Developing and validating a brand personality trait scale for South African professional sport teams

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Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree *Doctor of Philosophy in Marketing Management* at the North-West University

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Graduation: July 2019

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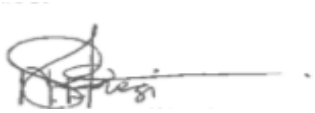
DECLARATION

I, Nkosinamandla Erasmus Shezi, declare that:

“Developing and validating a brand personality trait scale for South African professional sport teams”

is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references and that this dissertation has not previously been submitted by me at any other university.



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LETTER FROM THE LANGUAGE EDITOR

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To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that I, the undersigned, have language edited the completed research of Nkosinamandla Erasmus Shezi for the *Doctor of Philosophy in Marketing Management at the North-West University in* Marketing Management entitled: Developing and validating a brand personality trait scale for South African professional sport teams.

No changes were permanently affected and were left to the discretion of the author. The responsibility of implementing the recommended language changes rests with the author of the thesis.

Yours truly

Jomoné Müller

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my late twin brother Nkosikhona Excellent Shezi.

May your soul rest in peace.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

"Difficult roads often lead to beautiful destination"

-ANON

To Almighty God for gift of life and his love.

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: Branding, personality, brand personality, brand personality trait scales, sport team brand personality, marketing, sport marketing

The concept of sport marketing has been present for ages. This is an alternative tool available for general marketers and sport marketers. The concept of sport marketing has been applied by many companies to promote and expose their brands to the targeted consumers. This can be proved by the increase in media coverage of televised sporting events. Likewise, sport media coverage is trending worldwide and makes the task of marketers easy as their brands are introduced to the international markets. Therefore, sport marketing plays a vital role as a link between consumers and marketers.

Brand personality has been present in marketing literature for many years. Recently, brand personality has been applied in sport brands and attracted the interest of researchers. Sport team activities influence consumer perceptions about the sport team brand. Consumer perceptions are useful to develop marketing strategies in order to set aside a sport team from competitors. Several different scales have been developed to measure such consumer perceptions.

There is dearth of published research regarding consumers' perceptions of brand personality in the South African market (Müller, 2014:532) but currently no published research to report on the measurement of the brand personality of sport teams in South Africa. There are only a few authors who have developed brand personality traits scales for sport teams globally (Tsiotsou, 2012:246; Braustain and Ross, 2010:11; Kang, 2013:13; Kang *et al*., 2016:6). As a result, the gap in the literature suggests that more research is required on the brand personality of sport teams. Brand personality has always been an important topic for academic research and empirical practice (Bei *et al.*, 2012:131). Marketers applied the concept of brand personality for the purpose of improving the effectiveness of a brand. Since the importance of brand personality, the concept has been well-acknowledged and several efforts to elaborate on the concept has been made (Li *et al*., 2014:324).

The primary objective of this study was to develop and validate a sport-team-brand-personality-trait scale (STBP-trait scale) for South African professional sport teams. Six steps of quantitative and qualitative methods were followed during the scale development. Step 1 was traits identification by means of a focus group. Similarly, Step 2 was traits identification by reviewing literature and website analysis. These traits were reduced into a more manageable number by a subject expert panel(s) in Step 3. Following was the development of STBP-traits scale using the remaining traits in (Step 4). Thereafter, the developed STBP-trait scale was tested for validity in

Step 5 and produced results indicating that the scale was valid. The scale had a four factor structure namely: Trustworthiness, Competitiveness, Friendliness and Trendiness. The developed STBP-trait scale may assist sport teams to select brand personality traits to be implemented in their marketing activities and positioning strategies. The results will be used for rebranding sport teams and differentiate these teams from their competitors.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

"Education is the passport to the future, for tomorrow belongs to those who prepare for it today."

Malcolm X

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Brand personality is a popular metaphor used by marketers in order to investigate consumers' brand perceptions through the description of brands as human beings (Huang *et al.,* 2012:334). According to Sung (2011:31) consumers often think of brands as human beings that have human characteristics and personalities. Likewise, brand personality state what kind of the person the brand is to the consumer (Aaker & Biel, 2009:85). For example, a brand like BMW is perceived by consumers as more sophisticated, upper-class and charming, while brands like Jeep and Hummer are perceived as more rugged, outdoorsy and tough (Carlson *et al*., 2009:373). Such characteristics are used by the company to form impressions and preference for a particular brand (Li *et al*., 2014:324). Lin (2010:5) emphasises that consumers select brands that are in compliance with their personality. Therefore, the concept of brand personality seems to be extremely important to a product that reflects human characteristics similar to consumers (Freling & Forbes, 2005:154). Consumers prefer brands that project a personality that is consistent with their self-concept and when consumers choose similar brands they are actually expressing their personal identities and projecting their unique personalities (Arora & Stoner, 2009:273). Brand personality may be explained as the result of associating human characteristics with inanimate objects such as a brand (Glynn & Widjaja, 2015:364).

Aaker (1997:347) formally defined brand personality as a set of human characteristics assigned to a brand. This definition by Aaker (1997:347) received some critique. Authors such as Azoulay and Kapferer (2003:151) argue that a stricter definition is needed and defined brand personality as the set of human personality traits that are both applicable to and relevant for brands. Furthermore, Louis and Lombart (2010:115) define brand personality as all personality traits used to characterise a person and which are associated with a brand. However, Aaker's definition of brand personality is the most commonly used definition and has been accepted by various different authors (Kuma & Nayak, 2014:4; Eisend & Stockburger, 2013:205;Tsiotsou, 2012:238; Valette -Florence *et al*., 2011:24-25; Wang & Yang, 2008:460). Consequently, this study applied the brand personality definition of Azoulay and Kapferer (2003:151).

Brand personality is beneficial to companies and can assist with marketing strategies. Ang and Lin (2006:39) indicated that it is challenging to copy the personality of a brand, thereafter it gives more sustainable and strong competitive advantage for a company. Brand personality is used by consumers to express their self-image and provides emotional fulfilment, image enhancement to consumers (Keller & Richey, 2006:76; Farhat & Khan, 2011:5). Therefore, brand personality is beneficial for both the company and consumers (Sung & Kim, 2010:641). Brand personality assists companies to understand and manage their brands better and to distinguish their brand from competitors (Sweeney & Brandon 2006:640). Furthermore, brand personality is used to improve marketing effectiveness (Sung & Kim, 2010:641). According to Freling and Forbes (2005:409) brand personality leads to more brand associations that are favourable and exclusive in order to advance the brand equity of the brand. Similarly, brand personality allows marketers to create a unique and meaningful image in consumer's mind (Leonard & Katsanis, 2013:584). Maciel *et al.* (2013:141-142) highlighted that brand personality is a crucial element to build consumer preferences and linking consumers' aspirations to a specific brand. In the same way, brand personality may have a significant influence on consumers' thoughts and their behaviour (Kim & Monica, 2014:2). Sung and Tinkham (2005:336) stated that brand personality can be effective in terms of creating and building a bond with consumers. According to Li *et al*. (2014:330), a distinguishable brand personality will be very helpful to attract new consumers and building consumer loyalty. Thereafter, consumers develop a favourable image of the organisation as a brand *(*Liu *et al.*, 2015:321).

According to Kunkel *et al*. (2009:2), a professional sport team can be regarded as a brand. Furthermore, sport team brands also exhibit specific brand personality traits (Tsiotsou, 2012:242). Braunstein and Ross (2012:13) emphasised that sport teams can use brand personality as a tool of differentiation and position the sport team brand against competing teams. A unique brand personality of a team can also attract lucrative sponsorship deals (Braustain & Ross, 2012:13). Smith (2004:469) highlighted that the brand personality of a team is important for sponsors due to the brand image transfer of a sponsorship. Likewise, Tsiotsou (2012:242) emphasised that companies want to sponsor a team with a brand personality similar to theirs. In addition, brand personality improves the brand value and status of the team (Carlson & Donavan, 2013:196). According to Carlson (2009:381), a distinctive brand personality of a team could increase team identification among fans. A team with a higher level of team identification will generate more profit from ticket sales and other related team merchandise. In South Africa team managers and sport marketers need to know the brand personality of their sport teams. Therefore, a relevant and valid scale for sport teams is

required in order to assist team managers to understand the brand personality of their teams better.

Aaker (1997:354) was the first author to develop a scale to be used to measure brand personality. Geuens *et al.* (2009:97) highlight that some researchers using Aaker's scale, experience validity problems. Furthermore, some authors argue that Aaker's scale is not applicable for all product categories (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003:144; Murphy *et al*., 2007:13). This argument suggests that Aaker's scale cannot be accepted globally across product/service categories. As such, researchers started to develop product category specific trait scales (Rauschnabel *et al.*, 2016:7; Sung *et al.,* 2014:122 Geuens *et al*., 2009:103; Bosnjack *et al*., 2007:310; Aaker, 1997:354). Likewise, the personality of sport team brands attracted the interest of researchers' (Braunstein & Ross: 2010:9; Tsiotsou, 2012:246; Kang, 2013:74; Kim *et al.,* 2012;71; Schade *et al*., 2014:659) who developed scales to measure brand personality of sport team brands.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

There is a dearth of published research regarding consumers' perceptions of brand personality in the South African market (Müller, 2014:532). There is currently no published research to measure brand personality of sport teams in South Africa. There are only a few authors who have developed brand personality traits scales for sport teams globally (Tsiotsou, 2012:246; Braustain and Ross, 2010:11; Kang, 2013:13; Kang *et al*., 2016:6). As a result, the gap in the literature suggests that more research is required in the brand personality for sport teams. Brand personality has always been an important topic for academic research and empirical practice (Bei *et al.*, 2012:131). Marketers applied the concept of brand personality for the purpose of improving the effectiveness of a brand. Since the importance of brand personality, the concept has been well-acknowledged and several efforts to measure the concept has been made (Li *et al*., 2014:324).

In order to successfully develop a professional sport team-brand-personality-trait scale, the study analysed the formulated scales of brand personality traits from the literature (Rauschnabel *et al.*, 2016:7; Schade *et al*., 2014:659; Sung *et al.,* 2014:122; Kang, 2013:74; Kim *et al.,* 2012;71; Tsiotsou, 2012:246; Braustein & Ross: 2010:9; Geuens *et al*., 2009:103; Bosnjack *et al*., 2007:310; Aaker, 1997:354). These studies assisted in the development and validation of a brand personality trait scale for professional South African sport teams. This scale will help general marketers as well as sport marketers to better understand how consumers perceive sport team brands and will guide them to reposition the brand or build on current perceptions of the brand.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following objectives formulated for the proposed study:

1.3.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of the study was to develop and validate a brand personality trait scale for South African professional sport teams. The scale can be used to assess consumer perceptions regarding brand personality traits of sport teams within the Republic of South Africa.

1.3.2 Theoretical objectives

In order to successfully achieve the primary objectives, the following theoretical objectives were formulated for the study:

- Defining marketing and sport marketing.
- Provide a review of the literature concerning brand equity.
- Provide a review of the literature concerning brand equity of sport teams.
- Defining brand personality according to the literature.
- Conduct a literature review regarding brand personality.
- Conduct a literature review based on the brand personality of sport team brands.
- Examine and analyse the development of various brand personality trait scales.

1.3.3 Empirical objectives

In accordance with the different steps that were taken to achieve the primary objectives of the study, then the following empirical objectives were formulated:

Step 1: Identify sport team brand personality traits by means of a focus group.

Step 2: Reviewing the literature of brand personality and analyse websites (www) of sport teams to identify additional brand personality traits that are relevant to the sport teams.

Step 3: Reduce the list of traits identified in Step 1 and Step 2 by means of a focus group consisting of subject experts and a pre-test of participants excluded from the sample frame of the main survey.

Step 4: Develop the brand personality trait scale for South African professional sport teams.

Step 5: Test and validate the South African professional sport team-brand-personality-trait scale.

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

The overall study comprised a literature review and an empirical study.

1.4.1 Literature review

The secondary research included local and international journals that served to support the empirical research. Secondary sources used in the study included the internet, textbooks, academic journals and online academic databases.

1.4.2 Empirical study

The empirical part of the study comprised both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. The qualitative study followed the indirect projective technique research procedure, while the quantitative study followed the descriptive research design.

1.4.3 Sampling methodology

The target population of the proposed study included both females and males who are South African citizens. Generally, the study aimed to develop and validate a sport team-brand-personality-trait scale using student samples from higher education institutions (HEIs). This study was in line with the study of Braunstein and Ross (2010:11). Therefore, the same procedure was followed.

The non-probability convenience samples were taken from a sampling frame of students registered at two South African HEIs campuses located in Gauteng. Participants in one study were excluded from participation in the subsequent studies.

The sample size for each step was as follows:

Step 1: This step used two focus groups and had a total of 12 participants who were asked to identify brand personality traits relevant to sport teams' brand.

Step 2: This step did not make use of any participants.

Step 3: A panel comprising six subject specialists were asked to evaluate all traits generated from Step 1 and Step 2 and to downscale the list to a more manageable number. The reduced

list was presented to 30 student participants from the sampling frame as part of a pre-test to reduce the list of traits further to a more manageable number.

Step 4: Main survey participants evaluated any professional sport team. The guide for selecting an appropriate sample size for factor analysis is to multiply the number of variables by at least four or five (Malhotra, 2010:639). The sample size for this step was determined by means of this principle by using the number of traits identified in the previous steps (steps 1 and Step 2) and multiplying it by five. The study used 477 participants.

Step 5: The sport team brand personality instrument was validated using the top two sport team brands for soccer and rugby within the South African context using a sample of 293 student participants.

1.4.4 Measuring instrument, data collection method and data capture method

The measuring instrument, data collection method and data capture method for each step is as follows:

Step 1: In this step data were collected from respondents by means of focus groups facilitated by a qualified facilitator. Participants were asked to identify sport teams from three sporting categories (soccer, rugby and cricket). Thereafter, the focus group participants' were asked to identify brand personality traits relevant to the identified sport teams. A total of 204 traits were identified.

Step 2: Additional traits were generated by means of reviewing the literature (existing scales) and analysing websites (www) of sport teams. Consequently, 124 traits were obtained from the literature review and 68 from the website analysis. These traits were added to the list of traits obtained during Step 1 resulting in a total of 396 traits.

Step 3: The generated traits were reduced by an expert panel comprising subject specialists who were asked to evaluate all the traits generated during Step 1 and Step 2. The list of traits had to be reduced to a more manageable number by removing the traits that were irrelevant, redundant and ambiguous. Consequently, 291 traits were removed resulting in 105 remaining traits. Thereafter, the reduced list was presented to 38 participants from the sampling frame as part of a pre-test to reduce the list of traits further to a more manageable number. Traits were presented to participants in a questionnaire where they had to indicate how descriptive each trait was of South African sport teams in general making use of a 7-point Likert-type scale. All traits with a mean score below 4.5 were discarded. Consequently, 54 traits remained.

Step 4: In the main survey of the study, participants were asked to name their favourite South African professional sport team brand and then to assess the descriptiveness of each trait for the identified sport team brand. The results were used to do consecutive loops of exploratory factor analysis followed by a confirmatory factor analysis to develop the sport-team-brand-personality-trait scale (STBP-trait scale).

Step 5: The developed STBP-trait scale was used to assess the brand personality of the top two sport team brands of soccer and rugby to confirm the validity of the scale by means of a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

1.4.5 Data analysis

The data captured in the qualitative and quantitative studies were analysed as follows:

1.4.5.1 Qualitative data analysis

The study utilised a focus group to identify sport team brands as well as associated traits, which was recorded using the pen and paper method. Furthermore, a focus group was also utilised as well to gather information from subject specialists in order to reduce the initial list of brand personality traits. Therefore, the information was recorded using the pen and paper method.

1.4.5.2 Quantitative data analysis

The data that were captured from the quantitative studies were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and analysis of moment structures (AMOS), Version 22.0 for Windows. The following statistical methods were used on the empirical data sets:

- Frequencies
- Descriptive analysis
- Exploratory factor analysis
- Confirmatory factor analysis
- Reliability and validity analysis
- Structural equation modelling

1.5 ETHICAL STATEMENT

The research project followed ethical standards of academic research, which, among other things, protect the identities and interests of the participants and the confidentiality of

information provided by participants are guaranteed (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:294). All responses were analysed in an aggregative format. Participation in this study was voluntary no one was forced to participate. Furthermore, the proposal of the research questionnaire was approved by North-West University ethics committee to ensure the quality and ethics requirements' are met. This study successfully passed the committee's research standards and received the following ethical clearance number: **ECONIT-2017-049**. Furthermore, approval (**NWU-GK-2017-027**) was also granted by the NWU Research Data Gatekeeper Committee (RDGC).

1.6 IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

Marketers are always in a search for better strategies in order to differentiate their brands from their major competitors'. Developing personality traits for brands will enable a marketer to overcome challenges regarding branding strategies and increase marketing effectiveness'. As such, the success of developing brand personality will increase brand loyalty and brand equity among consumers. In sport marketing, marketers' employed many marketing strategies, but the use of brand personality has been fairly limited. Therefore, brand personality attracted the interest of researchers and guide managers in marketing strategies (Tsiotsou, 2012:243).

According to Kunkel *et al*. (2009:2), a professional sport team can be viewed as a brand. Moreover, sport team brands also display specific brand personality traits (Tsiotsou, 2012:242). A unique brand personality of a team can also attract lucrative sponsorship deals (Braustain & Ross, 2012:13). Smith (2004:469) highlights that the brand personality of a team is important for sponsors due to the brand image transfer over sponsorship. Tsiotsou (2012:242) emphasises that companies want to sponsor a sport team with a brand personality similar to theirs (Tsiotsou, 2012:242).

According to Carlson (2009:381), a distinctive brand personality of a team could increase team identification among fans. A team with a higher level of team identification will generate more profit from ticket sales and other related team merchandise. South African team managers and sport marketers need to know how their team is perceived by fans. In order to cover this need, a relevant and valid scale for sport teams is required in order to assist team managers to understand the brand personality of their teams better. Therefore, this study aimed to develop and validate a STBP-traits scale for South African professional sport teams.

Limitations of this study are discussed in Chapter 6.

1.7 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter included an introduction and background to the research study. Furthermore, this section discussed the problem statement of the research and the importance of the research study.

Chapter 2: Marketing, sport marketing and branding

This chapter began with definitions of marketing and sport marketing. The literature of marketing and sport marketing is reviewed. Furthermore, the link between marketing and sport marketing including sport marketing mix is discussed. The last section of this chapter provides a literature review on branding, branding in sport and brand equity.

Chapter 3: Discovering the existence of brand personality

This chapter introduced and defined the concept of personality and brand personality. Thereafter, the theory of literature concerning brand personality is reviewed and the use of brand personality in sport is investigated. In addition, literature regarding the development of brand personality trait scales is explored. The models of brand personality and its applications in marketing developed by various authors (Rauschnabel *et al.*, 2016:7; Schade *et al*., 2014:659; Sung *et al.,* 2014:122; Kang, 2013:74; Kim *et al.,* 2012;71;Tsiotsou, 2012:246; Braustein & Ross: 2010:9; Geuens *et al*., 2009:103; Bosnjack *et al*., 2007:310; Aaker, 1997:354) are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 4: Research methodology

This chapter presents the research methodology of the previous five steps that were conducted. Furthermore, this chapter discussed the marketing research process, defined the sampling procedure and described the data collection process. This is followed by a discussion of data analysis and statistical procedures used in the proposed study.

Chapter 5: Data analysis and interpretation

This chapter reported on the analysis, interpretation and evaluation of the research project findings.

Chapter 6: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

This is a final chapter of the study, which summarised all the findings of the research project and provide conclusions drawn from the study as well as recommendations. The limitations of the study are discussed. Finally, recommendations for further research are provided within this chapter.

CHAPTER 2: SPORT MARKETING

"Research is to see what everybody else has seen, and to think what nobody else has thought."

Albert Szeni- Gyorgyi

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary objective of this study was to develop and validate a brand personality traits scale for South African professional sport teams as indicated in Chapter 1. Theoretical objectives of this study as per literature are discussed in this chapter as well in Chapter 3 in order to achieve primary objectives of the study. This chapter is based on three theoretical objectives. The aim of this chapter is to introduce the concept sport marketing and its significances to the marketers and sport teams. Furthermore, brand equity is discussed within this chapter highlighting its importance to the sport team. Therefore, Section 2.2 defines the term marketing. Section 2.3 introduces sport marketing. Following Section 2.4 cover elements of the sport marketing mix. Section 2.5. introduce the branding concept. Following Section 2.6 and 2.7 provide a background of brand equity and outline measurements of brand equity. This chapter concludes with a discussion of brand equity in sport teams.

2.2 DEFINING MARKETING

Marketing is a philosophy of a business or the way of thinking about a business from consumer perspectives or potential consumers (Easey, 2009:5). Marketing is defined as the process whereby companies create value and build stronger relationships with customers (Kotler & Armstrong, 2014:27; American Association, 2013; Van Rensburg, 2008:131). According to Van Rensburg (2008:131), the marketing process includes advertising and selling. Advertising and sales as marketing activities are done in order to satisfy consumer needs by transferring goods and services from a company to consumers (Klopper *et al*., 2006:4; Botha & Musengi, 2012:235). This is called exchange in the marketing process and thereafter supports the objective of the business to generate more profit (Kotler & Armstrong, 2014:27). Exchange is described as the act of obtaining a desired product or service form a business by offering something in return (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012:31).

Consumer values are the difference between the cost of getting a product or service and benefit gained from owning and using the product or service (Klopper *et al*., 2006:6). Consumers purchase from the business that offer the highest consumer perceived value (Kotler & Armstrong, 2014:35), this is when consumers evaluate the differences between all the benefits and all the cost of a market offering related to those offering of competitors. As a

result, consumers will value those products or services that are of the quality they expect at the price they are willing to pay (Mostert & Lots, 2010:10). Even sport consumers evaluate the value of their money when they make buying decisions in sport such as attending a football game (Morgan & Summer, 2005:193).

The sport industry has attracted more individuals' attention because of the entertainment it provides, this can be described as sportainment, which is the combination of sport and entertainment (Ratten, 2016:163; Goldman & Johns, 2009:129). Sport has the ability to unite a larger number of people together in one place (Duggan, 2013). Due to the larger sport community marketers applied the marketing concept in sport.

2.3 SPORT MARKETING

Sport marketing received more attention due to the high involvement of consumers (Ratten, 2016:163). According to Bee and Buhle (2006:104) sport fans are often highly committed to their teams, leading to repeat purchases of tickets, continuous game attendance and purchases of team-related products. In order to be successful in the sport industry marketers need to comprehend the concept of sport marketing.

2.3.1 Defining sport marketing

Sport marketing derives from marketing principles (Fetchko *et al.,* 2013:Par. 1). Smith (2008:7) emphasises that in order to be successful in sport marketing it is necessary to understand marketing as well as the sport environment. Sport marketing is defined as a social and managerial process by which the sport managers seek to obtain what the sporting organisation need and want by creating and exchanging products and values with others (Shilbury *et al*., 2014:17). Fetchko *et al.,* (2013:Par. 1) defined sport marketing as the use of marketing for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging sport experiences that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society. While Fullerton (2008:55) defined sport marketing as strategies designed to influence potential buyers of sport products or otherwise have a positive impact on the sale of non-sport-related products. Therefore, sport marketing is defined by meeting and satisfying consumer demands by providing sport products or services (Blakey, 2011:2).

Sport marketing is applied to sport products and services as well as to non-sport-related products and services (Smith, 2008:3; Sareshkeh *et al*., 2016:35). Sport-related product includes athletic shoes, energy drinks, balls and any other equipment used in the field. On the other side, non-sport-related product includes any products or services linked with a sport team or event in order to gain recognition such as Sony, Coca-Cola and Hyundai that have

nothing to do with sport. Fullerton (2010:27) highlights that sport marketing consists of all activities designed to meet sport consumer needs and wants through the exchange process. The process of sport marketing involves developing and implementing activities related to production, pricing, distribution, promotion and publicity of sport products (Schwarz & Hunter, 2008:14). The goal of sport marketing is to use the marketing mix to meet consumer needs while generating profit (Kaser & Oelkers, 2016:14). Therefore, sport marketers should develop the right product, at the right price, at the right place and promote it (Muhai, 2013:302). Section 2.3.2 provides history and background of sport marketing.

2.3.2 History and Background of sport marketing

Sport marketing originated when marketers realised the financial potential within the sporting industry (Kaser & Oelkers, 2016:14). Some of the first evidence of sport marketing was in the 1870s in the form of tobacco baseball cards that introduced the baseball players of that time (Idugboe, 2016; Budati & Bansal**,** 2013). These tobacco cards had the image of a baseball star player and were placed inside the cigarette pack in order to boost sales and develop brand loyalty from consumers (Budati & Bansal**,** 2013). For example, a former baseball star Honus Wagner was used by American Tobacco Company by attaching his picture in front of the cards inside the cigarette pack and there was also an advertisement placed at the back of the card to promote the company's product (Bruton, 2010:62). Figure 2-1 shows tobacco cards displaying the image of Honus Wagner. This is a T206 card from 1909–1911 with an advertisement at the back from Piedmont cigarettes.

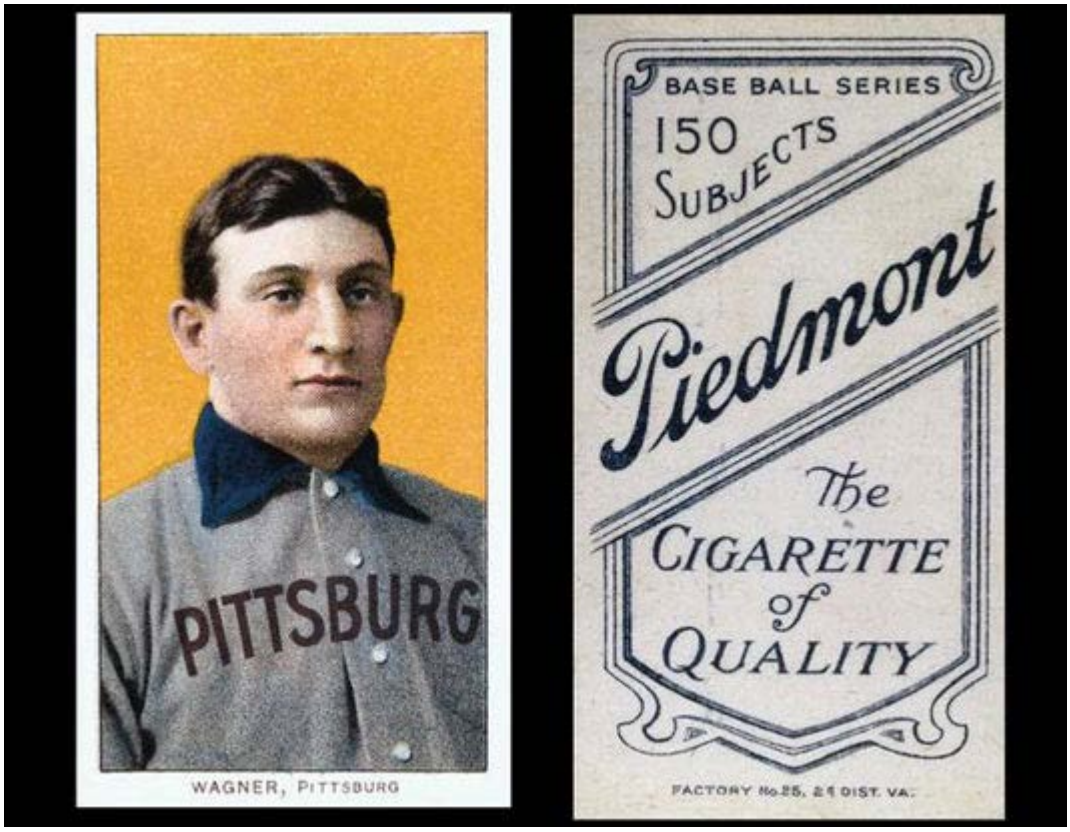


Figure 2-1: Example of baseball player trading cards: Honus Wagner (Doyle, 2016).

In early 1905, The Louisville Slugger bats also used Honus Wagner's autograph on their baseball bats (Bruton, 2010:62). According to Doyle (2017), Honus Wagner was one of the first professional athletes to endorse products for companies. Thereafter, the popular Honus Wagner was in demand and appeared in many advertisements of products such as Coca-Cola soft drinks, Gillette razor blades and cigars (Doyle, 2017). These strategies applied by marketers were used to boost their sales of a non-sport-related product such as tobacco and sport-related products like baseballs bats.

In 1912 Fenway Park opened in Boston, USA and immediately allowed companies to display their brands in the stadium (Carruthers, 2014). A decade later, Good Year designed their first iconic blimp (a small airship balloon) used to advertise their brand at the stadiums from 1925 onwards (Carruthers, 2014). In 1934, General Mills Company included athlete's images on its boxes to boost their sales of Wheaties cereals (Doyle, 2016). Jesse Owens (American track and field athlete) was given a pair of Adidas shoes for free during the 1936 Berlin Olympics in order to advertise the Adidas brand (Ferrand & McCarthy, 2009:1; Bruton, 2016:65). The first televised major league baseball game occurred in 1939 (Idugboe, 2016). Advertisement during sport events increased based on the introduction of sport television broadcastings. Furthermore, Carruthers (2015) states that TV commercials during the major sport games in 1939 were the most viewed advertisements during that time.

In 1953 Anheuser Busch, the owner of the Budweiser beer company, wanted to name a stadium the: Budweiser Stadium but was prevented by Woman's Christian Temperature Union (WCTU), who was against any promotion of drinking (Blocker, 2003:125). Consequently, Anheuser Busch bought the naming rights from Sportsman's Park and renamed it Busch stadium in 1954. Shortly after the name change, Anheuser Busch rolled out the "Busch Bavarian Beer" to take advantage of this advertising opportunity (Trex, 2008). In 1964, a distributor of running shoes, Blue Ribbon Sports, sponsored various athletes with trainers (running shoes). Blue Ribbon Sports was rebranded as Nike in 1972 and continued to supply their shoes to athletes as endorsements (Carruthers, 2014).

During the year of 1979 the ESPN "All Sport, All the time" was launched as a major broadcaster of functions related to sport worldwide (Carruthers, 2014). Thereafter, there was the introduction of massive screens in stadiums. Mitsubishi was the first company to install a big screen in 1980 followed by The Mets in 1982 and Sony in 1985 (Papastergiadis, 2016:14; Carruthers, 2014). Figure 2-2 shows one of the Mitsubishi screens introduced in stadiums displaying scores, highlights and advertisements.

Figure 2-2: Example of the first massive screens in stadiums by Mitsubishi (Davis, 2018).

2.3.3 Modern sport marketing

Modern sport marketing gained momentum in the last 70 years and was influenced by the increase in television coverage and the boom in social media usage (Thakkar, 2014). Television coverage and social media played a major role in modern sport marketing. Shultz, *et al*. (2010:224) state that there are more televised sporting events today than in the past. For example, the media cover the most popular events such as FIFA World Cup, Rugby World Cup and Cricket World Cup (Shazi, 2018).

Apart from these big three sporting codes, American football, specifically the Super Bowl, has attracted the attention of marketers around the world because of its popularity in the USA. According to Deninger (2012:164), Super Bowl represents the largest mass audience that an advertiser can reach at any time on American television. Furthermore, in 2015 Super Bowl had 114.4 million viewers and is one of the most prestigious advertising spaces (Levy, 2016:1; Statista, 2018). During the 2008 Super Bowl, companies spent almost $3 Million for a 30-second advert (Kaser & Oelkers, 2008:8). Recently, the amount increased to $5Million (Statista, 2018). This is a good investment as the advertisements placed during the event is a huge talking point afterwards (The Telegraph, 2018).

In South Africa, there are 12 dedicated sport channels to deliver sport events to fans known on DSTV (Anon., 2017). SABC-sport is another company providing sport-related programmes, mostly covering soccer, cricket and rugby locally. Occasionally, it covers events such as the FIFA World Cup and any other special event such as the Olympic Games. DSTV channels cover both local and global sport events. According to Smart (2007:124), the growth of global sport coverage television has provided many companies with a compellingly influential platform to achieve a global profile for their brands. Televising sport events attracted the interest of marketers to reach a very specific target audience. In addition, companies use social media as an additional platform to further market their brands.

Gadiraju (2016:41) emphasised that sport teams take advantage of social media to reach fans. Similarly, social media is used by all professional teams worldwide as an engagement tool with fans (Parganas, 2015:554). Social media includes platforms such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and Instagram among others. On these platforms, fans discuss issues related to team success and star players (Parganas, 2015:561). Furthermore, sport consumers share everything on Twitter, Facebook and Instagram (Curcio, 2016). For example, fans retweet the signing of a new star player in the team, the glory of winning a championship or dissatisfaction with the coach or referee. These interactions between fans assist marketers to promote their

brands through social media used by a sport team (Mohammadkazemi, 2015: 355; Curcio, 2016).

Social media has played an influential role in sport marketing (Bradley, 2015; Curcio, 2016). Engaging fans via social media sites, sports marketers can open new communication channels with their audience as a commercial opportunity and results in an increase of brand affinity and brand loyalty (Cave & Miller, 2015). The combination of television and social media in sports marketing provides an advantage as it allows marketers to reach a global target market through sport (Emirates, 2016).

2.4 ELEMENTS OF THE SPORT MARKETING MIX

The traditional marketing mix can be defined as the combination of marketing decisions designed to encourage consumers to buy companies' products or services (Strydom, 2011:240). This is commonly referred to as the four Ps namely: price; place; promotions and product (Smith, 2008:98; Strydom, 2011:228-229). Marketing mix in sport includes two additional elements namely: service and sponsorship (Shilbury *et al*., 2014:7). This results in to six Ps in the marketing mix. Figure 2-3 shows the sport marketing mix elements.

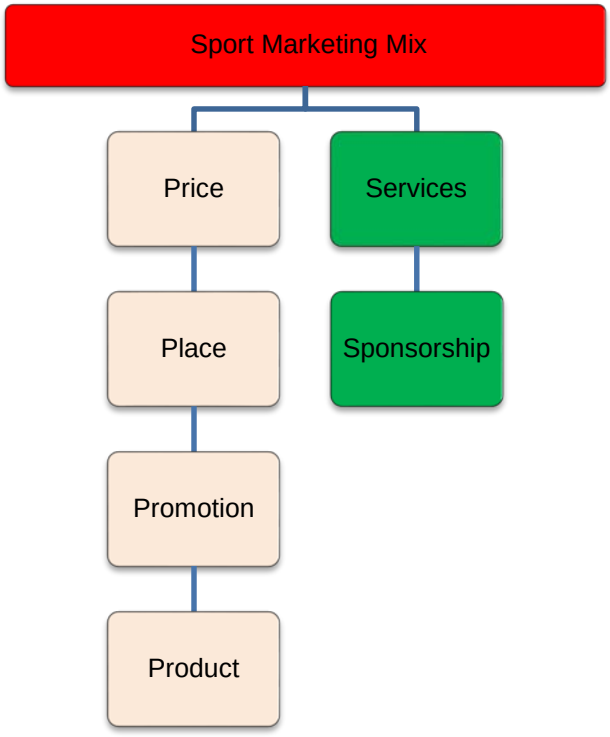


Figure 2-3: Sport Marketing Mix (Smith, 2008:105)

2.4.1 Price

Price is defined as the amount of money charged to the consumer for purchasing a product or service (Strydom, 2011:333). Likewise, in the sport industry price is referred to as the cost that consumers must pay to receive a product or service (Smith, 2008:98). Sport products include clothing brands and sport equipment. On the other side, sport services include access to the sport venues, where consumers pay for the right of admission by purchasing tickets. Sport marketers should charge prices based on the market environment such as dropping prices during recession or increase prices as the team performance keeps on improving, proving winning results (Muhai, 2013:300). However, strongly devoted fans would consider purchasing seasonal tickets, which generates a constant stream of revenue for sport teams (Smith, 2008:164; Buhler & Nufer, 2013:143). In addition, sport teams can generate more revenue by charging higher prices for tickets purchased on the day of the match (Fullerton, 2010:527; Silva & Casas, 2017:22). Therefore, it is the responsibility of the sport marketers to ensure that the price of the product and service reflect consumer value (Mihai, 2013:234).

2.4.2 Product

Product is anything tangible that is offered by a business in the market to satisfy consumer needs (Kloper *et al*., 2006:167). In the sport industry, sport products are known as physical goods (Buhler & Nufer, 2013:140). Sport merchandise such as soccer jerseys and beverages branded with teams' logos are classified as physical sport product (Ratten, 2016:163).

The sport products may be sold to sport fans for the purpose of casual wear and for participation in sport activities during the game (Fullerton, 2010:30). For example, South Africa fans carry vuvuzela's and wear makarapas (helmet) during the game branded with the name of their favourite PSL teams (Mofokeng & Bevan-Dye, 204:329). All of the above-mentioned products contribute towards the sport teams' revenue. Therefore, sport teams' managers should be able to produce relevant products to their fans. Afterwards, the produced product should be made available to fans at the right place.

2.4.3 Place

Place is the point of distribution ensuring that the product or service is available when consumer want to purchase it (Bernt & Petzer, 2011:21). Place is referred to as the geographical location of a product or a service, such as a stadium (Kim & Shin, 2009:73). Another term used for place is distribution (Mihai, 2013:301), this is where sport marketers analyse and select available distribution methods to deliver the products or services at the right place to consumers. Therefore, place is where consumers access the sport product or

service (Smith, 2008:98). Sport teams sell match tickets for admission to stadiums (Schwarz & Hunter, 2008:29). According to Smith (2008:158), stadiums are designed to reflect the character of the city. These designs influence consumers' experience during the match such as comfortable seating and clear scoreboards and are more likely to be satisfied (Smith, 2008:158; Fernandes & Neves, 2014:4). Sport teams are usually based in a specific region and identify a certain stadium as their home ground. It is a very special experience for fans to attend a match at their favourite team's home ground (Britton, 2006).

Another form of a distribution channel for sport products is media channels. According to Hoye *et al*., (2018) radio, television and the internet can be considered as sport distribution channels. Radio distribution is in the form of describing the match action in orders to create a picture in the fan's mind (Kaser & Oelkers, 2008:205). Television distribution is in the form of accessing free local media channels or subscriptions to private media channels (Swayne & Dodds, 2011: 402). For example, major events hosted globally such soccer, rugby or cricket world cup tournaments can be accessed via television channels. Similarly, South African sport fans can make use of media such as DSTV and SABC (TV and radios) to view sport matches (Mabasa, 2011 & PSL, 2012). The most recent distribution is in the form of the internet where fans have access to the teams' videos, fixtures, results and live matches that presents sport matches to fans anywhere (PSL, 2017). Furthermore, fans can view sport match highlights online on YouTube (Klein, 2018).

2.4.4 Promotion

Promotions refer to all activities that are designed to communicate the qualities of the product or service as a strategy to influence customers' behaviour (Kotler & Armstrong, 2014:77). Jordaan (2011:39) emphases that promotion is all the ways of communicating the existence and benefits of the product or a service to the target market. Similarly, promotions in sport cover a wide range of activities designed to attract attention; increase interest; encourage awareness and motivate consumers to purchase sport products or services (Amphah, 2016:75; Kim & Shin, 2009:73). These activities are also known as elements of sport promotions including advertising and promotions (Mihai, 2013:302). For example, the South African rugby team launched a promotional campaign as part of the team promotions by wrapping the team bus and the field with the theme #LoveRugby, to encourage fan engagement (News24, 2016). In addition, players dressed in yellow bright shirts printed #LoveRugby visited local townships, restaurants, rugby clubs and city gyms (News24, 2016).

According to Smith (2008:170) promotions are aimed to encourage sport fans to interact with the sport brand. Similarly, sport teams use promotions often as a tool to nurture relationships'

with fans leading to higher game attendance (Fullerton & Merz, 2008:100). Furthermore, sport teams use promotions to encourage sport fans to purchase sport products as a source of generating more sales (Mihai, 2013:301). Seasonal ticket sales also contribute to generate extra revenue for a sport team. Therefore, sport marketer needs to develop good promotional strategies for their sport product or service in order to get more customer attention.

2.4.5 Services

Strydom (2011:4) explains service is an intangible offer that cannot be seen or touched offered to a customer. Rao (2011:6) defines service as an intangible offer in the form of activities performed by individuals for the purpose of creating value to consumers. (Mihai, 2013:300). According to Parkhouse (2005:229), the aim of services as part of a sport marketing mix is to target consumers as a spectator. Consumers labelled as spectators experience sport service in the form of entertainment through live or televised matches (Smith, 2008:104). These entertainment services are produced in the form of a match between two teams. Furthermore, the sport team organise live performances by musicians during halftime at some of the sport games. In return, these consumers' pay money for the service provided such as watching the match live or televised remotely (Silva & Casas, 2017:41; Mihai, 2013:300; Smith, 2008:104). Likewise, PSL teams generate more revenues in the form of entertaining soccer matches. Dubihlela *et al*. (2009:169) argued that the entertainment element strongly motivates soccer fans to attend PSL games.

2.4.6 Sponsorship

Sponsorship is defined as the material and financial assistance for sport, art or any other way when a business is not involved in its core activities (Buttle, 2009:335). Meeaghan (1991) formally defined the term sponsorship as an investment in the form of cash and in return results in exploiting commercial potential associated with those activities. Several authors (O'Reily & Hornig, 2013:425; Ngan *et al*., 2011:551; Trenberth & Hassan, 2012:267-8) agreed and used this definition of Meeaghan (1991).

Sponsorship is very important for sport teams such as financial assistance. According to Silva and Casas (2017:45), cash received from sponsors is also regarded as a revenue for a sport team. Chadwick and Hamil (2010:394-5) emphasise that a sport team should be successful in order to get sponsorship deals. According to Smith (2008:192) sport teams receive income from sponsorship deals for the purpose of covering operating expenses like administration costs (Willy, 2011). In addition, sport teams can afford to buy and retain star players' in a team for a longer period through sponsorships.

A major part of sponsorship investment goes to sport entities such as events, athletes, leagues and teams (Desbordes & Richelieu, 2012:47; Ghezail *et al*., 2017:184). Sport sponsorship has increased dramatically and attracted many large companies' such as Coca-Cola, Shell, Emirates and Vodacom as part of their marketing strategies (Smith & Stewart, 2015:200). Furthermore, sport sponsorship entails getting the rights to be affiliated with a sport entity in order to obtain benefits from those associations' (Hall *et al*., 2010:165). Smith (2008:192) explains sport sponsorship as support offered to a league, sport teams and individual athletes by a separate company. For example, ABSA is the main sponsor of the PSL league and Currie Cup, while Vodacom is the main sponsor the SuperRugby series as well as two PSL teams namely: Kaizer Chiefs and Orlando Pirates and one Currie Cup team namely: Blue Bulls (Times, 2015; Absa, 2015; Vodacom Blue Bulls: 2016). These sponsorship deals are beneficial to both parties (sponsor and sponsee). Successful teams such as the Kaizer Chiefs and Orlando Pirates have attracted more lucrative sponsorship deals compared to competing teams (Times, 2015; Chadwick & Hamil, 2010:395). Therefore, well-branded sport teams can secure better sponsorship deals.

2.5 BRANDING

2.5.1 Defining branding

There is no common definition of branding (Beverland, 2018:6). There are various definitions available in the literature. The most widely accepted definition of branding focus on a certain mark from the combination of elements that differentiate it from competitors (Cunningham, 2018:189; Lamb *et al*., 2013:250). This mark can be any element from "a name, term, symbol or combination of these" (American Association, 2017).

These brand elements combined with its product and services set a business aside from its competitors in the eyes of consumers (Strydom, 2008:122; Klooper *et al*., 2006:281; Kotler & Armstrong, 2012:255). According to Klopper *et al*. (2006:281), a brand name is something consumers can say or write and should be the first element to be considered. This includes the formal, legal, public name of the entity, product or services (Walters & Jackson, 2013:7), it may be a proper name, noun or acronym. For example, Kaizer Chiefs, Amazulu, SSU (Super Sport United), The Lions, The Sharks and The Stormers (Growden, 2011 & Klooper *et al.* 2006:281). The symbol is a printed design or logo that is used by companies or organisations as a sign of differentiation (Madhukar, 2005:19). Furthermore, the logo is a graphic design application that forms part of all brand elements (Landa, 2011:138). For example, Orlando Pirates has a symbol of a skull crossbones in the team logo (Orlando Pirates, 2018). This symbol is combined with other elements such as the name and results to a brand (Klooper *et*

al., 2006: 281). For example, the logo of the South African rugby team is the combination of a king protea flower and springbok (SA Ruby, 2005).

Clearly, defining branding by emphasising the combination of a name, term and symbol is the way of building an identification mark (Jones & Bevenic, 2013:114). Likewise, Leditschke (2005) emphasises that branding consists of activities involved in forming identification. This identification distinguishes a business from other competitors (Jones *et al*., 2013:118). Sport teams also use some forms of identification marks to distinguish themselves from other teams, in the form of the team logo and colours among others. Therefore, it is important for sport managers to understand the notion of branding in sport (Bauer *et al*., 2008:206).

2.5.2 Branding in sport

According to Schwarz and Hunter (2008:148), branding is essential for a sport team for team identification among fans. Similarly, branding of sport teams builds opportunities for people to identify with the team and feel like they are a part their fan base (Schäferhoff, 2016). A sport team such as Kaizer Chiefs invested to create a strong brand by establishing about 500 branches (group of fans) across the country (North-West University, 2014). A sport team branch is the group of fans located in different areas such as towns and provinces. These fans gather together to support their teams during the game.

Schäferhoff (2016) emphasises that the branding of sport teams entails defining and communicating their core values. For example, Orlando Pirates is known for values such as: togetherness, innovation, elegance, spirit, resilience and performance (Orlando Pirate, 2015). Mamelodi Sundowns and Kaizer Chiefs are valued as successful, hardworking and reliable (PSL, 2015: Fletcher, 2010:81). While Proteas reflect values of honesty, integrity, professionalism and diligence (Cricket South Africa, 2017:2). The Sharks rugby team is portrayed as entertaining and exciting (The Sharks, 2018). As such, brand managers of sport teams are advised to consider brand values of a sport team, fans and their personalities to build a unique and strong brand for a team.

Branding plays an important role by influencing preferences and perceptions among fans regarding the sport team and by differentiating themselves from competing teams (Bauer *et al*,. 2008:206). Davis (2017) emphasises that a sport team should maintain its brand identity. Then managers of professional sport teams can start to manage their teams as a brand (Gladden & Funk, 2002:54; Kunkel *et al*., 2014:49; Ross, 2006:23). For example, a well-managed professional sport team will display strength and confidence such as the All Blacks rugby team from New Zealand (Smith, 2008:119). This is achieved through proper brand

management of a professional sport team (Bauer *et al*. 2008:208). According to Konkel, *et al*. (2013:178) sport brand management is the tool used to influence consumer connection with a sport team. Thereafter, these consumers get more involved with the team and increase their loyalty towards the sport team brand leading to an increase of revenue for the team (Kunkel *et al*., 2013:177). For example, an increase in sales of team merchandise such as sport team jerseys contributes to this revenue (Ratten**,** 2015:163). Sabour (2016:103) emphasises that names and logos are very important elements in sport branding. These brand elements are essential to build strong brand equity (Kumar, 2007: 76). Therefore, there is a need for brand managers of professional teams to understand the foundation of brand equity (Charumbira, 2015:138).

2.6 BRAND EQUITY

This section deals with brand equity in marketing theory. Thereafter, Section 2.7 investigates the brand equity of sport teams.

The concept of brand equity is often used to analyse the ways that brands create value (Bauer, 2008:208). Brand equity refers to the added value that a certain brand name gives a product in the marketplace (Klopper *et al*., 2006:284; Miller, 2015:201; Boone & Kurtz, 2012:420; Fathabadi *et al*., 2017:102). These values derive from consumers in the market (Buil, 2013:62; Kotler & Armstrong, 2015:267). Similarly, Aaker (1991:15) defines brand equity as a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol that add or subtract value provided by products or services to a business or to consumers of a business. These assets are brand awareness, perceived quality, brand association, brand loyalty and other proprietary assets (Aaker, 1996:105). Brand liabilities are customer dissatisfaction, environmental problems, and reputation for quality, questionable business practices, lawsuit and boycotts (Davis, 2010:23). These liabilities have a negative influence on the brand equity.

Keller (1993:2) defines brand equity as the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand. The role of brand equity assists marketers to gain a competitive advantage (Fathabadi *et al*., 2017:102). According to Ross (2006:23), marketers need to develop a better understanding of brand elements in order to develop strong brand equity. The following section discusses all elements used to measure brand equity.

2.6.1 Measurement of brand equity

The most popular brand equity model was developed by Keller 1993 and Aaker 1996. Keller's model provides more details regarding brand equity than any of the other models (Bauer *et al*., 2008:209). Furthermore, Keller's model has been widely adopted by several authors

(Funk, 2001:72; Gladden & Funk, 2003:57; Bauer *et al*., 2005:490; Bauer *et al*., 2008:209; Kuhn *et al*., 2008:4; Jara & Cliquet, 2012:140; Arai *et al*., 2014:100;Ande *et al*., 2017:1491). Therefore, this study used Keller's model to outline elements influencing brand equity. Figure 2-5 illustrates the brand equity model developed by Keller 1993:

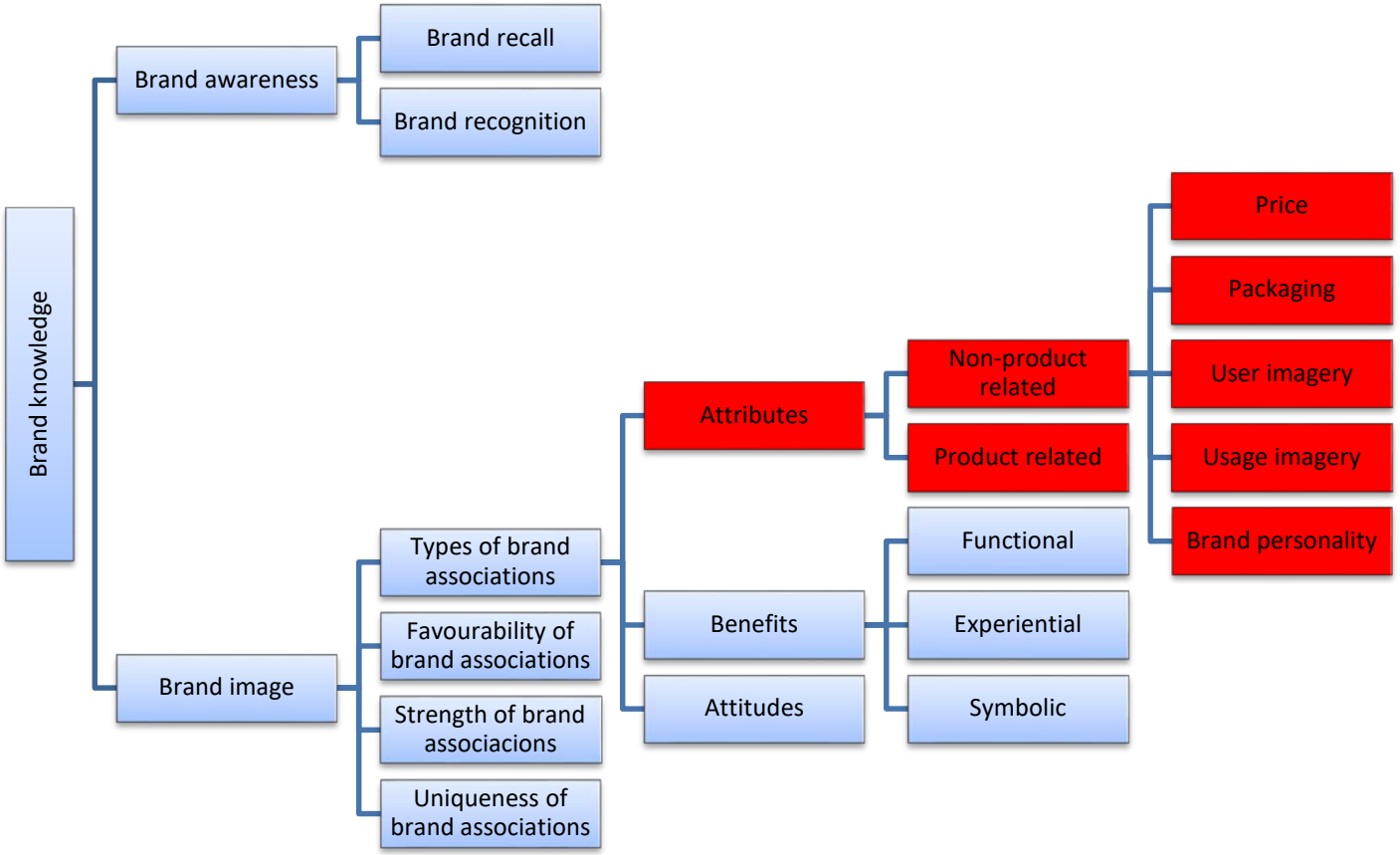


Figure 2-4: Brand equity model (Keller, 1993:7)

Keller's (1993) model is a consumer-based brand equity model focusing on brand knowledge. Consumer-based brand equity is defined as the differential effect of the brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of a brand (Keller, 1993:2). According to this definition, consumers respond only to brands they know through brand knowledge. Brand knowledge can be defined as a personal meaning about a brand stored in consumer memory that is all descriptive and evaluative brand-related information (Keller, 2003:596). Brand knowledge is created by two dimensions brand awareness and brand image (Khan, *et al*., 2015:173). Alongside brand image dimension, brand associations can be classified into three types namely: attributes, benefits and attitudes (Keller, 1993:4). Attributes is an aspect that can be influenced by the organisation by means of marketing (Klopper & North, 2011:108). Therefore, this study is only focusing on elements of attributes.

Attributes refer to those descriptive features that describe a product or service (Keller, 1993:4; Kazmi, 2016:67). Furthermore, attributes can be divided into product-related attributes and non-product-related categories (Gordon *et al*., 2016:141). Keller (1993:4) defined product-related attributes as ingredients necessary to deliver the functions expected by consumers. Product-related attributes are those elements that make the product able to function, usually related to the physical composition (Renwarin & Indriasari, 2017:148). In addition, product-related attributes involve what consumers expect the product to be when purchasing or consuming (Siali *et al*., 2016: 65).

Keller (1993:4) defines non-product-related attributes as external components related to the product or service that will impact purchasing and consumption of the product. External aspects of a product include elements such as price, packaging, user imagery and usage imagery (Keller 1993:4; Gordon *et al*., 2016:141). These elements are related to purchasing and consumption of a product or service (Renwarin & Indriasari, 2017:148).

Strydom (2011:333) defined price as the amount of money charged to a consumer for the purchasing of a product or service. According to Kazmi (2016:68), the price of the product and service is measured as a non-product-related attribute because it is an important step in the purchase decision among consumers but it does not have a direct relationship with a product's performance or service functionality. Furthermore, consumers are willing to purchase a product at a higher price because of higher quality (Bamburg, 2006:77). Consequently, this can contribute to the brand's equity.

Packaging is defined as the activities of wrapping a product using certain materials that serve to contain, identify, describe, protect, display, promote and otherwise make the product marketable and keep it clean (Agariaya *et al*., 2012:1). This material includes unique design,

shape labelling and colour. Keller (1993:4) states that packaging does not directly relate to the necessary ingredients for product performance. According to Farhana (2012:228), the role of packaging is to increase brand recognition that contributes towards brand equity. Brand personality is defined as all personality traits used to characterise a person and are associated with a specific brand (Lombart, 2010:115). Therefore, brand personality helps to develop a relationship with consumers, which in turns helps to increase brand equity (Ahmad & Thyagaraj, 2015:42).

Gomathy and Rajan (2016:32) explain that user imagery is related to the type of person who uses the brand. User imagery is also a very important factor of consumers purchase decisions but in most cases, it is not related to product performance or service functionality (Kazmi, 2016:68). According to Grover and Srivastava (2017:974), consumers compare the imagery of a brand to their self-concept, the greater the appropriateness the more positive their attitudes are towards the brand. User imagery is an attribute that is relevant to consumer self-concepts that can contribute towards the brand equity of the brand (Gu, 2013:19). Mirzai *et al*. (2016:57) explain usage imagery as a situation in which the product is used by consumers. According to Gomathy and Rajan (2016:32) a usage imagery situation may be based on time of day, week, or type of activity (formal or informal). Therefore, usage imagery is an attribute suitable for the activities where consumers have the ability to increase the brand equity of the brand (Mirzai *et al*., 2016:57).

Keller's 1993 model is a consumer-based brand equity model focusing on brand knowledge. Several authors adapted and applied the brand equity model developed by Keller(1993:7) to measure the brand equity of sport team brands (Bauer *et al*., 2008:209; Gladden & Funk, 2001:72; Gladden & Funk, 2003:57; Bauer *et al*., 2005:490). However, the adapted models excluded brand personality as a factor to measure the brand equity of a sport team. Mirzai *et al*. (2016:57) state that user and usage imagery can produce brand personality. Furthermore, Siali *et al*. (2016:65) strongly argue that brand personality should be part of non-product-related attributes. Likewise, this study argues that a complete model of sport team brand equity should include brand personality as a non-product-related attribute.

2.7 BRAND EQUITY OF SPORT TEAMS

Professional sport teams such as Manchester United, All Blacks and South African Proteas have been recognised for many years and is internationally recognised sport team brands. These professional sport teams are well-known for their outstanding performance, but it is impossible to win all the time. Even though losing some games, the clubs have extremely loyal

fans with strong team awareness, which is strong brand equity (Higgins, 2006:62). Therefore, team managers should understand the importance of brand equity for their sport teams.

The importance of brand equity for sport teams lies in the economic value through enhancing profitability, attracting sponsorship, attracting and retaining the loyalty of fans (Sajjadi *et al*.,2017:92). Furthermore, brand equity has a significant impact on the economic success of a team because of the positive effect on purchasing intentions; premiums and loyalty from fans (Bauer *et al.,* 2005:509). Smith (2008:121) explained sport brand equity as the value that a sport team has because of its strong brand name. According to Watkins (2014:473) sport brand value is inherent in the intangible experiences such as game attendance. Likewise, brand equity in sport is determined by the spectators' experience (Ross, 2006:23), therefore, marketers must strive to build relationships with fans in order to develop a strong brand equity. Naik and Gupta (2013:33) argue that building a stronger brand equity for sport teams begins by identifying their reputation such as team meaning, team responses' and team relationship with fans. Sport marketers can use brand equity as a platform to learn how their competitors became different in the market and what factors effectively influence the quality of their brand. The obtained information can be used by sport marketers to manage other brand elements to build stronger brand equity (Ross, 2006:23). In addition, sport marketers can make use of a sport brand equity model to gain more information regarding aspects influencing their brand equity.

Bauer *et al*. (2008:209) highlight the relevance of Keller's (1993) brand equity model by adapting the model for sport team brands by outlining brand equity dimensions that club managers can partly control. Therefore, several attributes relevant to sport teams' brands were identified in a study conducted by Bauer *et al*. (2008:209). Figure 2-5 present attributes relevant to sport teams.

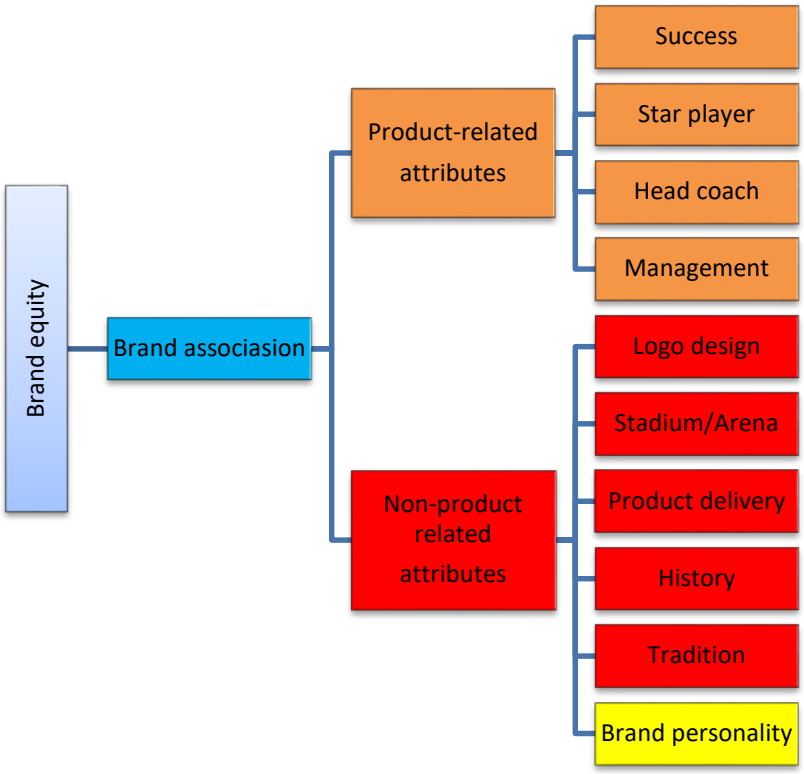


Figure 2-5: Brand Equity for sport teams (Adapted from: Bauer et al., 2008:225)

2.7.1 ATTRIBUTES OF BRAND EQUITY FOR A SPORT TEAM

2.7.1.1 PRODUCT-RELATED ATTRIBUTES

Bauer *et al*., (2008:210) explain product-related attributes as characteristics of or contributors to actual team performance. In sport settings product attributes' consist of four elements namely: success; star player; head coach and team management, discussed as follows.

2.7.1.2 Success

The success of a sport team refers to the excellent performance by a sport team (Ross *et al*., 2008:326). Likewise, Vella *et al*., (2013:549) explain success as the number of games won by a team in a specific season. The success of a team depends on consistent performance by a team together with players' commitment (Haas & Nuessch, 2012:3111). Yousaf and Anil (2013:165) formally define team success as the perceived quality of the team in the mind of fans impacted by the team's previous and current performance. Winning records associated with a team indicates success to sport fans and the continuity of winning titles and championships contribute to the brand equity of a sport team (Villarejo-Ramos & Martín-Velicia, 2007:67). These winning records contribute to brand equity by increasing higher tickets sales, attracting media exposure and attracting more marketers (Gladden *et al*.,

1998:6). Furthermore, fans like to support a winning team and successful teams get better sponsorship deals from companies. All sport teams strive for success by ensuring they have talented players.

2.7.1.3 Star player

Star players are defined as the most talented individual players for a specific team (Moosavian & Roodsari, 2014:17) Similarly, Jane (2014:2) defines star player as a key or main player who is the top performer in a team. According to Villemus and Gurau (2011:5), star players are one of the main assets of the team as they can be bought or sold on the sport market, depending on their talent and the potential of their individual brand. Moreover, star players are one of the most important assets of a team, as they assist to build the brand equity of the sport team (Kerr & Gladden, 2008:64). Gladden *et al*. (1998:6) emphasise that keeping star players for longer contribute towards building long-term brand equity for the sport team. These individuals have an ability to deliver an outstanding performance during the game. Furthermore, star players bring in quality skills to a team, which is visible during gameplay (Crema, 2008:11; Woratschek *et al.,* 2009:9-11). Moreover, star players contribute to increase the overall fame of a team, leading to a stronger brand equity (Kerr & Gladden, 2008:64). For example, fans would attend games to see the specific star players. Therefore, recruitment of star players remains an important task for coaches and team management.

2.7.1.4 Head coach

A coach can be explained as a personnel member working for a professional sport team responsible for training players to compete with other teams in a given season (Fields, 2010:112; Ross *et al.*, 2008:326). Coaches have huge responsibilities such as training and spotting players (Paul & Luice, 2014:233). Furthermore, the coach develops game strategies for a team (Yousaf & Anil, 2013:165). Coach strategies revolve around gameplay such as defensive and offensive play (Smith, 2018:9). According to Yousaf and Anil (2013:166), coach strategies could include motivating players and instilling confidence in players, which lead to better game performance. Motivation from a coach is vital for the overall morale of the team during a tough game or season. This will impact team performance and results to success and thus contributing to brand equity (Yousaf & Anil, 2013:165). Gladden *et al*. (1998:6) highlighted that a coach with a proven track record can enhance brand equity of the team by setting winning records frequently. The responsibility of recruiting a good coach for a sport team is the responsibility of the management of the team.

2.7.1.5 Team management

Yousaf and Anil (2013:166) explain that the sport team management is the group of people who are not participating in sport team activities but responsible for facilitating people who are directly involved in sport activities such as coaches and players. Sport team managers are also responsible for the financial well-being of a team (Paul & Luice, 2014:233). This task involves generating additional external funds in the form of sponsorship deals. Walsh (2015:49) states that team management is the owners of the sport team. Based on these two explanations, team management has the power to control both star players and head coaches. For example, star players are managed as assets of a team and team management decides who to sign and who to release (Villemus & Gurau, 2011:5). Furthermore, the role of team management is to build and maintain the brand equity of the team by establishing good relationships with fans (Naik & Gupta, 2013:33). Team managers must develop good relationships with sponsorships in order to increase financial stability and lead to better brand equity (Yousaf & Anil, 2013:166). In order to retain good brand equity for a sport team, management should strive for team success such as winning more games and obtaining more titles (Villarejo-Ramos & Martín-Velicia, 2007:71). However, management of a team does not have control over the outcomes of the game and therefore needs to develop strategies to manage and sustain brand equity of the sport team (Ross, 2006:23). Therefore, team management must manage the entire product and non-product-related attributes wisely in order to develop and maintain the brand equity of the team.

2.7.2 NON-PRODUCT-RELATED ATTRIBUTES

Bauer *et al*. (2008: 210) explain non-product-related attributes as the external aspects of the core product that are relevant to buying behaviour and consequently influence perceptions of the sport team brand. Non-product-related sport attributes consist of five elements namely: logo design; stadium; product delivery; history and tradition (Bauer *et al*., 2008). This study adds brand personality as a sixth element of non-product-related attributes as discussed in Section 2.7.

2.7.2.1 Logo design

Madhukar (2005:19) explained a logo as a unique printed design that is used by businesses as a sign that distinguishes their brand from competitors. The logo is in the form of graphic design displaying a sign or a symbol of a specific business or organisation (Landa, 2011:138). According to Blakeman (2009:66), the logo design and brand colours appear on all communications and packaging of the brand. Logos are also used by sport teams to

differentiate their brand from its rivals. In sport settings, the logo is the mark associated with a specific sport team (Ross *et al*., 2008:326). Logo design is an important element used to build the brand equity of the team (Kumar, 2007: 76; Sabour, 2016:103; Sajjadi *et al*., 2017:91). According to Watkins (2013:473), the brand equity of a sport team is inherent in the intangible experiences of interacting with the brand such as wearing team logos.

2.7.2.2 Stadium/arena

The term stadium or an arena refers to the physical facilities used by a sport team for training and official games (Ross *et al*., 2008:326). In football language, a team's local stadium is called their home ground, thus the concept of home ground advantage (Ross *et al.* , 2006:270). The quality of the stadium such as infrastructure a team plays in contributes to the perceived valued of the team and influences tickets sales (Walsh, 2015:45-46). Stadiums are clearly essential components to build the brand equity of a sport team (Kerr & Gladden, 2008:66). Watkins (2013:473) highlights that game attendance experienced by fans where the team players have a strong connection with the stadium just as they do with the team itself. Consequently, the team with winning records impact the brand equity of a sport team (Yousaf & Anil, 2013:166).

2.7.2.3 Product delivery

Product delivery is referred to as the live entertainment or televised matches of the sport team matches (Smith, 2008:104). Bauer *et al.* (2005:510) define sport product as a team's performance in the form of entertainment offered to sport fans at the stadium. This definition by Bauer *et al.* (2005:510) simply indicates that the sport team product is the actual game between the two teams (Gladden & Funk, 2002:56). Buhler and Nufer (2010:48) emphasised that a core sport product is delivered to spectators by a team such as the initial game. Offering interesting and entertaining games to fans contribute towards building the brand equity of a sport team. For example, cricket teams participating in the new Pro20 match-play to entertain fans by providing exiting vibes during the game (Chris, 2007). Pro20 is only 20 overs per team compared to 50 overs per team for normal One Day Internationals (Cricket SA, 2018). Consequently, Pro20 matches are fast-paced and exhilarating and draw bigger crowds based on the excitement (Swart, 2010). Subsequently, the brand equity of a sport team increase. The developed brand equity is then associated with spectators through product experience (Ross, 2006:23). Therefore, if a team is playing a more exciting type of game, game attendance will be higher leading to higher income and higher brand equity.

2.7.2.4 History

The history of a sport team is not created in one day, it takes time (Yousaf & Anil, 2013:165). HisIt refers to the past events that shaped the team to what they are today. Ross *et al.* (2006:270) explain team history as influential past events regarding the sport team. According to Boyle and Magnusson (2007:502), loyal fans of a specific team share and witness famous moments with other fans that become momentous for the team. Gladden *et al*. (1998:6) highlight that momentous events have the ability to sustain the brand equity of a sport team during moderate seasons. Sport teams may fail to win championships, but a history of winning records can assist the team to retain loyal fans. The brand equity of a sport is not built by current winning records alone but also by the team's history.

2.7.2.5 Tradition

Tradition refers to all cultural activities associated with a sport team (Bauer *et al*., 2008: 211; Kunkel *et al*., 2014:53). Sport team tradition can be created around many factors other than game performance (Gladden 2002:59). Teams in major leagues have different club cultures (Bauer *et al*., 2008:211). Furthermore, cultural activities associated with a sport team include a wide range of dimensions such as attitudes, history and symbols such as dress codes (Wankel, 2008:507). For example, soccer fans carry branded vuvuzelas and makarapas with painted faces (Mofokeng & Bevan-dye, 329:2014). Similarly, the All Blacks players perform their iconic traditional "Haka" prior to matches (Davies, 2017). The "Haka" is an ancient war dance rooted in New Zeeland culture and part of their tradition (Durant, 2011). Yousaf and Anil (2013:165) argued that the tradition of a sport team influences fans perception about the team. For example, a team might be known for its unique tradition of keeping star players that distinguish the team from other sport teams (Bauer *et al*., 2005:211). Tradition causes a higher level of loyalty among fans and further contributes to higher brand equity of a team (Villarejo-Ramos & Martín-Velicia, 2007:74).

Evidently, attributes play a major role in influencing the brand equity of sport team. However, several studies conducted (Gladden & Funk,2001:73; Gladden & Funk, 2002:72; Bauer *et al*.,2008:211; Biscaia, 2013:28; Ross *et al*., 2008:332) excluded brand personality as an attribute. Brand personality should be considered as an important element of non-product-related attributes influencing brand equity.

2.7.2.6 Brand personality

This study included brand personality as part of the non-product-related attributes, in line with Keller's (1993) original brand equity model. Brand personality is an influential component of

brand equity (Hong *et al.,* 2012:53). Correspondingly, Gomathy and Rajan (2016:32), substituted packaging from non-product-related attributes by brand personality in their adapted model. Brand personality plays a crucial role in the promotion of brand equity (Müller, 2017:135; Rivas & Ju, 2017:14). Therefore, brand personality should be considered as an important element of non-product-related attributes influencing brand equity of a sport team. The concept of brand personality is discussed in more detail in the next chapter (Chapter 3).

2.8 CONCLUSION

The concept of sport marketing has been present for ages. This is an alternative tool available for general marketers and sport marketers. The concept of sport marking has been applied by many companies to promote and expose their brands to the targeted consumers. This can be proofed by the higher media coverage of televised sporting events. Likewise, sport media coverage is trending worldwide and makes the task of marketers easy as their brands are introduced to the international markets. Therefore, sport marketing plays a vital role as a link between consumers and marketers.

In general, marketers market through sport association because many consumers pay more attention to sport. This form of marketing includes all related and non-related sport products and services. The importance of sport marketing has been noticed by the management of professional sport teams. Likewise, companies involved in sport and non-sport goods as referred to sport-related and non-related sport products invested in sport marketing as well. Due to tough competition in sport industry the management of professional sport applied sport marketing to differentiate their sport teams as a brand from other sport teams. This can be done by managing all brand elements of sport teams as attributes. Managing these elements will result in strong brand equity of the professional sport team.

Sport marketers seek for teams reflecting strong brand equity to align their brands for marketing purposes. Thereafter, the alignment is developed in the form of sponsorship. This formal relationship will be beneficial to marketers for brand awareness, brand extension and good publicity, while the sport team will enjoy financial gain. Management of sport teams should pay attention to all attributes as they contribute towards building strong brand equity of a sport team. Furthermore, management of sport teams should evaluate the brand personality as one non-product-related attribute contributing positively to brand equity of a sport team as was discussed in the closing of this chapter. Therefore, the following chapter (Chapter 3) provides a detailed discussion of the brand personality for sport teams.

CHAPTER 3: BRAND PERSONALITY

"Knowledge will bring you the opportunity to make a difference".

Claire Fagin

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter explores the concept of brand personality. In this chapter literature regarding personality is reviewed in different sections. Section 3.2 defines personality from a psychological perspective. Section 3.3 defines brand personality. Following is the importance of brand personality in Section 3.4. Section, 3.5 briefly introduces sport brand personality and Section 3.6 discusses all measurements of brand personality. Lastly, Section 3.7 provides the guidelines for the development of brand personality trait scales and followed the conclusion of the chapter.

As indicated above, this chapter begins with the background and origin of personality from psychology. This provides a clear understanding regarding the origin of brand personality. Azoulay and Kapferer (2003:150) emphasise that the concept of brand personality originated from psychology. It would be more specific to remain closer to the psychological definition of personality. Therefore, it will be better to start with a definition of personality from a psychological perspective.

3.2 DEFINING PERSONALITY

Personality is a commonly used term in our daily life statements, for example, "Jill has a great personality" this simply imply that Jill is outgoing, lively and fun to be around (McMartin, 2016:3). In defining personality, Allport (1937:27-48) formulated 50 different definitions for personality. Allport (1937:48) analysed the definitions and selected one definition as the best defining personality as: "*the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment*". However, there is no common definition of personality. Recently there are several definitions of personality but the concept remains the same.

All available definitions of personality emphasise the uniqueness of individuals that show similarities with the definition of Allport (Carducci, 2009:5). Akin (2011:194) who defined personality as all distinctive and unique behaviours of individuals. Similarly, Ryckman (2006:4) define personality as the dynamic and organised set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his cognitive state, motivation and behaviour in various situations. According to Robbins *et al.* (2009:92), the most commonly used definition for personality is

the one produced by Allport (1937:48). Correspondingly, several authors accepted and employed the definition of Allport (Hassan *et al*., 2016:73; Hee & Abidin, 2016:73;Haung *et al.,*2014:46;Kabir & Sajib, 2014:110 ;Frederick *et al*., 2012:95; Hampson, 2010: 37-38;Narvaez & Lapsley, 2009:11-12 Basavanthappa, 2007:522; Randhawa, 2007:94; Shjarma, 2005:1).

Recently the concept of personality has been linked with branding. Spiller and Bergner (2011:39) highlight that the most effective brands are those brands that are able to behave or act like human beings. The concept of brand personality became popular after 1997 after Jennifer Aaker validated a scale to measure brand personality (Aaker, 1997).

3.3 DEFINING BRAND PERSONALITY

According to Sirianni *et al*. (2013:109), brand personality can be defined as a set of associated human characteristics that conveys brands' symbolic identity. Likewise, Plummer (2008:81) defines brand personality as "the characterization aspects of the brand". In addition, Sweeney and Brandon (2006:645) define brand personality "as the set of human personality traits that correspond to the interpersonal domain of human personality and are relevant to describing the brand as a relationship partner". Aaker (1997:347) defined brand personality as "the set of human characteristics assign to a brand". Aaker's definition is considered the most widely used definition of brand personality and has been accepted and adopted by various authors (Kuma & Nayak, 2014:4;Eisend & Stocburger, 2013:205; Tsiotsou, 2012:238; Valette-Florence *et al*., 2011:24-25; Wang & Yang, 2008:460).

However, this definition is being criticised as being too broad as it embraces nearly everything related to human beings and applied it to brands, regardless of how relevant it may be for branding (Carlson & Donavan, 2013:195). Azoulay and Kapferer (2003:151) argue that a stricter definition is needed and define brand personality as the set of human personality traits that are both applicable to and relevant for brands. Correspondingly, Louis and Lombart (2010:115) define brand personality as all personality traits used to characterise a person and which are associated with a brand. Recently, several authors (Kang *et al*., 2016:443; Besedina & Chernyshova, 2011:11; Geuens *et al*., 2008:11; Bosnjak *et al.,* 2007:306; Milas & Mlacic, 2007:621) adopted the brand personality definition developed by Azoulay and Kapferer (2003). Consequently, this study adopted the brand personality definition of Azoulay and Kapferer (2003:151). The concept of brand personality helps marketers to distinguish their brands from competitors and enhance their marketing programmes (Sung & Kim, 2010:641). Therefore, many companies and managers have realised the importance of brand personality.

3.4 THE IMPORTANCE OF BRAND PERSONALITY

The concept of brand personality is important for both consumers and businesses. Section 3.4.1 discusses the importance of brand personality for consumers, while Section 3.4.2 outlines the importance of brand personality for business.

3.4.1 The importance of brand personality for consumers

A strong brand personality can provide consumers with emotional fulfilment, image enhancement and willingness to remain loyal to the brand (Farhat & Khan, 2011:5). According to Watkins and Gonzenbach (2013:19), consumers form emotional bonds with the brand through its brand personality as they interact with the brand. For example, brands like *Dove* and *Axe* can create an emotional connection with consumers' appealing to their actual or idealised self-image. Actual self-image is when *Dove* use models, likely corresponding more closely to how the majority of consumers see themselves (Malar, 2011:35), while idealised self-image is when *Axe* communicates its brand to male consumers indicating that using their brands will make them more attractive and appealing to women (Kurtzleben, 2013). Donahay and Rosenberger (2007:4) highlight that a brand with the right personality can influence the consumer to remain loyal to it. Loyal consumers are willing to try a new brand extension and to pay a premium price for a brand (Farhat & Khan, 2011:5).

Consumers often use brands to create and communicate their own personalities (Sung & Kim, 2010:641). Consumers use brand personality as a means to express their actual or idealised self-image (Keller & Richey, 2006:76). Actual self-image is when consumers see themselves corresponding with specific brands, (Malar, 2011:35) while idealised self-image is when consumers realise the vision of themselves that using a specific brand will make them more appealing. Consumer can use brands like *BMW*, because brand personality of this brand may be relevant to express the actual and idealised self-image of consumers as sophisticated, upper-class and charming (Carlson, *et al*., 2009:373), while, *Hummer* and *Jeep* are relevant to express consumers' self-image as outdoorsy, tough and rugged (Carlson, *et al*., 2009:373). Likewise, individuals who view themselves as a higher social class may prefer buying a car brand like *Mercedes-Benz* (Lin, 2010:6). For that reason, consumers prefer to purchase and use brands with a brand personality matching their personality and image (Malar *et al*., 2018:37).

Consumers select brands similar to their personalities (Arora & Stoner, 2009: 273). This may create a major challenge for business managers to create brands linked with personalities of different consumers (Müller, 2014: 532). Business managers should always strive to match

the personality of their brands with the personality of their consumers. Therefore, managers need to understand the importance of building “a clear and distinctive brand personality as a consumer choose brands that resemble their own personality” (Srivastava & Sharma, 2016:2; Ahmad & Thyagaraj, 2015:38).

3.4.2 The importance of brand personality for businesses

Brand personality is an important concept for business managers to comprehend in order to effectively market and position their brands (Braustein & Ross, 2010:13). Positioning a brand using its brand personality may produce a good relationship towards the brand and can easily be communicated to the targeted consumers (Louis & Lombart, 2010:126). Akin (2011:100) highlights that positioning a brand using brand personality can be useful to easily enter a new market. As such, managers of the business must always strive to create and maintain brand personality that is relevant to the market.

Diamantopoulos *et al.,* (2005:140) highlight that brand personality allows brand managers to introduce brand extensions for a brand. According to Ferguson *et al*. (2016:344), consumers use brand personality to assess new products of the brand to judge the quality and dependability. Thereafter, consumers will be encouraged to try a new brand extension and willing to pay premium prices (Farhat & Khan, 2011:5). This will be welcomed by managers planning to make use of a brand extension as part of the growth strategy for their businesses (Diamantopoulos *et al*., 2005:140).

Building a positive brand personality will improve brand preferences and influence purchasing behaviour (Punyatoya, 2012:4). According to Banerjee (2016:200), brand personality may play an instrumental role to shape consumers’ brand preferences. As such, brand personality influences consumers positively regarding brand preference (Kim *et al*., 2015:67). When brand personality is in accordance with consumers’ desire, then consumer’s intention to buy the brand will increase (Vahdati *et al*., 2016:5). Similarly, consumers’ purchasing intentions are higher on brands that reflect a favourable brand personality compared to other brands (Wang *et al*., 2009:202).

Su and Tong (2015) highlight that brand personality boosts the communication of a business. Consequently, brand personality has the ability to differentiate a brand from competitors. Lada & Sidin (2012:2) emphasise that each brand has its own unique brand personality in the market. For example, a brand such as *Nike* is perceived to be more competitive, trendy, sincere and exciting than its major competitor *Adidas* perceived as intelligent, friendly, charming and spirited (Chandel & Tewari, 2015:16; Su & Tong, 2015). Therefore, sport team

brands can use brand personality to gain more insight on how fans perceive their brand (Heere, 2010:17).

3.5 BRAND PERSONALITY IN SPORT

A sport team is a brand and has a brand personality as any other brand (Tsiotsou, 2010: 242; Funk *et al*., 2016:161). The brand personality of a sport team is referred to as the combination of the image of its administration and personnel, the image of the team including players, coaches and the field and finally the image of its fans (Tsiotsou, 2012:248). The brand personality of a sport team attracts the interest of relevant stakeholders such as sponsors and more fans (Tsiotsou, 2010: 242-248). Furthermore, brand personality distinguishes the team from their competitors (Carlson & Donavan, 2009:379).

Sport team managers can use brand personality to position their brands against competitors (Braunstein & Ross, 2010:13; Schade *et al*., 2014:660). These competitors are other sport teams competing with the team (Carlson & Donavan, 2009:379). For example, *Kaizer Chiefs* is perceived as successful (Fletcher, 2010:81). While, *Mamelodi Sundowns* is perceived as competitive, passionate, attractive and stylish (Mamelodi Sundowns, 2018). These perceptions derived from the competitiveness of the team such as the ability to win and achieve its goals (Tsiotsou, 2010:521).

The brand personality of the team increases brand trust among the fans (Raudbari, 2016:193), this trust can help the team during poor seasons to keep fans loyal to the team. Loyal fans may also increase team revenue. For example, loyal fans are more likely to attend games, purchase team-related merchandise and watch the game on another form of media (Chadwick & Arthuer, 2008:199). As such, a sport team will be in a good position to attract more sponsors due to strong fan loyalty. Furthermore, according to Tsiotsou (2012:252), a potential sponsor will assess whether the personality of the team will contribute to or damage their brand image (Tsiotsou, 2012:252). Finally, marketers approve sponsorship deals by using sport brand personality to select teams that reflect similar personalities than their brands (Tsiotsou, 2012:242). The team benefited from sponsorship by obtaining financial support (Smith, 2005:25). Therefore, sport team managers can use brand personality to measure perceptions of fans and differentiate the team from competitors and attract sponsors (Schade *et al*., 2014:660; Braunstein & Ross, 2010:13).

3.6 MEASUREMENT OF BRAND PERSONALITY

Marketers and researchers realised the importance of brand personality and started to develop tools to measure consumer perceptions (Müller, 2017:43). Several authors developed brand

personality trait scales (Rauschnabel *et al.*, 2016:7; Sung *et al.,* 2014:122 Geuens *et al*., 2009:103; Bosnjack *et al*., 2007:310; Aaker, 1997:354). Recently, the personality of sport team brands attracted the interest of researchers who developed sport team brand personality scales to measure perceptions regarding the team (Braunstein & Ross: 2010:9; Tsiotsou, 2012:246; Kang, 2013:74; Kim *et al.,* 2012;71; Schade *et al*., 2014:659). The following sections outline an overview each of the above-mentioned scales (general brands and sport team brand specifics). Section 3.7 provides the analysis of stages involved during the development of each of these scales.

3.6.1 Aaker's brand personality trait scale (Aaker's 1997).

Aaker (1997:348) developed a framework of brand personality dimensions in the United State of America (USA). The objective of the study was to develop a reliable and valid scale to measure dimensions of brand personality and the sample size of 250 was used (Aaker, 1997:352). During the scale development symbolic (e.g: clothing, fragrance and cosmetic) and utilitarian (e.g: film, pain reliever and toothpaste) brands were used as well as brands being classified as symbolic and utilitarian (e.g: computers, soft drinks and tennis shoes). Therefore, it means this scale was developed across product categories. In addition, the scale was developed to provide a basis for theory building on the symbolic use of brands. The scale was successfully developed with 42 items as illustrated in Figure 3-1

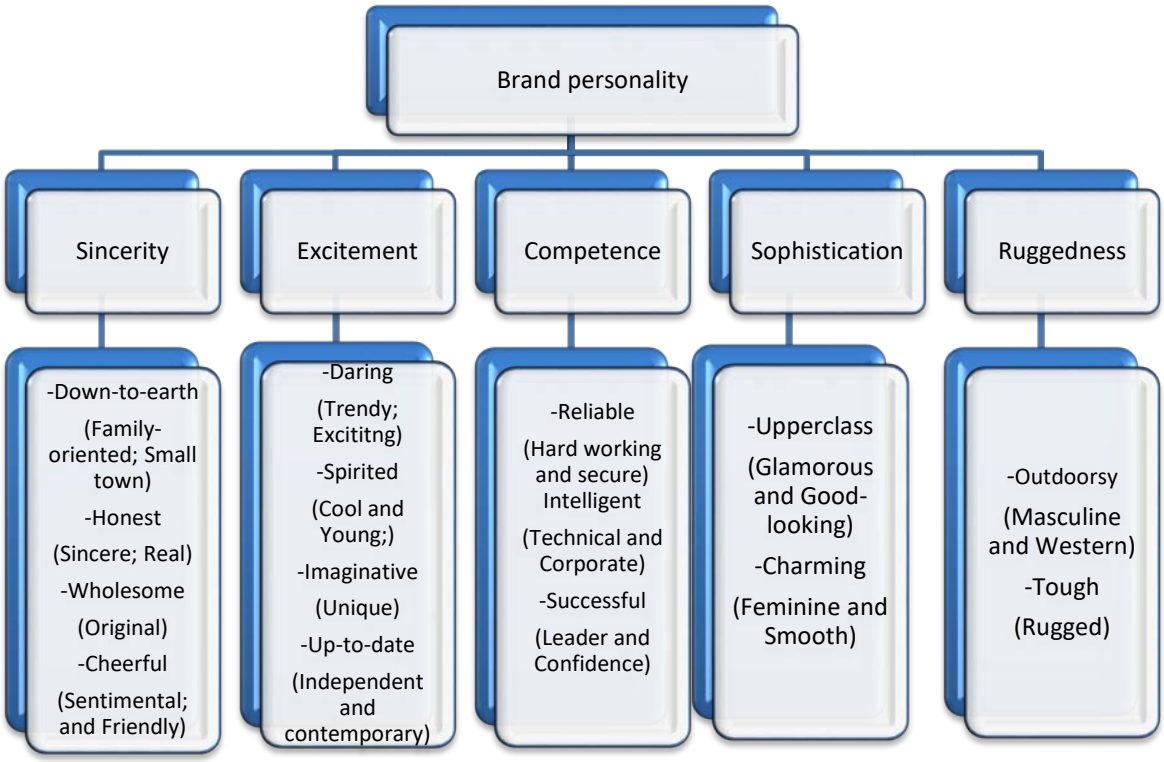


Figure 3-1: Aaker's Brand personality dimensions (Aaker, 1997:352)

3.6.2 Bosnjack's brand personality trait scale (Bosnjack's 2008).

Similarly, Bosnjack (2008:307) conducted a study to develop a scale in Germany investigating dimensions of brand personality. The aim of the study was to find an original brand personality applicable to the German culture. The sample size of the study was 184 participants. Brand categories used in the study was in the form of grid quadrant position (FCB) consisted of higher involvement: thinking (e.g: insurances, credit cards, consumer electronics), higher involvement: feeling (e.g: jeans, cars and wristwatches). Low involvement: thinking (e.g: shampoo's, pain relievers and razors) and low involvement feeling (e.g: Soft drinks, beer and cigarettes). The developed scale had four dimensions (drive dimension is subdivided into positive and negative factors) and had 20 items as shown in Figure 3-2:

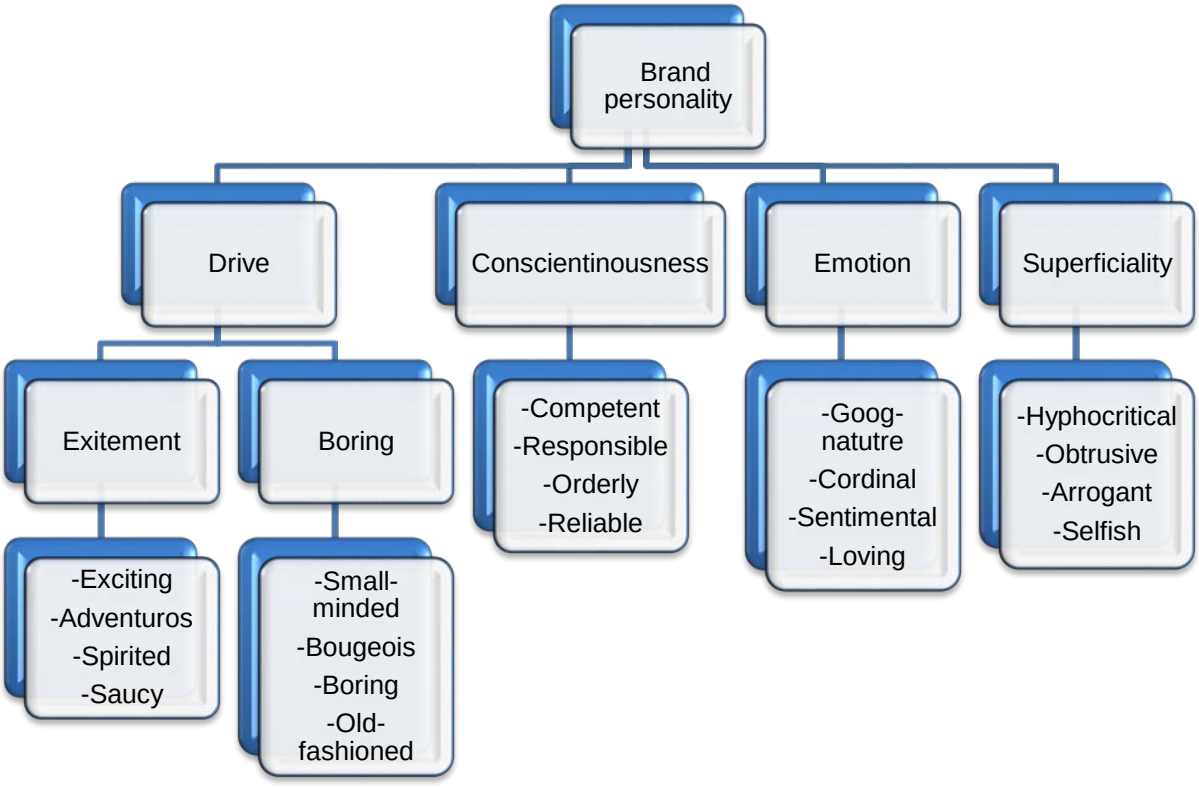


Figure 3-2: Bosnjack's Dimensions of brand personality (Bosnjack et al.,2007:313)

3.6.3 Geuens's brand personality trait scale (Geuens *et al.*, 2009).

The objective of Geuens *et al*. (2009:97) study was to develop a new brand personality trait scale that excludes personality traits that are not applicable to brands. During the process, the author used functional brands (e.g: *Bic, Mr Clean, Philips Renault and Skoda*), experiential brands (e.g: *Cote d'Or chocolate*, beer, *Lipton ice tea*) and symbolic brands (e.g: *Ferrari and Rolex*). Furthermore, the author tested the validity of the developed scale using the sample size of 2204 in nine different countries (France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Poland, Romania, Spain, Switzerland and Turkey) (Geuens *et al*., 2009:103-4). The final scale produced five dimensions and 12 items of brand personality in Figure 3-3

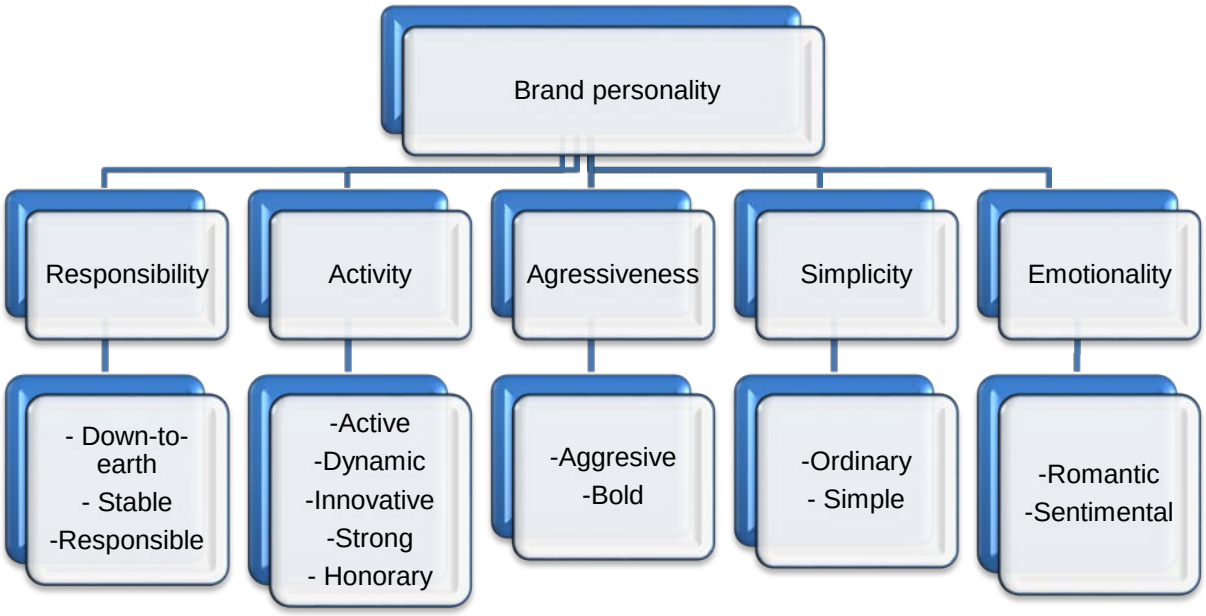


Figure 3-3: Geuens's Measure of brand personality (Geuens et al., 2009:103)

3.6.4 Braunstein and Ross's brand personality trait scale (Braunstein and Ross, 2010).

Braunstein and Ross (2010:9) conducted a study to develop a brand personality trait scale in the USA. The objective of the study was to formulate a scale to measure brand personality for sport team brands. A sample of 449 students was used to test brand personality perceptions of professional sport teams. The final scale consists of six dimensions and 40 items as shown in Figure 3-4

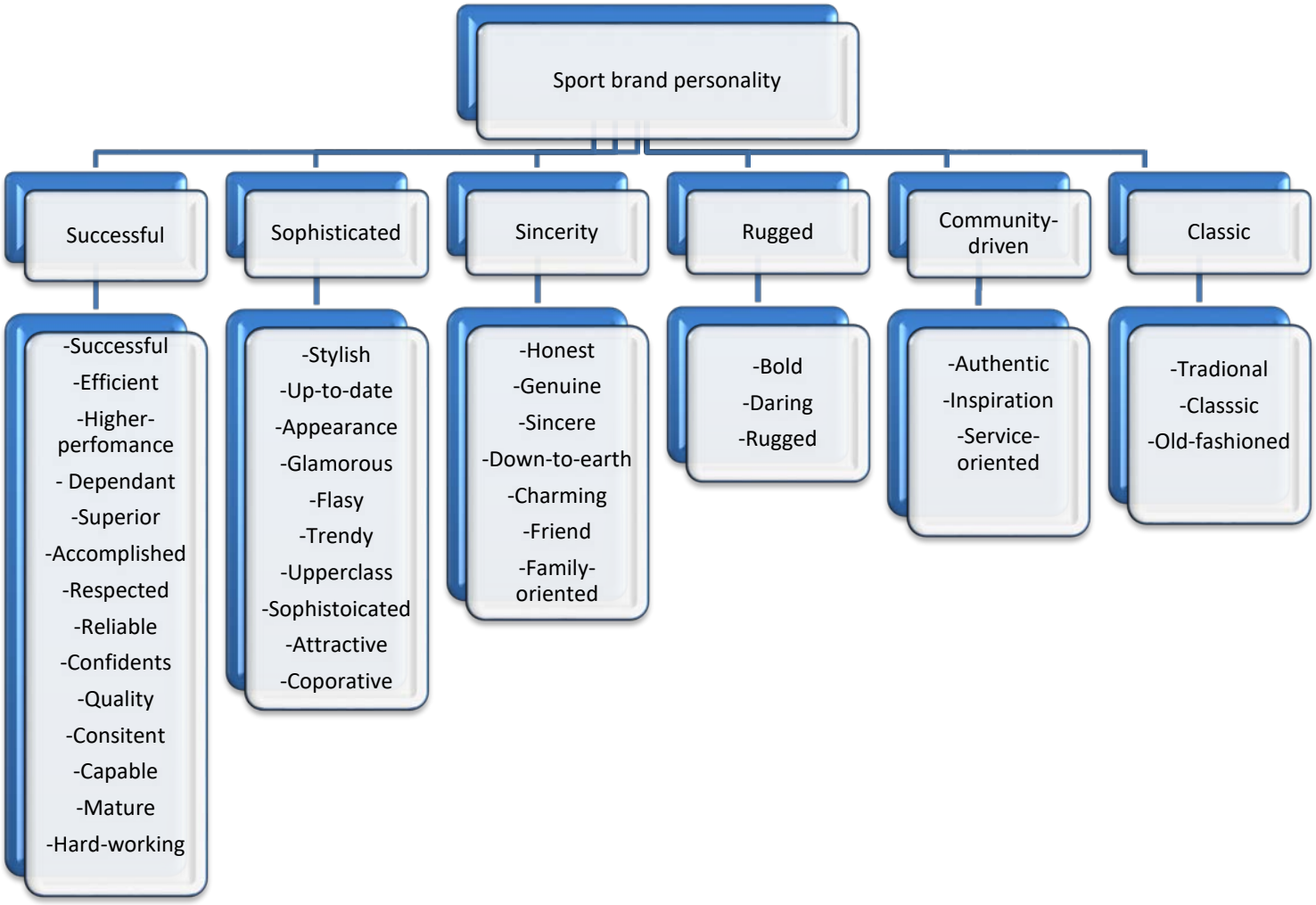


Figure 3-4: Braustein and Ross's Sport brand personality traits (Braunstein & Ross, 2010:9)

3.6.5 Tsiotsou's brand personality trait scale (Tsiotsou's 2012).

Tsiotsou (2012: 242) conducted a study of brand personality in Greece. The authors' objective was to develop a scale to measure brand personality for sport team brands. The sample size of 301 sport fans was used in the study. Brand category selected in this study was professional sport teams. The final scale comprises five dimensions and 19 items as visible in Figure 3-5.

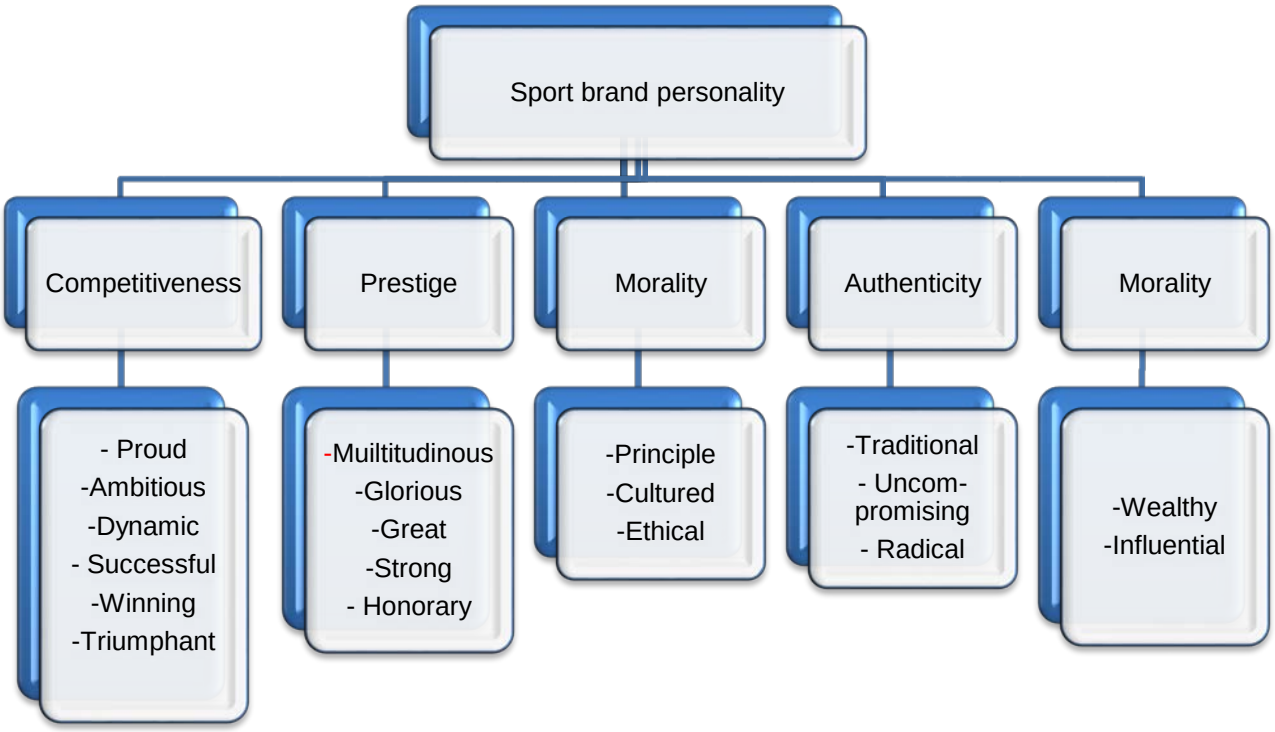


Figure 3-5: Tsiotsou's sport Brand personality traits (Tsiotsou, 2012:246)

3.6.6 Kang's brand personality trait scale (Kang's 2013).

Kang (2013:13) conducted a similar study as Tsiotsou (2012:242) and Braunstein and Ross (2010:9) in the USA regarding brand personality perceptions of sport team brands. The study had a sample size of 351 participants. Brand categories used in the study was professional sport teams among the big four leagues namely: NFL; Major league Baseball (MLB); National Basketball Association (NBA); National Hockey League (NHL). Kang's (2013) brand personality trait scale consists of five dimensions and 29 items as illustrated in Figure 3-6

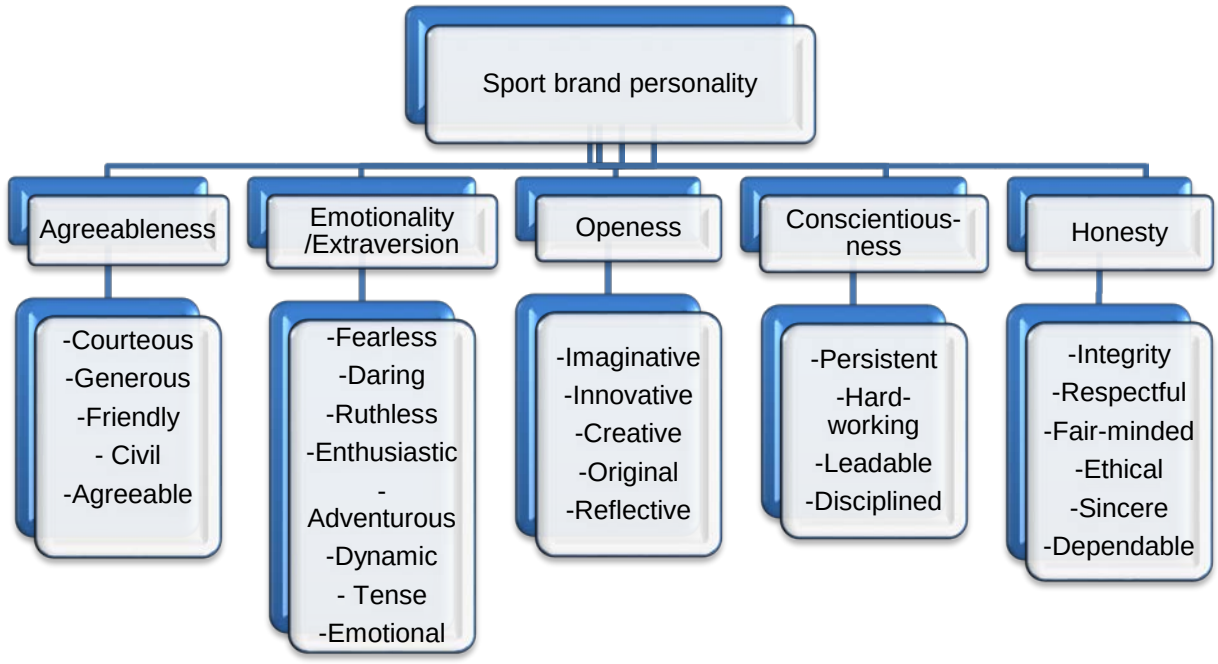


Figure 3-6: Kang's Sport Brand personality traits (Kang et al., 2013:45)

3.6.7 Kim's brand personality trait scale (Kim *et al.*, 2017).

Kim *et al*. (2012:71) conducted a study of brand personality in Korea. The purpose of the study was to develop a brand personality scale specifically for sport brands. The sample size of the study included 445 university students. The brand category selected was sport apparel and footwear. The measurement instrument consisted of six factors and 18 items as shown in Figure 3-7.

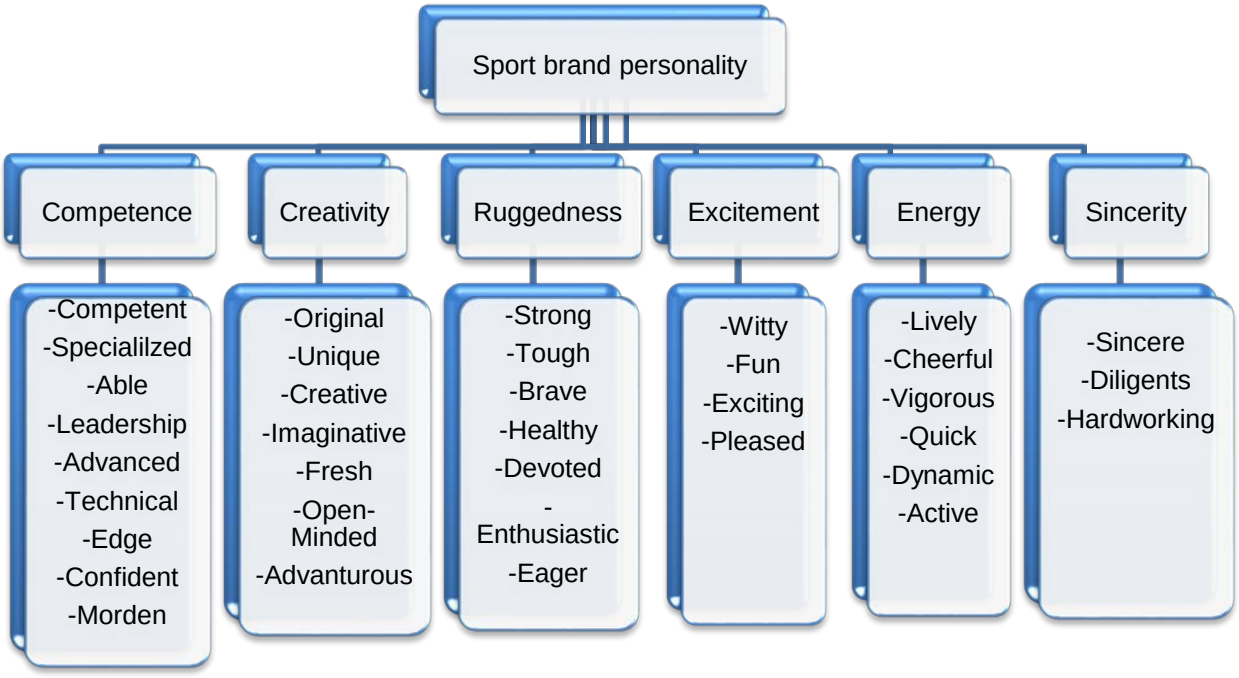


Figure 3-7: Kim's Sport brand personality (Kim et al., 2012:71)

3.6.8 Schade's brand personality trait scale (Schade *et al.*, 2014)

Schade *et al.* (2014:653-4) conducted a similar study than various other authors (Kim *et al*. (2012:71); Kang, 2013:13; Tsiotsou, 2012: 242; Braunstein & Ross 2010:9) focusing on brand personality perceptions in Germany. The objective was to develop a brand personality scale for professional sport team brands. In this study, the sample size totalled to 3175. The brand category selected in this study was professional sport teams namely: football (*Bayern Munchen; F.C St. Paul; Borussa Dortmund; F.C. Schalke 04; Bayer Leverkusen; Hertha BSC Berlin; I. F.C. Koln and Union Berlin*), handball (*Fuchse Berlin; TBV Lemgo*), hockey (*Kolner Haie; Eisbaren Berlin)* and basketball (*ALBA Berlin).* The final scale had four dimensions and 12 items of brand personality as shown in Figure 3-8.

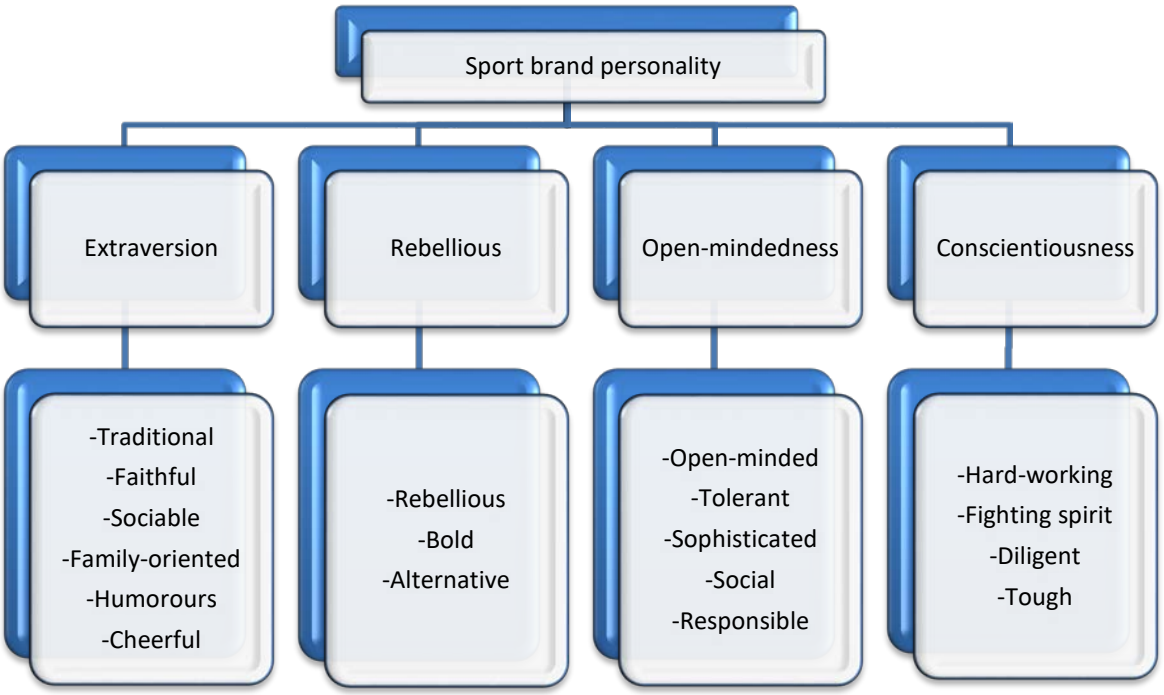


Figure 3-8: Schade's Brand personality dimension for a professional sport team (Schade *et al*., 2014:659)

3.6.9 Sung's brand personality trait scale (Sung *et al.*, 2014).

Sung *et al.* (2014:122) conducted a study to investigate the brand personality of luxury brands in the USA. The research objective was to develop a reliable and valid scale to measure dimensions of brand personality for luxury brands. This study had a sample size of 279 respondents. The study had three different brand categories namely: automobile (*Mercedes-Benz; Bentley; Jaguar; Lexus; Ferrari; Porsche; Cadillac; BMW; Lamborghini and Rolls-Royce*), fashion (*Prada; Dolce & Gabbana; Burberry; Polo Ralph Lauren; Gucci; Coach; Chanel; Dior; Louis Vuitton; Armani*) and other (*Nordstrom; Four Seasons; Saks Fifth Avenue; Hilton; Neiman Marcus; Bose; Cartier; Tiffany & Co; Bvlgari and Godiva*). The scale consisted of six dimensions' and 36 items of brand personality as indicated in Figure 3-9.

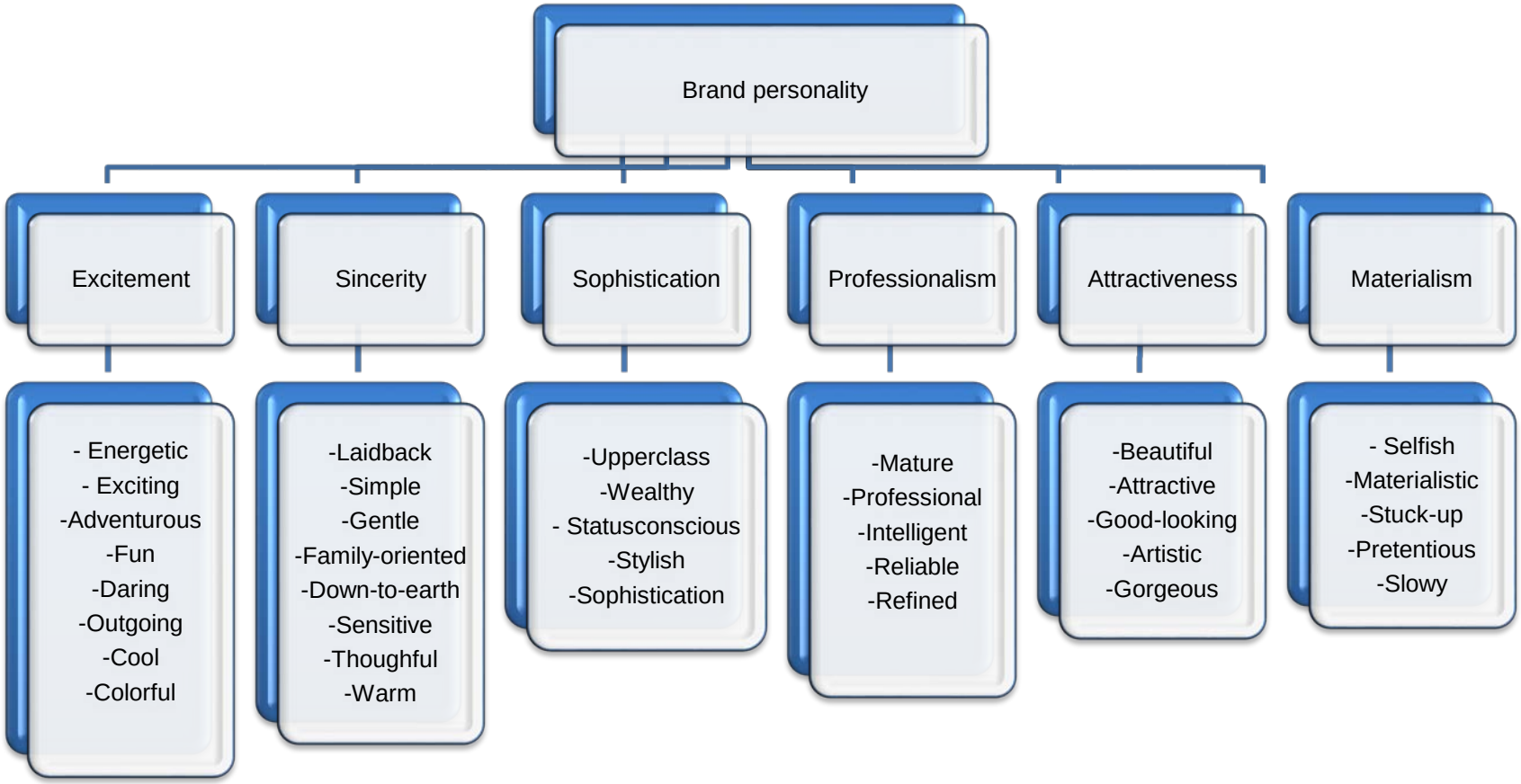


Figure 3-9: Sung's Dimension of luxury brand personality (Sung et al., 2014:122)

3.6.10 Rauschnabel's brand personality trait scale (Rauschnabel *et al.*, 2016).

Rauschnabel *et al.*, (2016:3077) conducted a brand personality study in Germany and the USA. The aim of the study was to develop a scale to measure the brand personality of universities. In the study, 28 universities were used to develop the scale. Furthermore, the author used 249 university students as a sample size to develop a brand personality trait scale for higher education institutions. Finally, the scale had six dimensions and 36 items of brand personality as showed in Figure 3-10.

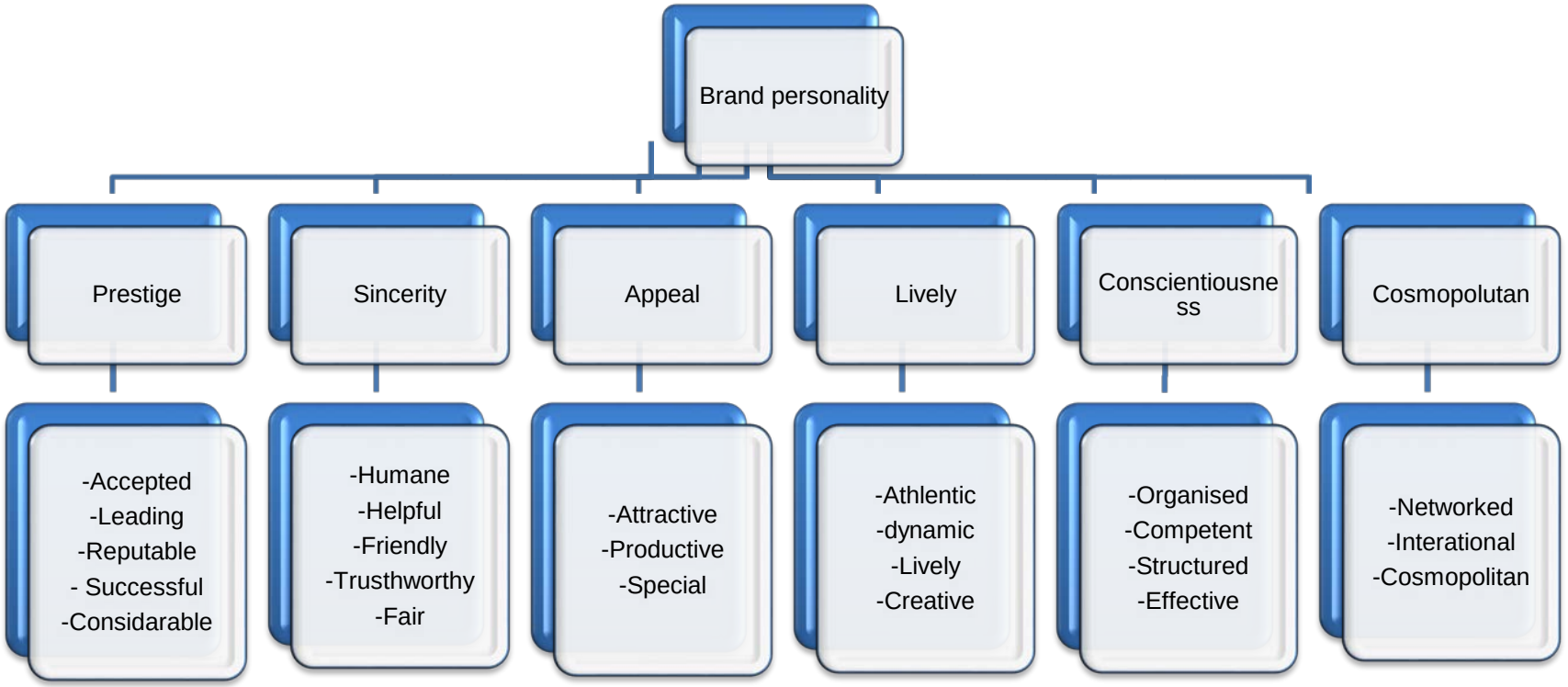


Figure 3-10: Rauschnabel's University brand personality dimensions (Rauschnabel et al., 2016:3083)

3.7 DEVELOPMENT OF BRAND PERSONALITY TRAIT SCALES

In the literature all authors (Rauschnabel *et al.*, 2016:7; Schade *et al*., 2014:659; Sung *et al.,* 2014:122; Kang, 2013:74; Kim *et al.,* 2012;71; Tsiotsou, 2012:246; Braunstein & Ross: 2010:9; Geuens *et al*., 2009:103; Bosnjack *et al*., 2007:310; Aaker, 1997:354) who developed scales followed the same method. This method consists of four steps namely: generating traits; reducing traits; assessing traits and testing the reliability of the scale. The following section outlines each of these steps.

3.7.1 Generating traits

During this stage, relevant traits are generated. Authors accessed different sources to generate traits for their respective brand personality trait scales. Sources of traits include literature (established trait scales), exploratory qualitative studies and secondary data in the form of online articles and websites.

Aaker (1997:349) obtained a list of traits from three different sources: Personality scales used by psychologists; personality scales used by marketers and an exploratory qualitative method. Aaker (1997:349) consulted human personality trait scales within psychology, specifically from the Big Five personality constructs (Norman, 1963; Tupes, & Christal, 1958; McCrae & Costa 1989; John, 1990; Piedmont, McCrae Costa, 1991; McCrae & Costa, 1989) to generate the first set of traits. Secondly, traits from personality scales used by marketers (Alt & Giggs, 1998; Batra, Lehmann & Singh, 1993; Lev, 1959; Malhotra, 1981; Plummer, 1985; Wells *et al.,* 1957) was added to the list of traits. The last source Aaker (1997) utilised was an exploratory qualitative method conducted by means of a free association task. Participants were asked to write down the personality traits that first came to their mind when thinking about two selected brands in three types of product categories (symbolic brands, utilitarian brands and both symbolic and utilitarian brands). The total lists of 632 traits were obtained from the above-mentioned three steps.

Several researchers (Bosnjack, 2008; Geuens *et al*., 2009; Schade *et al*., 2014) followed Aaker's (1997) approach by utilising developed scales from the literature in conjunction with a qualitative research method to generate traits. Bosnjack (2008:307) used 42 traits from Aaker's (1997) scale together with a focus group to generate more traits. Participants in the focus group were asked to describe well-known brands as if they were human beings in order for the researchers to identify personality traits. Thereafter, 345 traits were obtained from developed scales and qualitative

method. Geuens *et al*. (2009) obtained a list of personality traits by accessing different brand personality scales (Aaker, 1997; Costa & McCrane's 1993; Mervielde's 1992; Saucier's 1994). Moreover, Geuens *et al*. (2009) organised two focus groups comprising junior researchers and university students. The participants were asked to imagine the brand as a human being and again to describe the personality of a brand in their own words. A total of 244 brand personality traits were obtained from both developed scales and the focus groups (Geuens *et al.*, 2009:100). Sung *et al.* (2014) generated 42 traits from existing scale developed Aakers (1997). Furthermore, Sung *et al.* (2014) employed a quantitative instead of qualitative method by making use of a survey and obtained 91 brand personality traits. Participants were asked to write down the personality traits that first came to mind when they thought of each of the ten randomly selected luxury brands (of the 30 brands).

Schade *et al*. (2014) generated traits from various personality scales (Aaker, 1997; Geuens *et al*., 2009; Davies *et al.,* 2003; Heironimus, 2003; Mader, 2005; Carlson *et al.,* 2009; Heere, 2010; Braustein & Ross, 2010) and also analysed the official website of various professional sport team for potential personality traits used to describe the team. Schade *et al*. (2014) obtained a total of 86 personality traits from the literature and the website content analysis. Furthermore, Schade *et al*. (2014:654) conducted a semi-structured interview (in person or via telephone) where participants were asked to imagine the sport team as a human being and discuss it in their own words. The interviews delivered an additional 49 brand personality traits. Similarly, Tsiotsou (2012:243-4) generated brand personality traits by analysing 12 different websites of professional sport teams. Thereafter, a total of 80 brand personality traits were obtained. This step produced a larger number of brand personality and had to be reduced into a more manageable number.

Some of the authors (Braunstein and Ross, 2010; Kang, 2013) only utilised developed scales from the literature to generate traits. Braunstein and Ross (2010) utilised the original brand personality scale developed by Aaker (1997:352) as well as other existing scales (Braunstein & Zhang, 2005, 2007; Musante *et al.*, 1999 & Tenser, 2004) and 84 traits were obtained. While, Kang (2013) used eight existing scales (Aaker, 1997; Geuens *et al*., 2009; Braunstein & Ross 2010; Heere, 2010; Tsiotsou, 2012; Lee & Cho, 2012; Allport & Odbert's 1936; Norman's 1967) from the literature and generated 105 traits.

Kim *et al*. (2012) only employed a qualitative method using a free-thought association for their trait generation step. Students were asked to complete a questionnaire. Thereafter, 107 sport brand personality traits were obtained. While Rauschnabel *et al.* (2016) utilised both qualitative

and quantitative research methods. The authors' conducted a focus group interview with five German consumers to describe the university as a human being and obtained 327 personality traits (Rauschnabel *et al.,* 2016:3079). The next step of the study included a sample of the online survey using 186 undergraduate and 46 postgraduate university students and generated a further 232 brand personality traits (Rauschnabel *et al.,* 2016:3079).

3.7.2 Reducing the generated personality traits

After the trait generation step, all the authors proceeded to a trait reduction step except for Braunstein and Ross (2010). This section explains the whole procedure followed by each of the authors to reduce the initial number of generated traits to a more relevant and manageable number. Generated traits were reduced by means of surveys, consultation with subject experts' (marketers and researchers) or combination of surveys and subject experts in all of the studies (Aaker, 1997; Bosnjack, 2008; Geuens *et al*., 2009; Tsiotsou, 2012; Kang, 2013; Kim *et al.,* 2012; Schade *et al.*, 2014; Sung *et al*., 2014; Rauschnabel *et al.*, 2016).

Aaker (1997:349) reduced 309 traits to 114 by means of a survey. Aaker distributed a survey to 25 participants who were asked to rate how descriptive the 309 traits were regarding brands in general (1= not at all descriptive, 7=extremely descriptive). The cut off for the final list of traits was a mean rating of 6 (very descriptive). Thereafter, the scale had 114 personality traits relevant to the study.

Some of the studies (Bosnjack, 2008; Sung *et al*., 2014) Geuens *et al*.,2009) reduced traits by means of focus groups. Bosnjack (2008: 307-308) reduced the initial list of 345 traits to 84 traits by removing any redundant and ambiguous traits by means of a focus group. Participants were asked to indicate which traits are not applicable to brands and not unique. Sung *et al*. (2014:126) reduced their list of traits from 91 to 66 also using a focus group. Participants were asked to discuss the relevance of each brand personality traits to luxury brands. Therefore, all terms found inappropriate for describing luxury brands in general terms were eliminated.

Geuens *et al*., (2009) reduced the list of traits from 244 to 40 by means of a focus group and consulting subject experts. The first group of eight judges (marketing professors and marketing managers) were given a description of brand personality, thereafter were asked to delete inappropriate personality traits from the list of 244 traits that resulted in a remaining list of 108 personality traits. The second group of 20 marketing researchers were given a description of brand personality and were asked thereafter to delete inappropriate personality traits from the list

of 108 and amounted to a remaining 40 brand personality traits. Similarly, several authors (Kim *et al.* 2012:69; Kang, 2013; Schade *et al.*, 2014 & Rauschnabel *et al,* 2016) reduced the list of generated traits by consulting subject experts. Kang (2013:27) reduced the list of 105 traits to 36 traits by consulting subject experts. During this step, a panel of subject experts was asked to evaluate how relevant each trait is (highly relevant; mostly relevant; low relevance; no relevance). Schade *et al.* (2014:655) had a list of 105 traits and reduced it to 84 traits by consulting subject experts. The subject experts were asked to indicate which of the 105 items are the best representation of personality traits. The agreement to terminate traits was that if more than 40% of subject experts indicated that the trait cannot be regarded as a personality trait (Schade *et al.*, 2014:655). Thereafter, a total of 21 personality traits were terminated from the study and 84 personality traits remained. Furthermore, subject experts were presented with the list of remaining traits and asked to indicate which traits were appropriate to measure the brand personality of professional sport teams. A six-point Likert-type scale was used and any trait with a mean below four was discarded (Schade *et al.*, 2014:655). Consequently, 58 brand personality traits were terminated and only 26 traits remained to measure the brand personality of professional teams.

The last two authors (Kim *et al.* 2012:69; Rauschnabel *et al,* 2016) used subject experts by means of a survey in order to reduce the list of generated traits. Kim *et al.,* (2012:69) obtained 107 traits and reduced the list to 47 traits by consulting a panel of subject experts (four sport marketing professors and one brand management researcher). Subject experts were asked to participate in the survey to rate how appropriate the selected traits were. During this stage, a questionnaire in a form of a 7-point Likert scale was used to exclude brand personality traits with a mean of 5.0 or less. Rauschnabel *et al.,* (2016:3079) had a list of 327 traits reduced to 72 traits by means of a survey to four respondents. The first two respondents were asked to rate the frequency of each trait in everyday language (1= very rarely and 7=very frequently), while the other two respondents were asked to rate the appropriateness of items to describe a university (1= not qualified at all – 7=very qualified). In addition, two subject experts from the marketing and communication departments of the university inspected and rated the appropriateness of items based on the personality concept. The decision was to retain only items with a mean value of 5.0 and above across all respondent groups.

Tsiotsou (2012:244) reduced the traits of 80 to 48 by consulting subject experts. The procedure used in reducing traits was Rule A and Rule B. In Rule A for a trait to remain in the list, it had to be mentioned at least by a half of the websites being analysed during step traits generation in Step 1. This was used in order to identify traits that are applicable to all teams not only a few

teams. In Rule B, again for a trait to remain in the list had to be found describing both team and the fans. This was done in order to ensure that a trait is perceived by both fans and sport teams.

After the reduction of generated traits, the next step was to conduct empirical research to create the proposed dimensions for the brand's personality traits scales.

3.7.3 Assessing brand personality dimensions

In this section, all traits are grouped together in the relevant dimensions. The dimensions were carefully assessed by means of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) by the various authors (Rauschnabel *et al.*, 2016:7; Schade *et al*., 2014:659; Sung *et al.,* 2014:122; Kang, 2013:74; Kim *et al.,* 2012;71; Tsiotsou, 2012:246; Braustain & Ross: 2010:9; Geuens *et al*., 2009:103; Bosnjack *et al*., 2007:310; Aaker, 1997:354). This section discusses the different approaches used by the various researchers.

Table 3-1: Summary of brand personality studies to assess brand personality dimensions

Authors	Factor method	Method to determine the number of factors to retain	Rotational method
Aaker (1997)	Principal component analysis	Eigenvalues>1 Scree plot	Varimax
Bosnjack *et al*. (2007)	Principal component analysis	Eigenvalues>1 Scree plot	Varimax
Geuens *et al*. (2009)	Principal component analysis	Eigenvalues>1 Scree plot	Varimax
Braustain & Ross (2010)	Common Factory Analysis	Eigenvalues>1 Scree plot	Varimax
Tsiotsou (2012)	Principal component analysis	Eigenvalues>1	Oblique
Kang (2013)	Principal component analysis	Eigenvalues>1 Scree plot	Oblique
Kim *et al.,* (2012)	Common Factory Analysis	Eigenvalues>1 Scree plot	Varimax rotation
Schade *et al*. (2014:655)	Principal component analysis	Eigenvalues>1	Varimax
Sung *et al.* (2014)	PCA (Principal component analysis)	Eigenvalues>1 Scree plot	Oblique
Rauschnabel *et al.* (2016)	PCA (Principal component analysis)	Eigenvalues>1 Scree plot	Oblique

Aaker (1997:350–351) extracted five factors explaining 92% of the total variance. Items with factor loadings below 0.4 were discarded, resulting in a final five-factor model of 42 items. In the study of Bosnjack *et al*. (2007:310), four factors were extracted explaining 47.9% of the total variance. Items with factor loadings below 0.6 were removed. Thereafter, a four-factor model with 25 items was stable and approved. Geuens *et al*. (2009:100) extracted five factors explaining 59.63% of the total variance and items with factor loadings below 0.6 were discarded, resulting in a five-factor model of 25 items. Furthermore, Geuens *et al*. (2009:100) discarded cross-loading items. Schade *et al*. (2014:655) extracted five factors explaining 74.4% of the total variance. Items with factor loadings below 0.52 were discarded, resulting in a final five-factor model of 26 items.

Kang (2013:38) extracted five factors explaining 63.65% of the total variance. Items with factor loadings below 0.3 were discarded, resulting in a final five-factor model of 29 items. Rauschnabel

et al., (2016:3079) extracted six factors explaining 68.5% of the total variance. Items with factor loadings below 0.50 were discarded, resulting in a final six-factor model of 42 items.

Sung *et al*. (2014:126) extracted six factors explaining 67.05% of the total variance. Items with factor loadings below 0.40 were discarded, resulting in a final six-factor model of 36 items. Tsiotsou (2012:248) extracted five factors explaining the total variance accounted for 66% in the data. Items with a factor loading below 0.5 were discarded, resulting in a final five-factor model of 23 items. Braunstein and Ross (2010:10) extracted six factors by retaining items with factor loadings above 0.5. with the exception of factor loadings above 0.35. Kim *et al*. (2012:70) extracted six factors by retaining items with factor loadings above 0.5. Items below 0.5 factor loadings were discarded, resulting to a final six-factor model of 37 items

3.7.4 Test reliability and validity of the developed scales

After assessing dimensions of brand personality one has to test the reliability and validity of the scale. All of the authors (Aaker 1997; Bosnjack *et al*., 2007; Geuens *et al*., 2009; Braunstein & Ross, 2010; Tsiotsou, 2012; Kang, 2013; Kim *et al.*, 2012; Schade *et al*., 2014: Sung *et al*., 2014; Rauschnabel *et al*., 2016) used SEM for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess the reliability and validity of the scales. Various model fit indices were used for this namely: confirmatory fit index; goodness-of-fit index(GFI); adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI); root mean square residual (RMSR); the centrality index (CI); Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI); root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA); normed fit index (NFI); standardise root mean residual (SRMR); Root mean square residual (RMR); incremental fit indices (IFI) and the chi-square as summarised in Table 3-2

Table 3-2: Model fit indices of different brand personality trait scales

Name of author(s)	Types of models used per developed scales
Aaker (1997)	CFI, GFI, AGFI, RMSR & the chi-square
Bosnjack *et al*.,(2007)	CFI,RMSEA,CI & the chi-square
Geuens *et al*. (2009)	CFI; TLI; RMSEA & the chi-square
Braunstein & Ross (2010)	RMSEA; TLI & CFI
Tsiotsou (2012)	RMSEA; GFI; NFI;CFI; RMR & the chi-square
Kang (2013)	CFI, RMSEA,CI & the chi-square
Kim *et al.* (2012)	CFI,TLI,RMSEA,SRMR and the chi-square
Schade *et al*. (2014)	GFI,AGFI, SRMR, RMR, RMSEA, NFI, TLI= & NFI
Sung *et al*. (2014)	CFI; NFI & IFI
Rauschnabel *et al*. (2016)	CFI, SRMR & RMSEA

Furthermore, the authors also assessed the reliability and validity of their proposed studies. Various forms of reliability and validity measures were employed including: composite reliability (CR); test-retest; Cronbach's alpha (α); discriminant validity; convergent validity; predictive validity and factorial validity as presented in Table 3-3.

Table 3-3: Forms of reliability and validity of different brand personality trait scales

Authors	Reliability	Validity
Aaker (1997)	Cronbach and alpha test-retest	
Bosnjack *et al*. (2007)	Cronbach's alpha	Factorial
Geuens *et al*. (2009)	Composite reliability and test-retest	Discriminant
Braustain & Ross (2010)	Composite	Convergent and discriminant
Tsiotsou (2012)	Composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha	Convergent, discriminant and predictive
Kang (2013)	Cronbach's alpha	Construct, convergent and discriminant
Kim *et al.,* (2012)	Cronbach's alpha	Discriminant
Schade *et al*. (2014:655)	Cronbach's alpha	Discriminant
Sung *et al.* (2014)	Cronbach's alpha	Discriminant
Rauschnabel *et al.* (2016)	Composite	Convergent, discriminant and construct

The objective of this study is to develop and validate a brand personality traits scale for South African professional sport teams. This is in line with the studies as discussed above.

3.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter defined personality and brand personality. Literature regarding brand personality, the importance of brand personality for businesses and consumers were discussed. Followed by a literature review of brand personality in sport. It further discussed the measurements of brand personality together with brand personality trait scales.

The concept of brand personality has been present for many years. Recently, brand personality has been applied in sport brands and attracted the interest of researchers'. Sport team activities influence consumer perceptions about the sport team brand. Consumer perceptions are useful to develop marketing strategies' in order to set aside a sport team from competitors. Several different scales have been developed to measure such consumer perceptions. This chapter analysed the process of developing brand personality scales from Step 1 to 4tep 4. These four steps begin by identifying traits, reducing the identified traits, analysing dimensions of brand personality and determining reliability and validity of the developed scale. These steps were followed during the scale development of this study. Chapter 4 provides a discussion of research methodology employed for scale development.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

"Methodology should not be a fixed track to a fixed destination but a conversation about everything that could be made of happen".

J.C Jones

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Marketing research is used to link the consumer to the marketer by providing information that can be useful to make marketing decisions (Burns & Bush, 2010:4). The obtained information assists marketers to identify future market opportunity and threats (Parasuraman *et al*., 2006:6). The importance of marketing research is to maintain and improve the competitiveness of a business (Parasuraman *et al*., 2006:6). Furthermore, marketing research includes the techniques that assist the functions of marketing management to perfect the marking mix in order to meet all consumer needs (Bradley, 2013:4). Marketing research is defined as the systematic collection, identification, dissemination, analysis and interpretation of information about all marketing problems by means of recognised methods to provide relevant information that marketing management can use in their decision-making process (Malhotra, 2010:39; Wiid & Diggenes, 2009:5).

The primary objective of the study was to develop and validate a brand personality trait scale for South African professional sport teams. The scale can be used to assess consumer perceptions regarding brand personality traits of sport teams within South Africa. The following aspects were investigated from the literature:

- Defining marketing and sport marketing according to the literature.
- Conducting a literature review regarding marketing and sport marketing.
- Reviewing the concept of branding according to the literature.
- Defining brand personality.
- Reviewing literature about the brand personality of sport teams.
- Analyse the development of the different brand personality scales.

This chapter outlines the research methodology used to collect and analyse the data in this study. These methods comprise research design, research approach, sampling strategy, data collection

method, pretesting of the questionnaire, administration of the questionnaire, preliminary data analysis and statistical analysis employed to analyse the data. The chapter begins with Section 4.2 that examines the research design selected for the study.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Malhotra (2010:102) defines research design as a framework or blueprint for conducting a marketing research project. In order to reach research objectives, researchers' need to follow a designed plan (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:31). According to Hair *et al.* (2015:147), there are three different categories under research design, namely exploratory, descriptive and causal research designs.

Exploratory research is used to develop a better understanding of a research problem or opportunity when a researcher has a little information about the research problem or opportunity (Hair, *et al.,* 2011:147; Nargundkar, 2008:22). An exploratory research method entails the evaluation of available information such as literature review and qualitative research methods such as in-depth interviews, focus group and pilot studies (Hair *et al*., 2010:36).

A descriptive research design is carried out to describe market characteristics (Beri, 2013:73; Saxena, 2009:109). For example, a study conducted to understand consumers' buying behaviour to describe the characteristics of the target market. A descriptive research design answers the questions of who, what, when, where and why in order to describe opportunities and threats in the market (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:55-6).

A causal research designed is used to obtain evidence of cause and effect relationships (Malhotra, 2010:113). A causal research method is used to evaluate the relationships between dependent and independent variables (Neelankavil, 2007:246). For example, management would like to know whether the level of advertising as independent variables determines the level of sales as dependent variables (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:43). Reddy and Acharyulu (2008:35) compare the three different research designs as indicated in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1: Description of three different research designs

	Exploratory	Descriptive	Causal
Objective:	Discovery of ideas	Describe market course and effect	Determine
Characteristics:	Flexible, versatile, front-end research	Prior formulation of hypothesis. Planned structured design	Manipulate independent variables. Control other variables.
Methods:	Secondary data	Survey	Experiments

Source: Reddy and Acharyulu (2008:35).

The purpose of this study was to collect data in order to develop and validate a brand personality trait scale for South African professional sport teams. Therefore, an exploratory research design (Step 1–4) and descriptive research design (Step 5) were selected as the most suitable research design methods for this study. The following section describes the research approach employed in this study.

4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

Qualitative and quantitative research methods are the two basic research approaches that can be used by researchers (Smith & Stewart, 2015:77). Alternatively, Roberts *et al.* (2011:301) mention that researchers can combine both methods quantitative and qualitative as a mixed method.

According to Armstrong *et al*. (2015:107), qualitative research involves a small number of individuals as a sample size. The importance of a qualitative method is the possibility of discovering new insights during data collection (Yin, 2011:104). Data collection using qualitative research methods include focus groups or in-depth one-on-one interviews (Armstrong *et al*., 2015:107).

Quantitative research is a structured process and data are collected using a larger sample size (Clow & James, 2014:54). In quantitative research, the data are collected using a survey (Bradley, 2007:191). According to Winner and Dhar (2011:68) quantitative research involves a statistical analysis of data. There is a major difference between qualitative and quantitative research

methods. Baines and Fill (2014:94) provides a distinction between qualitative and quantitative research methods as summarised in Table 4-2.

Table 4-2: Summary of qualitative and quantitative research

Characteristics	Qualitative research method	Quantitative research method
Purpose	To identify and understand the underlying motivation, memories, attitude, opinions, perceptions and behaviours'.	To determine the representativeness of the sample to the population.
Size of sample	Small	Large
Type of information gathered	Provide detailed information.	Provide narrowly defined descriptive information.
Degree of structuring	Unstructured approach	Structured approach
Type of data analysis	Non-statistical	Statistical
Sampling approach	Non-probability	Probability

Source: Baines and Fill (2014: 94).

In a mixed method approach, researches employ a research design that includes both qualitative and quantitative research during a study (Hesse-Biber, 2010:3). Mix method can be defined as the collection, analyses and integrating of findings to draw a conclusion using both qualitative and quantitative methods in a single study (Plano Clark & Creswell, 2008:165). According to Kaden *et al*. (2012:301) mix method has become a major popular methodological tool for researchers.

This study made use of a mixed method approach. Qualitative research was employed in this study by means of a focus group and expert panel to identify and reduce traits (Step 1 to Step 3). Thereafter, quantitative research was used to analyse the obtained data (in Step 4 and Step 5) using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and analysis of moment structures (AMOS), Version 25.0 for Windows. The following section discusses the sampling strategy employed in this study.

4.4 SAMPLING STRATEGY

Sampling strategy is a technique followed to select a sample from a larger population following some specific procedures (Gregoire & Valentine, 2007:1). (Gregoire & Valentine, 2007:1). When conducting sample design the process involves the target population, sampling frame, sampling

techniques, sample size and execution (Malhotra, 2010:396). Therefore, the following aspects of the sampling design were followed by this study.

4.4.1 Target population

Neelankavil (2007:234) defined target population as the total number of elements of a specific population relevant to the research project. Researchers' use these targeted individuals to ask research questions (Shiu *et al*., 2009:63). Malhotra (2010:372) emphasise that a target population must be defined correctly because the incorrect definition of target population will deem ineffective results that are misleading. Target population should be defined in terms of elements, sampling units, extends and time period (Rios & Campo, 2013:193). In addition, the definition of target population should specify who needs to be included and excluded in the sample (Malhotra, 2010:372). The target population of this study was South African Generation Y students between the age of 18 and 24.

4.4.2 Sampling frame

Sampling frame refers to the division of the defined target population to selects a sample by researchers' (Nargundkar, 2009:91). The sampling frame is assumed to be a reflection of the characteristics of the target population (Gerrish & Lacey, 2010:144). According to Aaker *at al*. (2011:338) sampling frame is a list of all population members used to obtain the sample. The sampling frame of this study consisted of the 26 registered HEIs in South Africa (Universities South Africa, 2016).

4.4.3 Sampling methods

Sampling methods are subdivided into two categories namely: probability and non-probability methods (Burns & Bush, 2014:242). Probability sampling method is based on each element of the population that has a known chance of being selected as part of the sample (Daniel, 2011:6). While a non-probability sampling method is based on the probability of a participant of the population being chosen is unknown (Feinberg, 2013:304; Zikmund & Babin, 2013:322). Figure 4-1 illustrates the different types of probability and non-probability sampling methods.

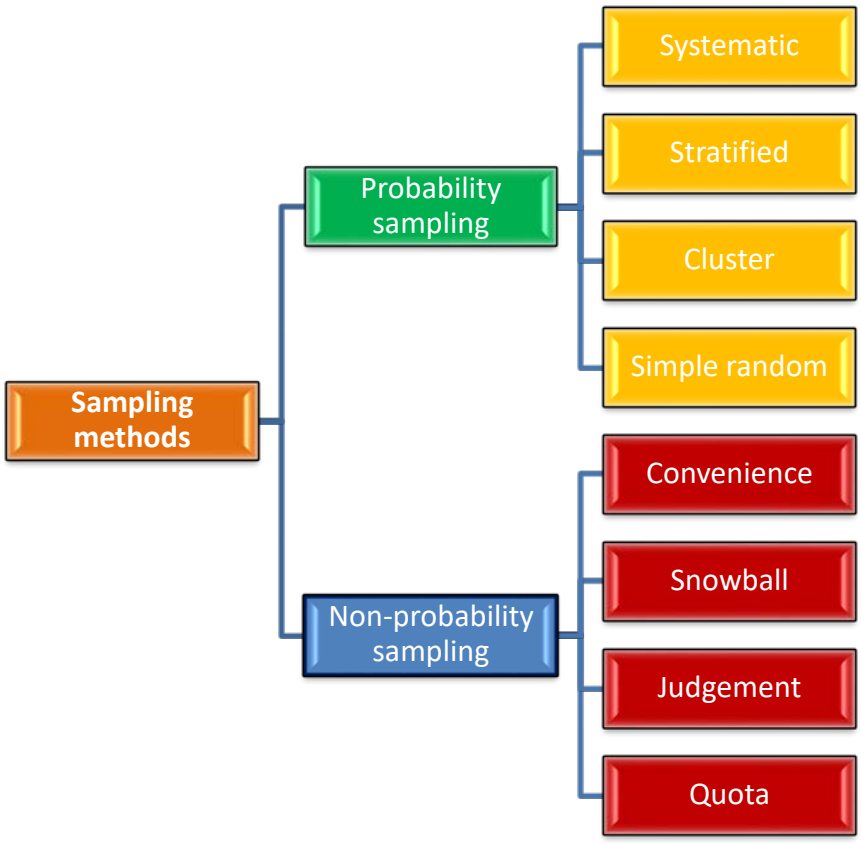


Figure 4-1: Sampling methods (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:282)

Probability sampling consists of: systematic, stratified, cluster and simple random methods (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:282). A systematic sampling method is an organised procedure used to select a sample from a list containing the whole population (Parasuraman, 2007:343). For example, the researcher can use skip intervals and select names based on these intervals (McDaniels & Gates, 2013:287). The skip interval is determined by dividing the number of potential sampling units in the defined target population by the number of units desired in the sample (Hair *et al*., 2013:141). According to Churchill *et al*. (2010:340), a stratified sampling is a probability sample method that divides the population into subgroups. Thereafter, a sample is chosen from each of the subgroups, (Shulka, 2008:61). For example, male and female chosen to represent each subgroup (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:388). Cluster sampling is a probability sampling method used by researchers for smaller sampling units (Mahnkale, 2013:128). The sampling units are selected from a number of small geographical areas with the aim of reducing costs during data collection (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:290). For example, cluster sampling may include cities, provinces or countries (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:206). Lastly, simple random sampling

is a probability sampling method that ensures that each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected and included within the sample (Zikmund & Bubin, 2013:325).

Non-probability sampling comprises convenience, snowball, judgement and quota sampling methods. A convenience sampling method includes elements readily available from the population (Churchill *et al*., 2010:334). McDaniel and Gates (2013:293) indicate that a snowball sampling method is used to select additional respondents from available respondents. In other words, the snowball sampling method can be used when the first group of participants assist the researcher to identify additional people to be included in the study (Cant *et al*., 2005:168). According to Malhotra (2010:379) judgement sampling is a form of convenience sampling whereby the representative elements are selected based on the judgement of the researcher. A quota sampling method includes a minimum number from each specified subgroup in the population such as demographic characteristics age, income, education and sex (Aaker *et al*., 2011:351; Feinberg, 2013:305).

The type of sampling method that was employed in this study is a non-probability convenience sampling method. A convenience sample is commonly employed by researchers for a number of reasons such as scale development using a larger number of respondents such as students (Hair *et al*., 2013: 145). Therefore, this study employed a convenience sample to access a larger number of respondents in order to meet the research objectives as stated in Chapter 1. The sample of 600 respondents was drawn from the target population. Generation Y undergraduate students registered from two HEI campuses based in the Gauteng province of South Africa were the sampling frame of this study. This study was in line with the study of Braunstein and Ross (2010:9) in developing a brand personality trait scale for professional sport teams using university students as respondents.

4.4.4 Sample size

Sample size refers to the total number of participants chosen by a researcher to be included in the proposed study (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:284). According to Silver *et al*. (2013:106), a sample size can be determined using either statistical or non-statistical methods. In this study, both statistical and non-statistical methods were used during the various steps. A convenience sample of 950 was drawn to participate in different steps (Step 1–5) during the study. In addition, subject experts from various fields (business management, languages, marketing, sport management and psychology). were used in the study.

A sample size could be influenced by previous studies conducted, particularly when non-probability sampling methods are used (Malhotra, 2010, 374). Similarly, using a previous sample size may be helpful to the researchers for clear guidelines (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:357). In several studies (Rauschnabel *et al*., 2016:3077; Geuens *et al*., 2009:100) participants were organised in the form of a focus group during brand personality scale development. In the study of Geuens *et al*. (2009:100), there was eight participants for the first focus group and ten participants for the second. While in the study of Rauschnabel *et al*. (2016:3077) there were five participants. Therefore, this study had twelve participants, six for the first focus group and six participants for the second focus group in Step 1 to identify brand personality traits.

Different studies consulted expert panels to assist with the traits reduction. Schade *et al*. (2014:655) had 14, Kang (2013:27) had three; Tsiotsou (2012:244) had three and Geuens *et al.* (2009:100) had eight expert panel members. In this study, only (six) expert panel members were consulted during the traits reduction in (Step 3).

Kim *et al*. (2012:69) made use of 30 participants to assist with the reduction of generated brand personality traits. Therefore, 38 respondents were used to reduce traits of the study in Step3. The study had 55 traits to be evaluated by participants, which calculates to 275 participants per questionnaire using the guidelines of Malhotra (2010:639) to determine the appropriate sampling method for Step 4–5.

The list of 54 traits was evaluated by participants in Step 4 and 5 using a self-administrated questionnaire that was distributed to participants. Step 4 and 5 of this study employed a statistical analysis method to determine the sampling size. According to Malhotra (2010:639) the appropriate sample size to perform factor analysis is to multiply the number of variables by at least four or five. Therefore, a total of 275 participants were needed and the decision was to send 600 questionnaires to the participants in Step 4. The last step of the study (Step 5), 300 participants were used to test the developed STBP-trait scale. Table 4-3 provides summarised sample sizes for each step.

Table 4-3: Summary of sample sizes for each step

	Sample size
Step 1	12 focus group participants
Step 2	No participants
Step 3	6 subject experts & 38 participants
Step 4	600 participants
Step 5	300 participants

4.5 DATA COLLECTION METHOD

Data collection is the part of the marketing research process that involves respondents to provide their answers or information as requested by the researchers (Burns & Bush, 2014:292). Furthermore, data can be collected using three research design methods namely; exploratory, descriptive and causal research (Hair *et al*., 2013:36). Exploratory research includes (expert/experience survey; pilot survey; case studies; secondary data), descriptive research includes (secondary research; surveys; panels; observations) while causal research includes only experiments (Malhotra, 2010:124). Exploratory research is used to search through a problem or a situation in order to provide insight and understanding such as to define a problem more precisely or develop a hypothesis (Malhotra, 2010:104). According to Malhotra and Birks (2006:65), descriptive research is used to describe something usually functions or market characteristics', while casual research is used to obtain evidence of a case and affect (casual) relationship. The researcher of this study employed both exploratory and descriptive research in the following steps during data collection as indicated in Chapter 1. Table 4-4 presents the data collection methods for each step.

Table 4-4: Summary of data collection method per step during data collection process

	Data collection method
Step 1	Focus group
Step 2	Secondary data
Step 3	Expert panel/Survey
Step 4	Survey
Step 5	Survey

The following section discusses all methods used during the data collection for this study.

4.5.1 Focus group

Focus group is defined as an interview that is conducted by a trained moderator with a small group of respondents in a non-structured and natural manner (Malhotra, 2010:173). The role of the moderator is to take charge of the discussion, encourage participants to express their views and guides the discussion to ensure that the research topic is covered (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:40). According to Wiid and Diggines (2009:89), a focus group consists of six to ten participants. The aim of a focus group is to learn and understand what and why people have to say about their preferences, attitudes and perceptions (Wiid & Diggenes, 2009:121; McDaniel & Gates, 2006:8). The assumption is made that respondents are willing to talk about things in a group discussion and sometimes feed on each other's comments to develop ideas that would be difficult to express in a different interview setup (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:59). This study utilised two focus groups with different participants to gather traits during Step 1 and eliminate traits in Step 3. In Step 1 participants were students from the target population. The aim was to generate brand personality traits. This process was facilitated by a trained moderator.

A panel of subject experts such as researchers is a form of a focus group (Geuens *et al*., 2009:100). Expert panels refer to individuals who are subject experts in a particular study field being asked to inspect an instrument and give an informed opinion about its validity to measure the characteristics in questions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:93). Likewise, the expert panel assesses the list of items, eliminating items that may not fit with what is being measured and adding new items that may not have been identified during the literature review (Clow & James, 2014:270). This study utilised a panel of subject experts from various fields (business management, languages, marketing, sport management and psychology). Their task was to reduce the generated traits (Step 1 and Step 2) into a more manageable number. The expert panel had to remove traits that were found irrelevant, redundant and ambiguous. This was in line with other studies that developed brand personality scales (Schade *et al*., 2014; Kang, 2013; Tsiotsou, 2012; Kim *et al*., 2012; Geunes *et al*., 2009; & Bosnjak *et al*., 2007). The second focus group consisting of a panel of subject experts were consulted in Step 3.

4.5.2 Secondary data

Secondary data are defined as information that has already been collected to solve marketing research problems (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:42). According to McDaniel and Gates (2006:52),

secondary data are divided into two namely: internal and external database. The internal database is all information collected by the company itself such as the annual report, while the external database refers to information obtained from outside the company/organisation.

External secondary data are obtained in the form published materials by academic researchers and computerised database or internet (websites) (Hair *et al*., 2013:50). Wiid and Diggines (2009:74) broadly divided published materials into various categories such as books; newspaper; magazines and journals and recommended journals than other material because they do not become outdated quickly. According to Malhotra (2010:143), a computerised database may be classified into three different categories namely: online, offline and the internet. An online database refers to the data that is lying in the central data bank and can be accessed through telecommunications networks (Sreejesh *et al.,* 2014:38). An offline database refers to data available to various storages such as CD's and DVD's (Sahu & Sighn, 2016:79), while the internet refers to data that can be accessed and retrieved using websites (World Wide Web). The internet is the most frequently used form of external secondary data (Lancaster, 2005:90). Searching for information from the internet may be challenging. Wiid and Diggines (2009:74) suggest that selecting appropriate keywords and terms are the best method during internet search such. Furthermore, the internet as a search engine allows researchers to browse different sites such as Google (Clow *et al*., 2014:79). For example, Google Scholar can be used to search for articles on a given topic (Zikmund & Babin, 2007:40).

In this study, secondary data were used in the form of developed personality traits scales for the purpose of trait generation. This is in line with authors who developed brand personality traits scales (Schade *et al*., 2014:659; Sung *et al.,* 2014:122; Kang, 2013:74; Kim *et al.,* 2012:71; Tsiotsou, 2012:246; Braunstein & Ross: 2010:9; Rauschnabel *et al.*, 2016:7; Geuens *et al*., 2009:103; Bosnjack *et al*., 2007:310; Aaker, 1997:354). The website was also accessed to gather more traits. Websites of all big three sport teams in South Africa (soccer, rugby and cricket) were analysed to generate more personality traits. This is in line with other authors who developed personality traits scales specifically for sport teams (Schade *et al*., 2014:654; Tsiotsou, 2012:243).

4.5.3 Survey

The main purpose of a survey is to collect the required data from the respondents in order to achieve the objectives of the research study (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:131). A survey can be used to gather information about one or more groups of people about their characteristics, opinions

and attitudes (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:187). Surveys can be classified into different types namely: person-administered, telephone-administered, computer-administered (email or internet) and self-administrated (Hair *et al*., 2013:111; Winner & Dominic, 2011:48).

Person-administered surveys are conducted by using a trained interviewer to ask questions related to the research topic, while recording all answers received from the respondents (Hair *et al*., 2013:111). This type of survey method can be categorised into three categories namely: in-home interview (door-to-door), mall interception and executives (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:113). Telephone interviews are conducted by calling respondents in order to gather data about a specific research problem (Cant *et al*., 2008:97). According to Wiid and Diggines (2009:115) landlines from call centres or personal cell phones can be used to collect data. Furthermore, the telephone-administered survey is categorised into two categories namely: traditional and computer-assisted (Malhotra, 2010:212).

Berndt and Petzer (2011:143) explained computer-administered as a survey conducted using emails and websites. According to Whitley *et al*., (2013:472) respondents are first sent an email requesting them to go to the website to complete the questionnaire. Similarly, respondents receive the questionnaire electronically in their inbox mail at home or at their workplace (Malhora *et al.,* 2012:331: Berndt and Petzer, 2011:143). Hair *et al*. (2013:112) explain a self-administered survey as a data collection method in which the respondents complete the questionnaire on their own. Self-administrated has become more popular used in the classroom environment (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:119). Self-administered can be categorised into four categories namely: mail survey, online surveys; mail panel survey and drop-off surveys (Hair *et al*., 2013:111).

For the purpose of this study, a drop-off survey method was used to collect the required data. Questionnaires were completed by respondents (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:177). Kaden *et al*. (2009:213) highlighted that a questionnaire is a form of a survey.

4.5.3.1 Questionnaire design

A questionnaire is the set of questions designed to generate information needed to achieve research objectives from respondents (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:172). A questionnaire is also referred to as an interview schedule or survey instrument that plays a critical role during the data collection process (McDaniel & Gates, 2013: 244). Malhotra (2010:335) defined a questionnaire as a structured technique for data collection that consists of a series of questions used by a researcher to obtain information from respondents. According to Burns and Bush (2014:214), a

questionnaire serves six key functions. First, it translates the research objectives into specific questions asked to respondents. Secondly, it standardises those questions and the response categories so that every participant responds to identical stimuli. Thirdly, by it wording and question flow it fosters co-operation and keep respondents motivated. Fourthly, it serves as an enduring record of the research. Fifthly, it can speed-up the process of data analysis depending on the data collection method used. Finally, it contains information about which reliability and validity assessment may be made. Zikmund and Babin (2013: 281) advised that in order to encourage respondents to respond and provide unbiased answers the questionnaire should be shorter and simple to answer.

The questionnaires utilised during this study was designed by following the above-mentioned research guidelines. Questions of this study were formulated based on empirical objectives as indicated in Chapter 1. Therefore, all questionnaires of this study were accompanied by a formal cover letter explaining the aims of the research. The language used in this research project was very simple.

According to Shulka (2008:88), a questionnaire may be structured (sometimes named as close-ended questions) or unstructured (sometimes named as an open-ended question). A structured question contains specific mutually-exclusive response categories from which respondents choose a category that best suit their response (Wiid & Diggines, 2009:176).

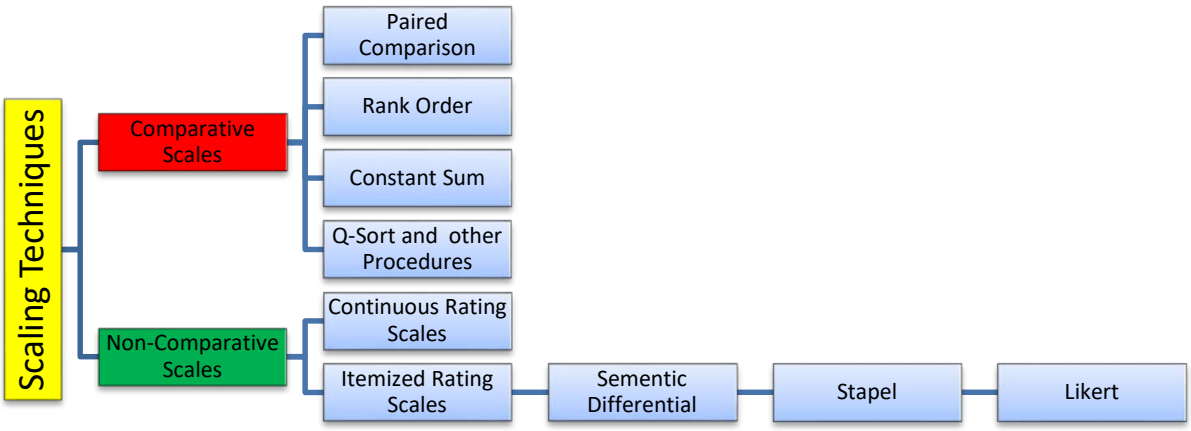


Figure 4-2: Scaling techniques (Malhotra, 2010:289)

According to Wiid and Diggine (2009:167), Likert scales are the most used instruments in the marketing research (Wiid & Diggine, 2009:167). Likert scales are part of a structured approach.

Therefore, this study employed a Likert scale (Step 5). Participants were asked to rate their perceptions regarding sport teams' brand personality (Nykiel, 2007:61).

With unstructured questions, respondents are free to reply or answer in their own words rather than being limited to choose from a set of alternatives (Churchill *et al*., 2010:195). This study employed both structured and unstructured questionnaires that were distributed to participants in different groups. The questionnaire was distributed as follows: Step 4 (unstructured: identifying sport team brands and structured) and Step 5 (structured). This approach is in line with several other authors regarding the development of brand personality scales (Rauschnabel *et al.*, 2016:7; Schade *et al*., 2014:659; Sung *et al.,* 2014:122; Kang, 2013:74; Kim *et al.,* 2012;71; Tsiotsou, 2012:246; Braunstein & Ross: 2010:9; Geuens *et al*., 2009:103; Bosnjack *et al*., 2007:310; Aaker, 1997:354). The following sections discuss the questionnaire layout as well as all different surveys per step.

4.5.3.2 Questionnaire layout

Questionnaire layout refers to a flow of general statements and information such as demographics to more specific information (Hair *et al*., 2013:194). Anderson and Morgan (2008:117) highlight two crucial consideration of questionnaire layout: firstly, ease of use for the respondents, secondly, ease of use for data processing. Malhotra (2010:352) advise researchers to do questionnaire layout when planning to conduct a survey of a self-administrated questionnaire. This will influence the co-operation among respondents and reduce the likelihood of errors during the respondents' interviews and coding (Iarossi, 2007:80; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:221). The role of the questionnaire is to enhance the response rate (Bajpai, 2011:85). According to Rao (2005:142), questions should be designed in such a way that it facilitates easy reading from one question to the other. In addition, it is important for a researcher to number all different sections alphabetically and individual questions numerically within each section (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:196). Therefore, a poorly laid out questionnaire may confuse respondents and result in unanswered questions (Kolb, 2008:205).

A questionnaire begins with an introduction that gives the respondents an overview of the survey (Hair *et al*., 2013:195). The introduction includes contact details of the researcher and permission to conduct the survey (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:196). Thereafter, the classification of information should follow, sometimes referred to as demographic information (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:221). In the classification information section, respondents are asked to provide

demographic information such as age, gender and home language (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:221; Berndt & Petzer, 2011:184). Following is the screening of the questionnaire by a researcher. The purpose of screening a questionnaire is to identify and avoid unqualified respondents from being included in the survey (Hair *et al*., 2013:194). The last section of the questionnaire focuses on the main research questions and should cover research objectives.

The primary objective of the study was to develop and validate a brand personality trait scale for South African professional sport teams. Different questionnaires were developed in order to achieve the primary objective of this study by following three steps (Step 3, 4 and 5) presented in Chapter 1 under the section of empirical objectives.

4.5.3.2.1 Questionnaire: Step 3

In Step 3 the panel of subject experts from various fields (business management, languages, marketing, sport management and psychology). were consulted in order to reduce personality traits generated from Step 1 and Step 2. This was in line with authors who developed brand personality trait scales (Schade *et al*., 2014:655; Sung *et al.,* 2014:126; Kang, 2013:31; Kim *et al.,* 2012;69; Tsiotsou, 2012:243; Geuens *et al*., 2009:100; Bosnjack *et al*., 2007:310). Furthermore, the reduced list was presented to participants from the sampling frame as part of a pre-test to reduce the list of traits to a more manageable number. Participants were asked to rate the descriptiveness of each of the traits for South African professional sport teams in general.

4.5.3.2.2 Questionnaire: Step 4

In Step 4 the remaining traits were used in the main survey of the study and participants were asked to name the first sport team brand that comes to mind after inspecting a number of traits in a specific category and then to assess the descriptiveness of each trait for the identified sport team brand using a six-point Likert scale.

4.5.3.2.3 Questionnaire: Step 5

In Step 5 a structured self-administered questionnaire was used. These questionnaires included the top three sport teams per category (rugby and soccer) in order to validate the scale. The questionnaires were presented to the participants with 14 brand personality traits in order to rate the descriptiveness of each trait for each selected sport team brands. This approach corresponds with previous studies regarding the development of brand personality scales for sport teams (Schade *et al*., 2014:659; Tsiotsou, 2012:246; Braunstein & Ross: 2010:9). The findings were

used to achieve the objectives of the study to develop the STBP-trait scale within the South African context.

4.5.3.3 Administration of the questionnaire

The surveys of this study (Step 3, 4 and 5) were conducted from the beginning of July and mid-September 2018. A self-administrated questionnaire was distributed to all participating public HEIs. A non-probability sample method of 950 full-time undergraduate students at public HEIs was employed. Permission was granted after two HEIs were successfully contacted to distribute the questionnaire before each class session. Public HEIs were selected to reach the target population of the study. The ethical clearance letter was presented to all lectures before distributing the questionnaires to the students. In addition, the questionnaires were accompanied by a cover letter explaining the aim of the study. Furthermore, it was indicated from the questionnaire that participation was voluntary and the information provided will remain confidential and no information will be transferred to any third party. All distributed questionnaires were collected after the students were done. This data are analysed in Chapter 5.

4.5.3.4 Pretesting and pilot testing of the questionnaire

Pretesting refers to the testing of a questionnaire on a small group of individuals' to identify and remove possible problems such as content, wording, sequence, form and layout, difficulty questions and instructions (Pandey & Ramesh, 2011:89; Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010: 233; Malhotra, 2010: 354; Parasuraman *et al*. 2007:303). Pretesting is an essential component of the research survey designed to discover a significant mistake in the questionnaire, because a questionnaire may be too long, confusing, unclear or biased (Brendt & Petzer, 2008:146; Stevens *et al.,* 2008:149). Malhotra (2010:354) emphasise that the respondents in a pre-test should be similar to those who will be included in the main survey. McDaniel and Gates (2006: 279) advise that no research project should be conducted without pretesting a questionnaire. The pretesting of a questionnaire will reveal which questions should be removed or refined because they are vague (Nykiel, 2007:26). This study employed pre-test by using four students in all surveys (Step 3, 4 &5) and were excluded from the main survey. During pre-test, participants completed a questionnaire and asked to point out any problem experience.

A pilot study is aimed at identifying and eliminating problems before carrying out an actual survey (Nykiel, 2007:59). According to Zikmund and Babin (2007:62) a pilot study helps to see whether the selected instrument will produce the expected results as intended. This can be done by using

a smaller number of respondents similar to those to be included in the actual survey (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:59).

4.6 DATA PREPARATION

According to Parasuraman (2007:382), the purpose of preliminary data analysis is to obtain the meaning from the raw data that have been collected. This will help a researcher to achieve the objective of the study (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:217). Thereafter, the data preparation process begins as soon as the required data are collected (Clow & James: 2014:359). According to Malhotra (2010:42), data preparation consists of editing; coding and tabulation.

Data editing can be defined as the process of checking the data for possible mistakes made by the respondents (Hair *et al*., 2008:224). This process will assist a researcher to correct all problems occurred in a questionnaire before the data are transferred to the computer (Zikmund & Babin, 2013:64). Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:350) emphases that data editing imposes quality standards on the raw data. During data editing for this study, the statistician suggested that of all questionnaires completed less than 90% should be rejected, while those with less than 10% incomplete responses should be accepted by replacing the missing values with the mode of the data set for the relevant questions.

McDaniel and Gates (2006:355) defined coding as a process of grouping and assigning numeric codes to the various responses to a question. During the procedure of coding the researcher transforms raw data into symbols (Iacobucci and Churchill, 2010:351). Data coding can be done in two ways. Firstly, coding involves assigning the numbers or alphabets to an item or statement per response category (Czanja & Blair, 2005:26). For example, instead of writing male or female indicated alphabets M or F (Shulka, 2008: 96). Secondly, used in the listed possible answers in a given question by assigning code numbers, symbols or alphabets (Cauvery *et al*., 2007:189). For example codes in the answers provided in the Likert scale (Shulka, 2008 96), coded as 1=strongly disagree and 6=strongly agree.

According to Malhotra (2010: 454), data coding can be classified into categories two namely: pre-coding and post-coding. Pre-coding is when the codes are assigned before the fieldwork. Post-coding is when codes are assigned after the questionnaire has been retained from the field. Pre-coding is appropriate for closed-ended questions because the responses are known in advance and the coding is done before a questionnaire is distributed (Cohen *et al*., 2011:407). Open-ended questions appropriate for qualitative methods as the responses cannot be predicted (Sreejesh *et*

al., 2014:168). The coding procedure was followed in this study in the different steps. Step 3 used closed-ended questions (Section A & B) as well as open-ended questionnaire (Section B).

Thereafter, a close-ended questionnaire in Step 4 and 5 was pre-coded: Section A (Demographic information) and Section B (Brand personality perceptions) together with (Section A) in Step 3 demographic information. Coding information is presented in Table 4-4

4.7 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analysis includes various procedures used in order to inspect and draw conclusion about the collected data (Berndt & Petzer, 2011:34). The SPSS package is used to perform all the analysis (Nargundkar, 2008:118). Therefore, this study employed IBM SPSS Statistics and AMOS, Version 25 to analyse the captured data.

Refer to measuring instruments – See Appendices

Table 4-5: Coding information

STEP 3		
Type of data	**Variable**	**Question number**
Demographic data	S3A1 –S3A7	Section A, Question A1–A7
Brand personality traits	S3B1(1)–S3B1 (105)	Section B, Questions B1(1)-B1(105)
STEP 4		
Type of data	**Variable**	**Question number**
Demographic data	S4A1–S4A7	Section A, Question A1–A7
Sport interest data	S4B1–S4B2	Section B, Question B1–B2
Brand personality traits	S4C1(1)–S4C1 (54)	Section C, Questions C1(1) –C1(54)
STEP 5		
Type of data	**Variable**	**Question number**
Demographic data	S5A1–S5A7	Section A, Question A1–A7
Brand personality traits	S5C1(1) –S5C1 (14)	Section C, Questions C1(1) –C1(14)

The last step of data preparation is the tabulation of the data. Tabulation refers to the arrangement of data in the form of table formats (Zikmund & Babin, 2012:365). According to Hair *et al*.

(2013:254), tabulation can be done using two methods namely: one-way tabulation and cross tabulation. One-way tabulation counts how many respondents or items are in the category and cross tabulation shows how many respondents or items combined per category (Weiers, 2011:43). This study utilised one-way frequency tables of the data gathered during Step 3, 4 and 5 as discussed in the next Chapter.

4.7.1 Frequency distribution

Hair *et al*. (2013:170) defined frequency distribution as a summary of how many times each possible response of a scale question were recorded by the total group of respondents. The recorded information can be presented by means of pie charts, bar graphs and line charts (Lowden *et al*., 2011:203). This study made use of a frequency distribution graph and tables to demonstrate the frequency distribution of the demographic data.

4.7.2 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is defined as a procedure used to reduce and summarise data (Charry *et al.,* 2016:48; Hair, *et al*., 2014:92; Malhotra, 2010: 636; Shui *et al*., 2009:630; Majumdar, 2005:203;Smith, 2005: 708). This is done by summarising data from a larger number of interrelated variables into limited factors (Majumdar, 2005:203). However, Feinberg *et al*. (2013:484) highlight that factor analysis is used for a number of reasons for marketing research such as data reduction, structure identification and data transformation. The application of factor analysis in marketing research has been used in the development of various scales, including brand personality scales (Feinberg *et al*., 2013:484). Factor analysis is divided into two categories namely: exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Pallant, 2013:188; Hair *et al*., 2010:94). Therefore in this study factor analysis (EFA & CFA) was employed to reduce and summarise data in order to develop a brand personality trait scale. EFA is discussed in the next section and CFA is discussed in Section 4.7.2.2.

4.7.2.1 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

Exploratory factor analysis is a method used to identify underlying dimensions or factors that explain the correlations among a set of variables (Malhotra, 2010:739). This method is used during the early stages of research to gather information and discover the interrelationship among a set of variables (Pallant, 2013:188). There are several stages a researcher must follow to conduct an EFA (Hair *et al*., 2014:95-104). The following sections discuss the various stages

involved in exploratory factor analysis and how it was applied to the development of brand personality scale for this study. This was in line with the study of (Kim *et al*., 2012:70 & Tsiotsou 2012:248).

4.7.2.1.1 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) research design considerations

Factor analysis is divided into two categories namely R-type and Q-type factor analysis. According to Weinstein (2010:47), R-type factor analysis reduces the amount of data by finding the similarities in responses to particular variables, while Q-type factor analysis finds groupings of individuals who respond similarly to research issues. For the purpose of this study brand personality traits were used as variables using R-type factor analysis dealing with variables. The R-type factor analysis utilises a correlation matrix to show all possible correlations between variables (Malhotra, 2010:639). Correlations can be easily measured using metric variables such as brand personality traits for this study (Hair *et al*., 2014:99). After selecting the number of variables, the sample size of the study should be determined. The following section (4.7.2.1.2) discusses all aspect regarding the sample size. According to Malhotra (2010:639), the appropriate sample size to perform factor analysis is to multiply the number of variables by at least four or five. Likewise, this study used a six-point Likert scale to evaluate brand personality traits as variables from the sample of 600.

4.7.2.1.2 EFA statistical considerations

Statistical consideration requires a researcher to measure two aspects to determine whether EFA is statistically viable. The first aspect a researcher should determine is whether the sample size is suitable for factor analysis. In order to determine whether the sample size is adequate for factor analysis, researchers can use Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) (Pallant, 2013:190). According to Malhotra (2010:638), KMO values above 0.6 indicate a sample appropriate for factor analysis.

The second aspect requires a researcher to evaluate the correlation between the items. According to Hair *et al*. (2014:102), Bartlett's test of sphericity can be used to evaluate correlation between the items. The test of sphericity should be significant at $p < .05$, suggesting the appropriateness of factor analysis (Pallant, 2013:190). The next step of factor analysis is to determine the factor analysis method.

4.7.2.1.3 Determination of factor method for the EFA

After the data met all statistical requirements, the next step is to determine the factor method. There are two basic methods that can be used namely principal component analysis and common factor analysis (Sean, 2009:180; Narguandkar, 2007:313). According to Sarstedt and Mooi (2014:246) principal component analysis is based on the assumption that each variables' variance is common. Common factor analysis is used to identify maximum underlying factors of dimensions that reflect what variables share in common (Hair *et al*., 2010:107; Malhotra, 2010:643; Swanson & Holton, 2005:188). In marketing research, the principal component analysis is the most widely used method of factor analysis (Pallant 2013:190; Charry, *et al.,* 2011:70). This method is recommended to determine the minimum number of factors that will account for maximum variance in the data in the subsequent multivariate analysis (Malhotra, 2010:643). Consequently, this study employed principal component analysis. After selecting the factor analysis method, the extraction method should follow as discussed in the next section.

4.7.2.1.4 Determine the number of factors to extract

Determining the number of factors to extract focus on how many factors should be retained during the factor analysis (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:379). There are four criteria that can be used by researchers to extract factors (latent root criterion, priori criterion, the percentage of variance criterion and scree test criterion) (Hair *et al.,* 2014:107-108). Latent root criterion suggests that the eigenvalues explained by each factor must be greater than one (Hair *et al*., 2010:109). The second criterion is simple and is based on the researcher's knowledge referred to priori determination criterion (Malhotra, 2010:643; Hair *et al*., 2010:109). This can be based on literature as well. The researchers know how many factors to extract before undertaking factor analysis (Hair *et al*., 2010:109). The researcher instructs the computer to stop the analysis when the preferred number of factors has been extracted (Hair *et al*., 2013:107). The third method is the percentage of variance criterion. According to Malhotra (2010:645) in this approach, the number of factors to be extracted is determined by a satisfactory level of at least 60% of variance explained. The last method is the scree test. The scree test is the technique that inspects the graph of eigenvalues and looking at the natural bend (elbow) where the slope of the curve changes, the rule of thumb is that all the number of points above the elbow indicates a good estimate of the number of factors to be retained (Pallant, 2013:191). According to Iacobicci and Churchill (2010: 497), latent root and scree test are the most popular methods.

This study employed the scree test to determine the number of factors to retain as suggested and recommended by various authors (Hair *et al*., 2014:107, McDaniel & Gates, 2013:379; Malhotra, 2010:643).

4.7.2.1.5 Determine the rotational method

Factor rotation improves data interpretation by reducing some of the ambiguities that often accompany initial unrotated factors (Hair *et al.,* 2014:110). Rotation methods can be classified into two categories, namely oblique rotation and orthogonal rotation (Feiberg *et al.,* 2013:485). According to Hancock and Mueller (2010:100), oblique rotation methods are correlated, while in orthogonal rotation method factors are not correlated. In oblique rotation, the axes are not maintained at the right angles and factors are correlated (Malhotra, 2010:645). In contrast, orthogonal rotation observes the right angles that exist among the factor axes (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:500). Orthogonal rotation methods include varimax, equipmax and quartimax techniques (Banasiewicz, 2013:179). While oblique rotation methods include oblimin, promax, orthoblique, oquart, doblimin and orthoblique (Tenenbaum & Driscoll, 2005:306). The most commonly used orthogonal method is varimax (Hair, 2011:392; Pallant, 2013:192). This procedure minimises the number of variables with a higher loading on factors (Malhotra, 2010:645). While, promax is the most commonly used oblique technique (Pallant, 2013:192). This technique is used when factors are likely to be strongly correlated (Malhotra, 2010:645).

This study employed both orthogonal and oblique methods. Orthogonal rotation method used varimax technique. While oblique methods used promax to validate factor matrix. The next step discuses factor matrix in more details.

4.7.2.1.6 Assessment of the factor matrix

Factor matrix contains factor loadings of all variables on all the factors extracted (Malhotra, 2010:638). The factor matrix can be assessed by evaluating factor loadings as well as the communalities of each of the variables (Hair *et al*., 2014: 117). Communalities is defined as the amount of variance each variable shares with others (Chakrabarti & Sen, 2012:29). Communalities allow the researcher to examine how individual variables reflect the source of variability and commonly employed in EFA (Andrew *et al.*, 2011:204). According to Hair *et al*. (2014:117) values above 0.5 are satisfactory and recommended to be retained. In this study, all variables with communalities below 0.5 were discarded.

The individual factor loadings of each of the variables should also be assessed. Malhotra (2010:638) explain factor loadings as a correlation between the variables and factors. The minimum acceptable factor loadings range between 0.3 and 0.4, while 0.5 is more considered practically significant (Hair *et al.,* 2014:116). Burns and Burns (2008:445) recommend factor loadings values of 0.6 or above. Sometimes a researcher face difficulties when a specific variable has more than one significant loading (Ho, 2006:221). A variable with several factor loadings is referred to as cross-loading and the interpretation of factors becomes more difficult (Hair *et al.,* 2014:117).

Cross-loading variables have significant values for more than one factor. Variables with cross-loading figures above 0.40 it can be kept (Hair *et al*., 2010:120). Thereafter, loadings are improved for almost every variable in order to produce higher loadings for only one factor and if the variable keeps on cross-loading it is deleted and recalculated to improve factor loadings (Hair *et al*., 2014:117; Hair *et al*., 2010:112; Ho, 2006:221).

Hair *et al.,* (2010:104) emphasise that there is a need for a rerun of factory analysis if there was any variable deleted, or the number of factors extracted should change if another type of rotation is required. Therefore, this study had several continual reruns of the EFA due to the removal of several variables and the numbers of factors extracted as well as.

According to Hair *et al.* (2014:118) after obtaining acceptable variables with significant loadings on each factor, the researcher should attempt to assign the meaning to the pattern of factor loadings. Variables with higher loadings are considered more important and have a greater influence on the name or label to be selected to represent a factor (Hair *et al*., 2010:120). Furthermore, the researcher must delete all items that do not correspond with the meaning of a specific factor (Hair *et al.,* 2014:118). Thereafter, naming all the remaining factors. This is a subjective step combining intuition and knowledge of a variable with an inspection of the variables with higher loadings on each factor (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:379). The final step of factor analysis is to determine the reliability of and validity of factor matrix.

4.7.2.1.7 Reliability and validity of the factor matrix

Assessing the reliability and validity of the factor matrix is the last step of the EFA. This can be done employing confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) through structural equation model (SEM for CFA) (Hair *et al.*, 2014:120). In order to measure the reliability and validity of this study, the above-

mentioned method (, SEM for CFA) was employed. This method is discussed in more detail in the following sections.

4.7.2.2 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

Confirmatory factor analysis is a more complex method that is used in the later stages of research to test and confirm theories concerning the underlying set of variables (Pallant, 2013:188). The researcher then uses CFA to confirm or reject predetermined theory (Hair *et al.,* 2014: 603). According to Harrington, (2009:7), confirmatory factor analysis can be used to validate scale reliability. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) can be done by means of the structural equation model (SEM for CFA) (Hair *et al.,* 2014:120). This was discussed in Section 4.7.5. Therefore, the study made use of confirmatory factor analysis to validate the developed (STBP-trait scale) by means of structural equation model (Munro, 2005:351).

4.7.3 Reliability and validity analysis

The objective of this study was to develop and validate brand personality traits scale for South African professional sport teams as mentioned in Chapter 1. Therefore, reliability and validity methods used in order to achieve the objectives of this study are discussed.

4.7.3.1 Reliability analysis

Reliability refers to the measurement that consistently produces the same results over repeated measures (Silver *et al*., 2013:103). McDaniel and Gates (2006:222) emphasise that a measurement scale is reliable when it provides consistent results over time. There are three types of methods that can be used by researchers to assess reliability namely: test-retest reliability, alternative forms reliability, internal consistency reliability (Hair *et al*., 2013:166; Silver *et al*., 2013:103-4; Zikmund & Bubin, 2013:256; Malhotra, 2010:318; McDaniel & Gates, 2006:222-4). The mentioned methods are described as follows:

Sarstedt and Mooi (2014:37) explained test-retest as the stability of scale measurement used twice to measure something. This can be done by using the same sample of respondents at two different times or dissimilar samples of participants from one population under the same settings (Hair *et al*., 2013:165). The similarity between the first and second scale administration by computing the correlation coefficient determines scale reliability (Malhotra, 2010:319; Shulka, 2010:27).

Alternative forms method is a method used to develop two equivalent scales to measure the same respondents at two different times (Malhotra, 2010:319). Usually administered for a period of two weeks (Silver *et al*., 2013:104). However, there are certain problems associated with the alternative form method. Firstly, it is very difficult or impossible to develop two equivalent forms. Secondly, if equivalence can be achieved, there may be shortcomings and expenses may be incurred.

Internal consistency reliability is used to access the reliability of a summated measurement scale where several items are summated to form a total score (Malhorta, 2010:319; Cant *et al*., 2005:235). Stability of internal consistency is when several items are proposed to measure something and produces the same scores consistently (McDaniels *et al.,* 2005:224). The first approached of internal analysis is split-half. In split-half, the sample is split in half and factor analysis is performed on each half at random (Malhotra *et al*., 2012:783). Only factors with higher correspondence of factor loadings across two samples are retained (Malhotra, 2010:644). The split-half was used in Step 4 to ensure the reliability of this study. The second approach for internal consistency is Cronbach's alpha (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:259). Cronbach's alpha is the most popular method used to determine internal consistency (Malhotra, 2010:319). Cronbach's alpha (α) is a technique that involves computing the mean reliability coefficient estimates for all possible ways of splitting a set of items in half (McDaniel & Gates,2006:224). The coefficient values above 0.80 indicate a very good reliability, values between 0.70 and 0.80 indicates a good reliability, values between 0.60 and 0.70 indicate fair reliability, while values below 0.6 indicate poor reliability (Zikmund & Bubin, 2013:257). The minimum value indicated as a rule of thumb for an acceptable Cronbach's alpha should be 0.6 (Malhotra, 2010:319). Therefore, in order to determine internal consistency reliability for each brand personality dimension the Cronbach's alpha value of each factor was calculated during this study in Step 4 and Step 5.

There is another measure of internal consistency reliability called composite reliability (CR). Malhotra (2010:755) defined CR as the total amount of true score variance in relation to the total score variance. CR is calculated as follows:

$$CR = \frac{(Fl1 + Fl2 + Fl3+\ldots)\,2}{(Fl1 + Fl2 + Fl3+\ldots)\,2 + (err1 + err2 + err3+\ldots)}$$

Furthermore, acceptable values for CR should be above 0.7 (Mehdi, 2014:301; Malhotra, 2010:734). Therefore, CR was assessed by calculating values in the measurement in structural equation modelling (refer to Section 4.7.5.2).

4.7.3.2 Validity analysis

Pallant (2013:7) explains validity as the degree to which a scale measures what is supposed to measure. Hence, the conclusions drawn from the experiment are true (Shui *et al*., 2009:278; Hair *et al*., 2008:116). Silver *et al*. (2013:104) state that validity can be assessed using three different methods namely: content validity, criterion validity and construct validity.

Content validity is also known as face validity (Zikmund & Bubin, 2013:258). It is concerned with the degree to which a measurement seems to measure what is supposed to (McDaniel & Gates, 2006:225). Therefore a researcher uses content validity as a systematic evaluation of how well the content of a scale represents the measurement and cover the entire domain being measured (Malhotra, 2010:320). In this study, four experienced researchers were consulted to inspect the content validity of the questionnaires.

Criterion validity evaluates whether the scale performs as expected (Shulka, 2010:27). According to Zikmund and Babin (2013:259), criterion validity may be classified into two types namely: concurrent validity and predictive validity. Concurrent validity is assessed when the data on the scale are being evaluated and the criterion variables are collected at the same time, in contrast, with predictive validity the researcher collects data on the scale in time and the data on the criterion variables at a future time (Malhotra, 2010:320). Criterion validity was not used in this study.

In addition, a scale can be measured using construct validity to assess whether the construct of the scale measure what is supposed to measure (Malhotra, 2011:27). According to Feinberg *et al*. (2013: 130), construct validity is more helpful to researchers in order to understand the theoretical background of the scale. Construct validity is classified into three subsections, namely nomological validity, convergent validity and discriminant validity. According to McDaniel and Gates (2006:227), convergent validity reflects the degree of correlation among different measures to measure the same construct. Acceptable values for convergent validity should be 0.5 or above (Malhotra, 2010:734; Mehdi, 2014:301).

The discriminant validity is applicable when a researcher is measuring different constructs (Silver *et al.,* 2013:105*).* Malhotra (2010:734) defined AVE as the variance in the indicators or observed variables that is explained by the latent construct. AVE is calculated as follows:

$$AVE = \frac{(Fl1\ 2\ +\ Fl2\ 2\ +\ Fl3\ 2+\ldots)}{(Fl1\ 2\ +\ Fl2\ 2\ +\ Fl3\ 2+\ldots)\ +\ (err1\ +\ err2\ +\ err3+\ldots)}$$

An AVE above 0.5 suggests convergent validity (Hair *et al*., 2011:145). In addition, the square root of the AVE of each latent factor should be higher than the highest correlation with any other latent factor to indicate discriminant validity (Malhotra, 2010:734).

Thereafter Pearson's Product-Moment correlation analysis can be used to evaluate nomological validity. Malhotra (2010:321) states that nomological validity refers to the degree that a scale correlates in a theoretical manner as was expected with different measures in the related construct. Hair *et al.* (2014:620) emphases that the matrix of construct correlation can be useful for assessment of nomological validity. .Correlation analysis shows the degree to which changes in one variable are associated with the changes in another variable (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:530). According to Malhotra *et al*. (2012:697), Product-Moment correlation is the widely used statistical method in the correlation analysis. Product-Moment correlation is also known as Pearson's correlation coefficient (Hair *et al*., 2013:316). According to Pallant (2013:133), Pearson's correlation coefficient takes values from -1 to +1. Values range from -1 indicates a perfect negative correlation and values range from +1 indicates perfect positive correlation (McDaniel & Gates, 2007:530). While, 0 value of *r* indicated no relationship between two variables (Pallant, 2013:133; Malhotra *et al*., 2012:700). For the purpose of this study, a Product-Moment correlation method was used to measure nomological validity. Furthermore, convergent and discriminant validity was evaluated by means of AVE.

4.7.4 Structural equation modelling (SEM) for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

Structural equation modelling (SEM CFA) is a statistical technique used by researchers to illustrate a relationship among the observed and latent variables in various types of theoretical models, which provides a quantitative test of hypothesis (Schumacker & Lomax, 2016:1). Structural equation model is a unique combination of multivariate techniques such as factor analysis and multiple regression analysis (Hair *et al*., 2010:634). In principle, SEM is a

confirmatory procedure by which researchers test a model formulated by theoretical knowledge (Blunch, 2008:98). SEM for CFA is the preferred method for confirmatory factor analysis because it test adequacy of the expected relations and constraints between the measurement model (Little, 2013:71).

The structural equation model carries two key methods. First, casual processes under study are represented by a series of structural equations (Karami & Ismail, 2012:118) and, secondly, these structural equations can be modelled graphically to make a clear concept of the model under the study. This technique tests various models concerning the interrelationships among the set of variables (Pallant, 2013:109). Furthermore, the structural equation is used to determine the validation of a proposed model (Malhotra, 2010:725). This study employed structural equation model (SEM for CFA) as part of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to validate the developed STBP-trait scale. Therefore, the following steps were followed: specifying the measurement model, assessing the reliability and validity of the model and assessing the goodness-of-fit indices

4.7.4.1 Specifying the measurement model

The concept of SEM for CFA begins with defining individual constructs (Malhotra, 2010:729). This process is called operationalising construct (Hair. *et al*, 2010:655). The required items for construct can be selected from existing scales, modified scales or a researcher can develop a new scale (Hair *et al*., 2014:567). Thereafter, the researchers perform a pre-test to respondents similar to the target population for the main survey and if items are not statistical satisfying as expected it must be deleted (Hair *et al.,* 2010:656). Items have been specified now the researcher must specify the measurement model.

In specifying the model, each latent construct to be included in the model are identified and the items are assigned to latent constructs (Hair *et al.,* 2010:656). It is the responsibility of a researcher to identify problems in the structural equation model. Standardised factor loadings above 1.0 or below -1.0 must be avoided. Furthermore, the data needs to be assessed for negative error variances, also known as Heywood cases (Hair *et al*., 2010:706).

4.7.4.2 Assessing the reliability and validity of the model

Reliability and validity of the model can be assessed by means of CR values and AVE values (Malhotra, 2010:741) as discussed in Section 4.7.3.1 and Section 4.7.3.2.

4.7.4.3 Assessing the goodness-of-fit indices

Hair *et al*. (2014: 578-580) classify goodness-of-fit into three categories namely: absolute-fit-indices; incremental fit indices and parsimony fit indices. The first category absolute-fit-indices include the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), absolute-fit-indices (badness-of-fit/chi-square), standardise root mean residual (SRMR) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). Secondly, incremental fit indices which include normed fit index (NFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), confirmatory fit index (CFI) and relative non-centrality index (RNI). The last category is parsimony fit indices, which include adjusted goodness-of-fit (AGFI) and parsimony normed fit index (PFNI). Malhotra (2010:732-733) suggested threshold values required during the assessment of the goodness of-fit-indices are presented in Table 4-6

Table 4-6: Goodness-of-fit indices and recommended values

	Measure	**Description**	**Recommended value**
Absolute-fit-indices (Goodness-of-fit)	GFI	Goodness-of-fit	≥ 0.90
	AGFI	Adjusted goodness-of-fit	≥ 0.90
Absolute-fit-indices (Badness-of-fit)	X^2	Chi-square	p ≥ 0.05
	RMSR	Root mean square residual	≤ 0.08
	SRMR	Standardise root mean residual	≤ 0.08
	RMSEA	Root mean square error of approximation	≤ 0.08
Incremental-fit-indices (Goodness-of-fit)	NFI	Normed fit index	≥ 0.90
	CFI	Comparative fit index	
	TLI	Tucker-Lewis index	≥ 0.90
	RNI	Relative non-centrality index	≥ 0.90
Parsimony-fit-Indices (Goodness-of-fit)	PGFI	Parsimony goodness-of-fit	≥ 0.90
	PNFI	Parsimony normed fit index	≥ 0.90

Source: Malhotra (2010:732-733)

In order to access a model fit, a researcher should include chi-square as it is typically sensitive to large sample sizes and associated *df* including one absolute fit index, one incremental fit index, one goodness-of-fit index and one badness-of-fit index (Hair *et al*. 2014:589). Therefore, the suggested guideline was followed in this study to assess the model fitness by employing CFI, GFI, RMSR and chi-square.

The following Section 4.7.6 discusses statistics used in this study.

4.7.5 Descriptive statistical analysis.

Descriptive statistics are employed to summarise the data obtained from the sample of participants (Hair *et al*., 2008:235). According to Malhotra (2010:486), descriptive analysis can be classified into three categories: measures of location, measures of variability and measures of shape.

4.7.5.1 Measures of location

Measures of location are referred to as a central tendency (Malhotra, 2010:486). This measure includes the mean, mode and median (McDaniel & Gates, 2006:373). Mean sometimes is referred to as an average; this is done by adding all observed values and dividing the sum by the total number of observations (Sekara & Bougie, 2013:285). Furthermore, the mode is the single number in the data list that appears most frequently (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010: 265). Median is the value of a number located in the middle of the data set (Hair *et al*., 2008:248). In this study mean and mode values were used as the measure of location.

4.7.5.2 Measures of variability

Measures of variability are also known as a measure of dispersion (McDaniel & Gates, 2006:374). Malhotra (2010:487) indicates that measures of variability include three measures', such as standard deviation, variance and range. Silver *et al*. (20131:97) defined standard deviation as an instrument representing the degree of spread of responses' among the response categories. Furthermore, the standard deviation is the square root of the variance (Malhotra, 2010:487). According to Zikmund and Babin (2013:354) range is used to determine the distance between the smallest and the largest values of the frequency distribution. In this study, standard deviation was employed as a measure of variability.

4.7.5.3 Measures of shape

Malhotra (2010:488) states that measures of shapes are useful for researchers' in order to understand the nature of the distribution of the data by examining skewness and kurtosis.

Skewness provides an indication of the symmetry of the frequency distribution (Pallant, 2013:59). The skewness values of 0 indicate asymmetry or a normal distribution (Charry *et al.*,2016:39), a

positive skewed distribution is a distribution with a long right and negative skewed is a distribution with a long left.

According to Sherma (2014:178) kurtosis is the measure of distribution flatness. Malhotra (2010:489) emphasised that a positive kurtosis is when a distribution is more peaked than a normal distribution, negative, on the other hand, indicates that the distribution is flatter than a normal distribution. The kurtosis of a normal distribution is zero (Malhotra, 2010:488). Skewness and kurtosis are used to assess normality (Pallant, 2013:61). Therefore, statistical procedures that assume normality should be used with caution (Malhotra, 2010:489).

4.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the research methodology employed in this study. The research methodology of this study consisted of the research design; research approach; sampling strategy; data collection method; data preparation and statistical analysis.

The objective of this study was to develop and validate a brand personality trait scale for professional South African sport teams. In order to achieve this objective data were collected from Generation Y students registered from two HEIs in South Africa. Before the data were successfully collected a questionnaire was developed. Several steps (survey, a panel of subject experts in focus groups and secondary data) were used during the process of questionnaire development. The process of developing a questionnaire consists of questionnaire design, questionnaire layout, pretesting and administration. Thereafter, the final questionnaire of a Likert scale was developed.

Following, the data were collected for analysis. The techniques employed during data analysis was reliability and validity; descriptive analysis; exploratory factor analysis; confirmatory factor analysis; structural equation modelling and analysis of variance. Exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis were used in order to determine the validity of the model. All of the analyses are discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

The following chapter discusses all reports regarding the empirical findings of the study.

CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

"Marketing without data is like driving with your eyes closed."

D. Zarrella

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides analysis and reports on empirical findings of this study based on the propped empirical objectives as highlighted in Section 3.3 of Chapter 1. The chapter begins with a description of the data gathering process in Section 5.2 and preliminary data analysis in Section 5.3. In Section 5.4, a description of the sample for each of the five steps are provided. Thereafter, in Section 5.5, the study outlines the brands identified in Step 1 of the study, followed by Section 5.6, which discusses the identification of the traits in Step 1 and Step 2 of the study. Section 5.7 provides a report on the traits reduction for Step 3 of the study followed by Section 5.8 presenting the results of EFA, while Section 5.9 report on reliability and validity of the measurement model. Section 5.10 assesses the correlation matrix to determine nomological validity. The chapter concludes by focusing on SEM for CFA (Structural Equation Model) in Section 5.11, highlighting the reliability, convergent validity, discriminant validity and model fit of the measurement model.

In this study data analysis was performed by employing SPSS and AMOS Version 23.0 for Windows. The data analysis was conducted in six steps, as outlined in Section 4.3.2 of Chapter 1. Data gathering process is discussed in the next section.

5.2 DATA GATHERING PROCESS

Five steps were followed for the data collection that was required for this study. Step 1 of the study involved gathering data from university students by means of a focus group facilitated by a qualified psychologist. Step 2 of the study involved the collection of secondary data from the internet, of professional sport teams in South Africa and from existing scales of brand personality. Step 3 of the study involved data gathering from a panel of subject experts by means of pen and paper. Furthermore, a self-administrated questionnaire was distributed to students enrolled at one campus in Gauteng. The final steps of the study (Step 4–5) involved gathering data from students' enrolled at two HEI based in the Gauteng province, South Africa.

Step 4 and Step 5 involved self-administered questionnaires distributed to students after lecture sessions to avoid interruption of academic activities. Students were informed that participation in the study is voluntary and no one is forced to participate and all information obtained would remain confidential and will never be transferred to any third parties. Therefore, data obtained will be used for research purposes only.

5.3 PRELIMARY DATA ANALYSIS

The preliminary data analysis of this study was conducted by employing coding, data cleaning and tabulation.

5.3.1 Coding

In this study, different questionnaires were used in different steps, which made coding essential to distinguish between the different data sets gathered. The coding of this study is referred to in Table 4-5 for the tables presenting codes and assigned values.

5.3.2 Data cleaning

All questionnaires' that had more than 10% missing values were deleted during data cleaning. In addition, all scaled-responses within the questionnaire with 10% missing values were deleted as well.

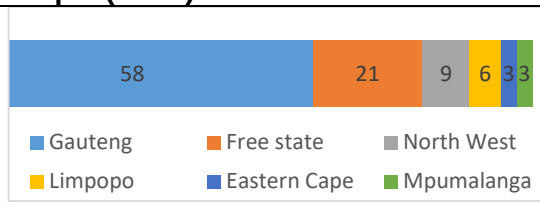
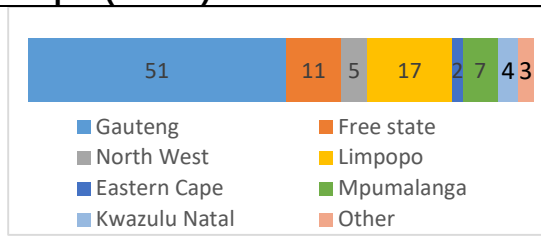
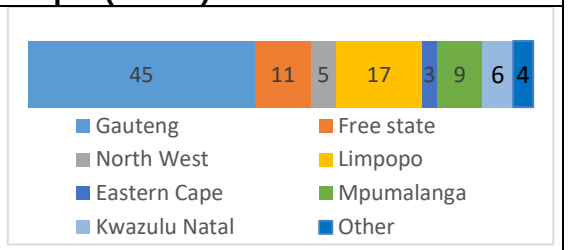
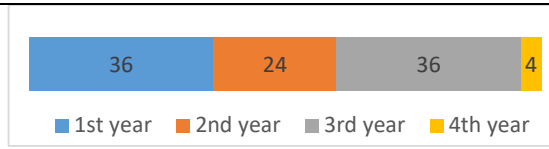
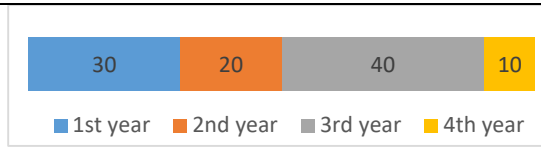
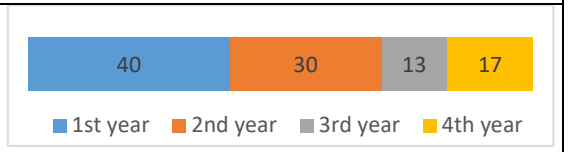
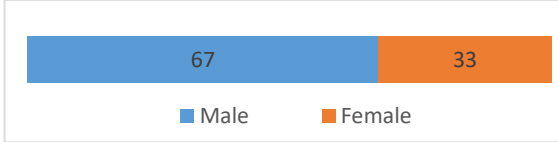
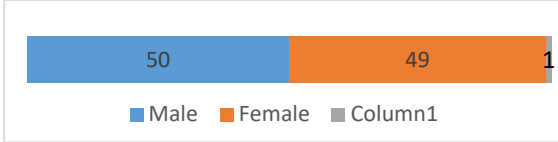
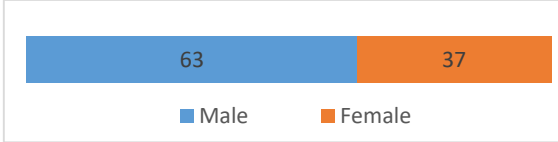
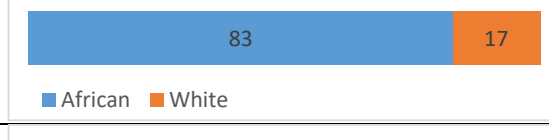
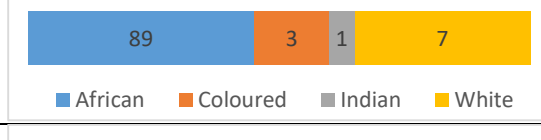
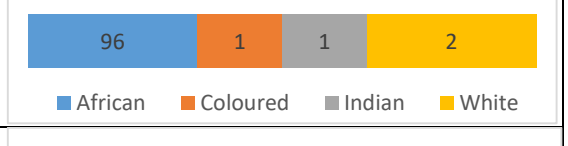
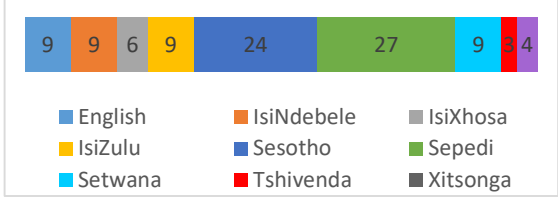
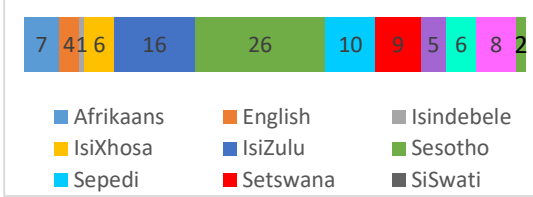
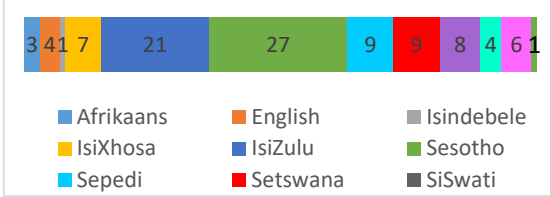
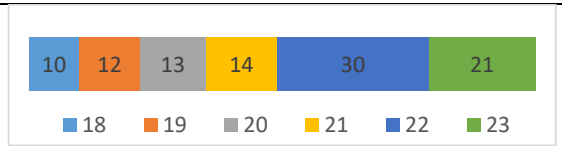
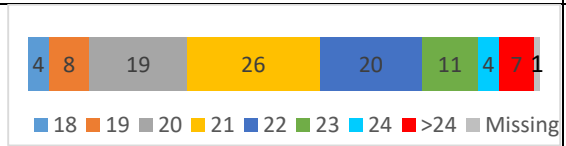
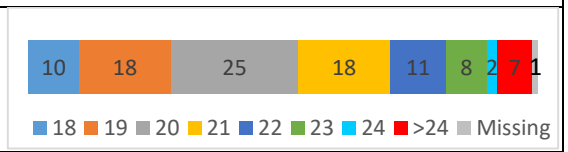
5.3.3 Tabulation.

Thereafter the process of tabulation began after data had been coded and cleaned. Refer to Annexure D for frequency tables of responses recorded in Step 5 of this study.

5.4 DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS

The demographic information for Step 1 was based on a focus group. There were 67% male and 33% female participants, the discussion was dominated by African students (75%) followed by white students (25%). The following Table 5-1 presents demographic information for Step 3, 4 and 5 based on the province of origin, current year of study, gender, ethnic group, mother tongue and age. The majority of respondents (Step 3=100%, Step 4=97% and Step 5=96%) indicated South Africa as their country of origin.

Table 5-1: Demographic information (Step 3, 4 & 5)

	Step 3 (N=38)	Step 4 (N=477)	Step 5 (N=293)
Province of origin:			
Current year of study:			
Gender:			
Ethnic group:			
Mother tongue language			
Age			

The first row in Table 5-1 presented the province of origin per participant. In Step 3, 58% of participants were from Gauteng, 21% was from the Free State, 9% was from North West, 6% was from Limpopo, while 6% was from Eastern Cape and Mpumalanga. In Step 4, 51% was from Gauteng, 17% was from Limpopo, 11 was from Free State, 7% was from Mpumalanga, 5% was from North West, 4% was from Kwa-Zulu Natal. While 3% was from other provinces, which are outside South Africa, 2% was from Eastern Cape. In Step 5, the province of origin distribution was as follows: Gauteng (45%), Limpopo (17%), Free State (11%), Mpumalanga (9%), Kwa-Zulu Natal (6%), North West (5%), Eastern Cape (3%), other countries (4%), missing values (1%).

The second row in Table 5-1 presented the current year of study. Step 3 was dominated by first and third-year students by 36% each, followed by second years with 24%, while 4% claimed to be fourth years. Step 4, was dominated by third years with 40% and followed by first years with 30%, second years (20%) and fourth years (10%). While, Step 5, was dominated by first-year students with 40%, followed by second years (30%), fourth years (17%) and third years (13%).

The third row in Table 5-1 presented gender. Male respondents made up 67% of the sample while female respondents accounted for 43%. In Step 4, 50% of respondents were males and 49% were females. Furthermore, male-dominated again in Step 5 (63%) compared to females (37%).

The fourth row in Table 5-1 presented the ethnic group. As indicated from the table above Africans were the largest group for all steps (Step 3=83%; Step 4=89% and Step 5=96%). The second largest group was whites (Step 3=17%; Step4=7% and Step 5 =2%). Other ethnic groups represented in the sample were coloured (Step 4=3% and Step 5=1%) and Indian/Asians (Step 4=1% and Step 5=1%).

The fifth row in Table 5-1 presented the mother tongue language. In Step 3, 27% of participants were speaking Sepedi, followed by Sesotho (24%), English, IsiNdebele, IsiZulu and Setswana (9% each), followed by IsiXhosa (6%), Xitsonga (4%) and Siswati and Tshivenda (3% each). In Step 4, 26% of participants were Sesotho speaking, followed by IsiZulu (16%), Sepedi (10%), Setswana (9%), Xitsonga (8%), Afrikaans (7%), IsiXhosa and Tshivenda (6% each), SiSwati (5%), English (4%), IsiNdebele (8%) and 2% never specified their mother tongue. While, in Step 5, 27% of participants' were speaking Sesotho, followed by IsiZulu (21%), Sepedi and Setswana (9% each), SiSwati (8%), IsiXhosa (7%), English and Tshivenda (4%), Xitsonga (6%), Afrikaans (3%), isiNdebele and other non-South African languages (1% each).

The last row presented age. In Step 3 the majority was aged 22 (30%) followed by those who were 23 (21%), 18 (10%), 21 (14% each), 20 (13%) 19 (12%). In Step 4 the majority of participants were aged 21 (26%), followed by 22 (20%), 20 (19%), 23 (11%), 19 (8%), 24> (7%), 18 and 24 (4% each) and 1% was missing values. While, in Step 5, participants aged 20 dominated with 25%, followed by those who were 19 and 21 (18% each), 22 (11%),18 (10%), 23 (8%), 24> (7%), 24 (2%) and 1% never stated their age.

5.5 TRAIT IDENTIFICATION

Step 1 of this study made use of focus groups to generate brand personality traits relevant to sport teams. The focus groups yielded 204 brand personality traits. While Step 2 of the study used secondary data (literature and websites), the purpose was to generate additional brand personality traits. This method produced 132 brand personality traits. This was in line with several authors who used focus groups and secondary data as a method for trait generation (Rauschnabel *et al*., 2016; Schade *et al*., 2014; Geuens *et al*., 2009; Bosnjack, 2008 & Aaker, 1997).

5.5.1 Focus groups

This study had two separate focus group sessions during which data were collected. Participants were invited via email to attend a session. The email was sent in advance stating the agenda. Both sessions were facilitated by a qualified facilitator and responses were recorded by pen and paper. The facilitator explained the purpose of the focus group and guided the conversation. Participants were requested to name any professional sport team brands they know. Thereafter, the teams were categorised per sporting codes e.g. soccer, rugby and cricket. Participants were asked how they would describe the identified sport teams to someone who is not familiar with the team. Furthermore, the facilitator asked respondents to explain what they liked/disliked about the teams. Lastly, participants were asked to explain each team as if the team was a person. A total of 79 traits were obtained during the first focus group, while 125 brand personality traits were obtained during the second focus group. All obtained traits (204) are attached in Annexure E**.**

5.5.2 Secondary data (www)

Step 2 was based on secondary data and used sport teams' websites (www) as well as literature (developed brand personality scales). During the website analysis, each sport (soccer, rugby and cricket) teams' website were visited. All adjective words describing the sport team were used to

generate relevant traits for a sport team. Firstly, websites were used to reach the homepage of each sport team. Thereafter, icons such as club history and news were selected and analysed. Secondly, blogs were visited per sport team. Websites analysis resulted in 68 generated traits, see attached in Annexure F.

5.5.3 Secondary data (scales)

Literature of existing scales (Schade *et al*., 2014:659; Braunstein & Ross: 2010:9; Geuens *et al*., 2009:103; Aaker, 1997:354) was reviewed. These four scales were selected based on its relevance for the study. Scales from Aaker (1997) and Geuens *et al*. (2009) are relevant because these two scales are the most commonly used scales to measure brand personality in general. Furthermore, the scales of Schede (2014) and Braunstein and Ross (2010) were selected because both of these scales measures brand personality specifically for sport team brands. The review of literature resulted in 123 traits, see attached in Annexure G. As indicated above, Step 1 and Step 2 amounted to a total of 395 traits, which were challenging to present to participants in form of a questionnaire. Therefore, the decision was made to reduce the obtained traits to a more manageable number.

5.6 REDUCTION OF TRAITS

The obtained list of traits was too vast and the decision was to reduce the list further. The list was reduced by consulting subject experts, this was in line with several other authors (Kim *et al.* 2012:69; Kang, 2013; Schade *et al.*, 2014 & Rauschnabel *et al,* 2016) who also developed brand personality trait scales. Six subject experts from various fields (marketing, sport management and a language specialist) were consulted in the form of an expert focus group in order to reduce traits. During the focus group meeting, the list of 395 traits was presented to the subject experts. The subject experts were asked to remove any words that could be perceived as redundant, ambiguous and irrelevant. All discarded traits are presented in Annexure H. Table 5-2 presents the list of reduced traits.

Table 5-2: Reduced list of traits (105 items)

Accomplished	Creative	Greedy	Respectful
Adaptable	Daring	Honest	Rugged
Adventurous	Dependable	Humble	Selfish
Aggressive	Determined	Imaginative	Self-motivated
Ambition	Dominant	Independent	Sincere
Arrogant	Down-to-earth	Innovative	Sneaky
Athletic	Dynamic	Inspirational	Sociable
Attractive	Efficient	Intelligent	Solid
Bold	Emotional	Introverted	Sophisticated
Boring	Energetic	Lazy	Strategic
Bragging	Entertaining	Leader	Stubborn
Brave	Ethical	Luxury	Stylish
Bully	Exciting	Masculine	Successful
Caring	Extrovert	Materialistic	Talented
Champions	Faithful	Old-fashioned	Tough
Charismatic	Family-oriented	Open-minded	Traditional
Charming	Famous	Opportunistic	Trendy
Cheerful	Feminine	Ordinary	Trustworthy
Chilled	Fighting spirit	Original	Underdogs
Competitive	Flashy	Outdoorsy	Unique
Confident	Focused	Over the top	Up-to-date
Consistent	Friendly	Passionate	Upper-class
Controlling	Fun	Professional	Vane
Controversial	Genuine	Progressive	Wealthy/rich
Cool	Glamorous	Rebellious	Winners
Corporate	Good-looking	Reliable	Young

After a successful focus group meeting, 105 traits remained as relevant traits. It was determined that traits were still too many and had to be reduced further. As part of Step 3, a number of 38 questionnaires were distributed to participants. The purpose was to reduce the list of generated traits further. The participants were asked to evaluate how descriptive each of the brand personality traits was for South African professional sport teams in general (Annexure A). Only

traits that had a mean value above 4.5 were retained. Consequently, a further 51 traits were deleted throughout this process. This resulted in a list of 54 traits (see Table 5-3) that was used during Step 4 of this study.

Table 5-3: Reduced lists of traits (54 items)

Adaptable	Creative	Fun	Outdoorsy	Stylish
Adventurous	Determined	Genuine	Passionate	Successful
Ambitious	Energetic	Humble	Professional	Talented
Athletic	Entertaining	Independent	Progressive	Tough
Attractive	Ethical	Innovative	Reliable	Trendy
Bold	Exciting	Inspirational	Respectful	Trustworthy
Cheerful	Extrovert	Intelligent	Self-motivated	Unique
Competitive	Family oriented	Masculine	Sincere	Up-to-date
Confident	Famous	Open-minded	Sociable	Winners
Cool	Fighting spirit	Opportunistic	Solid	Young
Corporate	Friendly	Original	Strategic	

The above 54 items in Table 5-3 were placed in a questionnaire and distributed in order to develop the STBP-trait scale. An EFA was utilised to reduce the items and uncover the underlying factors.

5.7 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (EFA)

In order to reduce the list of 54 brand personality traits further, a series of EFAs using a principal component analysis and varimax rotation were conducted. Four factors were extracted based on an assessment of the scree plot.

In the first EFA, a satisfactory KMO value of 0.957 and chi-square Bartlett test=14221.681 (df=1431), $p=0.000<0.05$ were computed. This first EFA yielded four factors, explaining 47.724% of the variance. There were several items with low communalities (below 0.40). Based on these results, thirteen items (C1, C2, C3, C4, C18, C19, C21, C30, C32, C34, C48 and C54) were deleted.

The second EFA was conducted after deletion of the above-mentioned items. The second EFA produced a KMO value of 0.958 and chi-square Bartlett test=11228.349 (df=820), $p=0.000>0.005$. During this EFA, four factors were extracted based on an assessment of the scree plot, which

explained 53.085% of the variance. There were several items cross-loading. Consequently, 22 items (C6, C7, C10, C11, C17, C26, C29, C24, C25, C31, C33, C36, C40, C42, C43, C44, C46, C47 and C52) were deleted.

The third EFA was conducted after the deletion of these items. The third EFA yielded a KMO value of 0.922 and chi-square Bartlett test=4253.716 (df=171), p=0.000>0.005. During this EFA, four factors were extracted based on an assessment of the scree plot that explained 62.199% of the variance. Some items exhibited a factor loading below 0.6. Consequently, three items (C35, C37 and C53) were deleted.

The fourth EFA was conducted after deletion of three items from the third EFA. The fourth EFA yielded a KMO value of 0.904 and chi-square Bartlett test=3344.039 (df=120), p=0.000>0.005. During this EFA, four factors were extracted based on an assessment of the scree plot that explained 65.189% of the variance. These results were satisfactory. Figure 5-1 presents the scree plot that was used to determine the number of factors to be extracted.

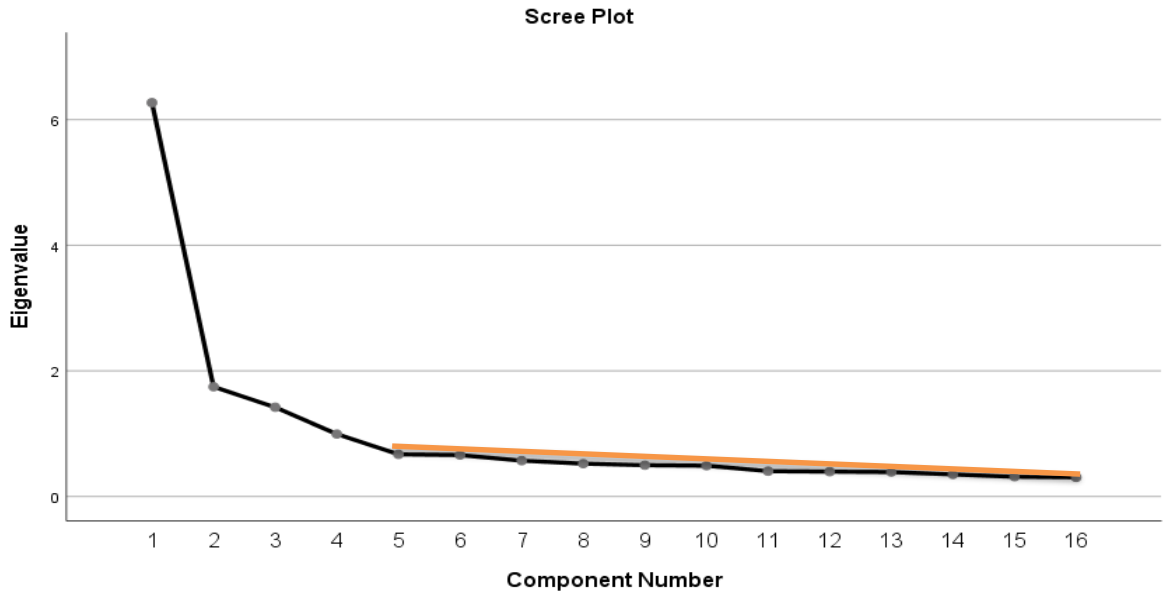


Figure 5-1: Scree plot for the 4th EFA

The above Figure 5-1 provides an analysis of the scree plot indicating the point at which the shape of the graph changes and becomes horizontal. The yellow line in the figure indicates this point. Accordingly, four factors were extracted. The rotated factors from the component matrix, communalities and total variance are presented in Table 5-4.

Table 5-4: Rotated factors from Step 4

	Factors				
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**Communalities**
Trustworthy	.797				.684
Respectful	.736				.667
Reliable	.714				.618
Sincere	.714				.608
Unique	.711				.615
Competitive		.777			.666
Confident		.770			.688
Determined		.694			.645
Ambitious		.679			.566
Energetic		.657			.580
Fun			.805		.765
Friendly			.723		.675
Entertaining			.636		.638
Trendy				841	.738
Famous				728	.727
Stylish				.616	.551
Eigenvalues	6.270	1.746	1.421	.994	
% of Variance	39.188	10.912	8.878	6.210	

The remaining items must be assessed to judge their conceptual fit with their respective factors (Hair *et al*., 2010:112). It was noticed that two items (unique and energetic) did not fit well with other items that loaded in Factor 1 and Factor 2. Therefore, the decision was made to delete these two items to ensure the conceptual integrity of the factor structure.

The final EFA was conducted after deleting the two items mentioned above. Thereafter, the final EFA yielded a KMO value of 0.887 and chi-square Bartlett test=2705.977 (df=91), p=0.000>0.005. During this EFA, four factors were extracted that explained 67.133% of the variance. The next step of EFA was to name the factors. The names of the factors together with the rotated factors from the component matrix, communalities and total variance are presented in Table 5-5.

Table 5-5: Rotated factors for Step 4 (Named)

	Factors				
	Trustworthiness	**Competitiveness**	**Friendliness**	**Trendiness**	**Communalities**
Trustworthy	.793				.676
Respectful	.766				.698
Reliable	.742				.642
Sincere	.741				.646
Competitive		.794			.702
Confident		.767			.704
Ambitious		.701			.611
Determined		.664			.628
Fun			.817		.765
Friendly			.735		.685
Entertaining			.656		.633
Trendy				.846	.740
Famous				.728	.723
Stylish				.624	.544
Eigenvalues	5.449	1.663	1.297	0.990	
% of Variance	38.922	11.879	9.262	7.070	

Another factor analysis using principal components analysis and promax rotation was conducted. The use of an oblique rotation was to ensure that the factor matrix would still be valid even if the factors were highly correlated. The pattern matrix, communalities and total variance are presented in Table 5-6.

Table 5-6: Pattern matrix for Step 4

	Factors				
	Trustworthiness	**Competitiveness**	**Friendliness**	**Trendiness**	**Communalities**
Trustworthy	.822				.676
Sincere	.755				.646
Respectful	.755				.698
Reliable	.736				.642
Competitive		.865			.702
Confident		.810			.704
Ambitious		.734			.611
Determined		.654			.628
Fun			.901		.765
Friendly			.796		.685
Entertaining			.667		.633
Trendy				.885	.740
Famous				.700	.723
Stylish				.625	.544
Eigenvalues	5.449	1.663	1.297	0.990	
% of Variance	38.922	11.879	9.262	7.070	

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Table 5-6 presents evidence that the non-orthogonal rotation yielded the same factor structure. The following section reports on the internal consistency reliability of these factors

5.8 INTERNAL CONSISTENCY RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF THE MAIN STUDY

Table 5-7 displays the Cronbach's alpha and the average inter-item correlation values of the factors that emerged from the EFA.

Table 5-7: Reliability and average inter-item correlation values

Constructs	Number of items in the scale	Cronbach's alpha	Average inter-item correlation
Trustworthiness	4	0.837	0.566
Competitiveness	4	0.811	0.519
Friendliness	3	0.757	0.512
Trendiness	3	0.655	0.394

All constructs had a Cronbach's alpha value above 0.6, which suggests a reliable internal consistency (Malhotra, 2010:319). Furthermore, the analysis of the average inter-item correlations (Table 5-7) and item-to-total correlations confirmed the internal consistency reliability. All the average inter-item correlations were above 0.3 and item-to-item correlations above 0.5.

Table 5-8 presents the findings of the factor matrix for each of the two samples of the study in Step 4.

Table 5-8: Factor matrices of the random split samples (Step 4)

	Random sample 1				Random sample 2			
	Factors				Factors			
	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Trustworthy	.799				.780			
Respectful	.742				.730			
Reliable	.782				.685			
Sincere	.765				.745			
Competitive		.757				.820		
Confident		.755				.771		
Ambitious		.693				.727		
Determined		.704				.624		
Fun			.817				.785	
Friendly			.759				.700	
Entertaining			.568				.735	
Trendy				.863				.824
Famous				.743				.709
Stylish				.519				.716

The above Table 5-8 confirms that all the items loaded as expected in both of the random samples. Therefore, internal consistency reliability can be assumed. Further measures of validity were assessed during the SEM for CFA process. The correlation matrix is discussed in the next section.

5.9 CORRELATION

A correlation analysis was constructed in order to assess the nomological validity of the proposed model. The Pearson product-movement correlation coefficients were calculated for this purpose as presented in Table 5-9.

Table 5-9: Correlation Matrix

Constructs	1	2	3	4
Trustworthiness	1			
Competitiveness	0.529**	1		
Friendliness	0.523**	0.555**	1	
Trendiness	0.247**	0.338**	0.399**	1

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

The above table provides evidence that a significant positive correlation (a=0.01) exists between each of the pairs of constructs. These results conclude nomological validity. The following section discusses the SEM for CFA that was used to test the validity of the proposed STBP-trait scale.

5.10 STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING (SEM) FOR CONFIRMATORY FACTORY ANALYSIS

In SEM for CFA begins with defining individual constructs to develop the measurement model. This study employed an EFA to identify the factors and underlying variables for the measurement model. In line with the EFA, Section 5.8, a four-factor model consisting of Trustworthiness (four indicators), Competitiveness (four indicators), Friendliness (three indicators) and Trendiness (three indicators) was specified as presented in Figure 5-2

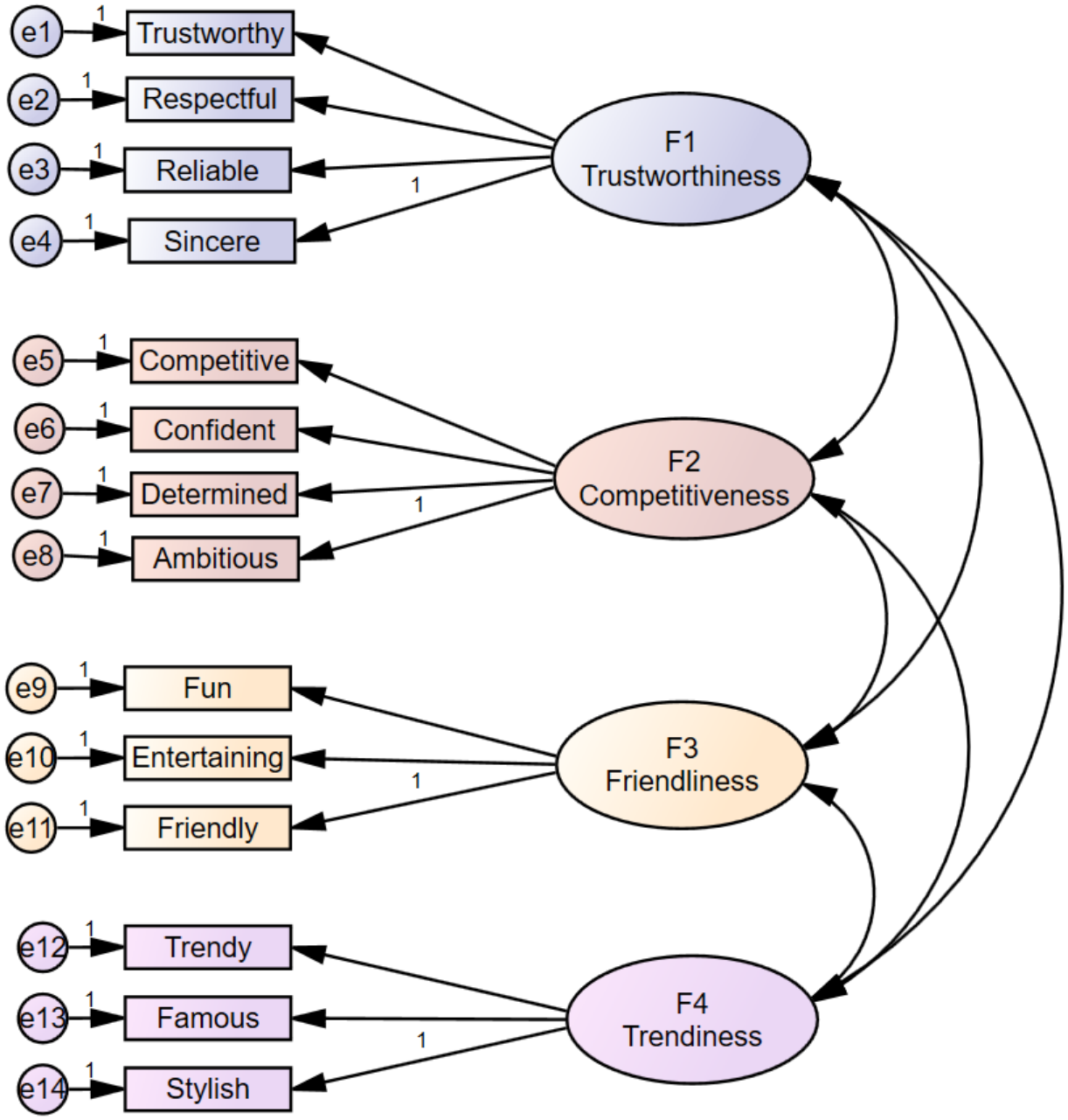

Figure 5-2: Specified measurement model

For model identification purposes, the first loading of each of the latent factors was fixed at 1.0. As a result, there are 105 distinct sample moments and 34 parameters to estimate, leaving 72 degrees of freedom (df) based on the over-identified model, and a chi-square value of 276,013 with the probability level equal to 0.000. The model was assessed to identify any problems

regarding estimates, such as negative error variances and standardised factor loadings below -1.0 or greater than 1.0. Table 5-10 shows all factor loadings above 0.5 with no problematic estimates.

Table 5-10: Standardised coefficients of the measurement model (Step 4)

Latent factors	Construct	Indicators	Factor loadings		Error variance
F1	Trustworthiness	Trustworthy	0.72	+	0.518
		Respectful	0.81	+	0.664
		Reliable	0.76	+	0.577
		Sincere	0.72	+	0.513
F2	Competitiveness	Competitive	0.71	+	0.502
		Confident	0.77	+	0.586
		Determined	0.75	+	0.565
		Ambitious	0.66	+	0.429
F3	Friendliness	Fun	0.77	+	0.592
		Entertaining	0.70	+	0.486
		Friendly	0.69	+	0.482
F4	Trendiness	Trendy	0.67	+	0.451
		Famous	0.66	+	0.440
		Stylish	0.56	+	0.319

The main purpose of this study is to validate the STBP-trait scale. Therefore, the reliability and validity of the model were measured by means of construct reliability (CR), the average variance extracted (AVE) and model fit indices (Malhotra, 2010:741).

Absolute-fit-indices of the chi-square, the badness-of-fit indices of SRMR, RMSEA and the goodness-of-fit indices of GFI, CFI, TLI and IFI were used to assess the overall fit of the model. A significant chi-square value of 276,013 was computed with 72 degrees of freedom. Byrne (2013:80) highlighted that a significant chi-square value usually suggests poor fit, but this statistic is highly sensitive to sample size. Furthermore, the other fit indices, namely, SRMR=0.0629, RMSEA=0.077, GFI=0.922, CFI=0.923, TLI=0.901 and IFI=0.923, suggest satisfactory model fit.

Table 5-11 list the CR, AVE and the correlation coefficients to determine the reliability and construct validity of the scale.

Table 5-11: Measurement model: composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE) and correlation matrix (Step 4)

	CR	AVE	AVE Squared	F1	F2	F3	F4
F1 – Trustworthiness	0.80	0.50	0.71	1			
F2 – Competitiveness	0.80	0.50	0.71	0.647	1		
F3 – Friendliness	0.75	0.50	0.71	0.645	0.689	1	
F4 – Trendiness	0.75	0.50	0.71	0.311	0.454	0.534	1

Evidence of reliability of the model is presented from Table 5-11 above as all CR values are above the recommended 0.70 level (Hair *et al*., 2010:145). Furthermore, the convergent validity can be assumed as all AVE values are above the recommended 0.50 level (Malhotra, 2010:734). Discriminant validity is demonstrated by all the correlation coefficients being smaller than the square root of the AVE per construct.

The assumption was made that the measurement model demonstrates acceptable reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity and shows an acceptable model fit. In order to confirm the validity of the STBP-trait scale, the suggestion was to test it on the two top sporting codes in South Africa, namely: soccer and rugby (Shazi, 2017). Therefore, the decision was to test the STBP-traits on the Kaizer Chiefs, Orlando Pirates, Sharks and Lions based on the high level of team identification from respondents' (**Step 4**).

The measurement model was specified using the STBP-trait scale items and latent factors. For model identification purposes, the first loading of each latent factor was fixed at 1.0. Subsequently, there are 105 distinct sample moments, and 35 (Kaizer Chiefs), 37 (Orlando Pirates), 30 (Lions) and 36 (Sharks) parameters to estimate respectively. Leaving 70 (Kaizer Chiefs), 68 (Orlando Pirates), 67 (Lions) and 69 (Sharks) degrees of freedom (df) respectively. This is based on over-identified models, and chi-square values (Orlando Pirates=172,307, Kaizer Chiefs=165,142, Lions=143,713 and Sharks=162,000) with a probability level equal to 0.000 for all the sport team brands. The measurement models were assessed and no problematic estimates were discovered. Table 5-12 below presents the factor loadings and error variance for each of the models.

Table 5-12: Standardised coefficients of the measurement models (Step 5)

			Kaizer Chiefs		Orlando Pirates		Lions		Sharks	
Latent factors	**Constructs**	**Indicators**	**Factor loadings**	**Error variance**	**Factor loadings**	**Error variance**	**Factor loadings**	**Error variance**	**Factor loadings**	**Error variance**
F1	Trustworthiness	Trustworthy	0,762	+ 0,581	0,756	+ 0,571	0,734	+ 0,539	0,728	+ 0,53
		Respectful	0,745	+ 0,554	0,771	+ 0,594	0,742	+ 0,55	0,709	+ 0,503
		Reliable	0,748	+ 0,559	0,781	+ 0,609	0,803	+ 0,645	0,792	+ 0,627
		Sincere	0,741	+ 0,549	0,805	+ 0,648	0,734	+ 0,539	0,777	+ 0,604
F2	Competitiveness	Ambitious	0,793	+ 0,629	0,822	+ 0,676	0,774	+ 0,599	0,773	+ 0,597
		Competitive	0,731	+ 0,534	0,748	+ 0,56	0,759	+ 0,575	0,821	+ 0,674
		Confident	0,702	+ 0,493	0,867	+ 0,752	0,793	+ 0,629	0,799	+ 0,638
		Determined	0,766	+ 0,587	0,847	+ 0,717	0,817	+ 0,668	0,819	+ 0,671
F3	Friendliness	Fun	0,833	+ 0,694	0,656	+ 0,431	0,665	+ 0,443	0,783	+ 0,614
		Entertaining	0,854	+ 0,73	0,733	+ 0,537	0,71	+ 0,505	0,799	+ 0,638
		Friendly	0,715	+ 0,511	0,694	+ 0,482	0,756	+ 0,572	0,7	+ 0,49
F4	Trendiness	Trendy	0,768	+ 0,59	0,732	+ 0,537	0,767	+ 0,589	0,778	+ 0,605
		Famous	0,658	+ 0,433	0,708	+ 0,502	0,774	+ 0,599	0,783	+ 0,613
		Stylish	0,674	+ 0,454	0,533	+ 0,284	0,682	+ 0,465	0,692	+ 0,479

Table 5-12 indicated that all items had a factor loading above 0.6. The purpose of Step 5 was to confirm the validity of the developed STBP-trait scale. Therefore, the reliability and validity of the models were measured using the same methods as Step 4. Table 5-13 lists the model fit indices for each of the brands.

Table 5-13: Model fit indices (Step 5)

	Kaizer Chiefs	Orlando Pirates	Lions	Sharks
SRMR	0.0525	0.0577	0.0486	0.0456
RMSEA	0.073	0.079	0.071	0.075
GFI	0.914	0.907	0.917	0.913
CFI	0.943	0.941	0.952	0.948
IFI	0.944	0.942	0.953	0.949
TLI	0.926	0.921	0.935	0.932

The results indicated that all the model fit indices revealed a satisfactory fit between the measurement model and the data for each of the above-mentioned sport team brands. Table 5-14 presents the CR, AVE and the correlation coefficients to determine the reliability, construct validity and discriminant validity of the STBP-trait scale.

Table 5-14: Measurement model: construct validity (CR), average variance extracted (AVE) and correlation matrix (Step 5)

Kaizer Chiefs							
	CR	**AVE**	**AVE Squared**	**F1**	**F2**	**F3**	**F4**
F1 – Trustworthiness	0,80	0,50	0,71	1			
F2 – Competitiveness	0,80	0,50	0,71	0,68	1		
F3 – Friendliness	0,75	0,50	0,71	0,64	0,68	1	
F4 – Trendiness	0,75	0,50	0,71	0,52	0,71	0,72	1
Orlando Pirates							
	CR	**AVE**	**AVE Squared**	**F1**	**F2**	**F3**	**F4**
F1 – Trustworthiness	0,80	0,50	0,71	1			
F2 – Competitiveness	0,80	0,50	0,71	0,69	1		
F3 – Friendliness	0,75	0,50	0,71	0,79	0,70	1	
F4 – Trendiness	0,75	0,50	0,71	0,57	0,60	0,78	1
Lions							
	CR	**AVE**	**AVE Squared**	**F1**	**F2**	**F3**	**F4**
F1 – Trustworthiness	0,80	0,50	0,71	1			
F2 – Competitiveness	0,80	0,50	0,71	0,704	1		
F3 – Friendliness	0,75	0,50	0,71	0,705	0,62	1	
F4 – Trendiness	0,75	0,50	0,71	0,644	0,61	0,80	1
Sharks							
	CR	**AVE**	**AVE Squared**	**F1**	**F2**	**F3**	**F4**
F1 – Trustworthiness	0,80	0,50	0,71	1			
F2 – Competitiveness	0,80	0,50	0,71	0,76	1		
F3 – Friendliness	0,75	0,50	0,71	0,69	0,70	1	
F4 – Trendiness	0,75	0,50	0,71	0,69	0,67	0,79	1

Table 5-14 provides evidence that the developed STBP-trait scale is reliable as all the CR values are above 0.70 (Hair *et al*., 2011:45). Furthermore, the convergent validity can be asserted as all the AVE values are above the recommended 0.50 level as suggested by Malhotra (2010:743).

There are slight discriminant validity concerns between the *Friendliness* and *Trendiness* dimensions for all of the teams. Furthermore, there are slight discriminant validity concerns with *Friendliness* and *Trustworthiness* for *Orlando Pirates* and *Competitiveness* and *Trustworthiness* for *The Sharks*. Nonetheless, all of these dimensions exhibited acceptable factor loadings (Table 5-12). Furthermore, it would be plausible that teams could score high on more than one of the dimensions (so high correlations could be excepted). Apart from this, all of the other dimension show acceptable results and discriminant validity could be assumed. Correlation coefficients suggest discriminant validity if the values are smaller than the square root of the AVE per construct. As such, the conclusion was made that the developed STBP-trait scale shows acceptable reliability, convergent validity, sufficient discriminant validity and acceptable model fit.

5.11 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

All values for mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis were captured for all the scaled items. Table 5-15 presents the descriptive statistics for Step 4 and Step 5 of the study. The sample size for Step 4 reflects the 494 individuals' responses. Additionally, Step 5 reflects 1108 individual responses as the initial sample of 300 each assessed the identified traits for four different sport team brands. Furthermore, the data in Table 5-15 suggests normal distribution as none of the skewness values falls outside the -2 or +2 range. The Step 4 data are also somewhat negatively skewed while the kurtosis values suggest that the data set is relatively flat. The Step 5 data are also somewhat negatively skewed while the kurtosis values suggest that the data set is somewhat peaked. These results suggest no irregularity and the data may be considered as normally distributed.

Table 5-15: Descriptive statistics summary (Step 4 & Step 5)

	Step 4					Step 5				
	N	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**	**N**	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
Trustworthy	494	5.27	1.503	-.624	-.432	1108	4.47	1.843	-.268	-.884
Respectful	494	5.73	1.283	-.772	-.150	1108	4.71	1.745	-.471	-.628
Reliable	494	5.31	1.381	-.637	-.006	1108	4.45	1.796	-.297	-.809
Sincere	494	5.28	1.295	-.399	-.253	1108	4.57	1.652	-.311	-.602
Ambitious	494	5.45	1.381	-.723	.057	1108	5.11	1.707	-.649	-.385
Competitive	494	5.72	1.370	-1.016	.558	1108	5.08	1.743	-.656	-.478
Confident	494	5.79	1.265	-.983	.574	1108	5.19	1.682	-.785	-.159
Determined	494	5.64	1.312	-.906	.490	1108	5.06	1.709	-.679	-.390
Fun	494	5.71	1.248	-.854	.289	1108	4.88	1.803	-.602	-.549
Friendly	494	5.69	1.325	-.998	.728	1108	4.81	1.707	-.474	-.588
Entertaining	494	5.69	1.335	-.880	.283	1108	4.95	1.858	-.624	-.649
Trendy	494	5.22	1.379	-.330	-.764	1108	5.19	1.730	-.764	-.294
Stylish	494	5.42	1.338	-.477	-.593	1108	5.07	1.835	-.704	-.529
Famous	494	5.42	1.706	-.810	-.372	1108	5.58	1.717	-1.122	.274

5.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter reported on the empirical findings of the study in line with the empirical objectives as indicated in Section 1.3.3. The process followed for the preliminary data analysis was outlined. A description of the sample in terms of demographic information was presented. Thereafter, the steps followed to develop the STBP-trait scale were discussed. The chapter reported on the trait identification process (Step1 and Step 2), as well as the trait reduction process (Step 3). The development of the STBP-trait scale was discussed after the finalisation of the list of brand personality traits (Step 4). In order to get acceptable factor structure consecutive loops of EFA (using principal component analysis and varimax rotation) were undertaken to reduce the brand personality traits. The EFA revealed a four-factor model consisting of 14 brand personality traits. The reliability was assessed by means of internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's alpha) and random split sample. Furthermore, a correlation analysis was used to determine the nomological validity. In order to confirm the STBP-trait scale revealed acceptable reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity, SEM for CFA was completed and computed acceptable model fit. In addition, Step 5 assessed the reliability and validity of the developed STBP-trait scale (reliability, nomological validity, convergent validity, discriminant validity) through SEM for CFA. The last report was based on descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, skewness values and kurtosis values), for the purpose of confirming normality of the data.

This chapter presented results suggesting the validity and reliability STBP-trait scale. This scale will be used to assess consumer perceptions of brand personality traits of professional sport teams in South Africa. The conclusion and recommendations are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

"A winner is a dreamer who never gives up."

Nelson Mandela

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The concept of marketing has gyrated from commercial business to various other aspects of life including sport. As a result, the concept of sport marketing originated. This started when marketers realised the financial potential within the sport industry. Consequently, companies started to use sport stars as ambassadors, displaying their brands in the stadiums, endorsed athletes during televised sporting events such as the Olympics Games, naming stadiums after their brand and providing branded screens in stadiums during sport events.

Sport marketing has evolved since and is hugely popular due to the increase in television coverage and social media presence. Sport team managers utilise the most popular social media sites such as Facebook, Twitter and Instagram to engage with fans, thereafter, Marketers associate themselves with the sport team and promote their brands through social media of sport teams. As such, sport marketing was coined from marketing principles as a process that is involved in the development and implementation activities related price, place, promotion, product, service and sponsorship. Companies also associate themselves with major sport events such as the FIFA World Cup, Olympic Games and Super Bowl to expose their product globally. In addition, companies form associations with individual sport teams worldwide. These associations are in the form of sponsorship. In order to secure a sponsorship deal, sport team managers need to manage a team as a brand. Therefore, these will influence companies that need to form an association with sport teams that display similar brand personality their brands.

Several brand personality scales have been developed to measure the brand personality of sport teams. These scales are useful for marketers to select sport teams with a similar brand personality than their brands to establish an association and provision of sponsorship deals. However, there is no scale in South Africa available to measure brand personality of sport teams. Therefore, this study aimed to develop and validate a brand personality traits scale for South African professional sport teams.

6.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 provided a brief introduction of the brand personality concept and its importance towards organisations and sport teams in Section 1.1. The limited brand personality research available in South Africa was also addressed in this chapter (Section 1.1). In agreement with this

problem, primary objectives are outlined in Section 3.1, while, theoretical objectives are outlined in Section 3.2 and, empirical objectives are outlined in Section 3.3. The last portion of the chapter was research design, ethics statement, the importance of the study and concluded with the limitations of the study.

Chapter 2 reviewed the literature to cover four theoretical objectives of the study. Section 2.2 defined the term marketing, while Section 2.3 defined the term sport marketing and discussed the history of sport marketing and modern sport marketing. Section 2.4 introduced all elements of the sport marketing mix. Following Section 2.5 defined the term branding. The chapter concluded by discussing all elements of brand equity in Section 2.7. Furthermore, the chapter emphasised that elements of brand equity are applicable to sport teams including brand personality.

Furthermore, Chapter 3 presented a literature review to cover the last four remaining theoretical objectives of the study. The chapter began by defining the term personality from a psychological perspective in Section 3.2, while Section 3.3 defined the term brand personality. Section 3.4 outlined the importance of brand personality for consumers and businesses'. Section 3.5 outlined brand personality in sport teams, while Section 3.6 discussed the measurement of different brand personality scales. Following Section 3.7 investigated the measurement of different brand personality scales. Furthermore, Section 3.7 consisted of four steps serving as a guideline in order to develop a brand personality scale namely: Generating traits, reducing traits, assessing dimension and testing reliability and validity.

The purpose of this chapter was to search for a proper guideline in order to develop and validate a brand personality trait scale for South African professional sport teams.

Chapter 4 presented the research methodology that was followed in order to achieve the objective of the study to develop and validate a brand personality trait scale for South African professional sport teams. Exploratory research design (Step 1–4) and descriptive research design (Step 5) were used as a guide for this study in Section 4.2. Section 4.3 presented a mixed method of qualitative (Step 1–3) and quantitative (Step 4–5) as a research approach used in the study. The sampling strategy consisting of a target population of 900 students registered at South African universities using a non-probability method was discussed in Section 4.4. Section 4.5 data explained all the steps used for the collection method for this study in Table 4-3. Section 4.6 explained data preparation. The chapter concluded with Section 4.7, which presented all the statistical methods used in this study.

Chapter 5 presented an analysis and interpretation of the empirical findings of this study. This chapter addressed five empirical objectives of the study as per Section 3.2 of Chapter 1. The

chapter began by describing the data gathering process in Section 5.2 and preliminary data analysis in Section 5.3. Section 5.4 provided a description of the sample for each sample for each of the steps presented (Table 51). Section 5.5 presented sport team brands identified in Step 1 in the form of the focus group. Following Section 5.6, which discussed the identification of traits for Step 1–2. Thereafter, Section 5.7, discussed traits reduction for Step 3. Section 5.8 presented results of EFA. Section 5.9 outlined the internal reliability of the main study while Section 5.10 assessed the nomological validity of the proposed model. The chapter concluded by presenting Structural equation modelling for confirmatory factory analyses in Section 5.9.

6.3 MAIN FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

This section outlines the main findings of this study related to the empirical objectives as proposed in Chapter 1.

The first empirical objective was to identify sport team brand personality traits by means of a focus group in Step 1. Two separate focus groups were conducted. Firstly, the participants' were asked to name any professional sport team they know. Thereafter, a total of 13 teams were identified by participants from each focus group. Secondly, participants' were asked to identify all the brand personality traits associated with the sport teams brand identified. Then a total of 204 traits were obtained from the participant.

The second objective was to review the literature of brand personality and analyse websites (www) of sport teams to identify additional brand personality traits that are relevant to the sport teams. During the literature review, 124 traits were obtained from previous brand personality traits see Annexure G. In accordance to the second objective, websites (www) of sport teams were analysed in order to identify all the brand personality traits that were relevant to the sport teams. Traits were selected from websites by selecting all adjective words used to describe a sport team. Thereafter, sport teams websites resulted in 68 generated results see Annexure F**.** A total of 192 were obtained from both the literature review and website analysis.

The third empirical objective was to reduce the list of traits identified in Step 1 and Step 2 by means of a focus group consisting of subject experts and a pretest on selected participants. Subject experts from marketing, sport management and a language specialist were consulted in Section 5.6 in Chapter 5 and reduced the initial list of 395 traits to 105 traits, see Annexure H. This list was further reduced by means of a questionnaire asking participants to evaluate how descriptive each of the given brand personality traits was for South African professional sport team brands in general and traits with a mean value of 4.5 and above were retained. This amounted to 54 traits, see Annexure B.

The fourth empirical objective was to develop a brand personality trait scale (STBP-traits scale) for South African professional sport teams. This step was conducted using consecutive loops of EFA to determine the STBP-trait scale dimensions as presented in Section 5.8 of Chapter 5. The final EFA resulted in a 14-item 4-factor model, which explained 67.133% of the total variance. Reliability and validity were assessed in Section 5.9, for the main survey by means of Cronbach's alpha, the average inter-item correlation as presented in Table 5-10. This resulted in acceptable results, suggesting internal consistency and reliability and validity. A correlation analysis was performed in Section 5.10 based on STBP-trait scale dimensions and suggested nomological validity. SEM for CFA (Section 5.11) was carried out to determine the validity of the STBP-trait scale. The measurement model consisted of four latent factors namely: Trustworthiness: *Trustworthy, Sincere, Respectful and Reliable*, Competitiveness: *Competitive, Confident, Ambitious and Determined*), Friendliness: *Fun, Friendly and Entertaining* and Trendiness: *Trendy, Famous and Stylish*. The model fit indices revealed a satisfactory fit between the measurement model and data (Section 5.10, Table 5-12). In addition, there was evidence of composite reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity (Table 5-13).

The fifth empirical objective of the study was to test (validate) the STBP-trait scale within the South African context. The STBP-trait scale was tested on top two teams identified between the category of soccer (Kaizer Chiefs & Orlando Pirates) and rugby (Lions & Sharks). SEM for CFA (Section 5.11) was carried out again to determine the reliability and validity of the STBP-trait scale. The model fit indices demonstrated to be satisfactory for all four brands as presented in **Table 5-13**. Furthermore, there was evidence of composite reliability, convergent reliability and discriminant validity. There were slight discriminant validity concerns between *Friendliness* and *Trendiness* dimensions, but based on acceptable factor loadings and that teams could score high on both of the dimensions (so high correlations could be accepted) validity could be assumed. Therefore, the conclusion was made that the STBP-trait scale was acceptable, reliable and valid as presented in Figure 6-1.

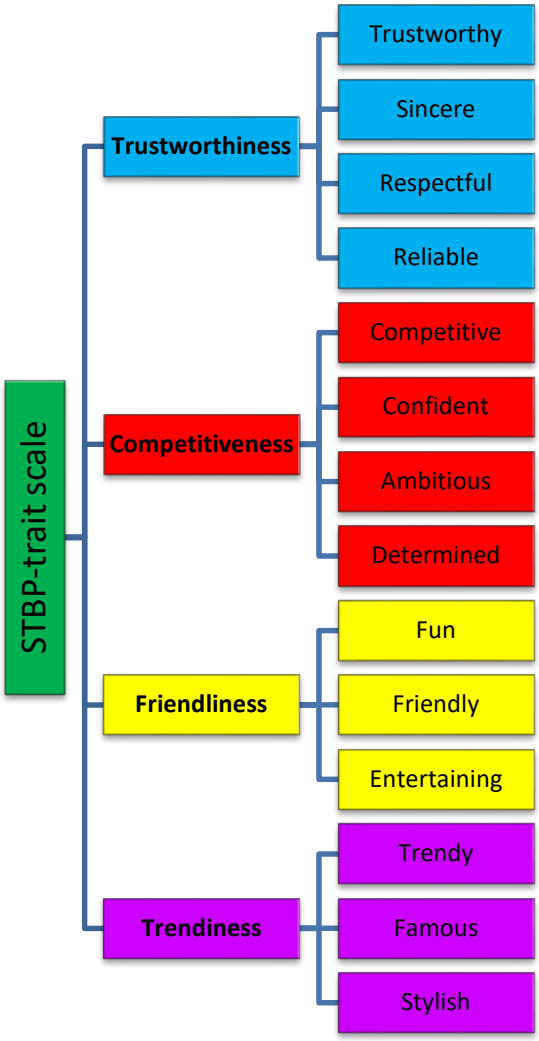

Figure 6-1: STBP-trait scale

6.4 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

This study contributes to the limited literature available in South Africa regarding brand personality specifically on professional sport team brands. In addition, the study also contributes to the literature on brand personality worldwide. This was achieved by developing and validating the STBP-trail successfully. The developed scale consists of four dimensions namely Trustworthiness, Competitiveness, Friendliness and Trendiness. The STBP-trait scale is useful for general marketers and sport marketers to assess consumer perceptions regarding brand personality traits of sport teams in South Africa. The next section recommendations are discussed on how the STBP-trait scale can be used more effectively.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

6.5.1 Measurement of brand personality perceptions of Professional sport teams.

The STBP-trait scale can be used by sport teams to measure consumer perceptions regarding the brand personality of sport team brands. The STBP-trait scale should be presented to sport fans in the form of a structured questionnaire, which will encourage the participants to indicate how descriptive each of the traits is of the sport team brand. See a sample questionnaire attached in Annexure I**.** Knowing that the scale consists of four factors with 14 items and the sample of 280 is recommended that 20 respondent per item. Researchers are advised to use the developed STBP-trait scale to measure brand personality perceptions of professional sport teams. The use of this measuring instrument may assist sport team managers to assess and select brand personality traits relevant to the sport team brand. The obtained results may then be used to guide and alter future marketing strategies of sport teams. As such, sport team managers will be able to differentiate and position sport teams better than competitors'. Thereafter, sport team marketing efforts will increase more accurately. Similarly, the developed scale can be used by sponsors to identify sport teams sharing a similar brand personality with their brands. Therefore, the developed scale is not only beneficial for sport teams, but also for companies intending to offer sponsorship deals to specific sport teams.

6.5.2 Branding sport team brands according to the STBP-trait scale

Sport teams that would like to rejuvenate their sport team brands would benefit from the developed STBP-trait scale. As such, the STBP-trait scale suggested four dimensions of brand personality within sport team brands. Sport teams will decide on their own which dimensions are relevant to their sport team brands. The following section discusses the four dimensions of the STBP-trait scale.

6.5.2.1 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness of a sport team is created by expressing trust, obeying sport ethics of fair play, sticking to its code of conduct and confidence of the team in the field of play. This dimension in line with Kang *et al.'s*, (2013) Honesty dimension. The STBP-trait scale's Trustworthiness dimension consists of four brand personality traits namely: trustworthy, sincere, respectful and reliable. Consequently, having definite similarities to the honesty dimension of Kang *et al.'s*, (2013) sport brand personality trait scale. Sport teams need to strive to exhibit some form of trustworthiness to appear sincerer and more reliable amongst fans.

6.5.2.2 Competitiveness

The competitiveness of a sport team is created by winning games over its competitors' and being successful by achieving teams' goals. This dimension is in line with Tsiotsou's (2012) competitiveness dimension as well as Braunstein and Ross's (2010:9) successful dimension and Kang *et al.'s* (2013) conscientiousness dimension. The STBP-trait scale's competitiveness dimension consists of four brand personality traits namely: competitive, confident, ambitious and determined. The importance of this dimension is highlighted by having similarities with all three sport brand personality scales analysed in Chapter 3. A sport team need to be competitive in order to be successful in their league games and to gain more supporters.

6.5.2.3 Friendliness

The friendliness of a sport team is created by a team's willingness to engage with its fans more often. This dimension is in line with Kang *et al.*'s (2013) agreeableness dimension. Friendliness dimension consists of three brand personality traits namely: fun, friendly and entertaining. Sport fans attend matches to be entertained and to have a good time. A friendly sport team will be more entertaining and fun to watch, leading to more supporters watching their matches.

6.5.2.4 Trendiness

The trendiness of a sport team is created by means of a stylish team jersey (attire prior to and after a match). Furthermore, it can be created by demonstrating interesting football in the field of play such as displaying creative skills. This dimension is in line with Braunstein and Ross's (2010:9) sophisticated dimension as well as Tsiotsou's (2012) prestige dimension. The STBP-trait scale's Trendiness dimension consists of three brand personality traits namely: trendy, famous and stylish. A trendy sport team will look good on and off the field. Consequently, fans would want to be associated with such a team leading to higher team identification.

A sport team that would like to represent one of the above-mentioned dimensions should aim to be similar to the personality traits associated with the above-given brand personality dimension. Therefore, similar personality traits should be noticeable in every aspect of the sport team.

6.6 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study was to develop and validate a brand personality trait scale for South African professional sport teams (STBP-trait scale). There were several limitations that presented future research opportunities from this study. This study employed cross-sectional and non-probability methods during data collection that presented limitations. Given that brand personality perception is influenced by many factors, a longitudinal study is recommended for future research. In

addition, this study collected data from students in one province, it is suggested future research should be done by selecting soccer and rugby fans as participants across all nine provinces in South Africa. The developed scale STBP-trait scale was validated only in soccer and rugby. Future research should assess other sporting codes such as cricket, netball, hockey, basketball etc.

6.7 CONCLUSION

Professional sport teams compete with other sport teams in a given category such as soccer, rugby, cricket etc. These sport teams compete in order to become better than other teams. Better team performance increases the popularity of a sport team. Eventually, this will lead to fans and sponsorship attractions. These fans and sponsors are interested in associating themselves with a sport team displaying personality similar to theirs. Given that a sport team is a brand like any other brand exhibits brand personality. Therefore, brand personality it is important for sport teams' managers in order to position and market the brand.

The developed STBP-trait scale may assist sport teams to select brand personality traits to be showed in their marketing activities and positioning strategies. The results will be used for rebranding their sport teams and differentiate the team from its competitors. Furthermore, brand personality may influence the brand equity of a sport team, increase brand loyalty and team identification among fans and attract more lucrative sponsors. Therefore, sport team managers need to know how their sport teams are perceived by fans and sponsors.

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ANNEXURE A: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE (STEP 3)

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Developing and validating a brand personality trait scale for South African professional sport teams

Dear Student,

My name is Mandla Erasmus Shezi. I am currently registered as a student, pursuing a Doctoral degree in Marketing Management at the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus), and I am working towards my thesis under the supervision of Dr. R Müller and Prof. A.L. Bevan-Dye.

The purpose of this study is to develop and validate a brand personality trait scale for South African sport teams. The scale will be used to assess consumer perceptions regarding brand personality traits of sport teams within South Africa.

Please assist me by completing the attached questionnaire. The questionnaire is user-friendly and should take approximately 10 minutes to complete. All responses are confidential and the results will only be used for research purposes, outlined in the form of statistical data.

Thank you for your important contribution towards this study.

Mandla Erasmus Shezi
North-West University
078 110 1385
Mandla1154@gmail.com

Brand personality

Brand personality is a set of human characteristics assigned to a brand (Aaker, 1997: 347).

Example:

BMW: Can be perceived as sophisticated; upper class and charming
JEEP and HUMMER: perceived as rugged; outdoorsy and tough

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Please mark the appropriate box with a cross (X) or write down your answer.

1.	**Country of origin:**	South Africa	Other (please specify):

2.	**Province of origin:**	Eastern Cape	Free State	Gauteng	KwaZulu-Natal
	Limpopo	Mpumalanga	Northern Cape	North West	Western Cape
	Other (Please specify):				

3.	**Current year of study:**	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	Post graduate

4.	**Gender:**	Male	Female

5.	**Ethnic group:**			
	African Black	Asian/Indian	Coloured	White
	Other (Please specify):			

6.	**Please indicate your mother tongue language:**				Afrikaans
	English	IsiNdebele	IsiXhosa	IsiZulu	Sesotho
	Sepedi	Setswana	SiSwati	Tshivenda	Xitsonga
	Other (Please specify):				

7.	**Age:**	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	24>

SECTION B: SPORT INTEREST

B1	*What sport do you like to watch most often during your leisure time?*	Soccer	Rugby	Cricket
		Other (specify)		

B2	*Who is your favorite South African sport team (provincial or national)?*	

SECTION B: BRAND PERSONALITY

Please evaluate how descriptive each of the following brand personality traits are for South African professional sport team brands in general (E.g.: Springboks, Bafana-Bafana, Proteas, Blue Bulls, Sharks, Orlando Pirates, Kaizer Chiefs, Mamelodi Sundowns etc.).

Please circle your relevant response.
(1 = not at all descriptive, 7 = extremely descriptive)

Accomplished	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Adaptable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Adventurous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Aggressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ambition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Arrogant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Athletic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bold	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Bragging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Brave	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bully	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Caring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Champions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Charismatic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Charming	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cheerful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Chilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Competitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Consistent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Controlling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Controversial	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cool	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Corporate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Creative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Daring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Dependable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Dominant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Down to earth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Dynamic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Efficient	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Emotional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Energetic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ethical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Extrovert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Faithful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Family oriented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Famous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Feminine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fighting spirit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Flashy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Focused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Genuine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Glamorous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good looking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Greedy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Humble	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Imaginative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Independent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Innovative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Inspirational	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please evaluate how descriptive each of the following brand personality traits are for South African <u>professional sport team brands</u> in general (E.g.: Springboks, Bafana-Bafana, Proteas, Blue Bulls, Sharks, Cheetahs, Orlando Pirates, Kaizer Chiefs, Mamelodi Sundowns etc.).

Please circle your relevant response.
(1 = not at all descriptive, 7 = extremely descriptive)

Introverted	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Lazy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Leader	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Luxurious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Masculine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Sociable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Solid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sophisticated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strategic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stubborn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Materialistic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Old fashioned	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Open minded	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Opportunistic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ordinary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Stylish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Successful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Talented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tough	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Traditional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Original	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Outdoorsy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Over the top	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Passionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Professional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Trendy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Underdogs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unique	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Up to date	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Progressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Rebellious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Respectful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Rugged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Upper class	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Vane	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Wealthy/rich	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Winners	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Young	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Selfish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Self-motivated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sexy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sneaky	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you for your time!

ANNEXURE B: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE (STEP 4)

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE (STEP 4)

Developing and validating a brand personality trait scale for South African professional sport teams

Dear Student,

My name is Mandla Erasmus Shezi. I am currently registered as a student, pursuing a Doctoral degree in Marketing Management at the North-West University (Vaal Triangle Campus), and I am working towards my thesis under the supervision of Dr. R Müller and Prof. A.L. Bevan-Dye.

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Please assist me by completing the attached questionnaire. The questionnaire is user-friendly and should take approximately 10 minutes to complete. All responses are confidential and the results will only be used for research purposes, outlined in the form of statistical data.

Thank you for your important contribution towards this study.

Mandla Erasmus Shezi
North-West University
078 110 1385
Mandla1154@gmail.com

Brand personality

Brand personality is a set of human characteristics assigned to a brand (Aaker, 1997: 347).

Example:

BMW: Can be perceived as sophisticated; upper class and charming
JEEP and HUMMER: perceived as rugged; outdoorsy and tough

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Please mark the appropriate box with a cross (X) or write down your answer.

1.	**Country of origin:**	South Africa	Other (please specify):

2.	**Province of origin:**	Eastern Cape	Free State	Gauteng	KwaZulu-Natal
	Limpopo	Mpumalanga	Northern Cape	North West	Western Cape
	Other (Please specify):				

3.	**Current year of study:**	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	Post graduate

4.	**Gender:**	Male	Female

5.	**Ethnic group:**			
	African Black	Asian/Indian	Coloured	White
	Other (Please specify):			

6.	**Please indicate your mother tongue language:**				Afrikaans
	English	IsiNdebele	IsiXhosa	IsiZulu	Sesotho
	Sepedi	Setswana	SiSwati	Tshivenda	Xitsonga
	Other (Please specify):				

7.	**Age:**	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	24>

SECTION B: SPORT INTEREST

B1	*What sport do you like to watch most often during your leisure time?*	Soccer	Rugby	Cricket
		Other (specify)		

B2	*Who is your favorite South African sport team (provincial or national)?*	

SECTION C: BRAND PERSONALITY

Please evaluate how descriptive each of the following brand personality traits are for your favourite South African professional sport team brands

Please circle your relevant response.
(1 = not at all descriptive, 7 = extremely descriptive)

Adaptable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Adventurous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ambitious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Athletic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bold	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cheerful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Competitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cool	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Corporate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Creative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Energetic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ethical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Extrovert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Family oriented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Famous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fighting spirit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Genuine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Humble	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Independent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Innovative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Inspirational	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Masculine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Open minded	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Opportunistic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Original	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Outdoorsy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Passionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Professional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Progressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Respectful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Self-motivated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sociable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Solid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strategic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stylish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Successful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Talented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tough	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Trendy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unique	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Up to date	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Winners	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Young	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you for your time!

ANNEXURE C: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE (STEP 5)

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE (STEP 5)

Developing and validating a brand personality trait scale for South African professional sport teams

Dear Student,

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4.	**Gender:**	Male	Female

5.	**Ethnic group:**			
	African Black	Asian/Indian	Coloured	White
	Other (Please specify):			

6.	**Please indicate your mother tongue language:**				Afrikaans
	English	IsiNdebele	IsiXhosa	IsiZulu	Sesotho
	Sepedi	Setswana	SiSwati	Tshivenda	Xitsonga
	Other (Please specify):				

7.	**Age:**	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	24>

SECTION B: SPORT INTEREST

B1	*What sport do you like to watch most often during your leisure time?*	Soccer	Rugby	Cricket
		Other (specify)		

B2	*Who is your favorite South African sport team (provincial or national)?*	

SECTION C: BRAND PERSONALITY

Please evaluate how descriptive each of the following brand personality traits are for your favourite South African professional sport team brands

Please circle your relevant response.
(1 = not at all descriptive, 7 = extremely descriptive)

Kaizer Chiefs (Football Club)							
Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Respectful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Competitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ambitious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Trendy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Famous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stylish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The Sharks (Rugby club)							
Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Respectful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Competitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ambitious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Trendy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Famous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stylish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Orlando Pirates (Football Club)							
Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Respectful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Competitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ambitious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Trendy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Famous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stylish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Lions (Rugby club)							
Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Respectful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Competitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ambitious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Trendy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Famous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stylish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you for your time!

ANNEXURE D: FREQUENCY TABLES

Scale item	Sample size	Not at all descriptive: 1	2	3	4	5	6	Extremely descriptive: 7
Adaptable	477	7	12	54	138	128	82	56
Adventurous	477	7	34	52	122	122	80	60
Ambitious	477	4	8	39	80	103	112	131
Athletic	477	10	12	40	81	76	102	156
Attractive	477	10	8	39	63	88	112	157
Bold	477	6	19	38	95	113	113	93
Cheerful	477	4	12	43	71	119	106	122
Competitive	477	6	11	29	51	90	108	182
Confident	477	1	8	17	60	97	118	176
Cool	477	5	4	36	86	104	99	143
Corporate	477	8	13	53	100	129	106	68
Creative	477	11	12	45	90	111	110	98
Determined	477	6	10	27	59	103	129	143
Energetic	477	3	7	22	55	104	118	168
Entertaining	477	10	4	30	59	99	105	170
Ethical	477	9	11	34	90	124	102	107
Exciting	477	9	5	23	66	108	118	148
Extrovert	477	24	19	50	91	114	92	87
Family oriented	477	19	15	41	71	112	82	137
Famous	477	20	21	43	54	76	65	198
Fighting spirit	477	13	11	28	60	85	114	166
Friendly	477	9	5	23	57	97	123	163
Fun	477	3	9	19	60	106	126	154
Genuine	477	4	6	28	88	103	119	129
Humble	477	8	13	38	72	106	113	127
Independent	477	8	15	31	80	99	108	136
Innovative	477	5	15	35	91	114	105	112
Inspirational	477	7	10	29	58	124	122	127

Intelligent	477	6	14	40	92	124	118	73
Masculine	477	13	13	54	97	93	85	122
Open-minded	477		12	38	80	129	115	103
Opportunistic	477	8	16	31	90	104	125	103
Original	477	3	11	26	78	95	103	161
Outdoorsy	477	10	19	38	95	107	88	120
Passionate	477	6	7	25	51	114	117	257
Professional	477	5	6	20	57	98	131	160
Progressive	477	8	5	33	68	100	140	123
Reliable	477	12	14	38	88	111	116	102
Respectful	477	1	7	26	66	102	109	166
Self-motivated	477	4	9	34	71	100	114	145
Sincere	477	6	12	35	97	138	92	97
Sociable	477	3	15	23	73	128	124	111
Solid	477	7	9	43	91	127	114	86
Strategic	477	6	8	26	85	113	122	117
Stylish	477	10	12	29	90	100	111	125
Successful	477	8	7	22	72	101	124	143
Talented	477	5	8	24	50	96	1211	173
Tough	477	8	6	49	79	108	106	121
Trendy	477	7	17	43	93	100	97	111
Trustworthy	477	10	22	45	84	88	116	112
Unique	477	4	11	39	74	98	103	148
Up to date	477	11	11	30	74	104	119	128
Winners	477	25	18	27	57	96	92	162
Young	477	11	15	26	79	108	86	152

ANNEXURE E: BRAND PERSONALITY TRAITS (FOCUS GROUP)

Spanish	short hair	Entertaining	Well built	Fit
arrogant	classic cars	Opportunistic	Drives a Land Rover	Young
proud	drunk	Muscular	Scary	Lavish lifestyle
good-looking	nice	Well-built	Proud	Big spender
wealthy	but don't talk bad about him	Respectful	Selfish	Drives a Mustang (Yellow / Red)
too much gel	well-connected	Culture	Knows when to play and when to work	Corrupt
vane	wise	Knowledgeable	Born leader	Selfish
spotlight on him	stingy	Wise	Island	Loner
clean	Husler	Shorts & plakkies	Hawai	Greedy
wearing a suit	Old man	Informal	Don't care what others think	Rich history
fragile	tattoos	Quite	Wearing a jean casual button shirt	Controversial
handle-with-care	he thinks he knows everything about everything	Action speaks	Athletic	Professional
Smart	true believer	Bearded	Caring	Business man
Hardworking	passionate	Brown hair	Gentleman	Introverted
old	drive old brown mercedes	Boerseun	You want to be friends with him	Not focused enough
beard	no hair	Go-getter	Always hungry	Taking on too much
sunglasses	scary	Simplistic	Big	Attractive
beard	image-conscience	Traditional	Family oriented	Charismatic
Well-spoken	people talk behind his back	Violent	Skinny	Middle age
over-rated	Leaves a good impression	Samoan	Tall	Suit

Laid-back	Young	Tall	big stubborn	Down-to-earth
Lazy	ambitious	Dark hair	Drives Ford Ranger (2005)	Tall
Fat	Good looking	Well-spoken	Farmer	Gentleman
Not that strong	well build	Confident	Stubborn	Nice guy
Cheesy Boy	wealthy	Knows who he is	Broken fanagolo	Open-minded
Extrovert	Expensive car (Audi / Austin Martin)	Drives a Land Rover	Grew up amongst black people	Good-hearted
Old man	Bragging	Wear rugby shorts	no sense of humour	Confident
All over the place	Clean well suit	Traditional	thin guy (slim)	Accountant
All Stars	Respectable man	Afraid of change	Big	Failing boardexam time and time again
Sports hat	Wants more (even he has it all)	Khaki socks (Bobby socks)	Muscular	Unlucky
Not formal	Hard worker	Round bush hat	Leader	Quiet
Experienced	Arrogant	Looks like a ranger	Born-leader	Motivated
Fun	Over-confident	Intelligent	Confident	25 age
Enjoy life	Spanish	Educated	Smart	Driving a Polo OR Golf 7
Achieved	Rough exterior	Well spoken	Educated	Champions
Retired	Laid back	Think out of the box	Traditional	Beard
Likes to boast	Relaxed	Drives a Hi-lux	Married	well organised
Mama's baby	Big Russian guy	Social	Perfect	Indian OR Black
Strong morals	Worked hard	Ons gaan nou braai	Short	Attractive
Knowledgeable	Has it all	Life of the party	Drives a Mercedes S500	Victor Matfield
Wise	Older (50 - 60)	age 35 -40	Disciplined	catapillar shoes
Traditional	Beard	informal	Corporate figure	Getting there
Energetic	Small belly	jean	Hard working	

ANNEXURE F: BRAND PERSONALITY TRAITS (WEBSITES)

Aggressive	Confidence	Family oriented	Innovative	Progressive	Traditional
Attractive	Confident	Famous	Leader	Rich	Unique
Best	Consistent	Fashionable	Matured	Serious	United
Bully	Darling (Lovely, adorable, charming, cute)	Focused	Passionate	Social Responsible	Wealthy/ Rich
Capable	Determined	Formal	Peaceful	Stronger	Young
Clever	Dominant	Friendly	Popular	Stylish	
Committed	Educated	Glamour	Popular/ famous	Successful	
Community Driven	Entertaining	Gutsy	Positive	Supportive	
Community oriented	Enthusiasm	Hard worker	Pride	Talented	
Competitive	Exiting	Humble	Professional	Tough	

ANNEXURE G: BRAND PERSONALITY TRAITS (LITERATURE)

Charming	Masculine	Wholesome	Genuine	Up to date
Cheerful	Original	Young	Glamorous	Upper class
Confident	Outdoorsy	Accomplished	Hard working	active
Contemporary	Real	Appearance	High performance	Adventurous
Cool	Reliable	Attractive	Honest	Aggressive
Corporate	Rugged	Authentic	Inspirational	Bold
Daring	Secure	Bold	Mature	Consistent
Down to earth	Sentimental	Capable	Old Fashioned	Creative
Exiting	Sincere	Charming	Quality	Down to earth
Family oriented	Small town	Classic	Reliable	Dynamic
Feminine	Smoot	Confident	Respected	Emotional
Friendly	Spiritness	Consistent	Rugged	Energetic
Glamorous	Successful	Corporate	Service Oriented	Genuine
Good looking	Technical	Daring	Sincere	Honest
Hard working	Tough	Dependable	sophisticated	Innovative
Honest	Trendy	Down to earth	Stylish	Lively
Imaginative	Unique	Efficient	Successful	Ordinary
Independent	Up to Date	Family oriented	Superior	Pretentious
Intelligent	Upper class	Flashy	Traditional	Rational
Leader	Western	Friendly	Trendy	Simple
Reliable	Alternative	Faithful	Hard Working	Stable
Responsible	Bold	Family Oriented	Humorous	Rebellious
Romantic	Cheerful	Fighting Spirit	Trustworthy	Sociable
Sentimental	Diligent	Open Minded	Social	Responsible
Sophisticated	Tolerant	Tough	Traditional	

ANNEXURE H: DISCARDED BRAND PERSONALITY TRAITS (STEP 3)

Discarded traits (irrelevant-140)

Accountant	Catapillar shoes	Gentleman sport	Old	Small belly
Age 25	Cheese boy	Green and Gold	Old man	Spanish
Age 35-40	Choice of players	Green Yellow jersey	Older(50-60)	Sport hat
All black kit	Christian Ronaldo	Grew up amongst Black people	Ons gaan nou braai	Springbok logo
All stars	Classic cars	Handle with care	Over rated coach	Suit
All white	Clean	Hard tackles	People talk behind his back entertaining	Sunglasses
Always hungry	Clean well suit	Hawai	Physical big	Takes what belongs to them (like pirate)
Always something new	Dark hair	He thinks he knows everything about everything	Pirates	Taking on too much
Bad relations with local municipality	Declined	Imported players	Politics	Tall
Beard	Develop young players	Indian or Black	Popularity for big stars might drop	Tattoos
Bearded	Disadvantage resources	Invest and Buy	Quata players	Team effort
Best goalkeeper	Disappointment sound (cartoon)	Invested in development	Quick/nice and short	The haka
Best in the country	Drive old brown Mercedes	Island	Red jerseys	Thin Guy (Slim)
Best team in south Africa	Drivers a Land Rover	Jean	Relationship lacking with clubs	Too much
Big players	Drivers a Mercedes Benz CS500	Khakhi socks (body socks)	Representative of RSA	Too much gel

Big Russian guy	Drives a Hilux	Knows when to play and when to work	Retired	Top
Bird badge	Drives a mustang (yellow/red)	Kzn beach	Rivals to blue bulls	Towards past experience
Black and white jersey	Drives ford ranger (2005)	Life of the party	Rough sport	Transformation issues
Broken fanakalo	Driving a polo or Golf 7	Long hair	Round bush hat	Under pressure
Brown hair	Educated	Love for the sport	Rural	Unlucky
Business man	Emblem of raibow nation	Management problems	Samoan	Victor matfield
But dnt bad about him	Expensive car (Audi/Austin Martin)	Married	Shark tank	Want more (even he has it all)
Can be good	Failing board exam time and time again	Mascot	Short	War
Can run	Farmer	Middle age	Short hair	Waste of time
Can’t play important games	Fat	Never walk alones	Shorts and plakkies	Wear rugby shorts
Cancer awareness	Fight with for the favourites	No culture	Skeleton logo	Wearing a jean casual button shirt
Castle (sponsor)	Fighters	No hair	Skinny	Wearing hair
Castle lager	Forgetting what is all about	Noisy fans	Slow	Yellow jersey

Discarded traits (Ambiguous-63)

Action speaks	Ethiket	Knows who is	Respect
Active	Exiting	Leader	Rich
Adrenaline	Fashionable	lively	Richest
Appearance	Fear of loosing	Look down to others	Rough exterior
Benchmark for other teams	Fun to watch	Looks like ranger	Secure
Best team	Good picking themselves up	Mama's baby	Spoilt for choice
Better vibe live	Gutsy	More exposure	Strong individuals
Big spender	Has it all	Motivated	Superior
Chasing profit	High performance	Need to look for a new talent	Technique
Confident	Higher awareness	Not losers	Transformation
Contemporary	Image conscience	Not motivated	Unbalanced
Determined	In the limelight	Perfect	United
Developing	In touch with supporters	Popular	Unity
Diverse	Intense	Popular/famous	Wealthy
Divided	International	Potential	
Energy	Knows every thing	Representative	

Discarded traits (Redundant-174).

Achieved	Drunk	Lack of passion	Positive	Successful
Afraid of change	Educated	Laid back	Pretentious	Supportive
All of the place	Emotional	Leaves a good impression	Pride	Technical
Alternative	END-Inconsistent	Likes to boast	Professional	Tension
Attractive	END-Passion for country	Live in the past	Proud	The best
Authentic	Energetic	Loner	Quality	Think out of the box
Authoritative	Enjoy life	Look confident	Quite	Tolerant
Average	Entertainers	Loose focus	Rational	Too passionate
Best	Enthusiasm	Love for the country	Real	Traditional
Best in the world	Evasive (coach)	Love what they do	Relaxed	Trouble makers
Big	Expensive	Matured	Respectable man	True believer
Big mess	Experienced	Muscular	Respected	Unique
Big stubborn	Family oriented	Must win	Rich history	Violent
Boerseun	Fight/blame ref	Need ambition	Rivalry	Well build
Born-leader	Fighters	Never disappoint	Romantic	Well developed
Business	Fit	Nice	Rough	Well organized
Capable	Formal	Nice guy	Scary	Well-connected
Casual	Fragile	No respect	Sentimental	Well-spoken
Chokers	Gentleman	No sense of humour	Service oriented	Western
Classic	Gentleness	Normal guy	Simple	Wholesome
Clever	Get stage fright	Not exiting	Simplistic	Winners (2x world cups)
Committed	Getting there	Not focused	Simply the best	Wise
Community driven	Go getter	Not focused enough	Small town	Worked hard
Community oriented	Good conditioned	Not formal	Smart	World class

Competitive	Good under pressure	Not physical	Smoot	You want to be friend with him
Consistent	Good-hearted	Not that strong	Social	Young
Corporate figure	Good-looking	Old fashion	Social responsible	
Corrupt	Happy	Old man	Spirited	
Courage	Hard worker	Open-minded	Spotlight on him	
Culture	Helpful	Over-confidence	Stable	
Dangerous	Hooligans	Over-rated	Steady	
Darling (lovely, adorable, charming, cute)	Humorous	Passion	Step on the other teams	
Depth	Hustler	Passionate	Stingy	
Diligent	Informal	Peaceful	Strong history	
Disappointing	Innovative	Perfection	Strong team	
Disciplined	Intelligent	Performance pressure	Stronger	
Don’t care what other think	Knowledgeable	Physical	Struggling	

ANNEXURE I: STBP-TRAIT SCALE QUESTIONNAIRE

Brand personality is all the personality traits that consumers associate with a brand.

Rate how descriptive each of the following personality traits are toward **sport team brand**.

Please circle your relevant response.

(1 = not at all descriptive, 7 = extremely descriptive)

1.	Trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Respectful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Competitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Ambitious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Entertaining	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Trendy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	Famous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Stylish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you for your time!