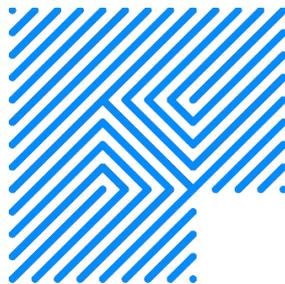


From Cruijff and Van Basten, to Ibrahimović and Suárez: Globalization in the Dutch Eredivisie

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Contents

Acknowledgements	iii
Contents	v
Summary.....	vii
1. Introduction.....	1
1.2. What is globalization?	2
1.2.1. Globalization from above vs. Globalization from below	3
1.2.2. Globalization in a broader sense	4
1.3. Literature on the globalization of soccer	5
1.3.1. Soccer clubs and economic globalization.....	5
1.3.2. Soccer and migration	5
1.3.3. Soccer and communication technology.....	7
1.3.4. This research	8
1.4. A timeline of soccer globalization history	9
1.4.1. The early days of soccer	9
1.4.2. Migration processes.....	9
1.4.3. Commercialization.....	10
1.4.4. The Bosman ruling.....	11
1.4.5. Beyond Bosman	11
1.4.6. Economic crisis	13
1.5. Research objective and research questions	14
2. Theorizing globalization in soccer	15
2.1. Why would investors be interested in foreign soccer clubs?.....	15
2.2. Why would foreign players end up in the Dutch Eredivisie?.....	19
2.2.1. Soccer coaches	22
2.3. Why would fans start supporting teams in foreign competitions?	23
3. Methodology	27
3.1. General methodological choices	27
3.1.1. Data Source.....	27
3.1.2. The time period.....	28
3.1.3. Eredivisie clubs	28
3.2. Data on the mobility of capital.....	30
3.3. Data on the mobility of labor	30
4. Analysis	33
4.1. The mobility of capital.....	33

4.1. The mobility of labor	36
1. Conclusion	44
2. Discussion	47
Bibliography.....	49
Appendix A: List of soccer clubs included in this research.....	56
Appendix B: List of the European Union expansion since 1985.....	57
Appendix C: Regression analysis	58
I. Appendix D: Syntax.....	60

Summary

Anyone that takes an interest in the Dutch premier league of soccer, the Eredivisie, will have noticed that the competition seems to become more globally oriented. Whether it is the players on the pitch having many different nationalities, or the recent foreign takeovers of Vitesse and ADO Den Haag by foreign investors, the rest of the world seems to be more and more included in the Eredivisie. This research focusses on measuring the extent as to which globalization processes have taken place in the Eredivisie in the 1985-2016 period. This has been done by looking at different facets of seventeen different Dutch soccer clubs with regular Eredivisie experience in the last thirty years. These facets are the clubs' capital (ownership and sponsorship), labor (players and coaches) and fan base. Unfortunately, due to a lack of data the third facet is not researched for this thesis.

Results show that the mobility of capital has so far not shown a trend towards globalization. In fact, there has been a decline of foreign shirt sponsors in the research period, arguing against globalization. However, when it comes to club ownership, there have been two cases of foreign investors taking an interest and buying a Dutch soccer club (the aforementioned Vitesse and ADO Den Haag), which could imply more foreign interest in the Eredivisie. Because of the low number of cases, there is no reason to talk about a 'trend' of foreign ownership of Eredivisie teams, but time will tell whether Merab Zjordania (Vitesse) and Wang Hui (ADO) have been trendsetters and more foreign investors will attempt to buy one of the Dutch clubs.

Secondly, the player base of Eredivisie teams became significantly less Dutch and more foreign over time, with the Bosman ruling being of major importance to this trend and accelerating this process. It was expected that the financial crisis in 2007 would also have a large influence on the percentages of Dutch and foreign players in the competition, as clubs would have lower budgets and would therefore be more likely to buy relatively cheap, Dutch players, but data has shown that this is not the case. It is worth mentioning that even though the Bosman ruling should only impact the freedom of mobility of European players, results show that not only European, but also Non-EU players became immensely more popular for Eredivisie teams after the implementation of the Bosman ruling in 1995. Furthermore, even though the pool of players definitely shows a change, the vast majority of coaches employed by Eredivisie teams are and have always been Dutch.

1. Introduction

When watching *Studio Sport*, the program for soccer highlights, the commentator of the Roda JC - PSV match said that the Roda JC Kerkrade starting eleven of this weekends' game consisted of more players with an Australian nationality (2) than players who were born in Limburg, the province Kerkrade is in (0). This quote sparked an interest in the globalization of soccer. On the one hand, which soccer team someone supports is largely based on where this person is from (Tubantia, 2012). *'Support your local'* is a very applicable phrase when looked at the teams people support, as the Tubantia *Voetbalkaart* shows that a huge part of the fan base of clubs is found in and near the city the club is from. On the other hand, the question can be raised as to what extent clubs can still be considered 'local'. The total percentage of players in the Dutch Eredivisie that do not have the Dutch nationality kept rising over the years until the 2010-2011 season (NOS, 2013). The trend likely broke due to the financial crisis influencing the financial state of the Eredivisie clubs. Dutch soccer clubs are not always owned by Dutch people anymore (see, for example, ADO Den Haag) and merchandize of these clubs is produced in other countries.

Globalization has become a part of our everyday lives. As Miller et al. (2001) state, *"sport is so central to our contemporary moment's blend of transnational cultural industrialization and textualization that it does more than reflect the global – sport is big enough in its effects to modify our very use of the term 'globalization'"*. With soccer being the most popular sport worldwide, it seems highly relevant for society to research the processes of globalization within the industry. Globalization processes are directly linked to immensely popular and important topics such as multiculturalism and the global economy. Researching soccer globalization is therefore relevant to society as a whole.

This research will focus on the continuing trend of globalization at the Dutch Eredivisie clubs. An overview will be made of the ins and outs of Dutch soccer clubs of the last thirty years. This is done by looking at three different aspects of soccer clubs. First of all, an analysis of ownership and sponsorship is conducted to see whether Eredivisie teams are financially connected to non-native Dutch people or organizations. Secondly, the nationality of players is discussed to find out whether the Eredivisie became more popular to foreigners over time. Last but not least, an analysis of trends in social media behavior of clubs will be conducted to find out whether the reach of Dutch clubs became more international. All of this combined should give a clear view on whether the clubs in the Eredivisie have globalized.

In this chapter, first an overview of the literature on the definition of globalization will be given. The next step is to relate this concept of globalization to the soccer industry. Then, the important changes that have affected the soccer industry, especially in terms of transfer policies and other

globalization related aspects, will be discussed. The final part of this chapter will be used to explicitly state the research questions used for this thesis.

1.2. What is globalization?

Before talking about the effect of globalization, it is important to define the concept first. This task seems easy at first, but due to the sheer number of topics that are included under the banner of globalization, can be considered a challenge. As Robertson & White (2007) point out, *“Many books and articles purporting to be talking about globalization indicate at the outset that there is no accepted definition of globalization but that the author or authors are about to provide one”*. In this Section, a part of the wealth of literature on the concept will be discussed.

The concept of globalization is relatively new, making its entrance in a dictionary in the second half of the twentieth century (Gove, 1961). However, according to Scholte (2002), it is useful to take a few steps back and see where the concept derived from.

“In the English language, the noun ‘globe’ began to denote ‘the planet’ several hundred years ago, once it was determined that the earth was round. The adjective ‘global’ began to designate ‘world scale’ in the late nineteenth century, in addition to its earlier meaning of ‘spherical’. The verb ‘globalize’ appeared in the 1940s, together with the word ‘globalism’. ‘Globalization’ first entered a dictionary (of American English) in 1961. Notions of ‘globality’, as a condition, have begun to circulate more recently.” (Scholte, 2002).

However, some processes that we would today consider to be a part of globalization have been around way before even the first signs of global thinking were introduced. An example of this would be migration processes, which have been around almost as long as human existence has. Nye and Donahue (2000) argue that the first processes which fit in the definition of globalization are environmental processes, as *“climate change has affected the ebb and flow of human population for millions of years”*.

The problem with defining globalization is partially shown in this last paragraph. One of the key elements that makes the concept of globalization so difficult to define is the fact that it is used in multiple scientific disciplines. Both environmental studies and studies on migration, which mostly falls under the banner of social geography or sociology, have already been linked to globalization. Furthermore, the term has been used extensively in anthropology and religious studies since the 1970s (Robertson & White, 2007). Another important mention is the way in which globalization is used by economists; for example how Levitt (1993) talks about a *globalization of markets*. According

to Robertson and White (2007), one of the huge issues with defining globalization is the way in which the concept was used and defined by multiple scientific disciplines simultaneously:

“To complicate matters a little, we have to recognize clearly that the idea of globalization did not fully enter academic, not to speak of wider political and intellectual, discourse until the late 1980s or early 1990s. The cleavage – because that is what it is – between those who take a mainly economic position on globalization, in reference to the eventual end of capitalism, and those who have adopted a broader view, is a strong characteristic of the currency of the concept.” (Robertson & White, 2007)

It seemed there were at least two types of globalization: one type that can be considered economic globalization, and a second form that was a lot broader.

1.2.1. Globalization from above vs. Globalization from below

Economic globalization is heavily associated with neoliberalism and reflects on how there has been a process of increasingly open markets and privatization throughout the world. As Teeple (2000) states: *“Globalization can also be grasped as the ‘triumph of capitalism’, that is, as the ascendancy of economics over politics, of corporate demands over public policy, of the private over the public interest, of the TNC over the national state”*. This form of globalization is known as *globalization from above*, meaning that those within power enforce globalization upon the rest of the world. Ever since the early 1990s, policy has been implemented which allowed for open markets, free trade, deregulation and privatization (Robertson & White, 2007). Those in favor of these changes were considered the advocates of *globalization from above*.

The concept of globalization from above is the form of globalization that caused the existence of an anti-globalism movement. This movement is about *“the convergence of many social forces worldwide opposed to neoliberal economic and political restructuring – a particular project of globalization-from-above”* (Conway, 2016). These movements follow a Marxist ideology and oppose the results of neoliberalist changes in the world, which grant immense political power to multi-national corporations. The term anti-globalism is misleading in the sense that these movements do not feel globalization is the problem but instead focus on how the political power of the large multinationals is unfair and even dangerous for the world (Stiglitz & Charlton, 2005). The anti-globalization movements focus on welcoming globalization while taking into account democratic representation, advancement of human rights, fair trade and sustainable development. This is considered to be *globalization from below*.

1.2.2. Globalization in a broader sense

So far the discussion has been on economic globalization. However, many scientists argue for a much broader use of the concept. The most basic observation in globalization theory was the observation that the world was *“increasingly becoming a single place”* (Robertson, 1992). Sociologists, when speaking about globalization, generally refer to three dimensions of the concept: the economic, the political and the cultural (Robertson & White, 2007). However, definitions can be even more conclusive. An example of a definition of the broad sense of globalization is given by Dator (2006):

“For us here, globalization means not only the worldwide capitalist system called “neoliberalism,” but also the full range of forces and factors that are sweeping across the globe totally unhindered, or barely hindered, by the boundaries and policies of the nation-state. Thus factors in globalization include jet planes, supertankers, and container ships; migratory labor; electronic and genetic communication technologies; anthropogenic global climate change; air, water and ground pollution; new and revived diseases; religions; criminal and terrorist activities and their countervailing state-terrorist, policy and paramilitary forces; mass media; popular culture; and sports. Globalization also includes the spread and “best practices” in all of the factors listed above” (Dator, 2006).

Note that in this definition, Dator starts by mentioning the economic globalization by referring to neoliberalism, and continues with all the other aspects he believes to be part of globalization processes as well. The way the author frames the definition, by using words such as ‘not only.. ..but also’, is yet another illustration of how there are multiple uses of the concept of globalization.

Globalization has had an enormous impact on the way research is conducted. As Appelbaum and Robinson (2005) mention, globalization *‘has major implication for all areas, from ethnic studies to area studies, from literature and the arts to language and cultural studies, from economic and sociology to history, anthropology, law, business administration, race and ethnic studies, and women’s studies’*. For example, the change to global thinking created a tendency for sociologists to think of society as a whole to be the largest unit in their field of study, rather than speaking about nations (Outhwaithe, 2006). In this thesis, there will be a focus on the aspects within the concept of globalization that are relevant to the soccer industry. These aspects will further be elaborated on in the next Section.

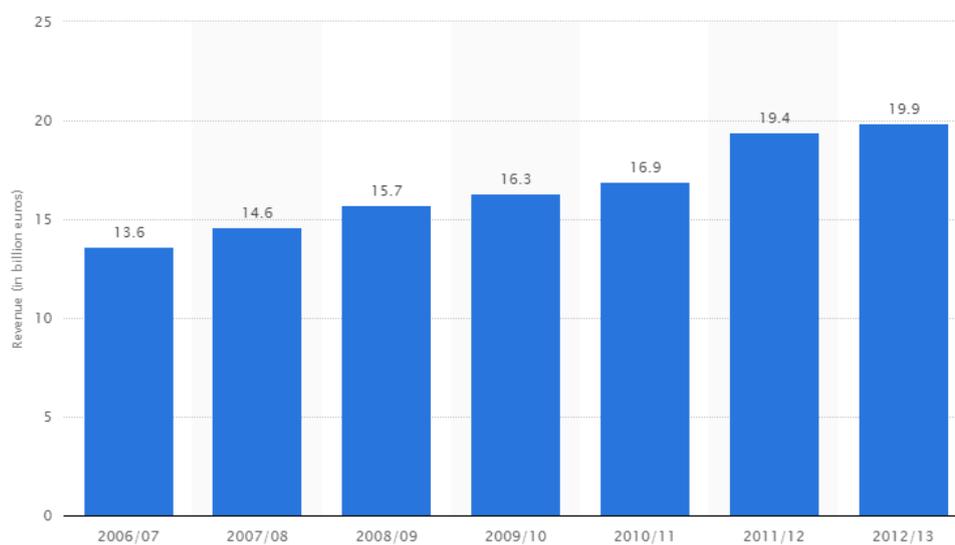
1.3. Literature on the globalization of soccer

This Section will elaborate on the current scientific discussion on the globalization of soccer. Three important aspects that fit within the concept of globalization will be linked to the soccer industry. These aspects are migration, communication technology and the economy.

1.3.1. Soccer clubs and economic globalization

The global revenue of the soccer industry in 2012 comes in at twenty billion euros (AT Kearney, 2012). Of those revenues, sixteen billion are earned in Europe. Figure 1.1 shows the revenues that were made in Europe in the 2006 to 2013 period. Soccer has been more than ‘just a game’ for a while, with commercialization processes vastly changing the way the sport is organized. These processes will be further discussed in Section 1.4.

Figure 1.1: Total revenues of the European soccer industry, 2006-2013.



Source: Statista, 2016

As Ben-Porat and Ben-Porat (2004) state, *“with the commercialization of the game in both capitalist and quasi-capitalist states, its connection with globalization intensified: the game and its components became a commodity in the world market”*. Entrepreneurs started seeing the opportunities that are present in the soccer industry, considering clubs as a possible investment (Foster, 2000). Multinational corporations became interested in soccer clubs and began to buy their shares, mostly in Europe but also in other continents (Hamil, Michie, Oughton, & Warby, 2000).

1.3.2. Soccer and migration

Soccer is closely related to migration. For example, when Milanovic (2012) wrote about the globalization of soccer, he defines globalization as *“the ability of highly skilled players to move between clubs and countries”*. In the same article, this migration of players is linked to the commercialization of the sport and the political changes in migration policy in especially Europe, both

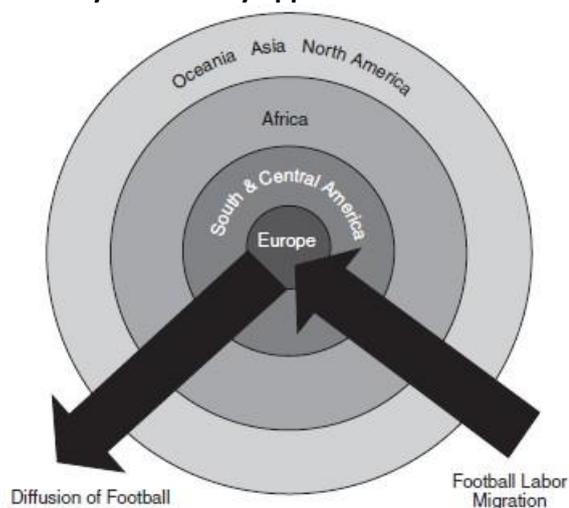
of which will be discussed extensively in chapter 1.4. Considering how much has been written on the migration of soccer players (e.g. Maguire & Stead, 1998; Taylor, 2006; Littlewood, Mullen, & Richardson, 2011), the scientific world seems to be keen on attempting to explain player movement through clubs and countries.

Many of the authors mentioned above made use of the world-system theory, first described by Wallerstein (1974). In his later works, he defines a world-system as:

"..not the system of the world, but a system that is a world and which can be, most often has been, located in an area less than the entire globe. World-systems analysis argues that the units of social reality within which we operate, whose rules constrain us, are for the most part such world-systems (other than the now extinct, small minisystems that once existed on the earth). World-systems analysis argues that there have been thus far only two varieties of world-systems: world-economies and world empires. A world-empire (examples, the Roman Empire, Han China) are large bureaucratic structures with a single political center and an axial division of labor, but multiple cultures. A world-economy is a large axial division of labor with multiple political centers and multiple cultures. In English, the hyphen is essential to indicate these concepts. "World system" without a hyphen suggests that there has been only one world-system in the history of the world" (Wallerstein, 2004).

Magee and Sugden (2002) use this theoretical approach in their work on soccer migration. They argue that migration from soccer players generally happens towards Europe, as the most prestigious and wealthy clubs are located in that continent. On the other hand, the diffusion of soccer follows the exact opposite trend. Figure 1.2 shows these trends.

Figure 1.2: World-system theory applied to the soccer industry.



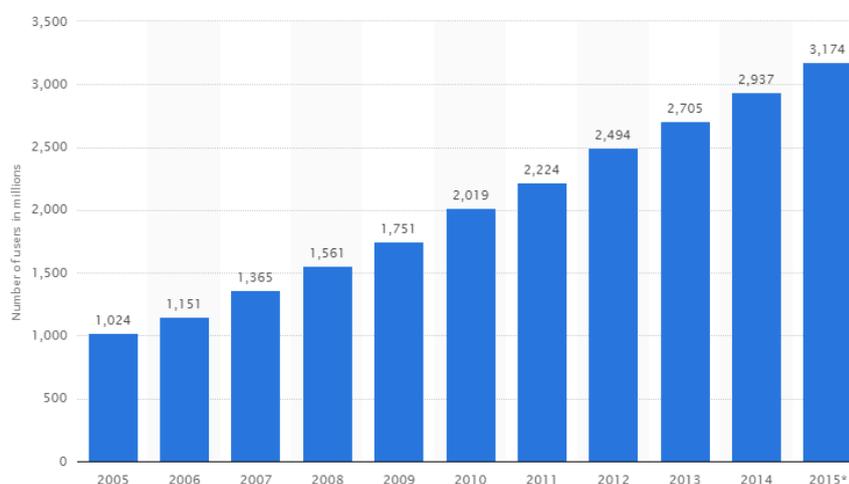
Source: Magee & Sugden, 2002

However, not all writers on the processes within the soccer industry agree to what extent the concept of globalization is applicable to this industry. For example, Dicken (1998) argues that in the case of the soccer industry, there is an ongoing process of internationalization rather than globalization, the difference being that *“globalization processes are qualitatively different from internationalization processes in that they involve not merely the geographical extension of economic activity across national boundaries but also – and more importantly – the functional integration of such internationally dispersed activities”*. The reason why the soccer industry is different from industries in which globalization processes do take place is the way employment is organized. In most traditional industries that are affected by globalization, there is a case of relatively immobile employees whereas the capital itself is considered hyper-mobile (Hirst & Thompson, 1996). In the case of the world of soccer it is the other way around, with clubs bounded by a geographical location and players becoming more and more free to move around the globe to do their job. This question of globalization versus internationalization has been researched by McGovern (2002), by looking at the English premier league trends of the 1946-1995 period. Results show that *“there is no evidence that the hiring of overseas players has been functionally integrated into the activities of the leading clubs.. ..the acquisition of foreign players simply reflects the extension of international trade rather than the kind of radical shift that is associated with globalization”*.

1.3.3. Soccer and communication technology

Another aspect of globalization heavily related to soccer is the way in which communication technology has been developed over the years. The accessibility of information has steadily grown. *Global connectivity*, as Friedman (2005) calls it in his book *The world is flat*, can be illustrated by looking at the number of people with access to the internet. Figure 1.3 shows the number of worldwide internet users in the 2005 to 2015 period. The total number of users tripled in this period.

Figure 1.3: Internet users worldwide.



Source: Statista, 2016

These kind of statistics influence the way soccer is perceived. Compared to twenty years ago, today it is far easier to find out the result of the Chelsea – Manchester United game, or watch an online stream of the match. Ben-Porat and Ben-Porat (2004) argue that this development changed a lot in the soccer industry, especially when speaking about supporters. Because it was much easier to keep track of foreign clubs, it was no longer necessary to support a club that is active in the domestic competition. In an article by Sports Magazine (2002), it was stated that fifty percent of Israeli soccer fans supported a big foreign club. This does not necessarily mean they do not support one of the local teams. The probability of the teams ever facing against each other or competing for the same players is close to zero and therefore it is deemed normal to support more than one club, as long as one of those clubs is a foreign team (Ben-Porat & Ben-Porat, 2004). However, the changes to information and communication technology (ICT) made sure that clubs can no longer take fans for granted, because of the competition beyond the own national boundaries.

1.3.4. This research

This research will try to elaborate on the three elements of globalization. To achieve this goal, the study of Ben-Porat & Ben-Porat (2004) will be as guideline. In their work, they try to measure the extent to which the Israeli soccer industry has globalized by looking at the mobility of capital, mobility of labor and mobility of culture. According to them, Israeli soccer has globalized on all three components. They define these types of mobility as follows:

“Capital is treated in terms of the money invested in clubs and its sources (Israeli and non-Israeli) and changes in management (political vs business). Labor is treated in terms of the import of foreign players and the export of Israeli players. Culture is treated by inspecting the behavior of the fans: their reference to and preference for foreign clubs, the importance they attribute to ‘their’ club’s progress in UEFA and other international tournaments, and the adoption of certain symbols which are borrowed from European soccer” (Ben-Porat & Ben-Porat, 2004).

The three aspects of globalization used for this study each closely resemble one of the aspects of globalization listed above. The mobility of capital can be linked to the economic globalization, the mobility of labor matches migration and the mobility of culture is heavily linked to the improved ICT. In this study, the Dutch Eredivisie will be the subject of research, but the research method itself is very similar. However, where Ben-Porat and Ben-Porat discuss the mobility of culture, this thesis specifically looks at the mobility of information and its effect on the Eredivisie. This mobility of information describes the way how information is spread around the globe and, in the case of this research, how it affects the numbers on foreign fandom.

1.4. A timeline of soccer globalization history

In this Section, an overview will be given on how globalization has reshaped the world and to what extent this has affected the soccer industry. A key part of this chapter will be the Bosman ruling, which massively impacted the transfer market for soccer players in Europe.

1.4.1. The early days of soccer

To fully investigate the globalization of soccer, one should look even further in the past than the time of the Bosman ruling. In fact, the globalization of this sport started almost immediately after it was first played. In the dissertation by Sondaal (2012), this historical connection between globalization and soccer has been discussed extensively. The game was invented in England, where schools used the sport in order to teach their students *“the value of team-work, loyalty and discipline”* (Holt, 1990). Due to the British imperialism, the whole world was soon introduced to soccer.

Sondaal mentions a few aspects that played a large role in the globalization of soccer. Firstly, the sport is closely associated with nation-building, especially in the second half of the nineteenth century. As Sondaal described it, *“soccer constituted an imagined community at a time of social upheaval and rapid transformation”* (Sondaal, 2012). This caused soccer to be widely accepted in many countries. Furthermore, the invention of printing press created a large demand for sport reports, including soccer (Williams, 1994). The swift spread of soccer and the huge popularity of the sport in just about every nation brought a need to formalize the sport and create national and international organizations to guarantee regulation. As a result, the Fédération Internationale de Football Association, or FIFA, was founded in 1904.

Around twenty years after the founding of FIFA, the first world cup of soccer was played in Uruguay (1930). Even though this world cup was little more than a South American cup that happened to feature a few European national sides, the start of a global national competition in soccer sparked the beginning of a global market (Taylor, 2006). Soccer players, in search of better financial rewards, started to seek their fortune in other countries. Because the motivation for soccer players to move around the world was largely financially, there is a general migration trend that ‘follows the money’, meaning that players from relatively poor countries move towards the richer ones (Eisenberg, 2003).

1.4.2. Migration processes

Even though soccer as a sport was becoming more and more global, and therefore the demand for a global market became larger, this wish was partially made more difficult due to another big change worldwide. Migration has not been a linear process and the reason for this is largely political. As Strikweda (1999) mentioned, migration has *“flowed and ebbed in two great waves over the last two hundred years”*. The first instance of mass migration happened in the 1860 to 1914 period and was

called the Great Migration, with over 50 million Europeans moving towards Africa and Asia (Taylor, 2006). This process stopped when governments started to oversee who was entering their countries and creating layers of legislation to prevent people from getting in. Examples of these measures are visas and work permits.

The second large instance of mass migration started just after the Second World War. As early as 1951, the first legislation on labor migration in Europe was signed in the form of the Paris Treaty, allowing employees in the coal and steel industry to work in all the countries that signed the treaty. (Treaty of Paris, 1951). Following this, the Treaty of Rome expanded this right to all employees. (Treaty of Rome, 1957). With each new Treaty that followed and each new country that became a part of the collaboration, labor migration within Europe became easier.

1.4.3. Commercialization

Decades later, another big change in the world of soccer ensured further steps in the migration process: commercialization. To commercialize means *“to use (something) as an opportunity to earn money”* (Merriam-Webster, 2016). This change has to do with how soccer as a sport was perceived by the public and the owners of soccer clubs. In the early days of soccer, the sport was seen as *“place for the public provision of leisure”* (King, 2002). However, whilst still being of cultural importance to nations (nationalism), during the 1990s the importance of money in the sport became more and more apparent. A prime example of this is the Bosman ruling, which increased free market principles to be further incorporated in the world of soccer. Another large aspect is the role of mass media companies, as they would buy the rights to broadcast the soccer matches (Sandvoss, 2003). It is important to note that this change was welcomed by the important organizations of soccer, such as the FIFA. The soccer industry became a huge platform for sponsorships. Many multinational companies, such as Adidas, Cola-cola and Gazprom, are in some way affiliated with FIFA (FIFA, 2016). This caused the soccer industry to be the largest sports industry in terms of revenue (AT Kearney, 2012).

Money became the one thing that made the soccer industry spin. From the 1990s onwards, clubs increasingly started to compete with each other in terms of capital, for example by offering higher salaries than the competitors (Krabbenbos, 2013). Having money was more important than ever before and the clubs adjusted their business strategies because of it. As Dejonghe (2008) states, the soccer industry changed from a utility maximizing to a more profit maximizing consumers-oriented service.

1.4.4. The Bosman ruling

One of the most important changes in recent history regarding the globalization on the soccer field is the Bosman ruling. This ruling is named after a Belgian soccer player, Jean-Marc Bosman. In 1990, his contract at RFC Liege ended and he got offered a better deal by another team, the French side Dunkirk. However, during this time, it was still mandatory for teams to negotiate a transfer sum for a player, regardless whether the contract ended or not. Bosman was keen on joining Dunkirk, but was prevented by this ruling since the teams would not come to an agreement on what the transfer fee should be. Bosman was forced to stay at Liege, and to make matters worse, Liege cut his wages by a tremendous amount because of the interest he had shown in another club.

Bosman felt hard done by this situation and decided to pursue legal action. Five years followed in which Bosman and his lawyer tried to fight the situation at every possible organization involved. None of the authorities were interested in his story and eventually, in 1995, the case ended up at the European Court of Justice. Bosman argued that the treatment he had gotten five years earlier was not in line with the rules concerning the freedom of movement for workers and the freedom of association. These rules state that EU citizens are free to find a job anywhere else within the boundaries of the Union. Bosman won the case, which sparked an immense change within the world of soccer.

1.4.5. Beyond Bosman

The Bosman ruling has two major implications on the way player transfers in soccer work. First of all, from this point on, clubs were no longer required to force a player to stay at the club after their contract expires. This meant that during transfer negotiations, a large part of the power of the clubs has shifted on to the players. This is illustrated in an example by The Telegraph, a British newspaper:

“So, let us pretend you are a big club trying to sign a player who is almost out of contract. Before Bosman, you could have bought him for, say, £2.5 million: out of the range of most clubs. After Bosman, he was available for free, and so anybody could potentially get in on the action. How to ensure you got your man? By offering him a wage packet nobody else could match (Liew, 2015).”

This change caused a dramatic increase in the wages of players, as clubs no longer needed to pay clubs for players without a contract. Instead, as stated above, clubs used their money to convince the players to join their club. This showed in Britain, where the highest paid player of 2001 in the premier league (Sol Campbell, 100.000 pounds per week) was paid ten times more than the best earner of 1994 (Chris Sutton, 10.000 pounds per week) (Liew, 2015). Perhaps an even better measurement is the average wage of the competition, which is shown in Figure 1.4. Clubs try to work around the

Bosman ruling by offering the players lengthy contracts so that they will not lose the player for free. If a player refuses to sign a new contract and his current contract is on the verge of expiring, the club would try to sell the player so at least they still get some money in return. A study by Antonioni and Cubbin (2000) has shown that this is indeed the case.

Figure 1.4: Average wages in the premier league, 1992-2010.

Season	Average wage(£)	Season	Average wage(£)
1992/1993	77.083	2001/2002	566.932
1993/1994	93.986	2002/2003	611.068
1994/1995	116.448	2003/2004	651.222
1995/1996	130.896	2004/2005	630.355
1996/1997	175.066	2005/2006	685.748
1997/1998	244.908	2006/2007	778.103
1998/1999	313.959	2007/2008	960.377
1999/2000	383.835	2008/2009	1.066.391
2000/2001	451.274	2009/2010	1.162.350

Source: Sporting Intelligence (2011)

The second important consequence of the Bosman ruling is crucial to globalization of soccer and the reason why this research focuses on the period after the ruling was installed. Before 1995, many national and international leagues restricted the number of foreign players that could play for a team. An example of this is the ‘3+2 rule’ that the Union of European Football Associations (UEFA) used for the UEFA Cup and Champions league, the two international club competitions in Europe. This rule “required that teams limit the number of foreign players included on the team sheet for any one match to three, plus two additional foreign players who had played professionally in the host country for a period of five uninterrupted years, including three years in junior teams (Rosner & Shropshire, 2004).” The Bosman ruling banned restrictions on the number of foreign EU players within national leagues, such as the 3+2 rule.

The eviction of the limitations on foreign players and the new rules on transfers of players without a contract made it easier for clubs to sign foreign players, though a note should be made that players from outside the European Union still have extra rules to comply to. For example, players from outside the European Union will need a work permit to be eligible to play for English clubs. This work permit is generally only given to players that have proven to be an addition to the squad, which is mostly measured through the number of times the player has been called up for the national team of his country of origin. In the Netherlands, no work permit is needed, but clubs are forced to pay a substantial minimal wage to players from outside the European Union. This minimum wage is 1.5

times the average of the wages of the Dutch Eredivisie, which is currently around 550.000 Euros per annum (Kroes, 2010).

Research has been conducted on the impact of the Bosman ruling on the state of soccer. In an article by Binder and Findlay (2012), the strength of national and club teams before and after the Bosman ruling is examined. The results show that the power rankings of the national teams or within national competitions have not been altered much after the Bosman ruling was installed. However, it does seem that the gap between the absolute best of Europe and those below this threshold has widened, as the top teams in the Champions League became stronger. This is somewhat in line with criticism on the Bosman ruling, with people arguing that the importance of having money increased due to being able to offer players huge salaries to come play for their club. With players having more control over their own career, the importance of money was increased as players can now more easily join the club that offers them the highest salary. With the Bosman ruling in place, the market for players became more fierce as clubs now had to deal with international competition as well. The richest clubs were therefore able to establish their dominance by throwing money at the situation. Another sign of the impact of the Bosman ruling is found in the Bundesliga, the German Premier league of soccer. In this competition the percentage of Germans decreased from about 70% in 1995, the year the Bosman ruling was installed, to less than 50% in just 5 years (Frick, 2007).

Antonioni and Cubbin (2000) wrote a mathematical article on the likelihood of selling and buying players, and how the post-Bosman ruling situation would be different compared to the period before the ruling was installed. In their paper, they argue that the Bosman ruling would not have a huge effect on how transfer business was conducted as even before 1995, 90 percent of transfers were made when players still were under contract. However, many authors have since written about how the Bosman ruling influences transfer policy and the relative strength of soccer clubs compared to each other. For example, in an article by Szymanski (2010), it is stated that the percentage of player transfers involving a transfer fee decreased from 95 percent in the 80s and early 90s to 40 percent in a more recent past. Furthermore, player average length of player contracts increased by 20 percent, from 2.5 years to three years.

1.4.6. Economic crisis

In 2007, the world fell into a deep financial crisis. According to some economists, this was the largest financial crisis since the Great Depression in 1930 (Umlauf & Eigner, 2015; Temin, 2010). It could be argued that the financial crisis does not affect the soccer industry, as the revenues in this sector are still rising (AT Kearney, 2012). However, there is also evidence that shows the crisis brought major consequences for the soccer industry as well. In a study by Baijer (2013) on the influence of the

economic crisis on Dutch premier league clubs it was shown that the clubs were indeed affected by the crisis. The clubs noticed a significant decrease in revenue from media during the crisis compared to the years before. They also cut their salary budget for their staff, including the soccer players. Other European competitions felt the consequences of the crisis as well. The debts of the clubs are rising (Lago, Simmons, & Szymanski, 2006). A report by A.T. Kearney (2010) states that in most European soccer competitions, there is an imbalance between income and expenditure of the clubs. This report also mentions that *“it is not rewarding in a sportive point of view to be financially healthy for a football club”*. These combined arguments incite Bos (2012) to claim that *“in short, one could state that there indeed is a crisis in European football”*. When clubs are less financially stable, it is likely that this will affect the migration process of soccer players towards the competitions of these clubs. As mentioned before, the wages of foreign (non-EU) players are higher, and these players also bring other costs. For example, sending a scout to South-America is generally more expensive compared to finding new talent within the nation. The lack of financial means should therefore weaken the migration processes of soccer players.

1.5. Research objective and research questions

In this thesis, an assessment will be made as to what extent the Dutch premier soccer league, the Eredivisie, has been in a process of globalization. As discussed in 1.3.4., this will be done by looking at an adjusted version of the three dimensions of Ben-Porat and Ben-Porat (2004): the mobility of capital (owners and investors), the mobility of labor (players) and the mobility of information (fans).

This leads to the following research questions:

- To what extent has the Dutch Eredivisie globalized in the 1985-2016 period?
 - o To what extent has there been an increased mobility of capital in this period?
 - o To what extent has there been an increased mobility of labor in this period?
 - o To what extent has there been an increased mobility of information in this period?

2. Theorizing globalization in soccer

So far, we have discussed how soccer as a whole became a globalized sport. However, this does not explain why soccer, played all around the world, turned into a global sport. Nowadays soccer is part of a global market with players, owners and sponsors not always sticking to their own country to practice their profession.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the analysis of the globalization of the soccer industry will be based on an Israeli study by Ben-Porat and Ben-Porat. During their research on this topic, they came up with the interesting addition that globalization should be defined through three components: mobility of capital (investments), mobility of labor (players and staff) and mobility of cultural flows (Ben-Porat & Ben-Porat, 2004). The results of this study show that not much foreign capital is currently present in the Israeli soccer league. This is due to the society, and therefore market, of Israel liberalizing relatively late. Another issue is that the economy of the nation is unstable and because of this, foreign parties are hesitant to invest capital in the soccer league as they are uncertain it will generate a profit. The flows of labor were stimulated by new rulings no longer prohibiting teams to recruit abroad. However, still not many teams are able to buy foreign players due to the financial state of these clubs. Lastly, the mobility of culture seems to be limited, as the Israeli soccer fans are still supporting both local teams and the national team, even though it became much easier to follow games of other European leagues, such as the Premier League. The general conclusion of the study on the Israeli soccer league is that *“its globalization has been both facilitated and limited by wider social developments, and has achieved different measures in the three factors described”* (Ben-Porat & Ben-Porat, 2004).

In this chapter, an attempt will be made to theorize the globalization processes of the soccer industry. The chapter will be split up into three Sections, all of which address one of the components of globalization according to Ben-Porat and Ben-Porat, with the exception of the earlier mentioned shift from mobility of culture to mobility of information.

2.1. Why would investors be interested in foreign soccer clubs?

The first of three ‘why’ questions is the one regarding the mobility of capital. In the soccer industry, sometimes the clubs themselves are not owned by someone from the city, or even the country, the club resides in. In fact, a study from The Guardian showed that as of April 2015, twenty-eight out of ninety-two English professional soccer clubs are owned by foreign investors (The Guardian, 2015). Foreign investors seem to be less inclined to buy a Dutch club, seeing as the Chinese investor Wang Hui (ADO Den Haag) and the Russian Chigrinsky (Vitesse) are the only foreign owner of a Dutch Eredivisie club.

Why would foreigners be interested in owning or even sponsoring a soccer club? To answer this, the global market in general needs to be discussed. Over the years, making foreign investments became easier than ever, which is described in an article by Investopedia:

“Globalization has resulted in greater interconnectedness among markets around the world and increased communication and awareness of business opportunities in far corners of the globe. More investors can access new investment opportunities and study new markets at a greater distance than before. Potential risks and profit opportunities are within easier reach thanks to improved communications technology. Countries with positive relations between them are able to increasingly unify their economies through increased investment and trade. Products and services previously available within one country are made more readily available to new markets, resulting directly in improved economic opportunities for workers in those economies and leading to improved household incomes. For investors, these opportunities present a wider range of investment options and new ways to profit (Investopedia).”

A study by Dunning (1998) has shown that the amount of money invested in foreign projects is indeed rising. This trend combines very well with the current position of the soccer market. According to some, the global market for sports has been in a somewhat strange place compared to for example the markets for cars, phones and movies. The difference between these market is the extent to which these markets can be seen as global; all around the world the same cars are being driven, the same phones are being used and the same movies are being watched. Until recently, this was not the case for sports, with soccer being the primary sport for Europe and South America, North America having baseball and American football as their most popular sports and India seen as a cricket nation (Marketwatch, 2014).

However, things have started to change. Apart from India, most of the major economies have embraced soccer as a sport. Especially the trend in China is very notable, something which will be further discussed in Section 2.2. Being so tremendously popular on a global scale, there is a lot of money that could be made within the soccer industry. The amount of money that sponsors and broadcasters are paying to indulge in the soccer industry is increasing massively each year. With a market growing by a substantial amount every year, and some markets clearly not fully developed yet (America, China), this creates a big opportunity for potential investors.

Though not completely separated from the argument of financial gain, there is another reason for investors to own a soccer club; one that is clearly visible with some of the owners of Eredivisie soccer clubs. In some cases, the emotional connection someone feels with a particular club persuades them

to go the extra mile and support the club financially, especially in times when the club is in dire need of some help. An examples of a Dutch club that benefitted from the emotional connection of an investor is FC Utrecht.

In the case of FC Utrecht, the investor is named Frans van Seumeren. The involvement of Van Seumeren came after years of unrest at the club. In 2003, the club was almost declared bankrupt due to the financial crisis and poor decisions of the management. Years passed with FC Utrecht desperately looking for a solution, and finally, on the 2nd of April, 2008, van Seumeren bought 51% of the club for around 16 million euros (Quotenet, 2008). In an interview with FCU Fans, the leading fan site of the club, Van Seumeren states that *“the decision (to buy the shares, red.) was emotional, but not without a plan to help the club forward”* (FCU Fans, 2008). Of course, this form of investing is more likely for local entrepreneurs, as they are more likely to have an emotional connection to a club.

One extra note must be made on one particular group of investors. Until now, the discussion has been on what factors have made it easier to invest outside the home nation and why the soccer market could be profitable to investors. However, some investors are not necessarily interested in the financial gain that could come from investing in a foreign soccer club. In a study on the owners of the big powerhouses of European club soccer, it was discovered that money is not the primary motivation for owning these clubs. The article states that *“unlike other economic sectors, most owners are out not to maximize profit but to maximize utility — with utility measured in the quality of soccer served up and the benefits in media coverage, social status and networking that accrue”* (Goldblatt, 2015). This search for ‘utility’ can also be traced back to the earlier notion of soccer becoming a global market: with the popularity of soccer rising, the utility that can be derived from owning a soccer club will also increase.

However, a counterargument must also be given. What could be a reason for an investor not to take over a Dutch Eredivisie club? An argument for this is the way ownership of Dutch clubs is currently structured. In most cases, the club is at least partly owned by a foundation with the sole purpose of maintaining and preserving club identity. An example of this is the situation of AZ. In 2009 Dirk Scheringa’s DSB Bank suffered bankruptcy and was forced to sell the shares of AZ. In 2010, these shares were brought under in the ‘Foundation AZ Alkaar’, with a priority share going to the ‘AZ Continuity Foundation’. The function of the latter is *“to protect the name, club colors, logo and city of residence of AZ”* (AZ, 2010).

These forms of protection of club identity are quite common. Another example of this is Feyenoord, which is owned by two foundations: ‘Stichting Feyenoord’ and ‘Vrienden van Feyenoord’, both of

which are in such a way affiliated to Feyenoord that it grants a protection of club identity. The way in which the identity of a club is protected in most cases in the Netherlands is something that could dissuade a potential investor to buy the club shares, because he or she will be limited in their actions. They are very unlikely to create any major changes at those clubs because the foundations that own a soccer club will most definitely make sure they still have a say in the daily running of a club.

In England we find a case that shows that owners are sometimes eager to change club culture. On the 27th of May, 2010, Cardiff City came into the hands of Datuk Chan Tien Ghee and Vincent Tan. In the 2012-2013 season, the new owners decided to change the club colors from blue to red “to attract a following in international markets” (BBC, 2012). The change was heavily criticized by the Cardiff city fanbase and also by outsiders, and after years of pressure Tan decided to revert the change (Dailymail, 2015). However, the Cardiff City case shows the power that Tan had, being able to change the club identity in the first place. For most Eredivisie clubs, owners such as Tan would not be able to make these kind of tremendous changes to a club, due to the ways clubs have protected their identity.

To conclude, investing in the soccer industry is in most cases similar to investing in other economic markets. The goal of these investments is to gain financial benefit and with the increasing ease to invest overseas combined with the increase in the global status of the soccer market, this market seems an easy target. However, a small portion of these investments are also due to emotional involvement with the club that is being invested in. A third reason for investing in soccer clubs, a reason primarily applicable to the super rich owning the big European clubs, is the maximization of utility rather than the maximization of profit. The power of new owners is limited compared to new owners of clubs in different competitions. However, it is expected that both the increasing ease of making foreign investments and the interest for the incredibly rich contributed towards more global investments in the soccer industry. This assumption leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: There has been a trend towards more foreign sponsoring in the Eredivisie from 1985 through 2016.

Hypothesis 2: There has been a trend towards more foreign ownership of Eredivisie clubs from 1985 through 2016.

2.2. Why would foreign players end up in the Dutch Eredivisie?

This question is twofold. Firstly, there needs to be an explanation as to why Dutch clubs would want to buy foreign players. Secondly, the players themselves need a reason to leave their home nation and travel the globe to perform their jobs. In this paragraph, these questions will be answered one at a time.

An article on the globalization of soccer by Haugen and Solberg (2010) approached the question as to why clubs would buy foreign players from a game-theoretic perspective. They argue that the possible purchase of a foreign player should be looked at through costs and benefits. How much more will a foreign player cost compared to a local player, and how much more likely will the team get good results (and therefore more income) with the foreign player in the team instead of the local player? The study concludes that buying foreign players somewhat resembles the prisoners' dilemma: assuming that foreign players indeed prove to be an improvement over local players, clubs would benefit from buying these players. However, if all clubs in the competition make this choice, the advantage of the foreign player dilutes as all teams will have an improved squad. On the other hand, not buying the foreign player results in a massive loss of the teams' chances when other teams do decide to buy foreign players. Therefore, the market basically forces clubs to join in on the globalization process by bringing foreign players to their clubs.

Of course, the players need an incentive to leave their home ground. The obvious contender for this would be money. If players can earn a higher salary in foreign countries compared to their home nation, they will be more inclined to leave. A figure on football labor migration that also featured in the first chapter of this research grants evidence for this statement. Higher salaries are often earned in countries that have a better economy. Research has proven that the ranking of countries in terms of soccer teams is highly correlated with the economical ranking of the world (Darby, 1997). This correlation is even stronger when looking at domestic soccer leagues rather than the level of the national team (Magee & Sugden, 2002). However, the correlation is not perfect, as there are some examples of countries with a great economy but low ranking in terms of domestic league strength (USA, Japan) and visa versa (Brazil). Taking into account these differences, Magee and Sugden (2002) have attempted to create a model showing the flow of soccer labor migration and diffusion of football. This is done by using a basic understanding of the political economy of world football, adopted from Wallerstein (1974). In his work, Wallerstein mentions four regions to analyse world systems, namely the (a) the core, (b) the semi-periphery, (c) the periphery, and (d) the external arena. Incorporating the differences, Magee and Sugden have attempted to make their own model of World-system theory applied to soccer economy.

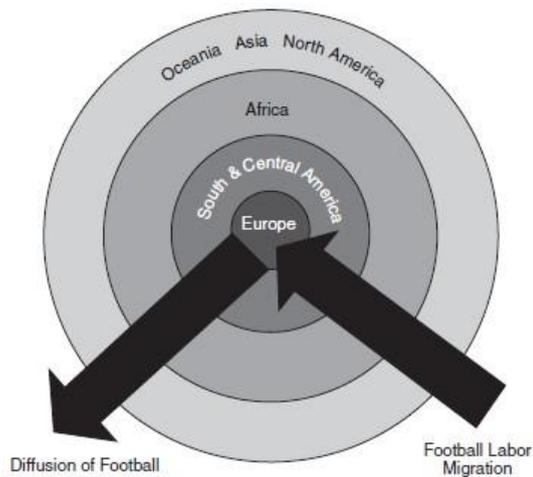


Figure 2.1: World-system theory applied to the soccer industry.

Source: Magee & Sugden, 2002

Figure 2.1 shows the flows of football labor migration and diffusion of football as discussed by Magee and Sugden (2002). On this occasion, only the first is of importance. Labor migration flows towards Europe (core), from South/Central America (semi-periphery) with regions such as Oceania, Asia and North America (external area) on the outer ring of the figure. This is no coincidence, considering the highest salaries are paid within Europe (Deadspin, 2014).

A recent development can also be seen as evidence of money being a big incentive for (some) players to move around the globe. As of several years ago, the Chinese government has acknowledged sports, and especially the soccer market, as a major growth reason – one it could potentially use as a propaganda tool (The Telegraph, 2016). Therefore, the state invests in programmes to ensure that young Chinese children start playing soccer. Another way of increasing popularity of Chinese soccer, one far more relevant to this thesis, is the plan of the government to double the size of the Chinese sporting economy, making sure teams have nearly unlimited funds to strengthen their club. Just in the 2015 – 2016 pre-season transfer period, there have been eight transfers towards the Chinese Super league with a transfer fee of 10 million pounds or higher (Transfermarkt, 2016). In 2016, this league outspent the English premier league by 28 million pounds, weighing in at a grand total of 278 million pounds spent on transfer fees (The18, 2016). The players contracted in these transfer periods not only cost a lot in terms of transfer fees; their salaries are rivalling the likes of European-based superstars as well. For example, Ezequiel Lavezzi, sold by PSG to Hebei China Fortune, earns 222,000 pounds per week, ranking him as the seventh most earning soccer player in the world (Mirror, 2016). These examples illustrate the movement of China as a premier market for soccer players, competing with the European dominance.

Whilst there is no known literature on globalization of the Dutch soccer league, there are some studies that focussed on other leagues. For example, a study on Swedish soccer showed that especially after 1995 and the Bosman ruling, there was both an increase in foreign players on the Swedish fields and Swedish players finding their way to other clubs within Europe, Japan or America (Eliasson, 2009).

Because of the Bosman arrest, an upward trend towards more foreign players on the Dutch fields starting from 1995 can be expected. Do note that the ruling should only affect the number of European players. The reason that clubs will not immediately replace the entire squad with foreigners is due to transfer budgets limiting their options and the assumption that teams need to change gradually in order for it to succeed. However, there is also the expectation that this trend will diminish at around the time of the financial crisis, as the foreign players are generally more expensive. With soccer clubs also influenced by the consequences of this crisis, they will have lower salary budgets and therefore less room for relatively expensive foreign players.

Hypothesis 3a: There will be an increase in foreign players in the Eredivisie from 1995 onwards, due to the Bosman ruling

Hypothesis 3b: The trend predicted in hypothesis 3a will break in 2007, near the beginning of the financial crisis.

Hypothesis 3c: The increase in foreign players is predominantly caused by European players joining the league, due to the Bosman ruling decreasing restrictions for specifically this group.

Hypothesis 3d: The increase in non-EU players is predominantly caused by South/Central-American and African players, as these regions are supplying to Europe according to world-system theory.

2.2.1. Soccer coaches

So far this chapter, there has been a discussion on whether foreign soccer players are likely to join the Eredivisie. To broaden the view on the 'globalization of labor', another vital piece of the labor force of a soccer club will be discussed. Coaches are incredibly important in creating a good team atmosphere and selecting players for their starting eleven. Therefore they have a massive impact on the teams' results. Is it likely that foreign coaches join the Eredivisie to manage a team?

Like arguing whether foreign players would join the league, this question also relates to both a willingness to join and the demand there is from the clubs themselves. Whereas this willingness to join from the coaches is probably comparable to that of the players, the demand certainly is not. First of all, where a team needs a minimum of sixteen players, usually almost doubling that number, there is only need for one coach. Therefore, with the Eredivisie consisting of eighteen teams, there is only a need for eighteen Eredivisie coaches per season, whereas a minimum of 288 players is necessary.

There is another reason why the demand for foreign coaches will be on the low side compared to the interest in foreign players. As discussed previously, there is only an interest in foreign players when they are considered a clear improvement over native options. The same should be the case for foreign coaches. However, this case seems very unlikely considering the status of Dutch soccer coaches within the global market. The Dutch coaches and other training staff are among some of the best of the world, as their qualities generally exceed those of most foreign counterparts (Reuters, 2009). According to an article by Paste Magazine, when comparing the total number of prizes won by coaches, three Dutch coaches are in the top twenty coaches of the world (Paste Quarterly, 2015). Because of this, it seems far less likely that Dutch soccer clubs are interested in foreign coaches, when there are competent native options available.

Hypothesis 4: There will not be an increase in foreign coaches in the 1985 to 2016 period.

2.3. Why would fans start supporting teams in foreign competitions?

Foreign fans have become increasingly important to soccer teams. For example, in the case of European powerhouse Real Madrid, the merchandize income earned in foreign countries as a percentage of the total merchandize income increased from 10% in 2000 to 60% in 2010 (Jones, Parkes, & Houlihan, 2006). What makes fans so eager to support a team that is nowhere near them geographically?

According to the article on team identification by Kerr and Emery (2011), *“Individuals identify with their chosen team due to three important factors: psychological, team-related and environmental”*. The latter is especially relevant to the question why people support foreign teams. Environmental factors, and in particular the process of socialization, are hugely important to one’s decision to support a certain team.

The process of socialization, whereby one learns and internalizes ‘the attitudes, values, knowledge and behaviors that are associated with fans of a team’, is critical to team identification. Socialization agents include the family and friends or peers. Furthermore, the media might serve as a viable agent (Kerr & Emery, 2011).

Kerr and Emery decided to put the theory on team identification to the test by interviewing almost 1200 Liverpool F.C. fans from all across the globe. The results show that media coverage of the club is of the utmost importance in explaining the behavior of foreign fans. As stated in the article, *“International media arrangements ensure that the sport product is available to a foreign audience, and regular English football broadcasts were instrumental in the creation of many Liverpool FC supporters. Nearly one third of respondents said that the ability to watch the club play due to media coverage was extremely important, while almost two-thirds considered it at least very important”*. This conclusion is vital considering the increased exposure of clubs through media. The numbers on foreign viewership of the premier league, the highest English soccer league, are staggering. Overseas rights of premier league coverage have risen from 7.6 million pounds in 1992 to a mindblowing 743.3 million pounds in 2016, with the expectation of this number passing the one billion pounds mark in the near future (Figure 2.2). Obviously, the broadcasters would not start paying these amounts of money unless there was money to be made, which makes these numbers a clear sign of increased interest in the premier league on a global level.

Figure 2.2: Premier league overseas rights

Period	Revenue per year (in pounds)
1992-1997	7.6 million
1997-2001	24.5 million
2001-2004	59.3 million
2004-2007	108.3 million
2007-2010	216.7 million
2010-2013	479 million
2013-2016	743.3 million
2016-2019 (Projected)	1 billion

Source: Harris, 2015

As for the Eredivisie, the media coverage is slim compared to the Premier league, with 26 countries broadcasting the Dutch competition in some shape or form, whereas over 200 countries broadcast its English counterpart (Project Gutenberg Self-publishing Press, 2016). However, the existence of global exposure of Eredivisie clubs through these broadcasts means that the presence of foreign Eredivisie fans is likely.

The media coverage of a club was not the only factor that was deemed important to foreign fans. Other important factors that fans mention are the team’s playing style, the presence of certain players and the successfulness of the team in question. It is interesting to note that when asking about the players that persuaded people to support Liverpool F.C., the fans did not always mention players that shared a nationality with them. The three factors might even be related. An anecdote on why people can support foreign clubs can be found on Quora.

“In my eyes, Football is not a Religion or an Ideology. I love to play it as a Sport, and I love to watch it as an Art form. When I contemplate art, I tend to be an elitist in that I love to see the work of geniuses. So, if Scorsese makes a movie in America, I watch it in English on the medium I can, from wherever I may be. If a Maradona, a Zidane, a Ronaldinho, a Cantona, a Zlatan or a Messi play and I am blessed with the opportunity to be alive at the same time, I watch, regardless of the color of their jersey. If a certain team of 11 players develop and hone their osmosis so well that their team-play becomes a fascinating sight, I'm there too. I'm not necessarily rooting for those teams but I feel an emotional bond in the moment. It doesn't make me a fan or supporter, in the technical sense. It's just that what I love most in the Beautiful Game is precisely its beauty, not the partisanship element that surrounds it. Who cares if the Chicago Bulls are from Chicago - there was Jordan with them. Who cares if Mozart was from Austria or if Picasso was Spanish? Their work was universal. The same can't be said about the lousy football team in my town -- I support them anyway, because some of them

are childhood friends and because it's all good fun; but I "follow" other leagues and other teams because a man is allowed to dream!" (Quora, 2014)

A close reading of this statement shows that both the presence of certain players (Maradona, Zidane, etc.) and the team's playing style (*If a certain team of 11 players develop and hone their osmosis so well that their team-play becomes a fascinating sight, I'm there too*) are mentioned. There is no direct mention of the successfulness of teams or players, but of course the players mentioned all have had highly successful careers.

The statement above is particularly interesting as it not only described the reasons for foreign fandom, it also elaborates on the differences between foreign and local fandom. It is said that the local teams are also supported, due to the presence of childhood friends and the 'fun' involved, which are both also examples of socialization processes. It seems to be the case that even though socialization processes are key in the explanation of both foreign and local fandom, but the way one is socialized to become a fan is distinctly different. Local fandom is created through local socialization, by means of family and friends supporting the club as well or the experience one has had going to the stadium of the local club. On the other hand, foreign fandom is created through geographically more distant ways of socialization; in particular the influence of media coverage.

Another reason why foreign fandom could have increased is the technological advancement, making it easier for fans all over the world to follow their favorite teams. Technological advancement, specifically the way the internet has evolved, has contributed to the ease in which people are able to find information about soccer teams.

The reason for this is the way in which news is spread around the internet. Before the internet, it would be a massive operation to get match results and reports from one continent to another. One would have to hope that the newspapers available in your country take the time to write match reports. These days, it is much, much easier for news to travel around the globe. It is perfectly described on the USA fan site of Ajax, stating that:

"..times have changed. Almost every Ajax match is available online these days. Sometimes you pay a few bucks for it (and you'll get a perfect feed with English commentary); sometimes you don't pay a penny and you'll be watching a grainy, semi-legal feed with some dude doing the play-by-play in Chinese. But it's available. All of it. Ajax news in English has become a commodity. Every Ajax news fact can be read in English. Everywhere and almost immediately (AjaxUSA, 2009)."

In fact, the statement written above was taken from a post called the 'Obituary for a fansite: AJAX USA (1995-2008)'. In the early days of the internet, this fan site used to provide match reports and other news involving Ajax for the USA public to read. However, the changing times described above made the fan site redundant, eventually leading to the site owners deciding to no longer update the site. It shows that as recent as only a few years back, people would have to go through much more trouble to find out about soccer competitions in other countries, whereas these days there are countless platforms on the internet providing this information, including videos of matches and interviews with players and staff.

For this thesis, the mobility of information was to be tested by finding information on foreign fandom of the Eredivisie. Examples of ways this could have been done are collecting and analyzing data on foreign viewership of the competition or the numbers on club merchandise bought by foreigners. Unfortunately, due to a lack of data, the research on the mobility of information can not be empirically tested.

3. Methodology

In this chapter, the ways in which the data used for this research is collected and analyzed will be discussed. The chapter will follow the same structure as the previous chapter, by separating the different research questions used in this research into different Sections. Section 3.1 will touch upon the methodological choices made that apply to all of the research sub-questions. Section 3.2 reflects upon the methodological choices regarding the research question on the mobility of capital. Section 3.3 will focus on the data related to the mobility of labor.

3.1. General methodological choices

This chapter elaborates on the choices that are made which apply to each of the sub-questions used in this research. Two methodological aspects of this research fit this description. First, a description is made of the data source and the time period that is chosen for this research. Then, this Section elaborates on which Eredivisie clubs are part of this research.

3.1.1. Data Source

All of the collected data for both the question regarding mobility of capital and mobility of labor comes from the website www.voetbal.com. This website is one of many websites owned by the German company HEIM:SPIEL, which is devoted to collecting data on professional athletes and sport teams. In total, they own data on 250.000 athletes, 50.000 sports teams and 2.000 sports competitions. Furthermore, they report on over 10.000 sports event per year. The company was founded in 2002, but their data goes back as far as the early 1900s, depending on the sports team and competition. In the case of the Dutch Eredivisie, HEIM:SPIEL has collected data not only on the topics used for this research, but also on top goal scorers, attendances, referees and player rankings. Also available are game statistics such as red/yellow cards, players and substitutes and information on the goals scored.

The data is perfect for this research as it provides a very detailed view on sponsorship, player base and coaches of the Eredivisie in the relevant period. For example, for most Eredivisie players information such as nationality, date of birth and position on the field is readily available. Of course, a large part of this thesis could not exist without extensive data on player nationalities. Other relevant statistics for this research, such as Eredivisie coaches and their nationality and information on stadium names, sponsors and ownership are also found at voetbal.com.

There is also a downside to the data. The main website of the company, www.heimspiel.de, does not provide any information on how the data is collected. The website mentions that the data are collected with a highly reliable method, but this method is not described. Considering the partners

that are linked to the company; high profile companies such as T-Mobile, Philips, Sport1 and ZDF and soccer clubs such as FC Köln and FC Barcelona make it very probable that the data is collected in a reliable way. However, is it dangerous to make sure a claim when there is no knowledge on the collection methods.

3.1.2. The time period

For this research, it was decided to include the 1985 till 2016 time period. The reason for this is the Bosman ruling and its importance to this thesis. The Bosman ruling is crucial in explaining the trend towards globalization of labor of the Eredivisie soccer market and one of the main reasons for writing this thesis in the first place. The Bosman ruling took place on the fifteenth of December, 1995, so it is expected that the complications of this ruling would affect the European, and therefor Dutch, soccer market from that moment on. Of course, for the sake of analyzing a trend and the actual effect of the Bosman ruling, one also needs to assess the state of the Eredivisie and its labor market before the Bosman ruling came into place. Because Jean-Marc Bosman appealed to court as early as 1990, going through multiple legislative options to finally end up at the European Court of Justice in 1995, the decision was made to pick a season earlier than this as the first season relevant to this thesis. This was done to erase the possibility clubs knowing about the Bosman court rulings before it came into place and therefor skewing the data. With the first season analyzed being the 1985-1986 season, it is made sure that there is data on the soccer clubs long before the world got to know about the Bosman situation.

3.1.3. Eredivisie clubs

The time period chosen for this research also influences the choices made on which Eredivisie clubs are looked at for this research. Of course, when this research would only concern a single Eredivisie season, it would be obvious to just include every single club that competed in this particular season. However, since at least one and at most three clubs relegate to the second soccer division each year, the Jupiler League, choices have to be made.

For this research, data of seventeen different clubs that have played in the Eredivisie in the last 30 years is collected. A list of these clubs can be found in Appendix A. The reason for including these specific clubs is as follows: these clubs are the clubs that played in the Eredivisie for at least half of the seasons that are relevant to this thesis. A few clubs, for example Ajax, FC Utrecht and FC Twente, have played Eredivisie soccer interrupted since 1985. Other clubs, such as Fortuna Sittard (sixteen seasons) and NAC Breda (twenty seasons) have a lot less Eredivisie experience. The data is collected in such a way that one season of one club is considered one entry for the statistical analysis. In total, divided among the seventeen clubs, a number of 435 seasons are analyzed for this research.

The reason for making this choice is because of the nature of the research. The goal of this research is to analyze the trend of globalization of the Eredivisie as a competition. This research is not necessarily interested in the trend towards globalization of a single club; instead the focus is drawn towards the competition as a whole. Because of this perspective, the choice is made to exclude the clubs with very little Eredivisie experience, as the data is not representative of the state of the competition as a whole. For example, when a certain soccer club only played Eredivisie soccer in two out of the 31 seasons relevant to this thesis, can they still be considered an 'Eredivisie soccer club'? When looking at newly promoted sides, usually their budget is still at a second division level as they are a clear-cut favorite to relegate in the upcoming season. Only after a couple seasons at the highest tier, clubs feel comfortable rising their expenses in order to attract better players. Their behavior in the first few uncertain seasons could in a sense still be considered that of a second division team, even though they are part of the Eredivisie. Because of this 'lack of Eredivisie behavior', the decision was made to exclude these clubs from the sample.

On the other hand, it simply is not feasible to include only the clubs that played Eredivisie soccer uninterrupted from 1985 through 2016. If this selection would be made, only five clubs would make the cut: PSV, Ajax, Feyenoord, FC Utrecht and FC Twente. Not only is five a really small sample in order to analyze the trend of the entire competition, these five clubs are nowhere near representative for the competition as a whole as they all performed relatively well in the chosen period. The first three clubs on this list are considered the traditional 'top three' of the Eredivisie, almost without exception fighting for the title in every season. FC Utrecht averages a final position of ninth out of 18 in the last 31 seasons, where FC Twente performs even better with an average final position of sixth. Considering these five clubs are all average at worst with most of them performing a lot better than most clubs, this sample is not representative to the competition as a whole. In this research, all the clubs that have spent at least fifteen out of a possible 31 seasons in the Eredivisie are included, to increase the sample and to make sure some of the lower-tier clubs are represented in the data as well.

3.2. Data on the mobility of capital

The first of three sub-questions in this research regards the mobility of capital. To analyze a possible trend on this topic, two different factors are taken into account.

Sponsorship of Eredivisie clubs

Sponsorship is a rather easy way to introduce foreign capital to the soccer market. Nowadays, a large part of a clubs' budget is derived from sponsors. Business organizations will pay clubs a sum of money to increase their brands' value and increase their visibility. There are three important ways in which sponsors are able to sponsor a club:

- The clubs' jerseys will include the company logo of the sponsor (Example: The logo of Ziggo is shown on the jerseys used by Ajax.
- The jerseys themselves are created by a manufacturer. In most cases, the logo of this manufacturer is clearly visible on the jersey. (Example, the same Ajax jersey mentioned above contains the logo of Adidas right next to the Ziggo logo)
- The name of the stadium will be changed to something that includes the name of a sponsor (Example: The stadium of ADO Den Haag is called the 'Kyocera' stadium, with Kyocera being one of their main sponsors.

For this research, these three ways of sponsoring a club are investigated. For each of the seventeen clubs, the stadium and shirt sponsor of this club in the 1985 to 2016 period is collected. Just like the data on club ownership, data on sponsorship is divided into national and foreign origin and of each season, a percentage of foreign sponsors as part of the total number of sponsors in that season is calculated. After collecting all these percentage, a possible trend towards more foreign sponsoring will be made visible.

Foreign ownership of Eredivisie clubs

A more thorough way in which foreign capital can make its entrance into the Dutch soccer market is by taking over one of the clubs. For this thesis, the ownership of the seventeen clubs included in this research in the 1985 to 2016 period has been analyzed. For each season, the total number of clubs that are no longer predominantly owned by a Dutch person or party is counted and will be shown as a percentage of the total number of clubs included in research for that particular season. This is important because the total number of clubs differs per season, as only the seasons in which the club is active in the Eredivisie are included in research. After this calculation is made, the list of percentages for each season will show whether there is a trend towards more foreign ownership in the Eredivisie.

3.3. Data on the mobility of labor

As discussed in previous chapters, this research largely revolves around the outcome of the Bosman ruling. This ruling is of incredible importance to the European transfer market, and therefore also the Eredivisie should be heavily influenced by its consequences. In order to find out whether the Bosman ruling has indeed made its impact, the mobility of labor of the Dutch Eredivisie will be discussed.

The research question on the mobility of labor will be twofold. First, the nationality of soccer players of the Eredivisie clubs in the 1985 to 2016 period is analyzed. It can be argued that the players are a soccer clubs’ most valuable asset and a trend towards a more international team in terms of nationality is a big sign that globalization in the Eredivisie is an ongoing process. Secondly, an analysis on the mobility of soccer coaches is also included. It will be interesting to find out which of these groups (players versus coaches) is more influenced by globalization processes, if any.

Players

For each season, data is collected on the teams’ players and their nationality and date of birth, making this data highly usable for this research. For each season, for all of the seventeen clubs included in this analysis and playing in the Eredivisie in that particular season, the teams’ total squad size is noted. Furthermore, the squad is divided into three groups: Dutch players, European players and Non-EU players. Note that ‘European’ in this case means ‘part of the European Union’, as this is the region affected by the Bosman ruling. For all of these groups, the total number of players is counted and noted. In total, An example of data for one team for a few seasons is shown below.

Figure 3.1: Players of the Ajax squad in the 1985 to 1990 period.

Ajax	1985/1986	1986/1987	1987/1988	1988/1989	1989/1990
NL	20	22	22	20	20
EU	0	0	0	0	1
Non-EU	3	3	3	2	3
Total	23	25	25	22	24

Source: www.voetbal.com

A couple of aspects of the data are very important to note. First of all, some players have more than one nationality. An example of this would be Karim El Ahmadi, a soccer player currently playing for Feyenoord, as he has both the Dutch and the Moroccan nationality. Having multiple nationalities could mean that a player would fall into multiple groups (El Ahmadi being both Dutch and Non-EU).

Whenever this is the case, the player is included in the group based on his nationality that is most beneficial for playing for an Eredivisie team. This means someone with a Dutch and other passport counts as having a Dutch passport, and someone with a EU and Non-EU passport counts as a EU-citizen.

Another factor highly relevant to this research is the expansion of the European Union. Since 1985, the first year considered in this thesis, the European Union has grown considerably, affecting the size of the European soccer market and the number of countries that fall under the Bosman ruling. This affects the research because a Bulgarian player that played in the Eredivisie in 1995 would be considered a Non-EU player, whereas when a player of the same nationality would join an Eredivisie side in 2015 this player is considered European. In Appendix B, a list is shown of countries that have joined the EU since 1985, together with information on when they have joined the union and as of which season players with that nationality are considered European players.

After collecting the data, percentages on the number of European and Non-EU players as part of the total squad size will be calculated for each club and for the Eredivisie clubs combined. After calculating these percentages for each season, an observation can be made on whether there has been an increase in the number of foreign players in the Eredivisie. Also, because of the division between European and Non-EU players, the effect of the Bosman ruling can also be deduced as the ruling only applies to the European players.

To further solidify this research, a regression analysis on the effect of time on the division of nationalities of the player base of the Eredivisie will be carried out. This method will show whether the changes over time of this player base are statistically relevant. To show whether the Bosman ruling accelerates a possible trend towards more foreign players, a non-linearity analysis will be conducted. Both of those methods are thoroughly explained in Appendix C.

This research is conducted to test in what way world-system theory is applicable to the Eredivisie and its player base. Magee and Sugden (2004) link world-system theory and soccer by looking at both soccer labor migration and diffusion of soccer. For this thesis, the nationality of foreign players in the Eredivisie is further elaborated on by looking at the region these players originate from. The world is divided into six regions (Africa, Asia, Non-EU Europe, North-America, Oceania and South/Central America) in order to find out which regions are represented more in the Eredivisie. By doing this, assessments can be made on how world-system theory is applicable to the Eredivisie situation.

Coaches

The second part of the sub-question on the mobility of labor includes the nationality of club coaches. As the Bosman ruling specifically addresses soccer players, the ruling does not include coaches. However, as coaches are another vital part of a soccer clubs' labor force, this group will also be included in the analysis. To do so, the nationalities of the coaches of the seventeen clubs in the 1985 to 2016 period are collected. Again, the division between Dutch, European and Non-EU is made. The division between European and Non-EU seems less relevant than it is for players, as this is mostly done to include the effect of the Bosman ruling, but for consistency of the research the division is still made. After collecting the data, percentages on the number of foreign coaches as opposed to Dutch coaches are calculated for each season, to find a possible trend towards more foreign coaches in the Dutch Eredivisie.

4. Analysis

In this chapter, the results of the research conducted for this thesis will be discussed. The results will be shown in the same order as the previous chapters. This means that Section 4.1 will elaborate on the question regarding the globalization of the mobility of capital. Section 4.2 will focus on the mobility of labor.

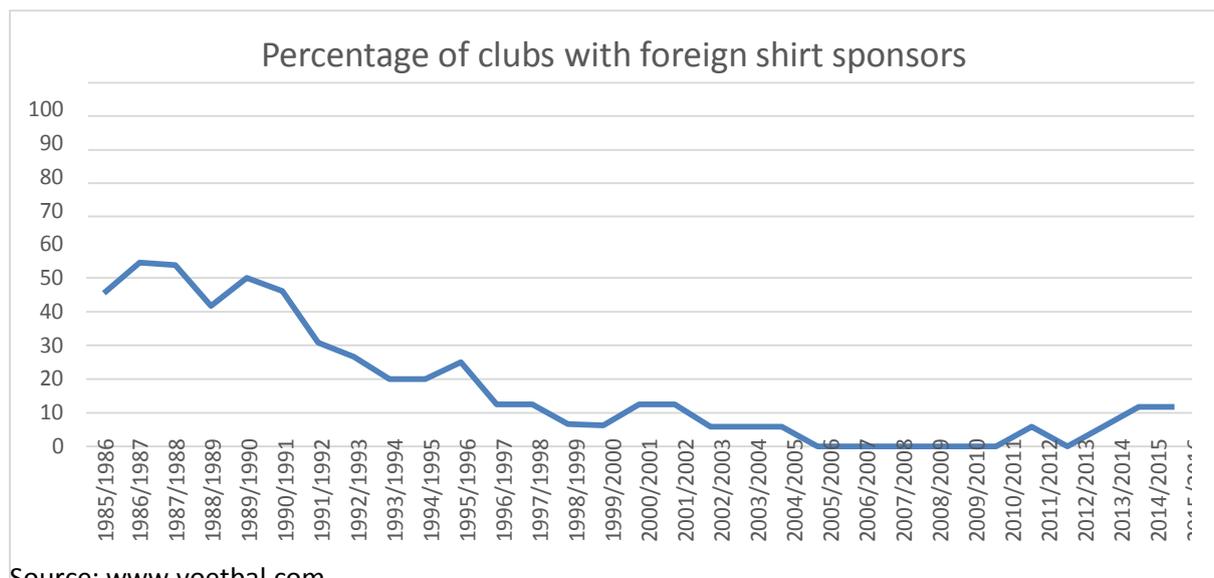
4.1. The mobility of capital

As previously discussed, in this research the mobility of capital in the Eredivisie is measured through a multitude of variables. In this Section, the trends of foreign ownership, foreign shirt sponsorship, foreign shirt suppliers and stadium sponsors in the 1985 through 2016 period are touched upon.

Shirt sponsorship

In Figure 4.1, the percentage of clubs with a foreign shirt sponsor for each season in the 1985 through 2016 period is shown. The results are quite remarkable, with the percentage of clubs being sponsored by a foreign organization actually decreasing over time. In the first few observed seasons, the percentage of clubs with a foreign shirt sponsor hovered between 40 and 60 percent. In later years, this percentage has completely diminished, including a six season period starting in the 2005/2006 season in which the percentage has dropped to zero percent. After these years, the interest in foreign shirt sponsorship seems to rise, with percentages over ten percent in the 2014/2015 and 2015/2016 season. However, these numbers are still far from the numbers shown in the late 80s and early 90s.

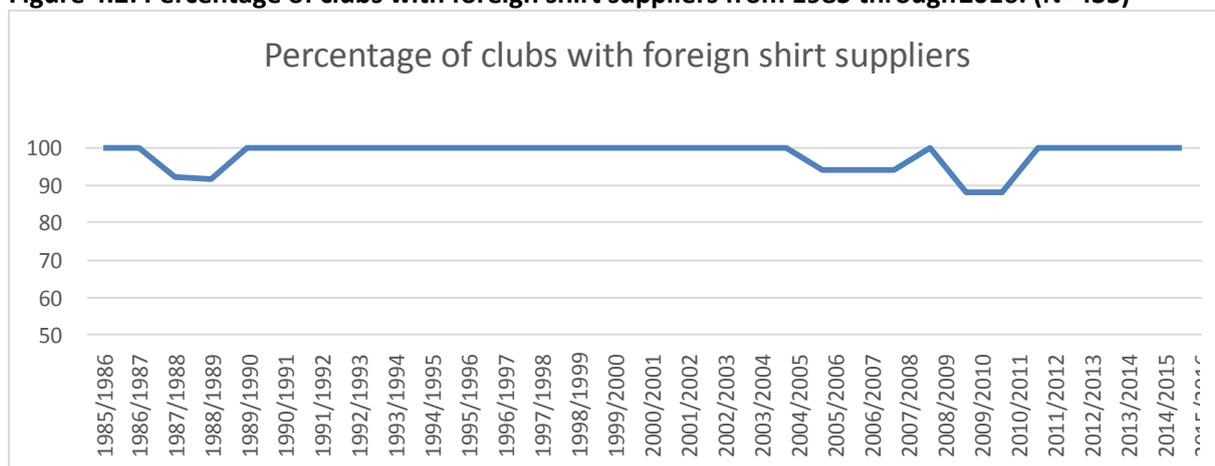
Figure 4.1: Percentage of clubs with foreign shirt sponsors from 1985 through 2016. (N=435)



Shirt suppliers

Figure 4.2 shows the percentage of the Eredivisie clubs with a foreign shirt supplier for each season in the 1985 through 2016 period. The figure needs little explaining, with the percentage being 100 percent in most of the observed seasons. Only seven out of the observed 31 seasons show numbers lower than 100 percent, and in five of those seven seasons only one club was supplied shirts by a Dutch organization. This graph makes it very clear that the market for shirt suppliers is completely dominated by foreign organizations for the entire length of the observed period. There is no way for globalization processes to interfere with this market as this market already seems fully globalized. However, due to the lack of competition coming from a Dutch party, there's no telling whether clubs would make the conscious choice to go for a Dutch or foreign option if both options are on the table.

Figure 4.2: Percentage of clubs with foreign shirt suppliers from 1985 through 2016. (N=435)



Source: www.voetbal.com

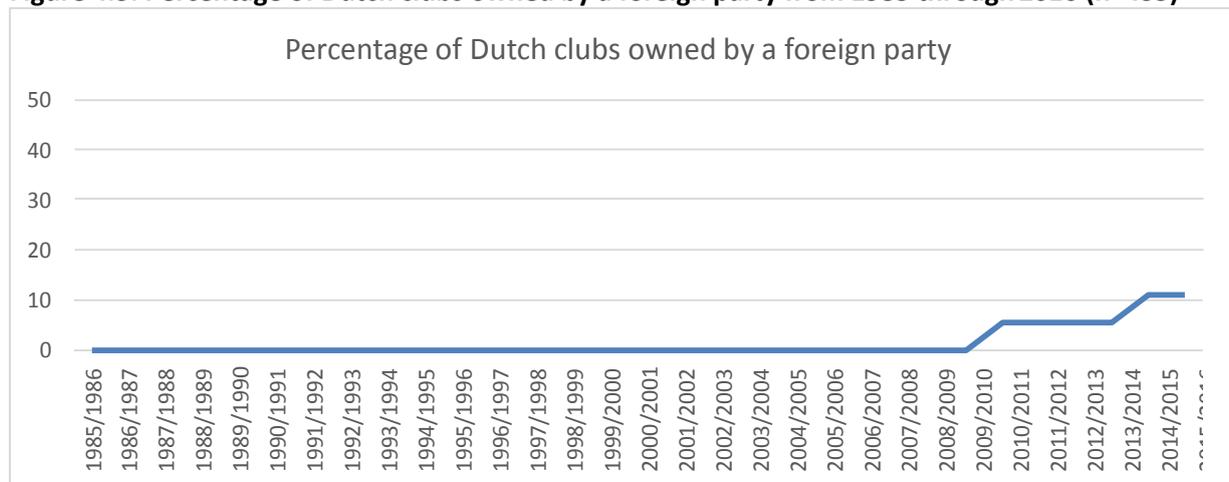
Stadium sponsorship

The measurement of the mobility of capital by using the data on stadium sponsorship is not as useful as the other ways this form of mobility has been analyzed. The reason for this is that most of the clubs that were analyzed do not have any stadium sponsor, regardless of nationality of the organization. Only six out of seventeen clubs have had a stadium sponsor in the analyzed period. Only one club, PSV, has had a stadium sponsor for the entire period, with Philips being attached to the name of the stadium and the whole identify of the club since its origin. Only two clubs have had a foreign stadium sponsor: ADO den Haag has used the name 'Kyocera Stadium' ever since the 2010/2011 season and in earlier days, NAC Breda was residing in the 'Fujifilm-stadium' for seven seasons. However, due to the apparent unpopularity of stadium sponsoring, no real conclusions can be drawn from these few examples.

Ownership

The last factor that is analyzed to measure the mobility of capital is the possible trend towards foreign ownership of Dutch Eredivisie clubs. In Figure 4.3, the percentage of Dutch clubs owned by a foreign party for each season from 1985 through 2016 is shown. This graph shows that unlike for example the English Premier League, the Dutch Eredivisie has not yet seen a shift towards foreign ownership. In fact, so far there are only been two clubs owned by a foreign party. In 2010, Vitesse came into the hands of Merab Jordania, a Georgian businessman. He owned the club until October 2013, in which he sold his shares to Aleksandr Chygrynskiy, a Russian business partner of Jordania. The other Dutch club that came into the hands of a foreign party is ADO Den Haag, which came into the hands of Wang Hui's United Vansen in 2014. These two cases could be preceding an upcoming trend towards foreign ownership, but so far there has been no sign of other clubs being close to falling in foreign hands.

Figure 4.3: Percentage of Dutch clubs owned by a foreign party from 1985 through 2016 (n=435)



Source: www.voetbal.com

These four examples illustrate the mobility of capital in the Dutch Eredivisie. These results can help in answering the first two hypotheses of this research. Hypothesis 1 regarding a trend towards foreign sponsoring can be refuted, as none of the three examples of sponsoring showed a trend towards globalization. The market for shirt suppliers is already dominated by foreign organizations, and the market for stadium sponsoring is pretty much non-existent. The only form of sponsoring that showed signs of a trend was the shirt sponsoring, and in this case the trend seemed to go the complete opposite way, towards more and more Dutch sponsors.

The second hypothesis of this research predicts a trend towards more foreign ownership of Eredivisie clubs. The results of this analysis are inconclusive, as foreign parties seemed to have not yet been interested in Dutch clubs. However, a case could be made to say that the cases of Jordania, and more importantly, United Vansen, are indeed signs of a beginning trend towards more foreign ownership.

4.2. The mobility of labor

The second form of mobility analyzed in this research is the mobility of labor. In this Section, an analysis is made on whether the labor force of Eredivisie clubs has been globalized. To test this, separate analyses are made for both players and coaches.

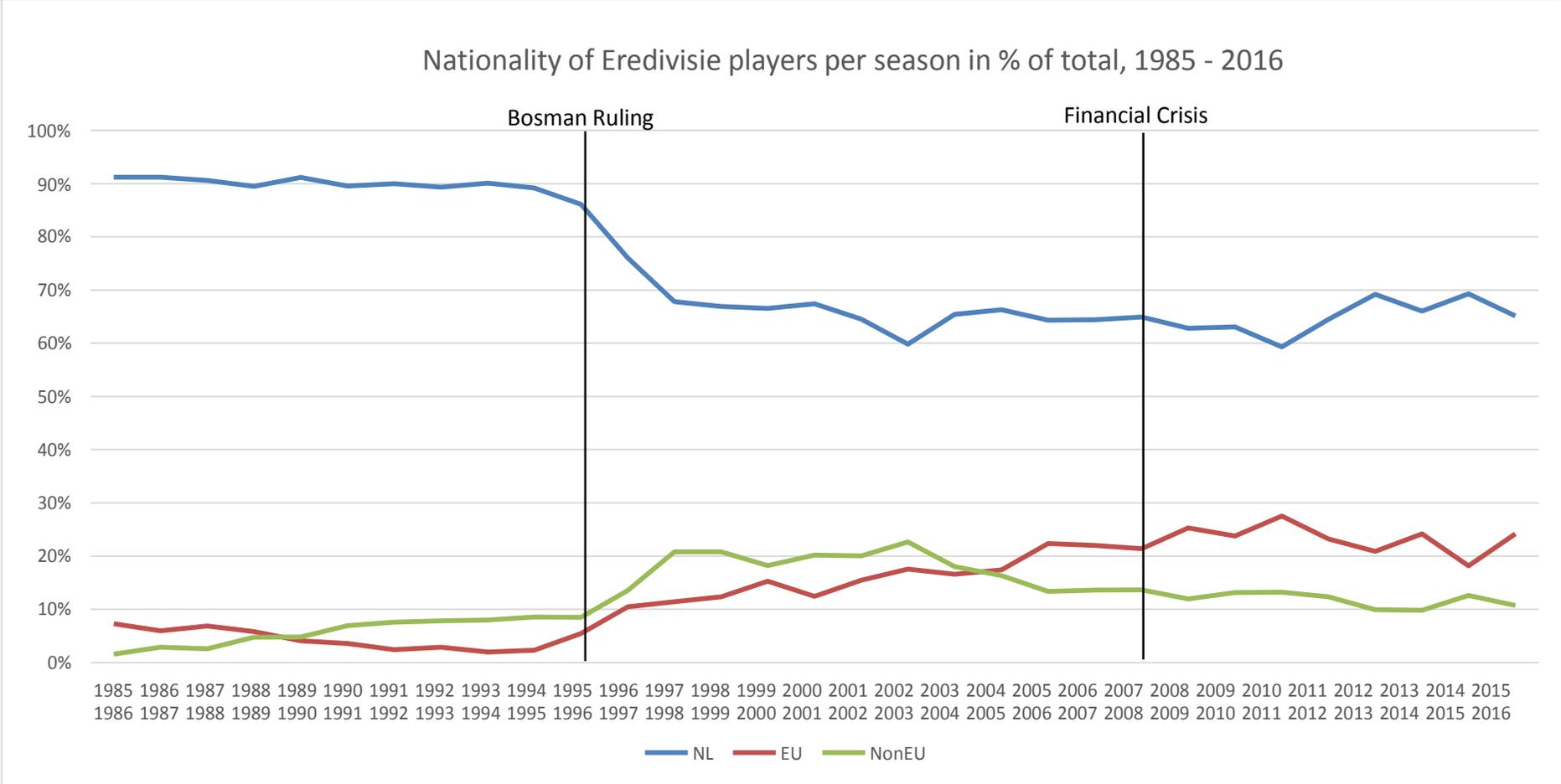
Figure 4.4 (next page) shows the nationality of the players of Eredivisie clubs for each season from 1985 through 2016. As explained in previous chapters, the player base is divided into three categories: Dutch players, European (EU) players, and Non-EU players. For each of these groups, the size of this group compared to the other groups is shown in the figure.

The figure shows a definite decrease in Dutch players in the Eredivisie. In the 1985/1986 season, over 90 percent of the players had the Dutch nationality. This number did not change much in the years after that, until the 1995/1996 season. The percentage of Dutch players dropped a staggering ten percent, from 86 percent in the 1995/1996 season to 76 percent in the 1996/1997 season. The next season, the number dropped another eight percent to 67.8 percent. After this, the percentage seemed to stabilize, outside of a remarkable drop to below 60 percent in the 2002/2003 season. Recent seasons show a slight increase in the percentage of Dutch players, with both the 2012/2013 and 2014/2015 nearing the 70 percent mark.

Where one group of players declines in number, others must increase, and indeed, both the number of EU players and Non-EU players show an increase over the course of 31 seasons. The percentage of EU players rises steadily from the 1993/1994 season onwards, from a mere two percent in that season to almost 30 percent in the 2010/2011 season. The trend of the percentage of Non-EU players is more volatile, with a heavy increase in the 1995 through 1998 period and a slight decline in numbers from the 2002/2003 season onwards.

According to theory, two dates are of specific importance to these trends and could be the cause of possible trends breaking. Firstly, the Bosman ruling in 1995 has been theorized to be of huge importance to these trends, as it would be far simpler for European soccer players to work in other European countries. This ruling seems to have been of heavy influence to the percentage of Dutch players, considering the massive drop of this number in the three years following the introduction of the ruling.

Figure 4.4: Nationality of Eredivisie players per season in a percentage of the total playersbase, from 1985 through 2016 (N=435).



Source: www.voetbal.com.

Furthermore, the immediate drop of the percentage of Dutch players in the league seems to be compensated by both the EU and especially the Non-EU players, considering both groups are gaining in percentage in this period.

The other event that was expected to be of significance to these trends is the financial crisis. This crisis started around the 2007/2008 season and the financial consequences of the crisis could theoretically have an impact on the buying and selling behavior of clubs. Figure 4.4 shows that the percentage of Dutch, EU and Non-EU remained roughly the same in the years during and after the financial crisis.

Regression analysis

Because of the vast amount of data available to analyze the trends of the player base of Dutch Eredivisie clubs, regression analysis is used to confirm or refute the hypotheses. For an elaborate explanation of this technique, go to Appendix C.

Figure 4.5: Results regression analysis for the percentage of Dutch players in the Eredivisie (1/2) (N=435)

	Model 1			Model 2		
	B	Sig.	Std. Error	B	Sig.	Std. Error
Constant	90,911	***	1,397	89,158	***	2,129
Season	-1,133	***	0,079	-1,152	***	0,073
Season Result				0,617	***	0,154
European Football (Ref. = no)				-5,543	***	1,494
Foreign coach (Ref. = no)				-6,471	***	2,193
R Square		0,322			0,423	

***:p=0.001, **:p=0.01, *:p=0.05

Source: www.voetbal.com

In Figure 4.5, the results of the regression analysis is shown. Model 1 shows the effect of time (season) on the percentage of Dutch players in the Eredivisie. Model 2 does the same, with the addition of other controlling variables such as the season results of the researched clubs, whether these clubs played in a European competition in a particular season, and whether clubs were coached by a foreign coach.

The results of model 1 show that the trend towards less Dutch players in the Eredivisie is indeed statistically significant (B = -1.133). This means that in the 1985-2016 period, there has been a significant decrease in the percentage of Dutch players in Eredivisie clubs. Model 2 shows that even when accounting for other variables, this effect remains significant (B = -1.152). What is interesting to note about model 2 is that all the variables included in the regression analysis are also significantly important in explaining the percentage of Dutch players. Results show that both playing

in an European competition and having a foreign coaches is negatively correlated with the percentage of Dutch players at the club. The season ranking is also of importance; the lower a club ranks, the more likely they are to have a higher percentage of Dutch players.

The results shown in model 1 and 2 show that there indeed has been a trend towards less Dutch players, and therefore more foreign players in the Eredivisie. However, this does not necessarily prove the importance of the Bosman ruling for this trend. In model 3, the effect of the Bosman ruling is tested by checking the non-linearity of the first four years after the ruling took place. it means For more information on this way of testing, see appendix C.

Figure 4.6: Results regression analysis for the percentage of Dutch players in the Eredivisie (2/2) (N=435)

	Model 3		
	B	Sig.	Std. Error
Constant	89,778	***	2,119
Season	-1,175	***	0,073
Season Result	0,653	***	0,151
European Football (Ref. = no)	-5,238	***	1,467
Foreign coach (Ref. = no)	-4,366	**	2,201
First year since Bosman	-4,417	*	3,32
Second year since Bosman	-9,459	***	3,441
Third year since Bosman	-9,308	***	3,454
Fourth year since Bosman	-8,197	**	3,529
R Square		0,452	

***:p=0.001, **:p=0.01, *:p=0.05

Source: www.voetbal.com

Figure 4.6 shows the results of the second part of the regression analysis on the percentage of Dutch players, this time including the non-linearity test for the years after the Bosman ruling. Results show that the Bosman ruling has had a significant effect on the percentage of Dutch players in the Eredivisie. The first four years after the Ruling took place, the percentage of Dutch players in Eredivisie decreased significantly more than the general trend would suggest (B = respectively -4,417, -9,459, -9,308, -8,197). This means this trend has been accelerated in these years. What is interesting to note is that the first year after the ruling seems to be less trend breaking than the three years after that, perhaps implying that the clubs were not fully aware of the complications the Bosman ruling brought with it. These results confirm hypothesis 3a: There has been an increase in foreign players since 1995 due to the Bosman ruling. Hypothesis 3b can be refuted: this trend did not break in 2007, at the time of the financial crisis.

So far, regression analysis has shown the significance of the decreasing trend of the percentage of Dutch players in the Eredivisie, and the effect of the Bosman ruling on this trend. Hypothesis 3c

stated that it is expected that the decreasing number of Dutch players is largely due to European players joining the competition, as they profit from the Bosman ruling and Non-EU players do not.

Figure 4.7: Results regression analysis for the percentage of European players in the Eredivisie. (N=435)

	Model 4		
	B	Sig.	Std. Error
Constant	-		1,622
Season	0,569		
Season Result	0,859	***	0,056
European Football (Ref. = no)	0,047		0,117
Foreign coach (Ref. = no)	1,599		1,138
R Square	5,331	**	1,671
		0,363	

***:p=0.001, **:p=0.01, *:p=0.05

Source: www.voetbal.com

Figure 4.7 shows the results of the regression analysis for the percentage of European players in the Eredivisie. The results show that there has indeed been a significant increase in the number of European players joining the competition (B = 0,859). However, this is not enough to confirm the hypothesis, as the results on the percentage of Non-EU players is important as well.

Figure 4.8: Results regression for the percentage of Non-EU players in the Eredivisie. (N=435)

	Model 5		
	B	Sig.	Std. Error
Constant	11,412	***	1,608
Season	0,293	***	0,055
Season Result	-0,664	***	0,116
European Football (Ref. = no)	3,944	***	1,129
Foreign coach (Ref. = no)	1,140		1,656
R Square		0,217	

***:p=0.001, **:p=0.01, *:p=0.05

Source: www.voetbal.com

Figure 4.8 shows the results of the regression analysis for the percentage of Non-EU players in the Eredivisie. Results show that this percentage has also significantly increased over time. However, the B is a lot lower than the one for European players, in figure 4.7 (0,293 for Non-EU players versus 0,859 for European players). This means that even though both groups of players became a lot more present over time, the growth of European players is stronger. This confirms hypothesis 3c.

Labor migration and World-System Theory

Now that a decline in the percentage of Dutch players in the Eredivisie has been found, it is interesting to find out whether this void has been filled evenly by all world regions, or whether some regions are more represented than others. To find out to what extent world-system theory can be linked to the Eredivisie, figure 4.9 shows the nationality of non-EU Union soccer players, sorted by world regions in percentages of the total Eredivisie player base. It must be stressed that while world-system theory is twofold (football labor migration and diffusion of football), for this thesis only the labor migration is researched by looking at the incoming transfers for Eredivisie teams.

As expected, most world regions spike up just after the 1995/1996 season, the year the Bosman ruling was introduced in soccer. As we have discussed in the previous regression analyses, the Bosman ruling caused for a significant decline in the percentage of Dutch players in the Eredivisie and where it was expected that this change was largely due to EU-citizen players coming to the Netherlands, there was also a significant increase in the percentage of Non-EU players in this period in time.

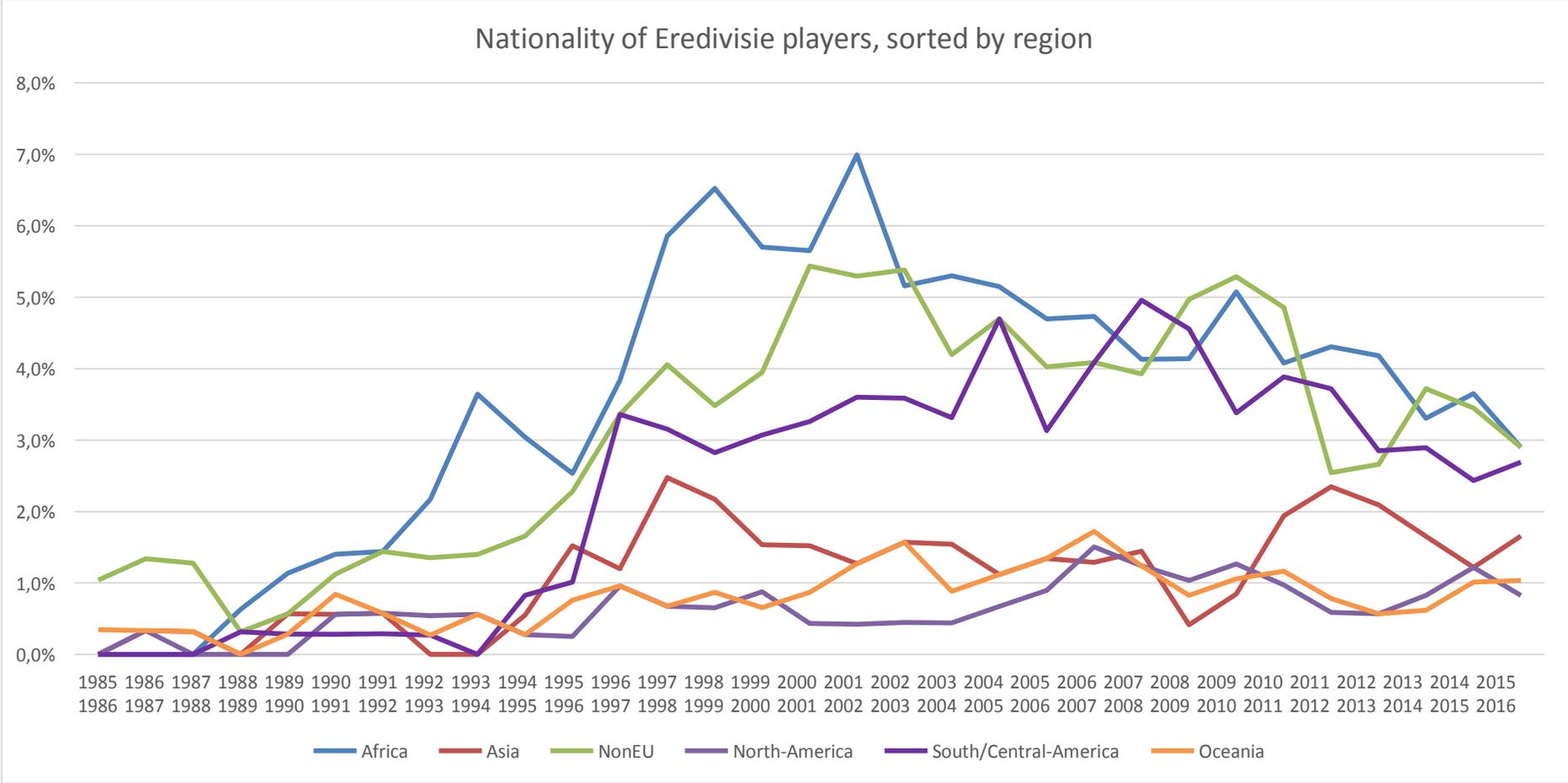
The regions that has seen the largest growth in percentage of the total player base after the Bosman ruling was introduced is Africa, which increased from 2,5 percent in 1995 to 7 percent in 2001. Other beneficiaries of the Bosman ruling are the European countries not part of EU (increasing from 2,5 percent in 1995 to 5,5 percent in 2000), and South- and Central-America (increasing from 1 percent in 1995 to 4,5 percent in 2004).

Even though the percentage of Non-EU players did significantly increase after 1995, not all regions have increased in percentage of the player base of the Eredivisie. The two exceptions to this trend are Oceania and North-America, which seem to be relatively stable in the entire thirty-year period used for this research. Neither one of these regions have had a share of over 2 percent of the player base in the 1985-2016 period.

The one region not yet discussed is Asia. This region does spike up after 1995, but not nearly as high as for example Africa. One interesting thing to note about the Asian region is that where all five other regions seem to decline in percentage from 2008 till 2011, the number of Asian representatives in the Eredivisie actually increases from 0,5 percent in 2008 to around 2,5 percent in 2011.

Hypothesis 3d stated that the increase in non-EU players is predominantly caused by South/Central-American and African players, as these regions are supplying to Europe according to world-system theory. This hypothesis can be confirmed, as both of these regions have benefitted relatively much from the effects of the Bosman ruling.

Figure 4.9: Nationality of Eredivisie players, from 1985 through 2016, sorted by region. (N=435)

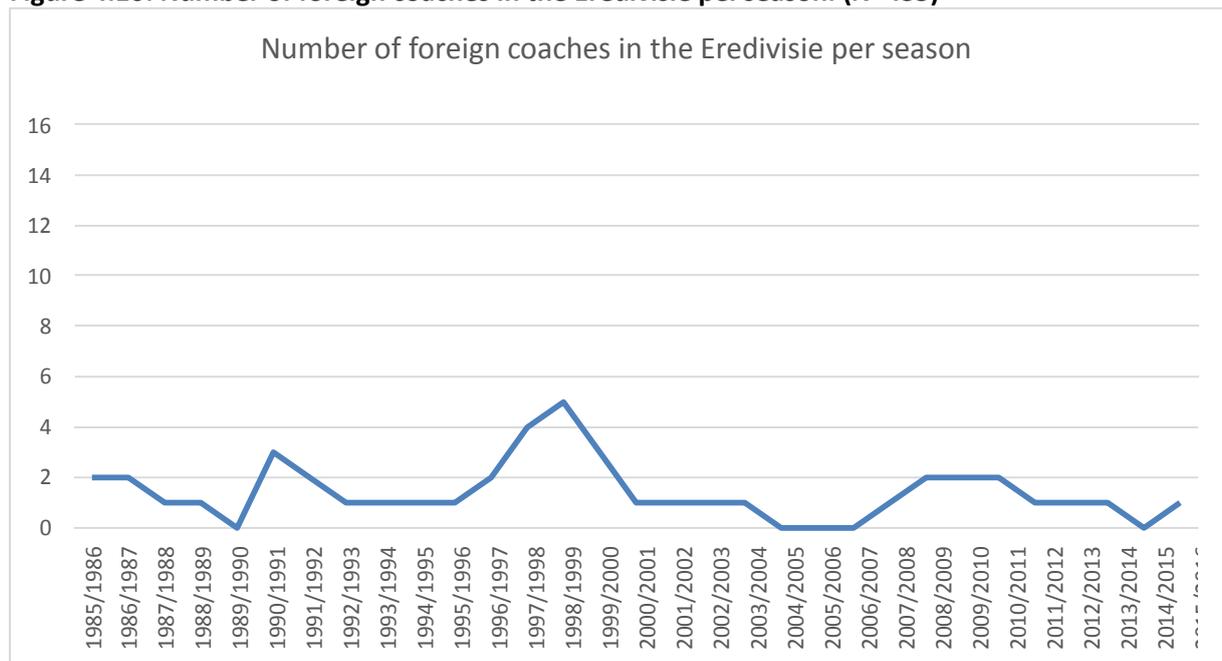


Source: www.voetbal.com.

Coaches

The next results that will be discussed are about the nationality of coaches of Eredivisie teams. Figure 4.10 shows the number of foreign coaches in the Eredivisie for each season discussed in this thesis. Data shows that the number of foreign coaches has been and still is relatively low compared to the number of Dutch coaches. The number of foreign coaches hovers around two for the entire thirty-one-year period, excluding a spike in the 1998/1999 season, in which five Eredivisie teams were coached by a foreign coach. This could be explained as a mere coincidence, although it is surprising to note that the short rise in popularity of foreign coaches is in the same period as the increase of foreign players in the Eredivisie, most likely caused by the Bosman ruling. Even considering the peak of popularity of foreign coaches just before the new millennium, it is safe to say hypothesis 4, stating that the nationality of coaches in the Eredivisie did not increase in the researched period, can be confirmed.

Figure 4.10: Number of foreign coaches in the Eredivisie per season. (N=435)



Source: www.voetbal.com.

5. Conclusion

In this research, an attempt was made to measure the extent as to which globalization has taken place in the Dutch premier soccer league, the Eredivisie, in the 1985-2016 period. To my knowledge, this research is the first extensive research of globalization of the Dutch soccer industry. The theoretical framework of this research is largely based on the work of Ben-Porat and Ben Porat (2004), in which the globalization of the Israeli soccer competition is discussed. In their article, they divide the process of globalization in the soccer industry into three components: the mobility of capital, the mobility of labor and the mobility of culture. For this research, the first two of these components are also discussed. The third component of globalization, the mobility of culture, has been replaced with the mobility of information. By using the work of Ben-Porat and Ben-Porat as a guideline, the scientific relevance of this thesis is twofold. It shows in detail the way the Dutch Eredivisie has been affected by processes of globalization, and it shows to what extent the method used by Ben-Porat and Ben-Porat is applicable to other soccer competitions worldwide.

In order to measure the extent as to which the Dutch Eredivisie has been globalized, data on the different components of globalization has been collected. For this thesis, the decision was made to include only the clubs that have played in more than half of the seasons used for this research. The mobility of capital has been measured through the ownership and sponsorship of these clubs, predicting that there would be a trend towards more international ownership and sponsoring of Eredivisie clubs.

The mobility of labor was tested by looking at the nationality of the players and coaches of clubs. For this part of the thesis, world-system theory was used to predict the results of the analysis. The world-system theory has been related to the soccer industry in the work of Magee and Sugden (2002). In their work, it is stated that soccer labor migration follows a trend from the external areas of the world towards semi-periphery, periphery and core regions. To test this prediction, an analysis was made on the player base of the Eredivisie in the 1985-2016 period. For each year, the percentage of Dutch players was calculated, together with the percentages of players from other world regions. This analysis would show the trends in globalization of the Dutch soccer labor market, and also as to whether world-system theory is applicable to the Dutch soccer industry.

The mobility of information was not measured due to a lack of data. The original plan of analyzing this topic was to collect data on viewership numbers of the competition in foreign countries as well as data on merchandize of Eredivisie clubs sold outside of the Netherlands. Unfortunately, neither of those ideas worked out due to not finding the numbers. Suggestions on how to analyze the mobility of information are discussed in the next chapter.

Results have shown that the mobility of capital has not increased in the Eredivisie in the 1985-2016 period. In this period, the number of foreign shirt sponsors has actually decreased over time, arguing against globalization taking place in the Eredivisie. The number of foreign shirt suppliers is large, but has always been large due to the fact there are no major Dutch competitors in this market. Finally, the number of foreign owners has not increased over time, barring the last few years, where Vitesse and ADO Den Haag have fallen into the hands of a foreign businessman. These two clubs could have set an example towards more foreign interest in Dutch clubs, but it seems to be a little too early to talk about a trend towards more mobility of capital.

Second, the mobility of labor has been measured through the players and coaches of Eredivisie clubs. Results have shown that there is indeed a decrease of Dutch players and therefore an increase in foreign players in the Eredivisie in the 1985-2016 period. Regression analysis has proven that this trend is significant, and besides that, has shown that the implementation of the Bosman ruling in 1995 has had a large impact on this trend. In the first years after the ruling, there has been a huge change in the Eredivisie, with the percentage of Dutch players dropping by around 20 percent. This void has been filled by both European and Non-EU players, which is remarkable as only European players benefit from the new Bosman ruling. In this research, the focus has been on the increasing ease for European players to come to the Eredivisie. However, it should not be neglected that it also became much easier for Dutch players to roam the continent in search for success. In fact, famous Dutch players such as Patrick Kluivert, Marc Overmars, Jaap Stam and Edwin van der Sar have all moved from the Eredivisie towards European powerhouses within the first five years of the implementation of the Bosman ruling. In many cases, the selling club received a significant transfer fee for these players, so perhaps it is not so strange that in this period the both number of Non-EU players and European players increased. The Dutch clubs might have used the transfer fees to attract relatively expensive Non-EU talents.

Further research has shown that the surge of foreign players in the Eredivisie is not evenly spread across different global regions. After the Bosman ruling, there was a large increase in the percentage of African and South/Central American players in the Eredivisie. Other regions, such as Oceania and North America, are underrepresented in the Eredivisie, even after 1995. These results line up with the World-system theory, stating there is a migration flow visible within the soccer industry. According to the results of this research, the Eredivisie (according to world system theory part of the 'core' of soccer economy) mostly attracts African and South/Central-American players, which are considered the semi-periphery and periphery regions of the world.

Another aspect that was looked at was the financial crisis, starting in 2007, and whether this event has also had an impact on the division of nationality at Eredivisie clubs. Results have shown that this is not the case. The percentage of Dutch players in the Eredivisie did not show a sudden shift upwards or downwards during the time of the financial crisis, indicating that this event did not affect the composition of nationalities within the league.

As for the coaches of Eredivisie teams, it was expected that the number of foreign coaches in the Eredivisie would not increase much in the 1985-2016 period. This was expected because of the Dutch reputation when it comes to coaches. Dutch soccer coaches are very popular worldwide and are often named among the worlds' best. It would not make sense for Dutch soccer teams to attract a foreign coach when there is an abundance of national talent. Results have shown that this expectation is correct and that the number of foreign coaches in the Eredivisie has not changed much over time and stayed relatively low.

In the work of Ben-Porat and Ben-Porat (2004), evidence for three components of globalization was found during their research on the Israeli soccer competition. The Dutch Eredivisie has dealt with processes of globalization in the 1985-2016 period. However, not all components of globalization found by Ben-Porat and Ben-Porat can also be found in the Eredivisie. For example, foreign ownership and foreign sponsoring is not yet as developed as it could be, especially considering the level of foreign ownership and sponsoring of soccer competitions in neighboring countries. On the other hand, there has been a clear process of internationalization of the player base of Eredivisie clubs. Therefore, it is safe to say that globalization processes have also affected the Dutch Eredivisie and its clubs in the last thirty years.

This research gives a detailed picture of the ongoing globalization processes within one of the most prestigious soccer competitions of Europe or even of the world. It is of importance because it shows how different components of globalization have an effect on the soccer industry. It touches upon topics that are heavily discussed worldwide, such as migration and nationalism, and could help in a deeper understanding of globalization of soccer and its effects on players, owners and fans.

6. Discussion

For this thesis, research has been conducted on the globalization of the Dutch premier soccer league, the Eredivisie. It was found that some globalization processes are clearly visible, such as the shift of the player base towards more foreign players. Other aspects of Dutch soccer clubs, such as ownership and sponsorship, are not yet as globalized. There are some points of discussion that should be mentioned, as well as some recommendations for further research.

First of all, due to a lack of data, one of the three components of globalization described in this thesis, the mobility of information, has not been researched. Examples of ways this could have been done are collecting and analyzing data on foreign viewership of the competition of the numbers on club merchandize bought by foreigners. Unfortunately, these numbers were not available for this research. Further research could focus on getting a definitive answer to the question regarding the mobility of information by successfully obtaining data that directly answers the question whether foreign fandom has indeed increased over time.

The next point of attention is the facets of Eredivisie clubs that have been researched in this thesis. The choice was made to stay close to the work of Ben-Porat & Ben-Porat (2004) and their way of explaining globalization. However, even though the data might speak for them, one could argue that the stance that directors have on running the club would also be interesting. For example, are clubs actively scouting in other parts of the globe? Are they promoting their clubs in other continents, and in which ways do they do this?

Furthermore, this thesis attempts to link the Eredivisie and the world-system theory. In earlier works regarding soccer and the world-system theory, such as the article by Magee and Sugden (2002), both the soccer labor migration and the diffusion of soccer are discussed. This research focusses only on the former by looking at the nationality of foreign players that get signed by a Eredivisie team. By doing this, it is shown which world regions are more prevalent in being a source of players for the Eredivisie clubs. The latter, regarding Dutch influences in other world regions in the soccer industry, has not been researched.

Last but not least, some suggestions for further research will be given. First of all, the earlier mentioned lack of data regarding the mobility of information is still a hot topic regarding the globalization of the soccer industry. Further research could attempt to answer this question by either collecting the data that was missing for this research, or by collecting data through for example questionnaires on foreign purchases of Dutch soccer club merchandize.

Another potential research topic is the effect of globalization processes on the experience of fans of soccer clubs. With clubs becoming more and more internationally oriented and less and less local, this change could spark some unrest within the fan base. Do they generally approve of foreign newcomers? Will they only accept these changes when the club starts doing better, and will they turn against the club when results are poor? If so, is this effect more apparent when there are more foreign influences within the club?

This research has solely focused on the Dutch premier soccer league, the Eredivisie. It would be very interesting to find out whether other European leagues have seen the same processes of globalization, and how the Eredivisie is ahead or behind of those leagues. Competitions such as the Bundesliga (Germany) and the Premier League (England) generate a lot more money and might therefore be a lot more interesting to foreign players and potential investors, but does the data show this?

Globalization of national teams could also be a very interesting research topic that is closely related to this research. Are the changes in the composition of nationalities in the Eredivisie also visible when looking at the Dutch national team? Citizens with double passports are eligible to play for the Dutch national team, as long as they have not played for other national teams before. Could it be the case that the players that ended up in the Eredivisie due to globalization processes end up in the national team of the country they have worked in for a while?

Soccer is the most popular sport in the world. Getting to know about processes of globalization in the soccer industry is relevant for society because of its popularity. As soccer is becoming more globally oriented, perhaps society can learn from multiculturalist processes within the soccer industry. Economically speaking, knowing how to present the Eredivisie in such a way that not only the Dutch but soccer fans all across the globe will enjoy watching Eredivisie games and buying merchandize of Dutch clubs could be highly beneficial for both clubs and country, due to increased tourism. Furthermore, with soccer hooliganism sometimes related to nationalism, researching soccer globalization might also find answers in the battle against hooligans. Because of these reasons, I therefor highly recommend continuing research on the topic of soccer globalization.

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Appendix A: List of soccer clubs included in this research

Club	Seasons in Eredivisie (1985 to 2016 period)	Average ranking in those seasons
ADO Den Haag	17	13
Ajax	31	2
AZ	22	8
FC Groningen	29	10
FC Twente	31	6
FC Utrecht	31	10
Feyenoord	31	4
Fortuna Sittard	16	11
NAC	20	11
NEC	23	13
PSV	31	2
RKC	23	12
Roda JC	30	9
SC Heerenveen	23	7
Sparta Rotterdam	23	12
Vitesse	27	7
Willem II	27	11
Total	435	

Appendix B: List of the European Union expansion since 1985

Country	Part of EU since	Players considered European as of season:
Portugal, Spain	1986	1986/1987
Finland, Austria, Sweden Cyprus, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovenia, Slovakia,	1995	1995/1996
Czech Republic	2004	2004/2005
Zwitslerland	2005*	2005/2006
Bulgaria, Romania	2007	2007/2008
Croatia	2013	2013/2014

*Switzerland is still not part of the EU, but joined the Schengen area in 2005.

Appendix C: Regression analysis

What exactly is regression analysis? In an article by the MIT News Office, the basic concept of regression analysis is thoroughly explained. As said in the article:

“To grasp the basic concept, take the simplest form of a regression: a linear, bivariate regression, which describes an unchanging relationship between two (and not more) phenomena. Now suppose you are wondering if there is a connection between the time high school students spend doing French homework, and the grades they receive. These types of data can be plotted as points on a graph, where the x-axis is the average number of hours per week a student studies, and the y-axis represents exam scores out of 100. Together, the data points will typically scatter a bit on the graph. The regression analysis creates the single line that best summarizes the distribution of points. (MIT News Office, 2010)”

For this thesis, regression analysis is used to find out whether the trends towards less Dutch players in the Eredivisie is a statistically significant one. A regression analysis is used to find out whether the correlation between the seasons used for this research and the percentage of Dutch players in the Eredivisie is visible, even when taking into account other relevant variables.

Within the regression analysis, another method of research is used to further investigate the correlation. This method is named a non-linearity test and is used to find out which data entries used to construct the regression line are relatively far away from the regression line, meaning the actual correlation is a non-linear one. In the case of this research, the first four years after the entrance of the Bosman ruling in European football are checked for non-linearity, as the expectation was formulated these years will show the trend accelerating. A non-linearity test will use the trend found in model 2. Then, it will calculate to what extent the individual data points for the years after the introduction of the Bosman ruling are considered non-linear with the trend. The non-linearity test will show whether a data point significantly deviates from the trend meaning the year does not fully fit within the trend. Considering earlier models have shown a trend towards less Dutch players in the Eredivisie, if the B for this data point is negative, the number of Dutch players of that season has decreased even further than the trend predicted compared to the season before. If the B for this data point is positive, it means the number of Dutch players in the Eredivisie in that particular season has not decreased as much compared to last season, or perhaps even increased.

Model 1 (Figure C1) shows the correlation between the seasons and the percentage of Dutch players. Model 2 does the same, with the difference this model includes taking account other relevant variables. Model 3 shows the non-linearity test explained above to find out whether the trend of less Dutch players in the Eredivisie has accelerated in these years. To check whether the decline of the percentage of Dutch players in the Eredivisie was caused by European players, Non-EU players or a mixture of both, the correlation between seasons and the percentages of these groups are researched in other regression analyses, shown in Figure C2 and C3.

Figure C1: Results regression analysis for the percentage of Dutch players in the Eredivisie.

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	Sig.	Std. Error	B	Sig.	Std. Error	B	Sig.	Std. Error
Constant	90,911	***	1,397	89,158	***	2,129	89,778	***	2,119
Season	-1,133	***	0,079	-1,152	***	0,073	-1,175	***	0,073
Season Result				0,617	***	0,154	0,653	***	0,151
European Football (Ref. = no)				-5,543	***	1,494	-5,238	***	1,467
Foreign coach (Ref. = no)				-6,471	***	2,193	-4,366	**	2,201
First year since Bosman							-4,417	*	3,320
Second year since Bosman							-9,459	***	3,441
Third year since Bosman							-9,308	***	3,454
Fourth year since Bosman							-8,197	**	3,529

***:p=0.001, **:p=0.01, *:p=0.05

Source: www.voetbal.com

Figure C2: Results regression analysis for the percentage of European players in the Eredivisie.

	Model 4		
	B	Sig.	Std. Error
Constant	-0,569		1,622
Season	0,859	***	0,056
Season Result	0,047		0,117
European Football (Ref. = no)	1,599		1,138
Foreign coach (Ref. = no)	5,331	**	1,671

***:p=0.001, **:p=0.01, *:p=0.05

Source: www.voetbal.com

Figure C3: Results regression analysis for the percentage of Non-EU players in the Eredivisie.

	Model 5		
	B	Sig.	Std. Error
Constant	11,412	***	1,608
Season	0,293	***	0,055
Season Result	-0,664	***	0,116
European Football (Ref. = no)	3,944	***	1,129
Foreign coach (Ref. = no)	1,140		1,656

***:p=0.001, **:p=0.01, *:p=0.05

Source: www.voetbal.com

Appendix D: Syntax

* Encoding: UTF-8.

**Variabelen overzichtelijke naam geven

Variable Labels Jaar 'Seizoen'.

VALUE LABELS Club

'0' ADO Den Haag

'1' Ajax

'2' AZ

'3' FC Groningen

'4' FC Twente

'5' FC Utrecht

'6' Feyenoord

'7' Fortuna Sittard

'8' NAC

'9' NEC

'10' PSV

'11' RKC

'12' Roda JC

'13' SC Heerenveen

'14' Sparta Rotterdam

'15' Vitesse

'16' Willem II.

VALUE LABELS Jaar

'0' 1985 1986

'1' 1986 1987

'2' 1987 1988

'3' 1988 1989

'4' 1989 1990

'5' 1990 1991

'6' 1991 1992

'7' 1992 1993

'8' 1993 1994

'9' 1994 1995

'10' 1995 1996

'11' 1996 1997

'12' 1997 1998

'13' 1998 1999

'14' 1999 2000

'15' 2000 2001

'16' 2001 2002

'17' 2002 2003

'18' 2003 2004

'19' 2004 2005

'20' 2005 2006

'21' 2006 2007

'22' 2007 2008

'23' 2008 2009

'24' 2009 2010

'25' 2010 2011

'26' 2011 2012

'27' 2012 2013

'28' 2013 2014

'29' 2014 2015

'30' 2015 2016.

*Variabelen aanmaken

compute EUPerc = EU/Totaal*100.

compute NLPerc = NL/Totaal*100.

compute NonEUPerc = NonEU/Totaal*100.

freq EUPerc NLPerc NonEUPerc

*Checken of totaal 100% is

compute TotaalPerc = EUPerc + NLPerc +
NonEUPerc.

freq TotaalPerc.

*Gemiddelden

means EUPerc by Jaar.

means NLPerc by Jaar.

means NonEUPerc by Jaar.

*Bosman Arrest

Compute Bosman = 1.

if (Jaar < 10) Bosman = 0.

freq Bosman

*Seizoensresultaat: gemiddelde per club

SORT CASES BY Club.

SPLIT FILE LAYERED BY Club.

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=Seizoensresultaat
/STATISTICS=MEAN
/ORDER=ANALYSIS.

SPLIT FILE OFF.

**regressie

```
REGRESSION  
/MISSING LISTWISE  
/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R  
ANOVA tol  
/CRITERIA=PIN(.05)  
POUT(.10)  
/NOORIGIN  
/DEPENDENT NLPerc  
/METHOD=ENTER Jaar.
```

```
REGRESSION  
/MISSING LISTWISE  
/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R  
ANOVA tol  
/CRITERIA=PIN(.05)  
POUT(.10)  
/NOORIGIN  
/DEPENDENT NLPerc  
/METHOD=ENTER Jaar  
Seizoensresultaat  
Europeesvoetbal  
Buitenlandsetrainer.
```

```
REGRESSION  
/MISSING LISTWISE  
/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS  
R ANOVA tol  
/CRITERIA=PIN(.05)  
POUT(.10)  
/NOORIGIN  
/DEPENDENT EUPerc  
/METHOD=ENTER Jaar  
Seizoensresultaat  
Europeesvoetbal  
Buitenlandsetrainer.
```

```
REGRESSION  
/MISSING LISTWISE  
/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS  
R ANOVA tol  
/CRITERIA=PIN(.05)  
POUT(.10)  
/NOORIGIN  
/DEPENDENT NonEUPerc  
/METHOD=ENTER Jaar  
Seizoensresultaat  
Europeesvoetbal  
Buitenlandsetrainer.
```

*Is Bosman belangrijk?

```
compute event0 = 0. if(Jaar =  
10) event0 = 1.
```

```
compute event1 = 0. if(Jaar =  
11) event1 = 1.
```

```
compute event2 = 0. if(Jaar =  
12) event2 = 1.
```

```
compute event3 = 0. if(Jaar =  
13) event3 = 1.
```

```
compute event4 = 0. if(Jaar =  
14) event4 = 1.
```

```
freq jaar event0 REGRESSION  
/MISSING LISTWISE  
/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA tol  
/CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)  
/NOORIGIN  
/DEPENDENT NLPerc  
/METHOD=ENTER Jaar Seizoensresultaat  
Europeesvoetbal Buitenlandsetrainer event0  
event1 event2 event3 event4.
```

```
TEMPORARY.  
select if (jaar > 22).
```

```
REGRESSION  
/MISSING LISTWISE  
/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA tol  
/CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)  
/NOORIGIN  
/DEPENDENT NLPerc  
/METHOD=ENTER Jaar.
```

```
REGRESSION  
/MISSING LISTWISE  
/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA tol  
/CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)  
/NOORIGIN  
/DEPENDENT NLPerc  
/METHOD=ENTER Jaar Seizoensresultaat  
Europeesvoetbal Buitenlandsetrainer.
```

```
DATASET ACTIVATE DataSet2.
```

```
if (Nationaliteit = 'Nederland') Nationaliteit = '  
Nederland'.
```

```
FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=Jaartal  
/ORDER=ANALYSIS.
```

```

CROSSTABS
  /TABLES=Nationaliteit
  BY Jaartal
  /FORMAT=AVALUE
  TABLES
  /CELLS=COUNT
  COLUMN
  /COUNT ROUND CELL.

```

```

compute Africa = 0.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Angola') Africa = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Algerije') Africa =
1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Burkina Faso') Africa = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Burundi') Africa = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Congo') Africa = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Congo DR') Africa =
1. if (Nationaliteit = '
Egypte') Africa = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Ethiopië') Africa =
1. if (Nationaliteit
= ' Gambia') Africa
=      1.      if
(Nationaliteit = '
Ghana') Africa = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Guadeloupe') Africa =
1. if (Nationaliteit = '
Guinea') Africa = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Ivoorkust') Africa =
1. if (Nationaliteit = '
Liberia') Africa = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Kaapverdië') Africa =
1. if (Nationaliteit = '
Kameroen') Africa = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Mali') Africa = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Mauritanië') Africa = 1.

if (Nationaliteit = '

```

```

Rowanda') Africa = 1. if (Nationaliteit = '
Nigeria') Africa = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Senegal') Africa = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Sierra Leone') Africa = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Tunesië') Africa = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Zambia') Africa = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Zimbabwe') Africa = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Zuid-Afrika') Africa = 1.

```

```

compute NAmerica = 0.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Canada') NAmerica = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Mexico') NAmerica = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Verenigde Staten')
NAmerica = 1.

```

```

compute SAmerica = 0.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Argentinië') SAmerica = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Brazilië') SAmerica = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Chili') SAmerica = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Colombia') SAmerica = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Ecuador') SAmerica = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Paraguay') SAmerica = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Peru') SAmerica = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Uruguay') SAmerica = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Venezuela') SAmerica = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Costa Rica') SAmerica = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Guatemala') SAmerica = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Haiti') SAmerica = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Trinidad & Tobago')
SAmerica = 1.

```

```

compute Oceania = 0.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Australië') Oceania = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Nieuw-Zeeland') Oceania = 1.

```

```

compute Asia = 0.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Afghanistan') Asia = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Armenie') Asia = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Azerbeidzjan') Asia = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' China') Asia = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Filippijnen') Asia = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Georgië') Asia = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Hong-Kong') Asia = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Indonesië') Asia = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Irak') Asia = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Iran') Asia = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Israël') Asia = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Japan') Asia = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Rusland') Asia = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Saoedi-Arabië') Asia = 1. if
(Nationaliteit = ' Syrië') Asia = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Thailand') Asia = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Zuid-Korea') Asia = 1.

```

```

compute EU = 0.
if (Nationaliteit =
' Duitsland') EU =
1. if
(Nationaliteit = '
Engeland') EU =
1. if
(Nationaliteit = '
Frankrijk') EU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit =
' Spanje') EU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Italië') EU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit =
' Portugal') EU =
1. if
(Nationaliteit = '
België') EU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit =
' Bulgarije') EU =
1. if
(Nationaliteit = '
Cyprus') EU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Denemarken') EU =
1. if (Nationaliteit = '
Estland') EU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Finland') EU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Griekenland') EU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Hongarije') EU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Ierland') EU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Litouwen') EU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Luxemburg') EU =
1. if (Nationaliteit
= ' Oostenrijk') EU
= 1. if
(Nationaliteit = '
Polen') EU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = '
Roemenië') EU =
1. if (Nationaliteit
= ' Slovenië') EU =
1. if
(Nationaliteit = '
Slowakije') EU =
1. if (Nationaliteit

```

```

= ' Tsjechië') EU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Zweden') EU = 1.

```

```

compute NonEU = 0.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Albanië') NonEU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Bosnië-Herzegovina')
NonEU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' IJsland') NonEU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Kazachstan') NonEU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Kosovo') NonEU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Kroatië') NonEU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Macedonië') NonEU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Moldavië') NonEU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Montenegro') NonEU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Noord-Ierland') NonEU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Noorwegen') NonEU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Oekraïne') NonEU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Schotland') NonEU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Servië') NonEU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Wales') NonEU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Wit-Rusland') NonEU = 1.
if (Nationaliteit = ' Zwitserland') NonEU = 1.

```

```

compute Region = 99.
If (Africa = 1) Region = 0.
If (Asia = 1) Region = 1.
If (NonEU = 1) Region = 2.
If (NAmerica = 1) Region = 3. If (SAmerica = 1)
Region = 4. If (Oceania = 1) Region = 5. If (EU =
1) Region = 6.

```

```

freq Region.
freq Nationaliteit

```

```

VALUE LABELS Region
0 'Africa'
1 'Asia'NonEU'
2 'North-America'
3 'South/Central-America'
4 'Oceania'
6 'EU'.

```

```

CROSSTABS
/TABLES=Region BY Jaartal
/FORMAT=AVALUE TABLES
/CELLS=COUNT COLUMN
/COUNT ROUND CELL.

```