is not in very large volumes. If the volumes are huge, then the use of computer assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) becomes necessary. The developed software for this purpose is Nvivo. Wong (2008) points out though that the computer does not do the analysis for the researchers. Users still have to create the categories, code, decide what to collate, identify the patterns and draw meaning from the data. The programme merely takes over the marking, cutting, and sorting tasks that qualitative researchers used to do with a pair of scissors, paper and note cards.

Without pre-empting the volume of data to be collected, data will be analysed using the traditional manual thematic method. If the volumes are large, a programme like Nvivo will be used to assist the process.

6. Plan of Research Activities

Provide a summarised work plan for each year of the project giving information for each research activity per year, under the following headings:

Activity

Timeframes (target dates for the duration of the project)

DATES

ACTION

May 2012	Literature review
November 2012	Submit research proposal for approval
January 2013	Begin data collection (focus groups)
February 2013	Begin data collection (in-depth interviews)
February 2013	Complete data collection (focus groups)
March 2013	Complete data collection (in-depth interviews)
April 2013	Analyze focus group data
April 2013	Analyze in-depth interview data
May 2013	Interpret focus group and in-depth interview data
June 2013	Present summary of findings to promoters for comment
July 2013	Submission to promoters for final overall check
August 2013	Copy and bind report
August 2013	Submit report to Faculty for examination
September 2013	Final submission to examiner
September 2013	Corrections submitted to promoter for approval

7. Structure of Dissertation / Thesis Chapters

Briefly state the proposed content of each chapter in one clear sentence per chapter.

The thesis will be structured as follows:

Chapter 1 - Introduction of the study

The reader shall be introduced to what the study was all about.

Chapter 2 - Literature review of co-branding in general

The concept of co-branding in marketing shall be explained.

Chapter 3 - Literature review of co-branding in soccer

Review of what is currently happening in sponsorship agreements.

Chapter 4 - Discussion of critical success factors based on literature review

Chapter 5 - Research Methodology

Outline of how the study was approached to collect data.

Chapter 6 - Analysis of Data and Findings

Presentation of how data was analysed and findings deriving from the Process.

Chapter 7 - Discussion of Findings in relation to Literature Review

A full discussion of the findings in relation to the literature review and the purpose for which the study was conducted.

Chapter 8 - Conclusions, Model, and Recommendations

Concluding remarks, presentation of the model developed as a proposed solution to the problem identified before the study was conducted.

8. Potential Outputs

-
- Provide details on envisaged measurable outputs (e.g. publications, patents, students, etc.);
- Expected national and/or international acclaim for the research and contribution of research outputs to building the knowledge base;

- Exploitability of outputs, e.g. applicability to community development, improved products, processes, services in SA, region and/or continent;
- Expected effects of research results.

The envisaged outputs from this research proposal are:

- Presentation at conferences
- Journal articles

It is expected that the soccer fraternity in south Africa will be interested in the results and recommendations of the study with a view to be more professional in their approach to sports administration. It is also anticipated that the study will provoke further research in this regard.