

**The Role of Emotions in Game  
Experience: Linking Emotions, Game  
Experience and Return Intentions**

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the  
requirement of the University of Greenwich for the  
degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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## DECLARATION

I certify that this work has not been accepted in substance for any degree, and is not concurrently being submitted for any degree other than that of Doctor of Philosophy being studied at the University of Greenwich. I also declare that this work is the result of my own investigations except where otherwise identified by references and that I have not plagiarised the work of others.

Student Signature: ..... Date: .....

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## **ABSTRACT**

The focus of many marketing studies is to understand the needs and anticipations of consumers and how they can be provided with positive experiences. In their efforts to understand the consumer, consumer behaviour researchers generally adopt a cognitive perspective, which propagates a rational, information processing approach to consumer behaviour (O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy, 2003). However, a unitary theory of consumption behaviour is undesirable because this restricts the way in which consumption behaviour can be studied (Foxall, 1990). As such, researchers need to use alternative theories in order to widen the scope of knowledge on consumer behaviour. Furthermore, within the field of consumer behaviour, emotional experience of consumers has become a prominent field of investigation. Richins (1997) concluded that the importance of emotions in consumer behaviour is well established. The question then is how researchers can attempt to understand the emotional experiences of consumers.

This research is an attempt to understand consumption emotions of consumers with specific relevance to sports consumption. It uses an alternative psychological theory, personal construct theory, with which to understand and measure consumption emotions. Mixed methods research design is used comprising of repertory grid interviews and a quantitative survey to identify and understand the relevant emotions with regards to domestic one-day cricket spectators. The findings here show that six emotions are relevant in the cricket spectating context with most of these emotions having a strong relationship with both game experience and return intentions.

This study contributes to existing knowledge on consumption emotions by demonstrating the use of an alternative approach to both measure and study consumption emotions. By using personal construct theory, the research has helped overcome some prevalent issues within consumption emotions literature. It has shown that emotions need to be understood at an individual level. Furthermore, it has demonstrated that rationality and emotions are part of the same process and provide support for conceptualising satisfaction as an emotion.

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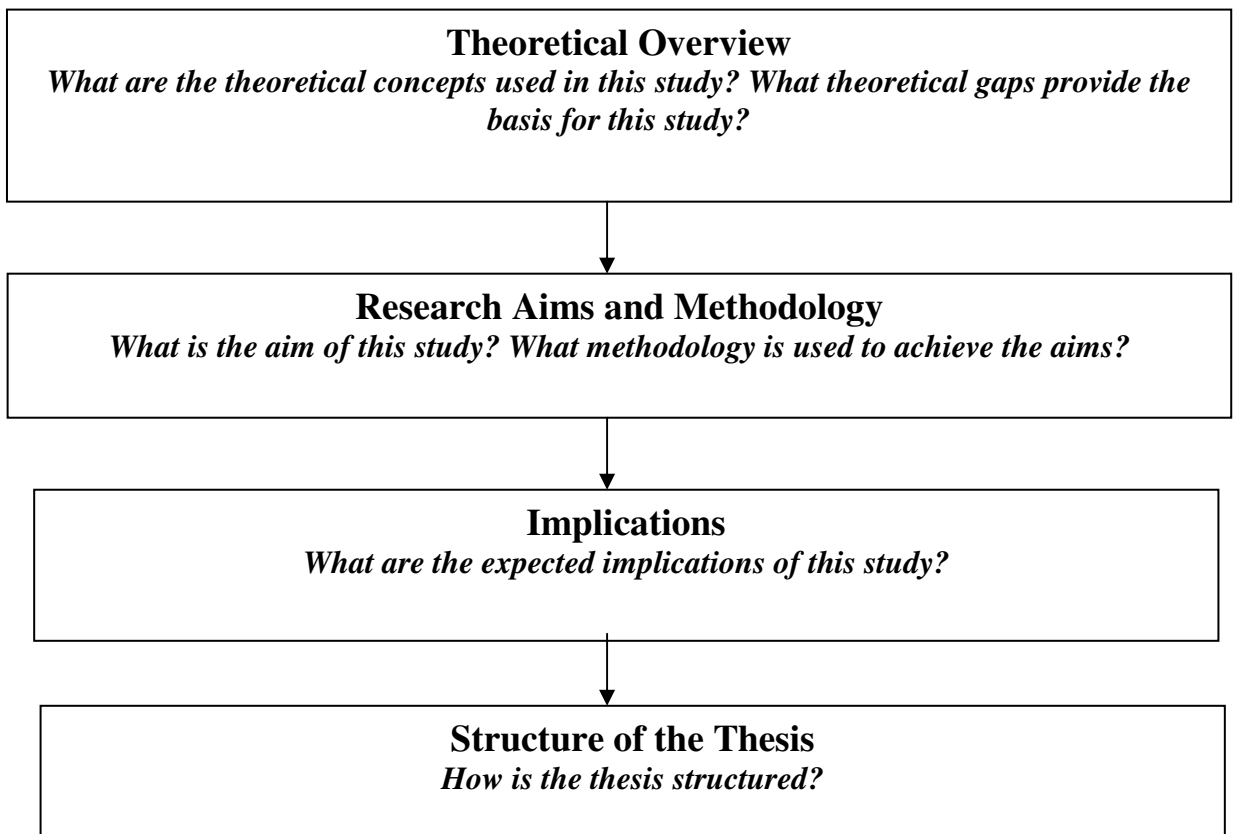
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# *Chapter 1*

## INTRODUCTION

### *Chapter Introduction*

This introductory chapter provides an overview of the research. The chapter is structured as follows:



*Figure 1.1 - Structure of Chapter 1*

The chapter begins by providing a theoretical overview of this study. The research uses personal construct theory perspective of emotions and the rationale for this are discussed. In doing this, a brief overview of the research on consumption emotions to date is also outlined.

Next, the aims of the study and the methods to achieve the aims are outlined. The chosen research context is also discussed in brief. Following this, the implications of this study are highlighted both from the theoretical perspective as well as the practical perspective.

Finally, the way in which the remainder of the thesis is structured is outlined. The contents of each chapter are also outlined briefly.



## 1.1. Theoretical Overview

Psychology is often defined as ‘the science of behaviour’ (Hinkle, 1970:101). It is comprised of a group of systems developed to explain human behaviour. Within this broad definition, many psychologists have propagated various approaches or systems to study and explain human behaviour. The most prominent ones that are practised to this day to study personality are psychoanalytic, trait and behaviouristic theories (Foxall, 1990). These various theories arose as responses to prevalent social problems of the time. Sigmund Freud’s theory of how people evolve based on their childhood environment developed out of his clinical practice. One main criticism levelled at his theory is the applicability of it to mainstream population (Burr & Butt, 1992). An alternative approach to personality study put forth by psychologists such as Hans Eysenck was that of Trait theory (Burr & Butt, 1992). This approach aims to classify people along personality dimensions or traits (i.e. introvert vs. extrovert). In trait theory, the implication is that people and thus consumers behave in a certain way due to their inherent personalities. This however, is a very simplistic way of explaining human behaviour (O’Shaughnessy and O’Shaughnessy, 2003). In contrast to psychoanalytic and trait theories, which seemed to imply that personalities and humans are inflexible, behaviourist theories evolved. Behaviourist theories were centred on the idea of observing, measuring and thereby predicting human behaviour (Burr & Butt, 1992). Through theories such as Pavlov’s classical conditioning and Skinner’s operant conditioning, the behaviourist perspective propagated that people’s behaviour can be changed over time through learning. A behaviourist therefore, would explain consumption behaviour by trying to identify the causes of behaviour in the environment without resorting to internal causes (Lazarus, 1991; Foxall, 1990). This is in contrast to trait theory which focuses on internal factors and specifically on inherent personality traits of people. However, if a holistic and deeper understanding of consumer behaviour is to be achieved, the focus cannot be on either environmental or internal/personal causes. In most consumption situations, consumers may experience a combination of these causes. As Foxall (1990) claims, behaviourist theories are popular in consumer research due to its closeness to observed behaviour and relatively straightforward subjection to empirical testing. Nonetheless, is a mere explanation of observed behaviour sufficient to gain deep insights into consumers? Should ease of empirical testing be given priority over gaining in-depth understanding of

consumption behaviour? It is suggested here that rather than a mere explanation of observed human behaviour, a comprehensive theory is needed to understand the consumer as a whole. In trying to achieve this understanding however, researchers may have to look beyond simple empirical measures.

Then there was the introduction of cognitive psychology which focussed on memory, problem solving and decision making. This cognitive approach has been well received in the field of marketing as it provides marketers with a clearer explanation of how and why consumers make purchase decisions (e.g. Gutman, 1982; Foxall, 1990). Cognitive theories, thus seek to explain consumer behaviour by explicating consumer choice behaviour by analogy with the information processing functions of the digital computer (Newell & Simon, 1972). Cognitive theories of consumer behaviour have come under criticism due to their high level of abstraction and their inability to accurately explain or predict consumption behaviour. Foxall (1990) reviewed consumer research using a cognitive approach and concluded that ‘the whole sequence assumed in comprehensive modelling appears to be absent from many instances of consumer buying’ (p15).

The above mentioned approaches and theories of psychology were mostly being approached from a positivistic paradigm which was dominant during that era (Stewart & Stewart, 1981). Many have criticised psychologists who propagate and adopt these theories for compromising genuine knowledge within the field in their quest to be accepted as scientists by the largely positivistic scientific community (Bannister & Fransella, 1986). Amidst this environment, George Kelly (1955) developed personal construct psychology. Kelly’s theory was developed in response to the criticisms of other psychology theories discussed above, namely:

- The need for a comprehensive theory that can account for the person as a whole as opposed to viewing humans as compartmentalised moulds.
- The need for a humanistic approach to studying a person as being capable of changing one’s self and actions to represent the environment. A person who is capable of learning through their experiences and constructions of the world.
- The need for a reflexive theory that not only looked at how scientists can study humans but also accounted for the role of the person in the study. (Carroll & Carroll, 1981).

Kelly (1970: 1) described personal construct psychology as ‘a theory of man’s personal inquiry – a psychology of the human quest’. Kelly (1955) believed in what he termed ‘constructive alternativism’ where all knowledge and information are subject to alternative constructions. Thus, all present perceptions held by an individual are open to question and reconstruction. People themselves place their own construction or meaning on any event or situation that they experience in life (Kelly, 1970). It is this personal construct system that the theory seeks to unveil. Kelly proposed that one only understands the person and their world by understanding how they construe the world around them. Although Kelly developed his theory due to his dissatisfaction with the existing psychological theories to study human beings, he did not propagate it as a rival or contradictory theory. He acknowledged that psychologists have been using those theories for years to understand human behaviour so they cannot be discarded offhandedly. Personal construct psychology was put forth merely as an alternative approach to the study of human beings (Bannister and Fransella, 1986). The principles of this Kelly’s theory (1955) however provide an effective way in which to combine the prevalent views on cognition and emotion within consumer behaviour as discussed below.

### ***1.1.1. Emotions in Consumer Behaviour and Sport Marketing***

The debate within the marketing community with regards to studying consumer behaviour can be broadly divided into cognitive and emotional. Many marketers prefer the cognitive approach as it helps them to describe consumer behaviour and decision making in logical linear models (Gutman 1982; Foxall 1990; O’Shaughnessy and O’Shaughnessy, 2003). There are others who argue that human behaviour cannot be totally logical and consumers experience products and services and thus experiential consumption involves emotions (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Oliver, 1994; Pham, 2004). Those who propagate the use of emotions in consumption argue for the need within marketing to combine cognition as well as emotion when studying consumers. However, approaching this study of consumers from a purely cognitive or behavioural perspective is insufficient. As Foxall (1990: 172) argues, ‘the emergence of a unitary coherent theory of human behaviour is improbable and almost certainly undesirable’. In order to obtain a wider and a more comprehensive understanding of human behaviour and consumption in particular, researchers should seek to study consumption from different

scientific world views. Zaltman (2000: 423) challenges the consumer researchers to adopt various approaches and claims that ‘the interplay of the cognitive conscious and unconscious is a good starting point for alerting current paradigms’ within consumer research. As such using an alternative theory to that of the prevalent cognitive paradigm to study consumer behaviour will enhance researchers’ understanding on why and how consumers experience products and services.

The recent advances in consumption emotions research have provided great insight into the emotional experience of various consumers (e.g. Westbrook and Oliver, 1991; Chaudhuri, 1997; Mudie et al, 2003; Madrigal and Bee, 2005; Lee et al, 2008). However, there are issues within the consumption emotions sphere that inhibit further enhancement of knowledge. Firstly, primarily due to the dominance of positivistic and cognitive paradigms within marketing, emotion and rationality are viewed as two separate aspects that the consumer undergoes. However, there is no theoretical argument that supports this conception. An increasing number of researchers have recently argued that rationality and emotions need to be viewed as a comprehensive process (O’Shaughnessy and O’Shaughnessy, 2003; Boden and Williams, 2002). Secondly, most researchers treat emotions as broad categories or dimensions of positive and negative emotions (e.g. Oliver, 1994; Liljander and Stranvik, 1997; Phillips and Baumgartner, 2002). However, other researchers have found that each individual emotion has different antecedents and consequences (e.g. Söderlund and Rosengren, 2004; Leone et al, 2005; Madrigal and Bee, 2005). Hence, investigating each distinct emotion and their impact on game experience and return intentions of spectators of a game for instance, will provide greater insights into the nature of emotional experience of spectators compared to investigating the aggregated impact of all positive or negative emotions. Finally, also related to the first issue of rationality, satisfaction is often viewed in marketing as a post-purchase evaluation comprising both cognitive and affective aspects (Westbrook, 1980; Oliver, 1994; Söderlund and Öhman, 2003). However, Bagozzi et al (2002) argued that there is no theoretical support to suggest that satisfaction is different to any other positive emotion. As such it is necessary to conceptualise and measure satisfaction as a distinct emotion to assess whether it is different to any other emotion.

In order to deal with these three main issues, this study adopts personal construct theory and its perspective of emotions. Kelly (1955) felt that psychologists should not worry too

much about the differences between cognition and emotion (Bannister & Fransella, 1986). He in fact viewed it as a process in which cognitive elements of an experience leads onto higher order constructs of emotions. The construct of transitions or emotions developed by Kelly (1955) and later by McCoy (1977) also views each emotion as being distinct and satisfaction as an emotion. As such, personal construct theory provides a theoretical basis for conceptualising rationality and emotion as part of the same process, treating emotions as distinct, and conceptualising and measuring satisfaction as an emotion. Therefore, using the personal construct theory would help overcome the three issues prevalent in consumption emotions literature and help enhance understanding on consumers emotional experiences.

Consumption emotion in this study is investigated within the sport spectating context. This is because, as a hedonic consumption, emotional experience is more prominent within this context (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982) where emotions are seen to have a strong presence in sport consumption (Frew and McGillivray, 2008). However, there has been very little research that has been carried out to understand the emotional experience of sport spectators. The research that has been undertaken limits the scope of emotions experienced to being a result of team performance or game outcome (Madrigal, 2008; Bizman and Yinon, 2002). As such these studies have only investigated emotions as a result of victory or loss of a spectator's favourite team or the perceived performance of their team. The experience of spectators when attending a game, however, involves more than just the team performance. For instance Kuenzel and Yassim (2007) found that factors such as social atmosphere and auditory and olfactory elements as being important to spectators. As such, emotional experience when attending a game needs to be studied as a result of the overall game experience and not just limited to game outcome. Hence, this study investigates emotions when attending a game as a result of the overall game experience. Also, emotions are identified as influencing and motivating behaviour and action (Izard, 1977; Averill, 1996). In the marketing and leisure consumption context, it has been proven that emotions influence and motivate consumer behaviour with regards to actions such as return intentions (e.g. Yuksel et al, 2010; Hall et al, 2010). In line with this, this research also investigates whether emotions have a relationship with return intentions of cricket spectators.

## **1.2. Research Aims and Methodology**

The overall purpose of the research is to understand the role of emotions in spectators' game experience with relevance to domestic one-day cricket spectators. This study is the first attempt to understand spectators' emotional experience using the personal construct perspective and related research tools and as such, is exploratory in nature. More specifically, this research aims to understand:

- What emotions are experienced by cricket spectators when attending a domestic one-day game and why?
- Whether the emotions identified related to spectators' overall game experience and return intentions?

In order to answer these questions, both qualitative and quantitative studies are used in a triangulated research design. Although quantitative scales to study emotions exist (e.g. differential emotions scale by Izard, 1977; Consumption emotions set by Richins, 1997) and have been widely used in consumption emotions studies, no such measure has been developed for the particular purpose of cricket spectatorship. As Patton (2002) explains, it is often more appropriate to gather descriptive information about particular phenomena rather than using a scale that 'has the merit of being quantitative but whose validity and reliability [within a given context] are suspect' (p192). Additionally, although scales such as the consumption emotions set (Richins, 1997) can be used to measure the emotions identified in a cricket context, they do not provide insights into why these emotions are experienced. As such, this research first attempts to identify the emotions experienced by domestic cricket spectators and why these emotions are experienced through the use of repertory grid interviews. Once these emotions are identified, the existing emotion scales will be investigated to identify whether the measures from these scales correspond to the emotions identified in this study. The quantitative survey aims to test these emotions on a larger sample and to triangulate the findings to arrive at a set of emotions that are significant to cricket spectators and to ascertain the relationship between these emotions, game experience and return intentions. Using the data obtained from the repertory grid interviews, why spectators experience these emotions is also discussed.

The context for this study is domestic one-day cricket. The cricket context was chosen because of the researcher's prior experience of researching spectator behaviour within this context (Kuenzel and Yassim, 2007; 2010). Also, as cricket spectator behaviour is a very much under researched area, the findings of this study would have great practical significance to the cricket management in helping them understand their spectators. Due to the study being exploratory in nature, the focus here remains only on domestic one-day cricket. The results of this study can then be used in further research to assess whether the emotional experience of spectators differ at various forms of the game such as Twenty20 and championship games.

### **1.3. Implications**

This research will have both theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically, the research would demonstrate the effective use of personal construct theory to overcome the prevalent issues within the consumption emotions literature. It will provide evidence to support the view of cognition and emotion being a part of the same process.

Furthermore, it will provide evidence for conceptualising and measuring satisfaction as an emotion. Methodologically, the research will demonstrate the use of repertory grids to effectively research complex constructs such as emotions. Also, the result of this study will provide a measurement scale to measure the emotions identified as being relevant to cricket spectators. Further research on emotions will be able to utilise this emotion scale to understand the emotional experience of spectators as well as consumers in various contexts.

Practically, the research will help cricket management understand what emotions are important to their domestic cricket spectators and why. By showing how these emotions are related to overall game experience and return intentions, the results will help managers create strategies and techniques to ensure that the spectators have a positive game experience when attending a game and they also return to the game in the future. For instance, socialising was an important aspect of the game which causes emotions. Hence, the management need to provide more opportunities for socialising for different groups of spectators. Furthermore, marketing communication messages need to highlight

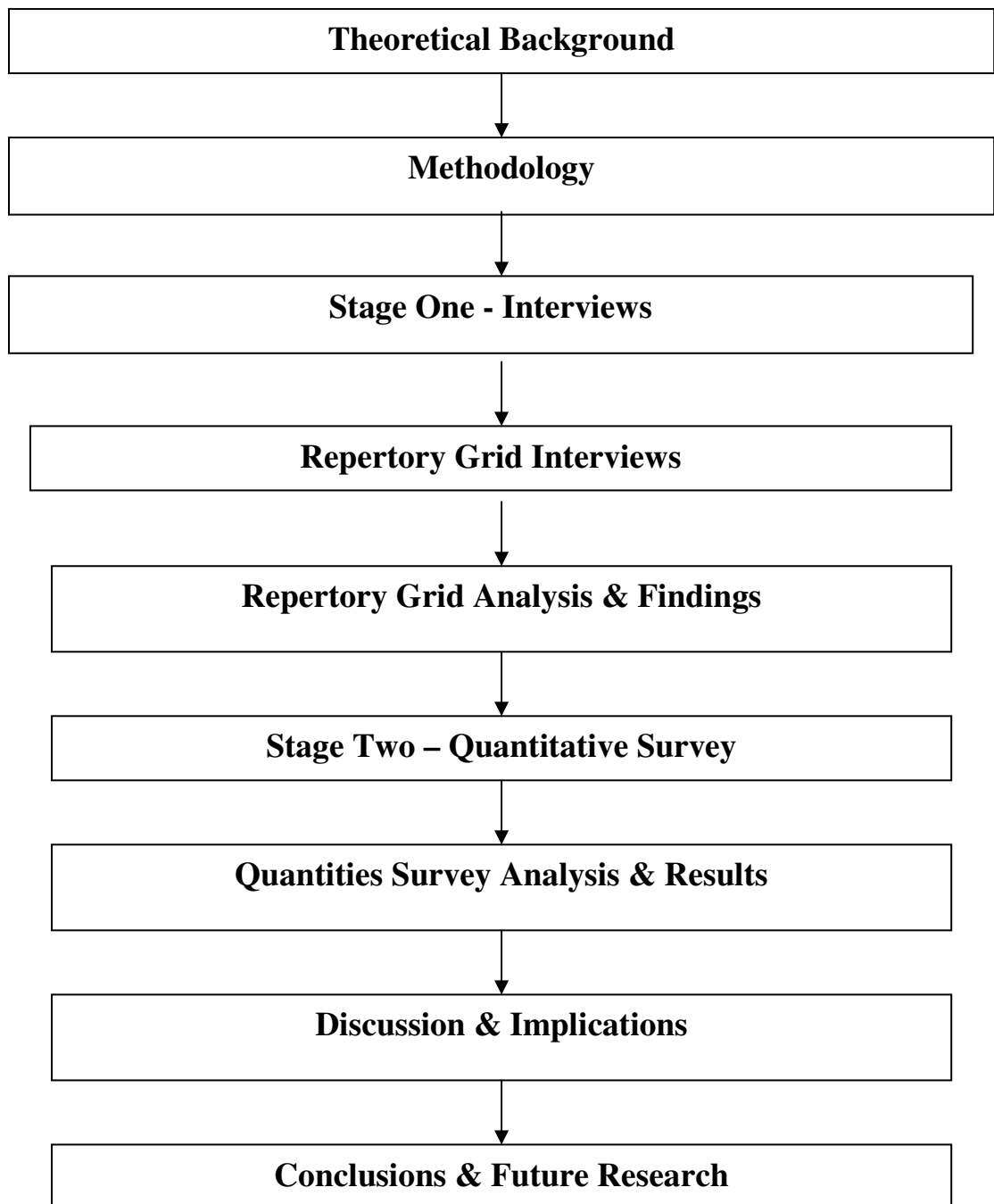
the positive emotional experience that spectators encounter at the games to attract spectators. Also, the positive experience at the end of a game needs to be capitalised on to ensure that spectators return to the game in the future through tactics such as discounted tickets for future games or customised membership packages.

#### **1.4. Structure of the Thesis**

The structure of the thesis is shown in Figure 1.2 below. The next chapter provides a detailed discussion on the theoretical background relevant to this study. It provides an overview of various emotion theories in psychology and also highlights the drawbacks of these theories. Personal construct theory is discussed in detail as an alternative approach to understanding emotions. Subsequently, literature of consumption emotions is reviewed to provide insights into how the concept has evolved over the years and the issues that are prevalent within the literature to date. It also provides a discussion on emotions research within sports marketing and highlights the need to understand emotions with regards to the overall game experience rather than only as a result of game outcome or team performance. Finally, it discusses the link between emotions and behaviour in order to detail the relationship between emotions and return intentions.

Chapter 3 discusses the methodology of the study. The chapter begins by examining the various research paradigms and the rationale for choosing the relativistic paradigm. Following this, the purpose of the research and the specific aims are discussed. The context of the research, cricket spectating, is discussed in terms of the nature of the industry and the major issues facing the management of cricket clubs and the governing body of cricket (England and Wales Cricket Board). The boundaries of the research are also discussed along with the rationale for focusing on the domestic one-day games.





*Figure 1.2 – Thesis Structure*

Chapter 4 outlines stage one of the research which is the interviews. The chapter begins by discussing qualitative research, the rationale for using qualitative methods as well as the research design for this stage. This chapter also discusses the importance of triangulation and how this will be achieved in this study. The specific qualitative technique proposed to be used here is examined along with the pilot study and the results.

Chapter 5 examines the repertory grid interviews. The pilot study discussed in Chapter 4 showed that the laddering technique initially planned for this study was not appropriate to identify emotions. As such, repertory grids were chosen as the research tool. The theory behind repertory grids, the procedure of grid interviews as well as the pilot study using the repertory grid technique are discussed. Finally, the repertory grid procedure followed in this study is detailed.

Chapter 6 outlines the techniques used to analyse the repertory grids and it discusses the results from various stages of this analysis procedure. The resulting emotions are examined with relevance to their definitions and their relationship with game experience and return intentions.

Chapter 7 sets out the purpose of stage two of this study, the quantitative survey. The research design for this stage of research is discussed as well as the rationale for making these decisions. The design and development of the questionnaire is also discussed in detail. Next, the chapter provides details on the survey procedure and the response rates obtained. Finally, the way in which validity and reliability are ensured and planned to be evaluated are outlined.

Chapter 8 examines the analysis and results of the survey. The chapter begins by discussing the how validity and reliability of the measures will be assessed. Following this, the descriptive statistics are provided. Details on how missing values are dealt with as well as the data distribution and breakdown of sample are provided. The factor analysis procedure used to analyse the emotion items is discussed in detail. The results of the factor analysis and the reliability of the scales are outlined. Finally correlation analysis is discussed to assess the relationship between the emotions, game experience and return intentions. Also, t-test and analysis of variance techniques are discussed to ascertain whether the emotions are experienced differently by different groups of spectators.

Chapter 9 provides a discussion of the triangulated findings from the two stages of the research (repertory grids and the survey). The emotions identified as being significant to domestic one-day cricket spectators are defined and discussed in terms of why they are experienced. Where appropriate, the different ways in which these emotions are

experienced by different groups of spectators are also discussed. The relationship between the emotions, game experience and return intentions are examined and compared to the existing research on similar concepts. Finally, both the theoretical and managerial implications of the findings are discussed.

Chapter 10 provides a conclusion of the study and highlights the key findings and implications of these findings. Subsequently, the chapter ends with the discussion of limitations of this study and future research that can be carried out to further the knowledge of emotional experience.

## ***Conclusions***

This chapter provided an overview of the thesis. It discussed the theoretical underpinnings of this study and set out the aims of the research. The triangulation of methods to be used in order to achieve the aims is also outlined. The findings from this research will have implications both to the theory of consumption emotions and measurement as well as practical implications for the cricket management. Finally, the remaining nine chapters and their contents are outlined.

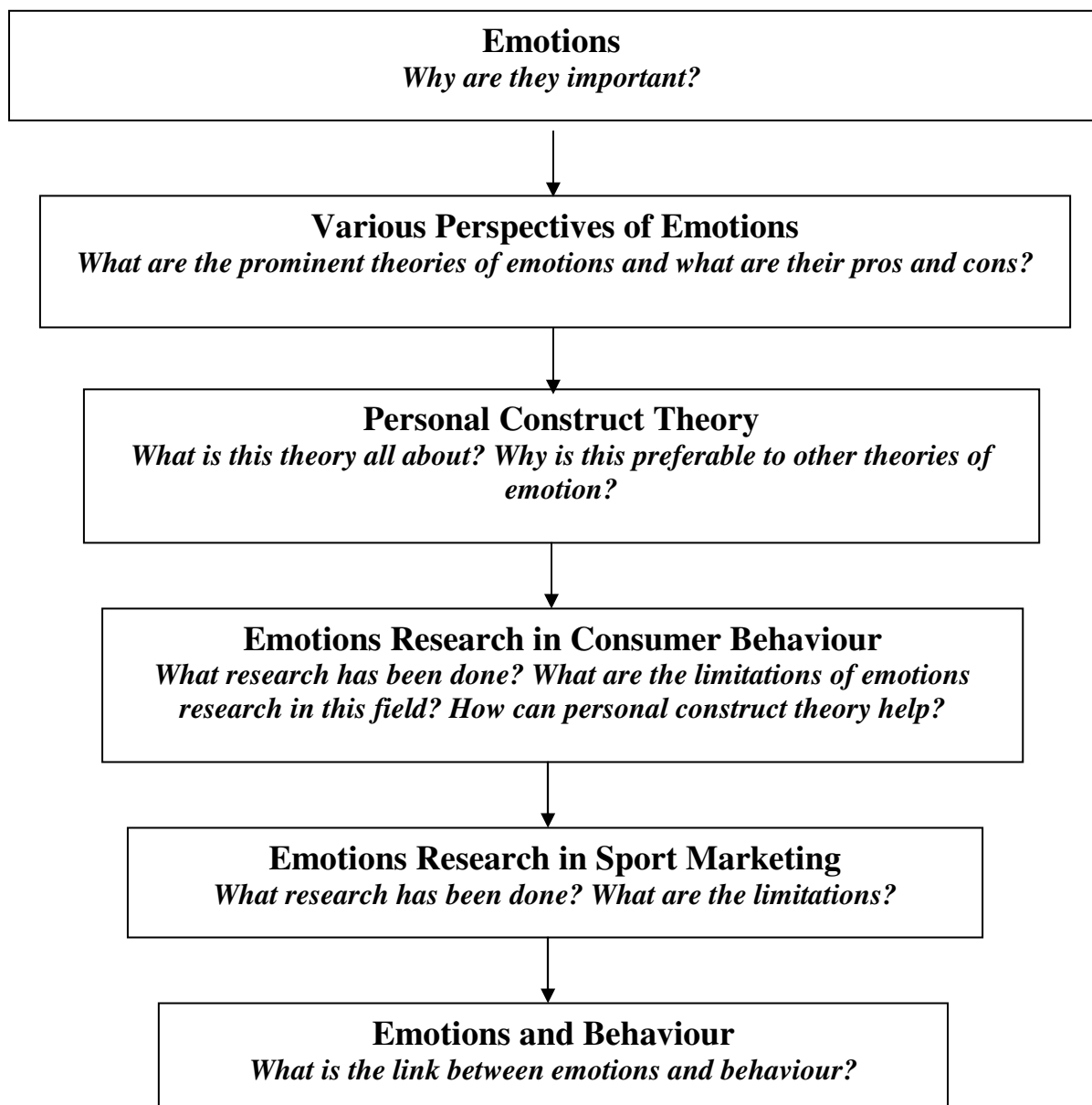
The next chapter provides a detailed discussion on the theoretical background of this study as well as highlighting the issue prevalent in the consumption emotions literature to date.

## *Chapter 2*

# THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

### *Chapter Introduction*

The aim of this chapter is to introduce and discuss the various theories that relate to the topic under investigation. In doing so the chapter also argues for the theoretical framework that has been adopted in this research. The structure of the chapter is presented in figure 2.1 and is discussed in detail below.



*Figure 2.1 - Structure of Chapter 2*

The chapter starts with a discussion on the importance of emotions. This is relevant in order to highlight what emotions are and why they are important enough to warrant research. Following this, brief overviews of various perspectives of emotions are discussed. Understanding the various perspectives of emotions is crucial as it helps understand and critically evaluate research that has been carried out in emotions. When the research project began, its starting point was to look at consumer behaviour literature and more specifically research on consumption emotions. Once engaged in this process of reviewing the literature on consumption emotions, the researcher was left feeling more confused than clarified. There was a multitude of research in this area that researched emotions in various contexts but there was not much coherence to this research. The literature on consumption emotions failed to provide an insight into what emotions are and how they are created and experienced. Furthermore, there was also extensive debate within the field on matters such as discrete dimensions of emotions, and rationality of emotions. Thus, there was a need to take a step back and start looking at emotions from the psychological perspective. Although it was soon evident that the topic of emotions is not going to be a straightforward or simple one, it nevertheless provided great insights into the questions that were unanswered by the literature on consumption emotions. It also helped in reviewing the research on consumption emotions better by providing an understanding of how these researches were treating emotions and why. Therefore, in order to provide context for the review of literature on consumption emotions, various perspectives of emotions are discussed here at the outset. The various perspectives of emotions also introduce personal construct theory (PCT). This theory is adopted in this research as the theoretical framework and section 2.4 discusses this theory in detail and highlights why this was preferred to some of the other perspectives discussed.

Once the theoretical framework is discussed in order to provide context, the literature on consumer behaviour and consumption emotions are reviewed. This review provides an insight into the importance of emotions in marketing and the various researches that have been carried out on consumption emotions. More importantly, this review also highlights the concerns and issues within the field of consumption emotions that hinder comprehensive understanding of emotions. This review ends by highlighting how the use of personal construct theory can be used to overcome these issues and help research in this field to progress.

The next section focuses on the emotions research in sport marketing. As the context for the current research is sports spectators' emotional experience, this section provides an insight into what research has been carried out in this field. Although there are numerous research studies that can be discussed under this section, it is felt that going into detailed discussion on spectators' motivation to attend games, for instance, would detract from the focus of the current research. As such it was decided to focus this discussion on research on emotions in sport marketing. This review highlights the importance of emotions in sport and also the limitation of emotions research in sport marketing. The review ends with the discussion of how this limitation (studying emotions as a result of game outcome) is planned to be avoided in this research as well as how personal construct theory can be used to understand spectators' emotional experience.

Finally, the theoretical background discussion ends with a brief visit to the literature on emotions and behavioural outcomes. This is because from a marketing perspective, understanding the consumer is crucial as it can also help predict how they may behave and thus develop strategies to encourage desired behaviour. In the context of the current research, understanding the emotional experience of spectators is desirable in order that the management can ensure they have a positive experience. However, it is crucial to also understand if providing positive game experience would encourage spectators to return to the game. Therefore, this chapter ends with a discussion on how emotional experience impacts behaviour.

## 2.1. EMOTIONS

‘Emotions matter because if we did not have them nothing else would matter’ (Elster 1999:403). This is also one of the major reasons as to why many authors have focussed on emotions as their central theme for their fields. These include; civilisation, art, delinquency and psychopathology (Hillman, 1962). Barbalet (2001) argued that emotions are essential for the structure of social order and harmonious social change. As Lazarus (1991) put it, ‘we would not understand people unless we understand their emotions’ (p3). The central tenet in marketing is to understand how and why consumers behave and make decisions so that organisations can create strategies to meet the customer needs (McDonald and Christopher, 2003). Thus, as well as the fields mentioned above, emotions are also central to the field of marketing and especially to consumer behaviour.

Despite this significant role of emotions in people’s everyday life and in various academic and professional fields such as marketing, sociology, and psychopathology, the topic of emotions remains the most incomplete. Hillman (1962) quotes the Encyclopaedia Britannica (1955) as stating, ‘our knowledge of the topic emotion is much less complete than our knowledge of other topics in the field of psychology’. Many authors who have written about emotions over the past decades continue to agree with this statement (e.g. Hillman 1962; Plutchik 1980; Lazarus 1991; O’Shaughnessy & O’Shaughnessy 2003) due to the amount of debate within this field with regards to what emotion is and how it occurs.

Lazarus (1991) claims that there was a resistance to emotion in academic psychology during the days when behaviourism and logical positivism was most prominent. This dominance of behaviourism and logical positivism is also evident within the academic discipline of marketing and its approaches to studying and understanding consumer behaviour (Foxall, 1990). However, there is an increasing awareness of the important role played by emotions amongst both academics and practitioners. As Oatley (1996) claims, ‘rather than seeing emotions as interfering with human action, it has become difficult to understand important classes of human action without referring to them,’ (p316).



The most difficult aspect of emotions is related to defining what emotions are and how they occur (Parkinson & Lea 1991). This is due to the fact that while acknowledging the similar characteristics that are common in all emotions, the definition also needs to account for the diversity of emotional experiences and their impacts (Taylor & Wilson 2005). However, many attempts have been made to define emotion in various ways.

Damasio (2000) defined emotions as a collection of responses to stimuli which are intense and publicly observable. Plutchik (1962), defining from a biological perspective, claims that emotion is a patterned bodily reaction to an underlying adaptive biological process common to all living beings. The definition widely used in sport psychology was provided by Deci (1980: 85) who defined it as;

‘a reaction to a stimulus event (either actual or imagined). It involves change in the viscera and musculature of the person, is experienced subjectively in characteristic ways, is expressed through such means as facial changes and action tendencies, and may mediate and energize subsequent behaviours’.

Izard (1977) argues that, in order to reflect the complex nature of emotions, a definition of emotion needs to consider; experience or conscious feeling of emotion; the brain and nervous system activity during emotional experience as well as the observable expressions of emotions. Lazarus (1991) however, advises that definition of emotions should stem from a theory of emotions. He claims that due to the various approaches to studying emotions, a unitary definition may not be possible. Each theory postulates an emotional process and resulting emotional experiences and thus it is wise to look at each theory and how it explains emotions.

## **2.2. Perspectives on Emotions**

Many early psychologists agreed that human beings are constantly experiencing emotions to some extent throughout their daily lives (e.g. Izard 1977; Schachtel 1959). It has been argued that, in a general sense, people know and recognise the causes of a certain emotion that they experience. However, emotion theorists for decades, have introduced and discussed a multitude of theories to explain how, why and what emotions are experienced by humans. These theories range from considering emotions as

uncontrollable responses to responses that can be controlled. For instance, some theorists maintain that emotions are a function of the autonomic nervous system. This means that emotions are intuitive responses over which the person has no control over (e.g. Arnold 1960). On the other hand, theorists such as Schachter (1971) claimed that emotions are a joint function of a physiologically arousing situation and the person's evaluation or appraisal of the situation. This view considers emotions as a function of the somatic nervous system which implies that emotions can, to some extent, be controlled by the individual.

Descriptions and explanations of the various perspectives on emotions are available in abundance. The following discussions on the different perspectives provides a brief overview of these perspective and are primarily based on Plutchik (1980), who provided a comprehensive discussion of them. He discussed four major perspectives on emotions. These are also sometimes referred to as the early theories of emotions (Strongman, 1978). Many theories and perspectives that were introduced later are, in some form or other, based on these major four perspectives (Strongman, 1978; Plutchik, 1980). Thus the four main perspectives are discussed first followed by three more perspectives that have gained prominence in modern day theories of emotions.

### ***2.2.1. Evolutionary Perspective***

This was the perspective introduced by Charles Darwin (1809-1882) following on from his theory of evolution. Humans share part of their evolutionary history with their other primates and mammals. Therefore, emotions of humans and primates should also be similar (Cornelius, 1996). Darwin saw emotions as necessary for survival as it generates reactions such as the fight or flight response in animals and humans. Because emotions evolved over time in primates and mammals similarly to that of their physical evolution, Darwin argued that emotions are universal. That is, all humans have universal features and therefore all humans have universal emotions. He was also interested in the emotional expressions of humans and animals as he argued that it serves the function of communication between species as well as within species (Plutchik, 1980). Darwin's primary concern was not subjective feelings but rather on expressive behaviour such as gestures, postures and facial expressions. This communicative function of emotions also lends well to the idea of universality of emotions. Due to the essential nature of existence and survival, most primary emotions are common not only to animals and humans but

there is also cross cultural universality. Thus, researchers within this perspective try to understand peoples' emotions by focussing on the emotional displays and expressions of humans.

### ***2.2.2. Psychophysiological Perspective***

This perspective was introduced by William James (1842-1910). This is also sometimes referred to as the James-Lange theory as another Danish physiologist named Carl Lange (1834-1900) also proposed a similar theory. James insisted that emotional experience is primarily the experience of bodily changes (Cornelius, 1996). Perception of a certain event or situation produces motor reaction leading onto visceral arousal and this results in emotional feelings. In other words, bodily changes follow perceptions of a situation and the feeling of these bodily changes is emotion. However, the theory does not fully account for the variation in bodily reactions when experiencing different emotions. This was a major criticism made of the theory by Cannon (1927). Cannon (1927) claimed that the same visceral changes occur in different emotions and also if one were to artificially induce visceral changes typical of strong emotions; it does not produce those emotions in people. The James-Lange theory claims that the bodily changes resulting in emotions is only applicable to 'coarser emotions' such as grief, fear and love. For subtler emotions such as intellectual and aesthetic feelings of pride and pleasure, this process does not apply (Plutchik, 1980). This is a major limitation of the theory and allows the study of only certain emotions that are seen as core to survival and neglects all other emotions that accompany that survival.

### ***2.2.3. Neurological Perspective***

Walter Cannon (1871-1945) was a staunch critic of the James-Lange theory and proposed the neurological perspective. This perspective is sometimes also known as the Cannon-Bard theory. Cannon claimed that environmental situation stimulates receptors which relay impulses to the cortex. The cortex stimulates thalamic processes which create emotional responses (Strongman, 1978). In contrast to the James-Lange theory which considered emotions to be the same as bodily reactions, the Cannon-Bard theory considers bodily reactions as well as emotions as a result of neurological activity of the brain. Thus, the emotional response in the Cannon-Bard theory refers to both emotional and bodily reactions which occur simultaneously. Recent research on emotion and

understanding emotions has followed neurological perspective and seeks to understand how the brain reactions result in emotions. However, as Lazarus (1999: 18-19) argues,

‘if we try to explain psychological processes by reference to physiology, we are in effect, trying to understand one set of obscurities, how the mind works, on the basis of another set of obscurities, how the brain works, and we end up thinking we have explained something by virtue of the neurological pathways they occupy in the brain, mistaking a label or a location for understanding.’

Others concur with this view and argue that reducing all the complexities that is psychology to neuroscience is nothing but reductionism (O’Shaughnessy and O’Shaughnessy, 2008).

#### ***2.2.4. Dynamic Perspective***

Introduced by Sigmund Freud (1856-1939), this dynamic perspective of emotions derives from his broader theory of psychoanalysis. Strongman (1978) summarised the psychoanalytic theories of emotions as,

‘substrates (psychic processes) underlying emotions are unconscious and the affects have been variously viewed as psychic energies, discharge processes of psychic energies, and manifestations of instinctual conflict’ (p30).

In the dynamic tradition, emotions are inferred on the basis of various behaviours. Thus, people who experience emotions do not themselves know what emotions they are experiencing. According to Freud, subjective feelings are only one type of emotion that humans feel. He claimed that certain emotions are suppressed by individuals. Therefore, verbal report of emotions by a person cannot be taken as accurate or as representing their feelings. A person’s dreams, postures, voice quality, facial expressions can all indicate emotions that the person denies they are experiencing. Freud’s focus therefore, was on the emotions that people are not aware of themselves (Plutchik, 1980). As will be discussed later in the perspective introduced by Kelly (1970), when seeking to understand any phenomena relating to a person, you cannot and should not disregard their own experience of it. In seeking to understand what emotions a person experiences and why, the starting point needs to be the person and their experience itself as opposed to what they ‘might’ be trying to suppress.

The three perspectives discussed below are more prominent in emotions research today and as Plutchik (1980) claims, linked in some way to the above discussed four perspectives of emotions. Before discussing these perspectives, a discussion on the concept of basic emotions is presented here. This would help understand why some of the later researchers and theorists reject the idea of basic emotions.

### ***2.2.5. Basic Emotions***

Darwin's discussion on the universality of emotions paved the way to the multitude of theories on the concept of basic emotions (e.g. Plutchik, 1980; Izzard, 1977; Ekman 1994). Many early perspectives on emotions such as the evolutionary perspective and the psychophysiological perspective accepted the existence of a set of basic emotions. As Plutchik (1980: 131) explains;

‘There is a small number of basic, primary, or prototype emotions. All other emotions are mixed or derivative states; that is, they occur as combinations, mixtures, or compounds of the primary emotions.’

Many psychologists who have had to grapple with the multitude of emotions and emotion terms prefer the basic emotions approach as it helps them to focus their research on understanding this basic set of emotions (Sabini and Silver, 2005). Several researchers such as Ekman (1994; 1999) introduced certain criteria which each emotion has to meet if they are to be classified as ‘basic’. This list includes criteria such as distinct universal signals, presence in other primates and distinctive physiology.

But the researchers who accept and adopt the basic emotions approach have been criticised for taking a reductionist route to study emotions (e.g. Solomon, 2002; Lazarus, 1991). Although some accept that reductionism may be necessary to research and understand a subject matter and it has helped emotions research to progress forward, reducing emotions to a basic set or list is too simplistic as it reduces the complexity and richness that is inherent in the subject matter of emotions (Solomon, 2002). Lazarus (1991) agrees with this view and claims that when basic or primary emotions become the sole focus of the majority of research and theory, the importance of non-primary emotions is understated. The non-primary or secondary emotions are treated as mere derivatives with their role in social, psychological and even biological sphere being ignored (Lazarus, 1991). It is also true that in attempting to make the study of emotions

more focussed, the concept of basic emotions has created some confusion. Although many researchers have classified and introduced sets of basic emotions they do not have much agreement or overlap. The basic emotion lists range from Spinoza's three basic emotions (joy, sorrow, and desire), Descartes' six primary emotions (love, hatred, desire, joy, sadness, and admiration) to Cattell's (1957) ten basic emotions (sex, fear, loneliness, pity, curiosity, pride, sensuous comfort, despair, sleepiness, and anger) (Plutchik, 1980). As Lazarus (1991) claims 'it is a bit perplexing that, despite the common phylogenetic outlook, theorists end up with only modest agreement on what are the basic emotions' (p79). Thus, many later perspectives on emotions such as the cognitive perspective and the social constructivist perspective reject the idea of basic emotions. It is accepted that certain emotions may be basic to humans. However, all emotions whether they are seen as basic or secondary, have an important role to play and should not be ignored if a holistic understanding of emotions is to be gained (Lazarus, 1991; Solomon, 2002).

#### ***2.2.6. Behavioural Perspective***

Although not attributed to any one theorist, Watson (1929) is generally seen as one of the first theorists to discuss emotions from a clearly behaviouristic perspective (Strongman, 1978). Behaviourists view emotions as hereditary and agree with some early perspectives such as evolutionary perspective in that people have innate, basic feelings. Also, behaviourists claim that these innate responses or feelings are conditioned over time. Thus, it is these conditioned feelings that behaviourists claim to be emotions. Stimulus-response theory was at the heart of behaviourism. It only focussed on the observable phenomenon of stimulus and the resulting response and neglected the mind and the individual experiencing a certain phenomenon (Lazarus, 1999). It is also possible to condition a person's emotional responses in such a way that he or she responds to a certain stimuli in a desired manner (e.g. Pavlov's classical and operant conditioning). Although the most popular period for behaviouristic theories was the first half of the twentieth century (Lazarus, 1999), it is still popular to this day. This popularity lies in its closeness to observed behaviour and relatively easy methods which can be used to empirically test the theories (Foxall, 1990). Mere explanation of what is observed, however, does not provide much insight into how and why certain phenomena occur and the emotions they elicit.

As Foxall (1990) explains, a radical behaviourist would seek to explain behaviour or actions by trying to identify causes of behaviour entirely in the environment without recourse to internal causes. However, 'a philosophy that emphasizes behaviour de-emphasizes introspection' (Plutchik, 1980: 26). Not understanding how the individual perceives a stimulus and why he feels or acts the way he does, cannot be said to provide a comprehensive understanding of how a person experiences a phenomenon and the emotions that go with it.

### ***2.2.7. Cognitive Perspective***

Cognitive psychology is the dominant paradigm for psychological and consumer behaviour research today. Nevertheless, the roots of the cognitive approach to emotions can be traced back to philosophers such as Aristotle (384-322 B.C.) and Epictetus (ca. 50-138) (Cornelius, 1996). Emotion and cognition was (to some extent still is) seen as two separate processes and Aristotle was among the first to make the relationship between emotion and reasoned argument clearer (Fortenbaugh, 1975). He argued that emotional response is a result of intelligent behaviour. For instance, a person becomes angry (emotional experience) at someone because his belief (cognition) about that person has been violated (Fortenbaugh, 1975).

As Lazarus (1999) claimed, 'emotions are the product of reason in that they flow from how we appraise what is happening in our lives (p87). The concept of 'appraisal', therefore, is an integral part of the cognitive theories of emotions. Cornelius (1996) explains appraisal as 'the process by which we judge the personal relevance of our situation of good or ill' (p114). So, individuals appraise or evaluate anything they encounter and the result of this appraisal is emotion (Plutchik, 1980). This is in contrast to some of the above mentioned perspectives of emotions which saw emotions as innate, universal and conditioned responses. Cognitive perspective argues that emotions are individual. Different emotions affect individuals differently and also the same emotion can affect the individual in different ways based on the context in which the emotion is experienced in.

'The implications of appraisal theories are that emotions do not unfold in a hardwired way in responses to certain situations or objects, but that the emotional significance of the events and objects depends on the goals and the perceived

coping capacities of each individual in a given situation.’ (Niedenthal, et al. 2006:17)

Even with its popular and dominant position, cognitive perspective has been subject to criticism. One of these relates to the concept of appraisal itself. Most researchers within the cognitive perspective implicitly assume that appraisal is a single, discreet event. That is, once a person appraises something and experiences an emotion, this then becomes the end of the process. However, it is ‘an ongoing series of evaluations of and reactions to environmental events that include a person’s more or less continuous re-evaluation of his or her responses to it’ (Cornelius, 1996:147). As will be discussed later, in personal construct theory, Kelly (1955) proposed a similar approach to emotions involving emotions that relies on ongoing appraisal.

#### ***2.2.8. Social Constructionist Perspective***

The social constructionist perspective of emotions claims that an individual is the product of his or her social community and culture and they are involved in social roles that are acceptable and encouraged by this society (Lazarus, 1991). This is a perspective that is becoming increasingly popular among researchers in psychology and emotions (Cornelius, 1996). Similarly to that of cognitive approach, this perspective ‘rejects the idea that there are biological realities, or nativism, and suggests that most human states, artefacts, and conditions are societal constructions that serve certain overarching goals of the society’ (Niedenthal et al, 2006: 19).

One of the prominent researchers within social constructionist perspective defined emotions within this perspective as below;

‘a transitory social role (a socially constituted syndrome) that includes an individual’s appraisal of the situation and that is interpreted as a passion rather than an action’ (Averill, 1980: 312).

Cognitive and social constructionist perspectives of emotion are similar in that they advocate the role of appraisal for an emotion to occur. The differentiating factor is that the social constructionists claim that the way in which a person appraises his environment is culturally and socially determined. Social constructionist perspective also rejects the idea of basic or core emotions. Within this perspective, societies can shape and construct



as many different and infinite numbers of emotions that are relevant and functional within the social system (Averill, 1980).

The personal construct theory introduced by Kelly (1955) combines the appraisal element of emotions as well as allowing for the social and personal construction of emotions. As such, personal construct theory provides a more holistic way to understand human behaviour and emotional experiences. Therefore, the current research adopts Kelly's (1955) perspective on emotions and is discussed below.

### **2.3. Personal Construct Theory**

Psychology is often defined as 'the science of behaviour' (Hinkle, 1970:101). It is comprised of a group of systems developed to explain human behaviour. Within this broad definition, many psychologists have propagated various approaches or systems to study and explain human behaviour some of which were discussed above. The most prominent ones that are practised to this day to study personality and behaviour are psychoanalytic, trait and behaviouristic theories. These various theories arose as responses to prevalent social problems of the time. Sigmund Freud's theory of how people evolve based on their childhood environment developed out of his clinical practice. One main criticism levelled at his theory is the applicability of it to mainstream population (Burr & Butt, 1992). An alternative approach to personality study put forth by psychologists such as Hans Eysenck was that of Trait theory (Burr & Butt, 1992). This approach aims to classify people along personality dimensions or traits (i.e. introvert vs. extrovert). In contrast to psychoanalytic and trait theories, which seemed to imply that personalities and humans are inflexible, behaviourist theories evolved. Behaviourist theories were centred on the idea of observing, measuring and thereby predicting human behaviour (Burr & Butt, 1992). Through theories such as Pavlov's classical conditioning and Skinner's operant conditioning, the behaviourist perspective propagated that people's behaviour can be change over time through learning. Then there was the introduction of cognitive psychology which focussed on memory, problem solving and decision making. This cognitive approach has been well received in the field of marketing as it provides marketers with a clearer explanation of how and why consumers make purchase decisions (e.g. Gutman, 1982).

The above mentioned approaches and theories of psychology were mostly being approached from a positivistic paradigm which was dominant during that era (Stewart & Stewart, 1981). Many have criticised psychologists who propagate and adopt these theories for compromising genuine knowledge within the field in their quest to be accepted as scientists by the largely positivistic scientific community (Bannister & Fransella, 1986; Lazarus, 1999). Amidst this environment, George Kelly (1955) developed the personal construct theory. Kelly's (1955) theory was developed in response to the criticisms of other psychology theories discussed above, namely:

- The need for a comprehensive theory that can account for the person as a whole as opposed to viewing humans as compartmentalised moulds.
- The need for a humanistic approach to studying the person as being capable of changing one's self and actions to represent the environment. A person who is capable of learning through their experiences and constructions of the world as opposed to being forced to change through operant or classical conditioning.
- The need for a reflexive theory that not only looked at how scientists can study humans but also accounted for the role of the person in the study. (Carroll & Carroll, 1981).

Kelly (1970) described personal construct theory as 'a theory of man's personal inquiry – a psychology of the human quest' (p1). He further sought to distinguish the theory from other theories by saying,

'...a dynamic psychology without the trappings of animism, a perceptual psychology without passivity, a behaviourism in which the behaving person is credited with having some sense, a learning theory in which learning is considered so universal that it appears in the postulate rather than as a special class of phenomena, a motivational theory in which man is neither pricked into action by sharp points of stimuli nor dyed with the deep tones of hedonism, and a view of personality which permits psychotherapy to appear both lawful and plausible.'  
(Kelly, 1963:49-50)

The philosophical underpinning of the theory derives from the relativistic paradigm. Kelly believed in what he termed 'constructive alternativism' where all knowledge and information are subject to alternative constructions. Thus, all present perceptions held by an individual are open to question and reconstruction. People themselves place their own construction or meaning on any event or situation that they experience in life (Kelly, 1970). It is this personal construct system that the theory seeks to unveil. Kelly proposed

that you only understand the person and his world by understanding how he construes the world around him.

Although Kelly developed his theory due to his dissatisfaction with the existing psychological theories to study human beings, he did not propagate it as a rival or contradictory theory. He acknowledged that psychologists have been using those theories for years to understand human behaviour so they cannot be discarded offhandedly. Personal construct theory was put forth merely as an alternative approach to the study of human beings (Bannister and Fransella, 1986). As Foxall (1990) stated 'the emergence of a unitary, coherent theory of human behaviour is improbable and almost certainly undesirable' (p172). Various approaches to studying human behaviour and emotions would increase the depth of understanding of the subject matter. Cornelius (1996) uses the analogy of the three blind men describing the elephant to explain the need for multiple views on emotion. The various descriptions of the elephant given by the blind men only describe one aspect of the elephant. No person with a single point of view can explain the full elephant and similarly no person with a single point of view can explain the total phenomenon of emotions (Hillman, 1962). Thus, personal construct theory provides an alternative approach to understand human behaviour and emotions.

Personal construct theory is formally stated as a fundamental postulate and eleven corollaries (Kelly, 1970) as shown in Table 1. Kelly (1963) explained a postulate as 'the most basic assumption, upon which all subsequent statements must stand' (p45). Corollaries are the elaborations of the basic postulate into related assumptions or relationships (Kelly, 1963).

**Table 2.1: Postulate and Corollaries of Personal Construct Theory (Kelly, 1963)**

<b>Fundamental Postulate</b>	<b>A person's processes are psychologically channelised by the way in which he anticipates events.</b>
Construction Corollary	<b>A person anticipates events by construing their replications.</b>
Individuality Corollary	<b>Persons differ from each other in their construction of events.</b>
Organisation Corollary	<b>Each person characteristically evolves for his convenience in anticipating events, a construction system embracing ordinal relationships between constructs.</b>
Dichotomy Corollary	<b>A person's construction system is composed of a finite number of dichotomous constructs.</b>
Choice Corollary	<b>A person chooses for himself that alternative in a dichotomised construct through which he anticipates the greater possibility for the elaboration of his system.</b>
Range Corollary	<b>A construct is convenient for the anticipation of a finite range of events only.</b>
Experience Corollary	<b>A person's construction system varies as he successively constructs the replications of events.</b>
Modulation Corollary	<b>The variation in a person's construction system is limited by the permeability of the constructs within whose range of convenience the variant lies.</b>
Fragmentation Corollary	<b>A person may successfully employ a variety of construction subsystems which are inferentially incompatible with each other.</b>
Commonality Corollary	<b>To the extent that one person employs a construction of experience which is similar to that employed by another; his processes are psychologically similar to those of the other person.</b>
Sociality Corollary	<b>To the extent that one person construes the construction processes of another; they may play a role in a social process involving the other person.</b>

### ***2.3.1. Personal Construct Theory and Emotions***

Personal construct theory has been relatively underused by many researchers as well as practitioners or therapists due to its high level of abstraction (Burr and Butt, 1992). The development of personal construct theory was based on the premise that other theories that were present at the time were unsatisfactory as they failed to encompass the totality of the complex human being and his or her phenomena. Therefore, Kelly sought to provide a more holistic alternative which was at a higher level of abstraction in order to embrace the totality of human phenomenon (McCoy, 1981). Although criticisms have been levelled at personal construct theory due to its high level of abstraction, Kelly had chosen to present his theory in such a way for a purpose. As Butler and Green (1998: 7) explain,

‘It is unlikely that this omission from Kelly’s writing was mere oversight on his part. Rather, he preferred to make those who chose to follow the personal construct way work out the implications of his ideas for themselves.’

This abstract level of discussion meant that Kelly did not address issues such as cognition and emotions as separate entities in his theory. His theory, in its statement of corollaries paved the way to his view on emotions. Kelly (1955) discussed his view of emotions by referring to it as ‘dimensions of transition’.

According to personal construct theory, people live and give meaning to their lives as well as try to understand their world by construing life events. The action of construing is an ongoing process in which a person predicts future events by hypothesising what might happen at such an event, testing these hypotheses out, and if necessary revising these hypotheses (Winter, 1992). The experience of emotions is inherently linked to this process of construing and re-construing as emotions arise when a person undergoes a change to their construct system (Winter, 1992; Butler and Green, 1998). This change to the construct system is referred to as dimension of transitions.

Personal construct theory views motivation as an important aspect. However, it rejects the idea of hedonistic motivation where man lives to seek pleasure and avoid unpleasantness (Winter, 1992). Rather, it accepts that man’s motivation is to better understand and thereby better predict the events in his life. As Kelly (1963) explained ‘our lives are wholly oriented towards the anticipation of events’ (p157). The experience of emotions

in personal construct theory is based on this view of motivation. Therefore, when a person's constructs are validated, that is to say that their belief or expectation about something is proven to be correct, then the person experiences emotions that are positive or pleasant in nature (e.g. satisfaction, happiness). When the constructs are invalidated, a person experiences negative emotions such as threat and fear (McCoy, 1981). What specific emotion is experienced would depend on the nature of construct that has either been validated or invalidated. For example, John believes that he is a 'kind' person. This belief about himself is important to him as it forms part of his identity. When he performs an act of kindness and helps someone, his belief of himself as being kind is confirmed or in other words, that particular construct of his is validated. This validation of one of his core constructs makes him happy. John also believes that his friend is trustworthy. When he finds that his friend has lied to him, this belief about his friend is violated and thus his construct regarding this friend has been invalidated. This invalidation of construct makes him angry. The various emotions that were specifically discussed by Kelly (1955) and later by McCoy (1977; 1981) will be discussed further in Chapter 6 and Chapter 9.

### ***2.3.2. Personal Construct Theory, Cognitive, and Social Constructivist Perspectives***

Personal construct theory and its view of emotions is similar to some of the perspectives of emotions discussed before. Kelly proposed that different people impose different interpretations on the same events (Adams-Webber, 1981). This is represented in one of the corollaries of the theory, individuality corollary, which states that persons differ from each other in their construction of events. People have different construction systems and construe events based on their individual construction systems (Kelly, 1955). This means that each person's emotional experience based on these various constructions of events would also be different. So, even if faced with the same situation, the emotions experienced by two different individuals may be different. Thus, similarly to that of cognitive and social constructivist perspective of emotions, personal construct theory of emotions also rejects the notion of universal emotions. Also in a similar vein to that of cognitive and social constructivist perspectives, personal construct theory rejects the idea of basic or primary emotions. Even though Kelly (1955) defined a set of emotions which was later expanded by McCoy (1977), these were not provided as a set of basic emotions but an explanation of some emotions that may occur when constructs are validated and invalidated. Kelly proposed that each person has a set of constructs that are relevant to

him or her. This is referred to as the person's individual construct system (Kelly, 1955). It is this individual construct system that would be the basis of assessing if a certain construct is validated or invalidated. As this system is different from person to person and the emotions they experience are different, there cannot be a set of basic or primary emotions that are unitary to all individuals.

Kelly places great emphasis on individuality of construct systems and thus individuality of experiences. However, he acknowledged that people can find common ground in relation to constructs and experiences. This is depicted in the commonality and the sociality corollaries. The commonality corollary states that to the extent that one person employs a construction of experience which is similar to that employed by another; his processes are psychologically similar to those of the other person. So, it is possible for two separate individuals to anticipate a certain event similarly and thus their construing of that event and consequent behaviour may be similar. However, Kelly explains that 'it is not the similarity of experience which provides the basis for similarity of action, but similarity of their present construction of that experience' (Kelly, 1963:92). The sociality corollary states that to the extent that one person construes the construction processes of another, they may play a role in a social process involving the other person. This does not contradict the individuality of the construction system which was discussed above. It merely accepts and acknowledges that due to various environmental influences, people may have certain common constructs and beliefs about certain phenomenon and this means that they may have similar experiences relating to that particular phenomenon. As Kelly (1963) himself put it 'there is a difference between two people's holding the same construction system and two people's understanding each other so that they can play roles in relation to each other' (p100). The commonality and sociality corollaries sit well with the social constructivist perspective to emotions in that it accepts the role of constructions and experiences in playing social roles. The point of departure is that social constructivists believe that one appraises an event or situation based on the values and expectations of the society. In personal construct theory, although a person's construct or beliefs may have been formed due to social and cultural norms, the person is not imprisoned by these. Their appraisal of events and situations is based on their own constructs and thus as a result of this appraisal they may either confirm beliefs of a social system or culture or change these beliefs or constructions. This resulting change in

beliefs does not mean that a person is no longer part of that society or culture but that the role they play within that society or culture may change.

Although some cognitive theorists believe that personal construct theory is a form of cognitive theory, Kelly is said to have strongly denied that his theory was cognitive in nature (Winter and Watson, 1999). Similar to that of cognitive and social constructivist approaches, emotional experience within personal construct theory involves some form of appraisal. A person needs to appraise or evaluate his or her construct or belief when experiencing an event or situation. The validation and invalidation of the constructs which produces emotional experience is as a result of this appraisal or evaluation. Kelly's attempt to distance himself from cognitive perspectives can be related to some of the problems associated with cognitive psychology. The purely positivistic nature of the cognitive movement has made the theories within this perspective very artificial and unyielding. As Lazarus (1991: 134) explains,

‘Classical thought about perception and modern approaches to cognition define cognitive science as having to do primarily with how an environment display gets attended to, registered, encoded, transformed, stored, and retrieved, leading to decision making. The framework is largely *veridical* in that interest centres on the match between knowledge, action, and the objective world; *normative* in that the focus is on how people in general rather than individually deal with the environment; and *cold* rather than hot in that there is little interest in emotions, personal beliefs, motives, and the sociocultural factors influencing cognitive activity.’

Personal construct theory, on the other hand, focuses on how individuals deal with the environment while accepting the existence of commonality. It allows for personal beliefs which may have been developed through individual experiences as well as sociocultural factors. Thus it is much more holistic in nature than a pure cognitive approach.

Researchers such as Lazarus (1991) however, introduced a more humane perspective of cognitivism which has more common links to personal construct theory. Lazarus (1991) introduced the cognitive-relational-motivational (c-r-m) theory of emotions. His theory was expressed in five metatheoretical themes some of which share common ground with personal construct theory. For instance, the c-r-m theory proposes a system, process and development principle. The system principle is similar to personal construct theory in that it accepts that the emotional experience is a system of processes that include variables such as antecedents, mediating process and outcome. In personal construct theory terms,



the antecedent would be the existing construct or belief, mediating process would be the evaluation of the constructs against the event or situation, and the outcome would be either the validation or invalidation of constructs resulting in emotional experience. The process and development principle proposes that people's experiences and appraisal change as their construction changes. While the common principle of appraisal is central to both personal construct theory and the c-r-m theory, Lazarus' (1991) theory is limited in that it fails to accommodate how a commonality between experiences is gained between individuals and within a society. Personal construct theory, on the other hand, explains how commonality of experiences and therefore common emotions can be experienced by individuals as discussed above.

## **2.4. Emotions in Consumer Behaviour**

### ***2.4.1. Emotions vs. Reason***

Following an extensive review of early psychologists' work, Izard (1977) identified two major opinions with regards to the place of emotions in life. The first opinion considers humans as rational beings whose reasons for being are primarily cognitive and intellectual in nature. This opinion thus regards emotions as a hindrance to human development and views emotions as subordinate to cognition and reason. The second opinion considers humans as emotional or emotional-social beings whose reasons for living are primarily affective or emotional in nature. Within the field of marketing, the beginnings of consumer behaviour studies adopted the former view of humans as rational beings. This approach seems to have been favoured by many marketers and consumer behaviour researchers whose early work focussed on rational approaches to consumer decision making and satisfaction (e.g. Engel, et al., 1968; Howard and Sheth, 1969; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). This is also true for researchers in advertising who preferred the use of cognitive, rational models of advertising effect (Hansen, 2005) such as the AIDA, which propagates that any form of communication that a person encounters goes through the stages of creating Attention, Interest, Desire, and Action (Copeland, 1925 cited in Hansen, 2005).

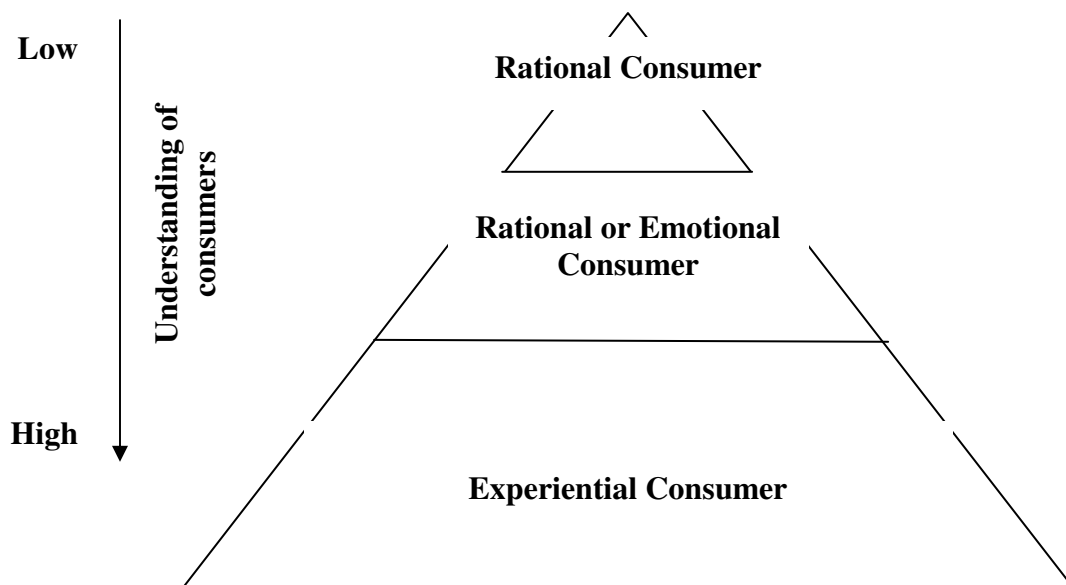
The latter view identified by Izard (1977) of humans as emotional entities started to gain acceptance in marketing and consumer behaviour research from around the 1980s. Pioneering views propagated by researchers such as Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) paved the way to viewing consumption as an experience. Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) argued that in contrast to the older view of the consumer as information processor, the whole consumption experience needs to be seen as a steady flow of fantasies, feelings and fun. Figure 2.2 below demonstrates the evolution of consumer behaviour theory perspectives over time. As shown in this figure below, marketers' and consumer behaviourists' understanding of the nature of consumption and their consumers were relatively narrow while they viewed consumers as purely rational beings (e.g. Howard and Sheth, 1969; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). When the debate of whether consumers are rational or emotional began, this helped enhance the understanding of the nature of consumption and consumers (e.g. Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). This view has evolved further in recent years whereby consumption is no longer limited to purchase or use of the product or service. Rather every consumption is an experience that a consumer undergoes (e.g. Duffy and Hooper, 2003; Carù and Cova, 2007).

As Duffy and Hooper (2003: 6) argue,

‘Whilst consumers may have historically purchased products, people now want to immerse themselves in positive experiences that address their needs, concerns, hopes, and aspirations.’

Some authors take this view even further by claiming that,

‘It is through consumption that people build up and reinforce their identities, which are increasingly eroded by factors such as unemployment, divorce, the break-up of a family, mobility, etc. We no longer simply “run a few errands” - we now “live experiences,” usually ones that are embodied as they call upon all of our senses.’ (Carù and Cova, 2007: 5)



*Figure 2.2 - Evolvement of the nature of consumer in marketing and consumer behaviour.*

The need of consumers to transform the daily mundane nature of their lives into fulfilling and satisfying experiences meant that marketers had to focus more and more on providing experiences rather than merely selling a product or service. As Carù and Cova (2007) explain, there are some salient attributes of experiential consumption. These are:

- 1) Consumers are not only consumers – the meaning of the term consumer has moved beyond the simple purchaser and user of the product to that of someone who chooses a specific experience and spends time and money to attain that experience.
- 2) Consumers act within situations – consumers actions are no longer limited to pre purchase activities such as the search for information or post purchase evaluation of the product or service. Consumers are willing and increasingly expect to be part of the consumption experience and act as co-creators of these experiences.
- 3) Consumers seek meaning – It is no longer sufficient for the product or service to merely satisfy a need or fulfil a task. The product or service purchased needs to be able to tap into the consumers ‘self-identity’.
- 4) Consumption involves more than mere purchasing – consumer satisfaction is no longer assessed by the fact that they have purchased the product and have not experienced post-purchase dissonance. Rather it is a holistic experience that

begins from before the product or service is purchased, the experience of using the product or service through to the completion of the experience at the end of the usage.

The experiential nature of consumption is also reflected in the branding and advertising literature whereby benefit-driven brand messages (targeting so-called rational consumers) were being replaced in the late 1990s by emotional branding (Thompson et al, 2006). It was acknowledged that emotion rich brand messages that resonated with the consumer's need for experiencing a product/service would help build better brand images. This demonstrates the necessity and importance of emotions not only in consumption behaviour but in the wider marketing field. Due to these changes in perception by the marketing field, a new phenomenon within the field and specifically within consumer behaviour started to increase in prominence. This was known as 'consumption emotions'. Westbrook and Oliver (1991: 85) defined consumption emotions as 'the set of emotional responses elicited specifically during product usage or consumption experiences'.

Consumption emotions are different to moods. Moods are an individual's affective state that does not necessarily relate to any specific event. Emotions on the other hand are more intense, related to specific events and results in specific behaviour (Gardner, 1985). Some researchers have argued that consumption emotions should be differentiated from other emotions that people experience in day to day lives (Han and Back, 2006). They argue that compared to seeing a child take his or her first steps, trying out a new CD player would elicit a less intense emotion. This may not always be the case. For instance, an individual making a first house purchase would experience intense emotions as would one's favourite football team losing the final game of the world cup. Thus, emotions are context specific. What emotions are experienced and with what intensity depends on the context within which it is experienced. Mudie et al (2003) found evidence for this within the service setting whereby emotions experienced differed by the type of service consumed. For instance, theatre consumers in Mudie et al's (2003) study experienced more positive experiences compared to consumers of a health club, dry cleaners and a garage.

The contemporary marketing theories and practices have modified and changed to fit in with the changing nature of consumption. Whereas once relationship marketing was the

prominent, contemporary marketing principle that adds value to the customer, the latest concept to be included in the marketing and consumer behaviour sphere is that of experience management. As Schmitt (2003) explains, customer experience management is the process of strategically managing the entire experience of a customer. The process of managing customer experience involves five stages (Schmitt, 2003) as follows:

- 1) Analysing the experiential world of the customer
- 2) Building the experiential platform
- 3) Designing the brand experience
- 4) Structuring the customer interface
- 5) Engaging in continuous innovation

As these steps suggest, the process starts with the understanding of what experience the customer already has and what experiences they seek. Once the organisation has achieved this in-depth understanding of the customer, then the next step is to design and develop the experience. As the final stage recommends, organisations need to continuously recreate their experiences using innovative ideas and techniques. This is important as the customers may become very familiar with the experience and thereby it would become another routine and uninteresting activity which fails to tap into their senses and emotions. These stages of customer experience management suggest that the experience needs to be planned extremely carefully and executed without error. However, some authors argue that the inherent nature of individual customer experience means that too much structuring of the experience can in actual fact transpire into a negative experience (e.g. Sherry et al, 2007; Carù and Cova, 2007). As such, it is more advisable to give customers a degree of freedom to co-create their own experiences. This enhances the authenticity and meaning of the experience. As Sherry et al (2007: 30) explain,

‘Marketers may think that their job is to provide a prepackaged total experience - but consumers must add their dreams, ideals, values, history, meanings, and personalities to these raw ingredients. In the end, it is only the consumers’ experience that counts.’

When customers seek out products and services that provide fulfilling experiences, the role of emotions in the consumption process takes on greater prominence. This is reflected in the recent marketing literature and more specifically consumer behaviour literature which has started to focus more on emotions in consumption as discussed below.

#### ***2.4.2. Emotions Research in Marketing and Consumer Behaviour***

Many researchers have suggested that what emotions are experienced and how these emotions are experienced depends on the particular product or service that is being consumed. The context specificity of emotions meant that emotions have been researched in a multitude of consumption related contexts including, services, shopping, brand image, and advertising. Neo and Murrell (1993) confirmed this context specificity through their research of emotions whilst shopping. The authors sought to identify whether customers' emotional experience of shopping would differ based on their shopping for personal consumption and shopping for others. The results confirmed that even within the context of shopping, the experience of emotions can vary depending on whether one shops for personal use or whether one shops for someone else.

As discussed before, within the broader field of marketing the prevalent idea of rational consumer is changing to the consensus of an 'experiential' consumer. In light of this, emerging literature on emotions sought to identify whether concepts that were seen as purely rational and cognitive also had an emotional element. For instance, Chaudhuri (1997) investigated the concept of perceived risk which was seen as a purely rational judgement. The author found that consumers of products and services who experienced negative emotions see these products as posing a risk to their experience. This meant that the perceived risk of this product or service would be seen as high. At the other end of the spectrum, Lee et al (2008) investigated the relevance of emotions within a purely hedonistic context, festival attendance. The authors found that the various aspects that make up the festivalscape (general atmosphere experienced by festival patrons) such as facility and food, have an impact on emotions and patron satisfaction with the festival.

Within the context of advertising and branding, many researchers have sought to identify the role of emotions in creating product and service perceptions as well as the effects of using emotions in communications. Madrigal and Bee (2005) investigated the emotional nature of suspenseful and non-suspenseful television commercials. These authors found that hope and fear are two emotions viewers experience when watching suspenseful commercials. They established that the experience of hope and fear, which made a commercial suspenseful, would produce a more favourable attitude towards the advert as well as create greater enjoyment of it. Research has also found that using negative affect in advertising is more effective (Cotte and Ritchie, 2005). The authors found that using

negative emotions in communications helps break through the clutter of information in advertising and create a sense of shock in viewers. This shock enables them to focus on the information that is relevant and also encourages them to act on this information. This tactic is commonly used by charities where images of poverty and child suffering are used as negative emotional cues to shock viewers into action. Olsen and Pracejus (2004) found evidence that using opposite emotions in a single communication created a more effective response among the target audience. The authors found that using negative emotive stimuli followed by positive emotive stimuli enabled the viewers to perceive the message more positively, thus creating a positive attitude towards the product or service being advertised. In specific reference to branding, Schoenfelder and Harris (2004) investigated the various aspects that influence brand credibility. With reference to leading brands of mobile phone manufacturers, the authors found that consumers' perceptions of corporate brand credibility are based on the emotional experience of their brand associations rather than on obvious, rational ones such as quality, functionality, and price.

Research in emotions proves that, when experiencing a product or service, consumers are exposed to various stimuli and these various stimuli elicit a range of emotions (Neo and Murrell, 1993). The various emotions experienced have been proven to have an impact on satisfaction, dissatisfaction and other related concepts such as future behavioural intentions. For instance, Jang and Namkung (2009) found that within a restaurant service context, emotions influence perceived quality and behavioural intentions. Dubé and Morgan (1996) argued that when people experience products and services they experience various emotions. When this consumption is carried out over time at various points in time, the emotions experienced at each consumption stage combine to form a retrospective judgement of consumption emotion relating to that specific product or service. The authors argued that this retrospective judgement of consumption emotion is important as this is more durable and thus can help create long term attitude of the product/service and loyalty towards the product/service. As well as behavioural intentions, emotions have also been found to have an impact on the duration of consumption. Holbrook and Gardner (1998) found that when people feel sensory arousal and pleasure when listening to music, they are highly likely to listen to that piece of music for longer.

In light of the research that demonstrated that emotions have an impact on satisfaction and behaviour, Maute and Dubé (1999) sought to identify emotional experience following a dissatisfying consumption experience. The authors used a failed airline service setting to identify that emotional responses following a dissatisfying service experience have a longer lasting impact and thus are more important than cognitive evaluations of the service. This emphasises the importance of service recovery in creating positive emotions and thereby positive experiences of consumers.

Since the introduction of emotion within the broader field of marketing, numerous research studies have been carried out in various contexts. The above discussion provided a brief overview of some of the contexts within which emotions research has been conducted and the nature of emotions as discovered within various contexts. This demonstrates the relevance of emotions across contexts. Recently, Schoefer and Ennew (2005) investigated the context of service recovery and claimed that service recovery is an event that would elicit emotions. However, it can be argued that there is no such thing as a context that does not elicit emotions. Some situations may elicit emotions that are more intense than others but emotions are still inherent in every consumption experience (Richins, 1997). Isen (2001) reviewed the literature on emotions and concluded that positive affect has far reaching consequences. When people feel positive and happy they become more generous, more receptive to information, more creative, more able to cope with potential problems, and make better decisions.

As Richins (1997) states, 'the importance of emotions in the sphere of consumer behaviour has been firmly established' (p127). So, the question should no longer be that of whether emotions are relevant in various contexts but that of how we can better understand emotional experiences of consumers in various contexts. Even though research in emotions within marketing and consumer behaviour has made great strides, there still remain problems that inhibit the researchers from gaining even deeper understanding of the subject. These problems relate to conceptual issues relating to emotions that have not been clarified and thus used with varying results. For example, while most research provides evidence for the existence and importance of emotions in consumption, some research has found contradictory evidence. Price et al. (1995) found that on average, consumers have little or no emotional response to brief or extended service encounters. This view agrees with that of Westbrook and Oliver (1991) who



found that in car purchasing, consumers can be satisfied without feeling emotional. Burns and Neisner (2006), on the other hand, found that cognitive evaluation is more important than emotional reaction with regards to satisfaction with a retail experience. Authors have suggested that the contradiction in evidence is due to the fact that emotions research in marketing is often adopted from psychology and thus does not relate to marketing specifically (Huang, 2001). Thus a new theory of emotions in marketing is called for. However, Huang (2001) who proposes a theory of emotions in marketing does not focus on some of the problems that are inherent in the prevalent theories and researches in marketing. For instance, the author ignores the important issues of dimensionality versus discrete emotions and the nature of rationality and cognitions in emotions. Developing theories of emotions without due consideration to these issues would only add to the problems. These problems within emotions research in marketing are discussed below, namely;

- Problem of the concept of 'rationality'
- Problem of the nature of emotions
- Problem of the concept of satisfaction.

#### ***2.4.3. Problem of the concept of rationality***

Consumer behaviour has evolved over the years from being purely rationalistic to accepting that emotions are a key aspect of consuming products and services. It is accepted now that neither the rational nor the emotional can be ignored when considering buyer behaviour (O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy, 2003). However, the relationship between rationality and emotion has not been agreed upon. It may not be possible for researchers to agree on the exact relationship between emotion and rationality. This is because this relationship would differ based on which perspective of emotions is being used. Nevertheless, over the years, the words emotion and rationality have been treated as two separate entities. More often than not, the term cognition and rationality are used without providing an explanation of what they are and why they are different from emotion. Does a specific theory or theories support the notion of cognition occurring separately to that of emotions in humans? If so, what are these theories? Why are these theories preferable to those that view emotion and cognition as part of the same process, such as cognitive appraisal theory and personal construct theory? A vast majority of existing research on emotion does not provide answers to these questions.

There are arguments made within the consumer behaviour and wider marketing literature that emotion and reason cannot be considered as totally independent.

‘Emotion energizes and influences the process of deciding, while even hard reasoning involves emotional pressures.’ (O’Shaughnessy and O’Shaughnessy, 2003: 120).

Researchers however use and investigate emotion and cognition as two separate constructs. Boden and Williams (2002: 499) claim that,

‘the relationship between reason and emotion in consumption, as elsewhere, is not simply oppositional or even that tensionful, but one which is both constituted and consummated in more or less harmonious ways.’

Achieving harmony is constructive and helps move the knowledge forward. However, this harmony needs to be achieved through constructive debate regarding the nature of emotion and cognition. At present, the harmony between these two constructs exists due to the acceptance of research without constructive criticism. On many occasions researchers use the concept of emotion and cognition without clearly defining what they mean and how they are different. For example, Allen et al (2005) investigated the impact of emotional information versus cognitive information on attitude formation. The authors failed to discuss the difference between emotional information and cognitive information and they failed to demonstrate whether these two concepts are mutually exclusive. What content would constitute as emotional and what information would constitute as cognitive? Is it not possible that the cognitive information would elicit some emotion? Other researchers who studied emotion and cognition as separate entities have attempted to provide a definition of these two concepts. Yoo and McInnis (2005) investigated the impact of emotional and information ads on brand attitude formation. The authors defined emotional ads as those designed to appeal to receivers’ emotions. Informational ads, on the other hand, are designed to appeal to the receivers’ rationality. Rather than aiding the literature by bridging the gap between emotion and cognition, Yoo and McInnis (2005) revert back to the old view within marketing of viewing humans as being either rational or emotional.

In some research the measurement of these two concepts also lacks clarity. Van den Berg et al (2006) sought to identify the impact of affective and cognitive focus on attitude

formation. In order to provide affective focus the authors provided participants with a word search puzzle that had words such as feeling, sensation, and intuition. Cognitive focus, on the other hand, included words such as thinking, knowing, and mind. This conception of cognition goes against the idea of emotion as being a class of knowledge in itself (Chaudhuri, 1997). Furthermore, theories such as emotional intelligence suggest that emotion and cognitive thinking go hand in hand and therefore help enhance an individual's decision making processes. Research using theories such as emotional intelligence, has found that emotion combined with intelligence or cognition helps develop positive inter-personal relationships within a purchasing context (Schumacher et al, 2009). As such it confirms the view that 'intelligence may understand emotion and that emotion may facilitate intelligence' (Mayer and Ciarrochi, 2006: xv).

It is important to point out that the above discussion, while critiquing the conceptualisation of cognition and emotion as distinct, does not claim that it is totally wrong to do so. Neither does it imply that those researches that used emotion and cognition as distinct have no value. Due to the early stages of psychology and emotional research traditionally viewing cognition and emotion as separate entities (Mayer and Ciarrochi, 2006), researchers continued to follow this path. As Barbalet (2001: 8) explained;

“In its historical origins, in the eighteenth century Scottish Enlightenment, and in later European and American sociological writing, there was ample space for emotion. But through a number of changes in social organisation and intellectual trends, the category of emotions lost its footing in social explanation.”

The above discussion merely aims to highlight the way in which the two concepts of emotion and cognition are being used without grounding this use within specific theories or acknowledging the various views about them and encouraging constructive debate. In order to advance knowledge and understanding of consumption behaviour, researchers need to start using what Barbalet (2001) calls the radical view of treating reason and emotion as part of the same process. When using theories of emotion that accept the role of appraisal (i.e. cognitive theories, social constructivist theories and personal construct theory), the concept of cognition as advocated by researchers discussed above fails to exist. For instance, Bigné et al (2008) sought to examine the cognitive and affective antecedent and consequences of satisfaction within the context of hedonic services. The authors conceptualised cognitive and affective evaluations as being disconfirmation and

emotions respectively. If using personal construct theory, disconfirmation and emotion would not be viewed as separate. In personal construct theory view of emotions, disconfirmation of a person's belief or expectation would result in a given emotion. Thus, disconfirmation and emotion are part of the same process and not separate entities. In the current research, in line with Kelly (1955) and Lazarus (1991), it is argued that emotion and cognition are stages of the same process and as such are not separate entities.

#### ***2.4.4. Problem of the nature of emotions***

Research on consumption emotions has a tendency to treat emotions as either being discrete or dimensional (Dubé and Menon, 2000). The former approach takes each emotion such as joy, anger, and sadness as distinct in its characteristics and responses. The latter approach treats emotions as basic categories of either positive and negative or dimensions of pleasure and arousal. In this approach emotions are treated as having similar characteristics. For instance, all the positive emotions are assumed to have similar characteristics and have the same impact on behaviour (Leone et al 2005). There has been a debate within the literature as to which approach is more effective in helping understand the role of consumption emotions better.

Many researchers categorise emotions into basic dimensions as their preferred approach (e.g. Oliver, 1994; Liljander and Stranvik, 1997; Phillips and Baumgartner, 2002; Bigné and Andreu, 2004; Lee et al, 2008). Although this approach is used widely, there does not seem to be a justification for using this approach over that of treating emotions as discrete. The simple fact that it has been used in previous studies is accepted as sufficient justification. Bigné and Andreu (2004), for instance, used the bi-dimensional approach of pleasure and arousal in their study to identify emotion-based consumer segments. The choice to use this bi-dimensional approach was stated without any justification or explanation of why this approach is better or more suitable. Researchers such as Liljander and Stranvik (2007) who used the category approach concluded at the end of their study that it would be worthwhile to go beyond the simple two-dimensional representation of emotions (negative and positive emotions). They suggested that this may help to enrich the understanding of emotional influence on consumer behaviour. Even though very few researchers followed this advice at the time, there has been a recent surge in research that advocates and uses the discrete approach to emotions (e.g.

Söderlund and Rosengren, 2004; Leone et al, 2005; Madrigal and Bee, 2005; Watson and Spence, 2007; Han et al, 2009; Slåtten, 2011).

Research that has been carried out using the discrete approach to emotions has argued that looking at emotions as a simple category or dimension can inhibit understanding of consumer behaviour and decision making. It is agreed by much literature in the field that using a category or dimensions based approach offers parsimony (Leone et al, 2005; Watson and Spence, 2007). Apart from this convenience of measurement and testing, researchers seem unable to identify any other advantages for using the category or dimensional based approach to emotions. Söderlund and Rosengren (2004) argued that even if one accepts that emotions exist in broad categories of negative and positive, different emotions make up these categories. As such, it is possible that these discrete emotions have different antecedents and consequences even at a lower level of aggregation. This has been proven by research such as that carried out by Madrigal and Bee (2005). The authors studied the feeling of suspense in advertising and identified fear and hope as being two discrete emotions that make up the concept of suspense. Furthermore, they found that fear was a more dominant emotion than hope in creating suspense and encouraging action. Babin et al (1998) sought to clarify the nature of positive and negative emotions as even within the category based approach positive and negative emotions were being treated as either bi-dimensional or separate entities. Although the results were not very conclusive, it suggested that negative and positive emotions can be felt simultaneously and as such the idea of bipolarity may not exist. This led the authors to suggest that using multiple discrete emotions is more superior to that of simple category or dimensions of emotions.

In order to overcome the problems with the category and dimension based approaches to emotions, researchers have attempted to clarify the nature of emotions in consumer behaviour. White and Yu (2005) argued that emotions frameworks have been unable to explain the complex nature of consumer responses in service settings. The authors suggest that this is due to viewing emotions as a two dimensional (positive and negative) concept. So, White and Yu (2005) included regret and disappointment into an existing positive and negative emotional framework in order to seek support for the existence of a two-dimensional approach to emotions. The results proved that the two additional emotions did not fit into either the negative or positive category and thus the authors

identified a third dimension of bi-directional emotions. This research highlights the problem that negative and positive emotions and similar category approach to emotions are limited in encompassing wider emotions and thus it may be appropriate to investigate emotions as discrete.

A further attempt was made by Laros and Steenkamp (2005) to address the problem of category and dimensional based approach to emotions. The authors argued that there is a hierarchical model of emotions where negative and positive emotions represents the superordinate level. Two more levels represent basic emotions and subordinate emotions respectively. Although the authors found support for this hierarchical model of emotions they also found that basic and discrete emotions allow for a better understanding of consumer feelings compared to positive and negative categorisation. The distinct role played by each emotion is also proven in the context of employee behaviour where Slåtten (2011) found that the distinct emotion 'joy' had an impact on innovative employee behaviour.

In emotion theories that are appraisal based such as personal construct theory and cognitive appraisal theory, the only way to study emotions is by treating them as discrete. This is because, appraisal based theories suggest that even those emotions that have similar valence (e.g. positive and negative emotions) are appraised and thus interpreted differently (Leone et al, 2005; Watson and Spence, 2007). This also results in different responses and behaviour. Thus in this current research using the appraisal based personal construct theory of emotions, emotions are treated as discrete and having different antecedents and consequence.

#### ***2.4.5. Problem of the concept of satisfaction***

Satisfaction has traditionally been viewed as a cognitive judgement of a person's consumption experience with either a product or service (Hunt 1977; Day 1984). This judgement is based on attributes such as quality and performance of the product. This rational view of satisfaction is not surprising given the dominance of rationality within consumer behaviour and marketing at the time. As this rational view began to be challenged and affect and feeling of consumers also started to gain relevance, the concept of satisfaction was also starting to be viewed more differently. Researchers started to argue that satisfaction is not a purely cognitive concept. It also has an emotional content.

Thus, researchers were encouraged to include an emotional element to the measurement of satisfaction (e.g. Westbrook, 1980; Oliver, 1994; Söderlund and Öhman, 2003). In his attempt to clarify the structural issues with the concepts of emotions, satisfaction and quality, Oliver (1994) found that quality was a cognitive and performance oriented concept. Satisfaction however, was a combination of cognitive and emotional aspects. This led Oliver (1994) to conclude the concept of satisfaction as being a complex summary consumption judgement.

The concept of satisfaction is now commonly viewed as a concept comprising cognitive and affective elements. Numerous research investigating the constructs of emotion and satisfaction have treated satisfaction as a consequence of emotions (e.g. Dubé and Menon, 2000; Phillips and Baumgartner, 2002; Han et al, 2009). When the current research project began, it also followed the well trodden path of considering satisfaction as a consequence of emotions. When the researcher started to get a better perspective of emotion theories and also of emotions and satisfaction research within the field of consumer behaviour and marketing, it became evident that the relationship between emotion and satisfaction is not very clear cut.

Bagozzi et al (2002) argued that, from the existing literature on satisfaction and emotions, it is unclear whether satisfaction is experienced differently to that of other positive emotions.

‘No theory exists for specifying the conditions under which satisfaction exists uniquely from many other positive emotions.’ (Bagozzi et al, 2002:64)

Generally, the argument for considering satisfaction as a separate concept to that of emotions is made because previously published studies support the notion that these two concepts are separate (e.g. Westbrook and Oliver, 1991; Liljander and Strandvik, 1997). However, the distinctiveness of these concepts would depend on how the constructs were treated and measured in the study (Bagozzi et al, 2002). For instance, the satisfaction measure proposed and used by Oliver (1997) which has been adapted for use in many other research, includes items such as ‘I am satisfied with my decision to purchase this product/attend this theme park’, ‘My choice to purchase this product was a good one’ and so on (Oliver, 1997; Bigné et al, 2005). Researchers such as Koenig-Lewis and Palmer (2008) have used a single item scale to measure the overall satisfaction with the

organisation of a graduation ceremony. This single scale, however, is aimed at capturing the cognitive aspects of satisfaction while emotions are measured in the study using Izard's (1977) differential emotions scale. Furthermore, the uses of single item scales are generally not accepted to provide great validity (Hair et al, 1998). It is argued therefore that, when emotions and satisfaction are treated as separate constructs and measured in such a way that emotional constructs include emotional items whereas satisfaction includes statements of evaluation, it is not surprising that these constructs remain separate.

There are researches that treat and measure satisfaction as a purely emotional construct. For instance, Wong (2004) sought to identify the role of emotional satisfaction in a service context. The author failed to state what 'emotional satisfaction' refers to and how it differs from 'satisfaction' as used by most researchers. Furthermore, when measuring this concept of 'emotional satisfaction' the author used bipolar scales consisting of emotional terms such as pleased/displeased, unhappy/happy, disgusted/contented, and enjoyable/frustrating. This meant that the measures comprising emotional satisfaction in Wong's (2004) study did not differ from any other measures used to study positive affect. Thus the author seems to be treating satisfaction as an emotion although stating that satisfaction is distinct from emotions.

The definition of emotion widely used in consumer behaviour is that of Gardner (1985). He claimed that emotions are intense reactions that are tied to a specific behaviour and are motivationally potent. According to this definition of emotions, satisfaction can also fit into the concept of emotions. Satisfaction is always related to the specifiable behaviour of purchase and consumption. It is often experienced intensely which acts as a motivator of loyalty behaviour. So, satisfaction can sit well within the emotions definition. Furthermore, from an investigation of the literature, Westbrook and Oliver (1991: 85) concluded that;

'Typically, the evaluative standard most often assumed is the consumer's prepurchase expectation set, which, when compared to the level of perceived product performance, yields disconfirmation beliefs. These in turn are believed to produce the satisfaction judgement.'

Satisfaction, therefore, is a judgement based on confirmation or disconfirmation of beliefs about a product or service. According to the personal construct theory of emotions, all



emotions result from either confirmation or disconfirmation of people's constructs regarding an event in life. When this event happens to be consumption of the product or service, then one of the possible emotions that can be experienced would be satisfaction. Thus, personal construct theory views satisfaction as one of many discrete emotions rather than a judgement that follows an emotional experience (McCoy, 1977). In line with personal construct theory, the current research views satisfaction as one of many discrete emotions that are experienced during consumption. However, these emotions experienced during consumption can lead the consumers to feel either more positive or negative about the whole experience. Therefore, the current research investigates the role of emotions in overall consumption experience.

## **2.5. Emotions in Sport Marketing**

The importance of leisure and specifically sport in our daily lives has become very prominent. Whereas sport, as with other leisure related activities, was once seen as a means to an end (i.e. to relieve stress from daily lives, provide escape, etc.), it has now become the final end in itself. As Morgan (2007) claims, final ends are things we care about deeply. As such, sport is 'important in our lives, is essential to living good, purposeful and meaningful lives (Morgan, 2007:11). Although this claim is very much debatable, it nevertheless highlights the importance of sport in everyday lives. This importance of sport is also evident in the multitude of research that has been carried out in this field.

Within the marketing sphere there has been a question of whether sport marketing requires a customised marketing approach requiring customised research in this area. Do the general principles and practices of marketing not apply to sport marketing? Following a comprehensive review of the special features of sport, Smith and Stewart (2010) claimed that while professional sport has undergone many changes over the last decade, it has enough idiosyncratic features to justify a customised set of managerial practices. Accordingly, a subset of consumer behaviour research has emerged over the last decade which focussed on understanding sport consumption behaviour (Funk, 2008). These researches include, segmentation of sport fans based on attendance (e.g. Arnett and

Laverie, 2000); motivations and identification with a sport team (e.g. Wann and Dolan, 2001; Wann et al, 2002); brand management in sport (e.g. Gladden and Funk, 2002); the role of team identification/loyalty and team performance in spectator satisfaction (Wakefield and Sloan 1995; Matsuoka et al, 2003); use of leisure to cope with daily stress (Patry et al (2007); and repeat patronage (e.g. Pritchard et al, 2007). A vast majority of sport marketing research however, has been focussed on the reason for attendance at the game or event (Funk, 2008). This is not surprising given that sport marketing revenue comes from ticket sales whilst sponsorship revenue also depends on how popular and well attended the given sport or team games are. Therefore it is essential to understand what motivates spectators to attend any sport or event. Smith and Stewart (2010: 4) argue that the core feature of spectator sport is its,

‘capacity to intimately engage fans and deliver intensely emotional and loyal attachments to their favourite teams and clubs.’

Thus, as well as understanding why spectators attend, it is also important to understand how the game is experienced by the spectators whilst they are present and how this experience can impact on future behaviour. As Gladden and Funk (2002: 56) argue, ‘consumption of the sport product is experiential and often emotional.’ This experience of the sport product which is often emotional is also used as the basis for defining fandom:

‘the regular, emotionally involved consumption of a given popular narrative or text (in the form of books, TV shows, sports, etc)’ (Sandvoss, 2005:8).

Hence it is evident that as in general consumption behaviour, emotions are inherent in every sport consumption experience. Given this importance of emotions in sport consumption, this research focuses on the emotional experience of a sport event as discussed below.

### ***2.5.1. Sport Consumption and Emotions***

Sport and emotions have a permanent and very strong relationship because,

‘Sporting contests have for centuries, provided a collective stage that taps into and accentuates emotive experiences’ (Frew and McGillivray, 2008: 183).

Sport practitioners and sport psychologists have long considered emotions as key to sport participation. Experience of emotions acts as a motivator to participate in contests as

well as stop participating (Taylor and Wilson, 2005). Furthermore, promoting the concept of fun and enjoyment is seen as critical in engaging youth in sport participation (Bengoechea et al, 2004). Literature on sport psychology focuses almost exclusively on emotions experienced by participants in terms of emotions experienced before and after a contest, rather than spectators (e.g. Cerin et al, 2000; Bull et al, 2005). It seems that sport psychologists preferred to understand why people participate in sport and their coping behaviour as well as levels of performances. As such, they have shown very little interest in why people watch a sport. The task of understanding spectators' experience of emotions therefore, was taken up by sport marketers over the last decade or so. Although in comparison to research on motivation to attend games, research in emotional experience is very limited, more researchers are starting to realise the importance of emotional experience in sport spectating. Over the last few years, the importance of emotions in event attendance as well as other leisure activities is beginning to be explored (Hall et al, 2010). This is evident by the growing number of emotions research that has emerged over the last few years in the leisure literature including sport event attendance (e.g. Sumino and Harada, 2004) and theme park experience (e.g. Bigné et al, 2005). Therefore, more research on the emotional experience of spectators attending sports and other leisure events is needed to further knowledge on consumption emotions within a leisure context.

Research on emotions in sport also seems to have undergone a similar evolutionary pattern to that of consumer behaviour in general. As discussed previously, consumer behaviour began by viewing consumers as rational beings and there was a division between the rational and the emotional. Dunning (1996) claimed that this was a view that was present amongst sociologists as well. He claimed that in their attempts to understand the importance of sport and leisure in the civilisation process, sociologists adopted the Kantian view of the mind versus body dichotomy. Hansen et al (2005) claim that with relevance to sport sponsorship research, the use of cognitive hierarchy models fails to provide sufficient understanding of branding and purchase intentions. As such, the authors found that sponsorship value is driven by cognition as well as emotion. Given that eustress and escape were considered as key motives for attending sport events (Wann et al, 2002), sport marketers have always been inclined to accept that emotions played a significant role in spectators' experience. This is even more the case whereby the concept of leisure itself has evolved over the years. It has shifted from being viewed as

free time to a form of activity or state of mind to viewing it as an experience (Harper, 1981). This also reflects the general shift within the broader marketing and consumer behaviour paradigm whereby every act of consumption is viewed as an experience.

‘Knowing the behavioural concomitants of human lived experiences without knowing the contents of the lived experiences themselves – whether melancholy, joy, sadness, fear, love, care, quality, language, music, art, dance, or various and sundry leisure arts – is knowledge only half won and peripheral because it is without that which makes the behaviour an intelligible unity in the first place.’ (Harper, 1981: 123-124)

As such, understanding the emotional experience of spectators is crucial if one is to understand the holistic nature of sports spectating. The way in which emotions are treated (e.g. often as an antecedent to satisfaction as discussed in section 2.5.5 above) however, inhibits the comprehensive understanding of the emotional experience of sport spectating. The emotions research discussed below highlight some of these issues.

The vast majority of research that investigates emotions in sport spectating considers emotions resulting from the contest itself. Wann et al (2002) examined the contribution of fan motivation and team identification of post-game affect. The authors looked at the affect resulting from team performance and found that fans with high identification with their team are more likely to enjoy the game if their team wins. Similarly Bizman and Yinon (2002) investigated the impact of distancing tactics on emotional responses as a result of team performance. The authors found that fans highly identifying with their teams exhibited higher self-esteem and positive emotions as a result of their team winning. More recently Kerr et al (2005) studied the emotions of soccer fans at winning and losing games. The authors found that following the game, losing fans were significantly more bored, angry and humiliated whereas winning fans were more relaxed. The focus on team performance and game outcome seems relevant considering the core product of sport is the contest itself. However, increasingly, the overall experience of fans is becoming more important than only the contest. Madrigal (2003, 2008) is a prominent researcher on sport spectator emotions but his research again mainly considers the emotional impact of team performance. Pritchard et al (2009) explain that Madrigal views sport consumption as an experience derived from the performance itself where the performers enact the contest. As such, the focus should be on the contest. The existing research on emotions relating to team performance (e.g. Madrigal, 2008; Bizman and

Yinon, 2002) indicates that fans with high identification to their teams have a more positive game experience. What about the fans with low identification with a team? Do they not enjoy attending the game? Wann et al's (2002) research showed that although highly identified fans enjoyed the game more when their team won, less identified spectators may also experience positive experience. In order to understand the experience of spectators overall, therefore, it is important to consider the game experience as a whole rather than focussing on the contest itself. With regards to cricket spectators, Kuenzel and Yassim (2007) found that the quality of game had the least impact on the emotion of joy. Rather, aspects such as social facilitation and auditory factors had more influence spectators' experience of joy (Kuenzel and Yassim, 2007). Furthermore, Pine and Gilmore (1999) argue that events are central aspects of the global economy where material products and services (e.g. sport contest) merely facilitate the experience. Funk (2008) agrees with this view when he argues that 'sport consumer behaviour is about the journey, not the destination' (p4). Hence confirming the need to study emotional experience as a result of the overall game experience rather than resulting from the game outcome.

Very few researchers have considered the emotions relating to the overall experience of the game or event. Sumino and Harada (2004) investigated the relationship between affective experience, team loyalty and intention to attend future games among Japanese League football fans. The authors found that affective experience had a significant impact on team loyalty. The major drawback with the research of Sumino and Harada (2004) as well as other researchers undertaking similar studies (e.g. Arnett and Laverie, 2000; Bigné et al, 2005) is that emotions are treated as antecedents to satisfaction. As argued previously, the use of satisfaction as a separate entity to that of emotions is disputed in the literature and the use of theories such as personal construct theory helps overcome this problem. Dunning (1996) argues that there's a need among sociologists researching sport as well as researchers in other contexts to avoid research 'quick fixes' (often by following the latest trend in the field) and instead carry out theory-guided research. With relevance to emotions research, as was argued previously, adopting the theoretical framework of personal construct theory, the current research seeks to overcome many of the issues currently facing emotions research. Furthermore, 'spectator behaviours are a function of expectations and contexts, as well as of the experiences we provide' (Hill and Green, 2000: 159). It is argued here that these expectations (as a result

of previous attendance, word-of-mouth, marketing communications, etc) help form the constructs regarding the game experience. These constructs are then either confirmed or reconstrued as a result of the experience provided at the game. Hence, PCT provides a comprehensive explanation of how the spectators experience game attendance. Consequently, PCT is regarded as a suitable theoretical framework to study emotions in sport spectating. In view of this, the current research investigates the emotions of spectators as a result of the overall game experience while adopting the PCT view of satisfaction as an emotion per se.

## **2.6. Emotion and Behaviour**

Many psychologists consider emotions as the primary motivator of behaviour. As Izard (1977: v) explains,

‘Indeed, one can hardly think of any human activity that is not related in some way to the field of emotion.’

Scachtel (1959) agrees with Izard in claiming that there is no action without affect.

Although there is agreement among theorists on emotion motivating behaviour, there is disagreement on the process of motivation or in other words the exact relationship between emotion and action. One of the most prominent psychoanalytic theorists was Freud (1930) who viewed emotions as basic drives. This drive approach to emotions takes the view that once an emotion is experienced, it also elicits an instinctive reaction in humans. For instance, an angry child may instinctively stamp his feet or throw his toy. Theorists such as Holt (1967) and Dahl (1977) claimed that drive approach to motivation does not fully explain the role of emotions as motivators. Although certain emotions can elicit natural reactions, human beings, over time, learn to control their reactions to an emotion. Thus, emotions which an individual experiences, is processed by his/her consciousness and then translated into action (Dahl 1977; Holt 1967; Izard 1977; Tomkins 1962).

A notable fact regarding the drive approach to emotions is that it is, as originally suggested by Freud, short-lived. For example, when a child stamps his feet in anger, the drive or reaction to stamp the feet only lasts as long as the anger is present and felt with great intensity. Thus, although emotions may drive us to certain physical actions or reactions they are not long lasting. Also, drive approach to emotions does not account for the motivational dimension of emotions. For instance, a child would not stamp his feet because he is motivated to feel angry.

The relationship between motivation and emotions is a complex one. As Plutchik (1980) comments on the existing literature, the relationship between motivation and emotions are either ignored or too simplified. Some theorists believe that motives and emotions have similar characteristics; they arouse, sustain and direct behaviour (Leeper, 1948). There are others however, who saw both emotions and motivations as distinctive. For example, Plutchik (1980) claimed that both emotions and motivations have different characteristics. He explains that whereas emotions are usually aroused by external stimuli (e.g. joy at a favourite sports team winning a game) motives are aroused by internal state of a person (e.g. dehydration creating the motivation to drink water).

An alternative to that of Plutchik's (1980) view on emotion and motivation can be found in the sport psychology literature. Taylor and Wilson (2005) explain that motivation can be either extrinsic or intrinsic. Extrinsic motivation, for example, refers to action performed due to external influences such as performing well to avoid criticism or punishment. Intrinsic motivation, on the other hand, refers to the actions undertaken by a person because it makes them feel a certain way. For example, an individual participating in scuba diving may have decided to participate because it gives pleasure. Thus, Taylor and Wilson (2005) present a view where emotions are one aspect of the motivational process.

Averill (1996) when discussing the characteristic of emotions, claims that emotion influences the way a person thinks as well as behaves. He also claims that emotions motivate behaviour. Oatley (1996) also explains that as opposed to seeing emotions as inhibiting human action, it has become difficult to understand human action without emotions.

With relevance to cricket spectators, it can be argued that attending a cricket game could be either extrinsically or intrinsically motivated. For instance, a son attending a game with his father could be motivated by just pleasing his father. On the other hand, the father may be motivated to attend the game because of the joy he would experience from watching his team perform well. Izard (1977), in developing his Differential Emotions Theory, argues that the memory of experiencing an emotion can either constrain or encourage action. Thus, in the above example, the memory and thoughts of experiencing joy at the cricket game can encourage the son to attend future games whereas if he experienced distress, it can prevent him from attending in the future. With regards to personal construct theory, constructs are formed by a person as it's a form of understanding their world. A construct that is proven when faced with events and situations, in other words, when the person has anticipated the event accurately, this provides them with a sense of wellbeing. It is argued that this sense of wellbeing can act as the reason for them revisiting the event such as a sporting contest.

The marketing literature also accepts the link between emotion and action. With regards to customer loyalty, O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy (2003) claim that 'emotion is the adhesive that, when mixed with trust, equals loyalty' (p5). Furthermore, the authors argue that it is due to the strength of emotions that people cling to beliefs even when the evidence points to the contrary. Within the sporting context, this is evidenced by fans who fervently believe and hope for the victory of their team even if the recent performances and other conditions indicate a very low chance of victory. In the wider leisure context, Yuksel et al (2010) found that affect or emotions has a strong impact on loyalty and revisit. As such, consumers' positive experience acts as the motivator to return to the destination. Specific research on attendance at major sporting events has also proven that emotions are a major factor influencing revisit (Hall et al, 2010). This strong link between emotion and motivation shows that in the consumption context, emotions act as a motivator for returning to the product or service experience. Therefore, this research also explores the relationship between emotions and return intentions in order to assess whether this relationship exists within the cricket spectating context which this research investigates.



## ***Conclusion***

This chapter set out the theoretical framework which will be adopted for this research. It began by discussing the various theories of emotions and highlighted why the personal construct theory approach of emotions is preferred over the other theories. It also reviewed the research on consumption emotions and as well as highlighting the importance of emotions in consumer behaviour, it identified the major issues facing the field. These issues are; problem of the concept of rationality, problem of the nature of emotions, and the problem of the concept of satisfaction. Personal construct theory was argued to be a theoretical approach which can overcome these issues in the field of consumption emotions. Following this, the discussion focussed on the emotions in sport marketing. As sports spectating is the context of this research, literature on emotions in sport marketing were reviewed. It was identified that existing research on emotions in this field focussed almost exclusively on emotions resulting from game outcome/team performance. However, attending a game is much more than the game itself and therefore the overall experience of attending the game needs to be the focus as opposed to only the game outcome. Finally, the relationship between emotions and behaviour was discussed and as there is a strong link between the two concepts, this research would also investigate whether this relationship is applicable in the current context.

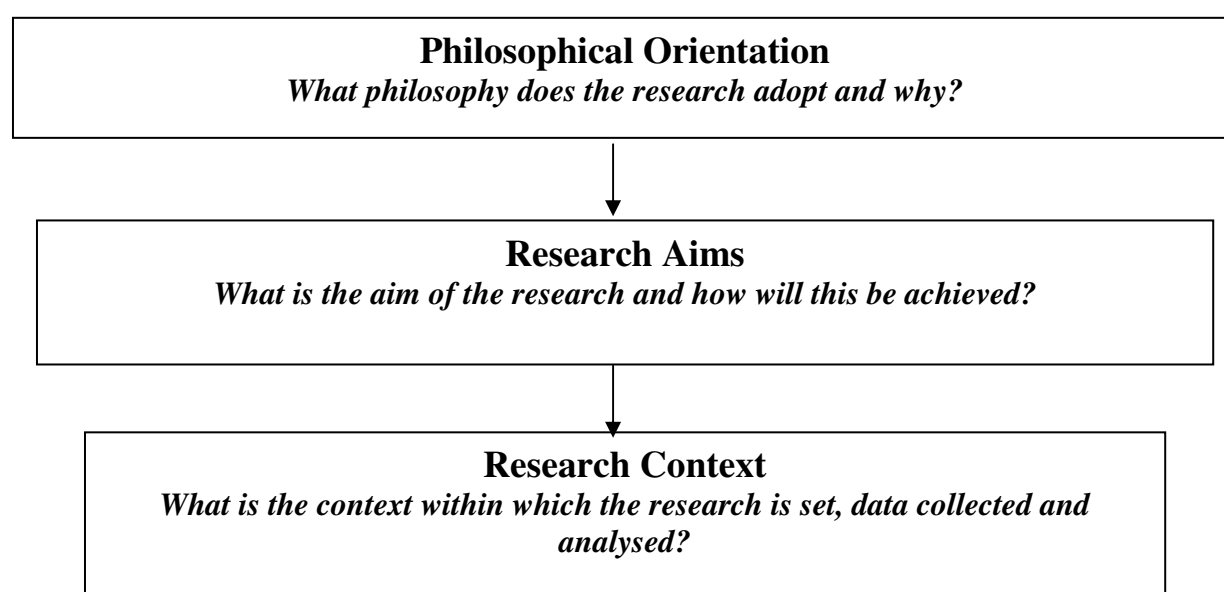
Subsequent to the discussion on the theoretical background and the theoretical framework that this research will be adopting, the next chapter sets out the methodology which will be employed for this research.

## *Chapter 3*

# METHODOLOGY

### *Chapter Introduction*

The aim of this chapter is to set out the philosophical orientation and methodology of the research. The chapter is structured as follows:



*Figure 3.1 - Structure of Chapter 3*

The previous chapter discussed the theoretical background of the research and highlighted the conceptual issues that the research will deal with. This chapter follows on from this and answers the question of how the issues set out in the previous chapter will be dealt with.

The chapter begins by discussing some of the major approaches to research, positivism and relativism. The discussion highlights the problems that are inherent with the positivistic approach to research and how relativism can overcome some of these inherent problems. In particular, it argues that a relativistic approach to research can provide depth and insight to research which cannot be achieved using a positivistic approach alone.

Hence, the relativistic approach was adopted for the current research. Furthermore, the way in which personal construct theory also sits well within the relativistic paradigm is discussed.

Following on from this, the specific aim of this research is set out. The aim of the research and its rationale was derived from the theoretical discussion in chapter 2. Here, this is revisited to justify the research aim. Also, the current research consists of two stages (repertory grid interviews and quantitative survey). The purpose of these two stages and the methods to be used within these two stages are also highlighted.

Every research has a theoretical context as well as a practical context. The practical context for the current research was the English domestic first class games and the final section of this chapter details the research context. It provides an introduction to the English cricket scene as well as highlighting the use of the current research to the industry. Furthermore, this section also sets out the boundaries of the research. It accepts that cricket is a complex industry with many formats such as the one-day game, championship games and the shorter Twenty20 games. As such, in order to be able to manage the research better and maintain the focus of the research, this study had to be limited to a single format of the game. The chapter ends with the rationale for the choice of boundaries for this research which focuses on domestic first class one day competitions.

### **3.1. Philosophical Orientation**

Philosophy of science can be defined as ‘the attempt to understand meaning, method and logical structure of science by means of a logical and methodological analysis of the aims, methods, criteria, concepts, laws and theories of science’ (Klemke et al., 1988:2). A look back at our history provides an array of philosophers ranging from Aristotle in the west, and Aurobindo and Al-Ghazali in the east. Many contemporary researchers and scientists have, and continue to adopt the viewpoints put forth by these great philosophers as a basis for their search for knowledge. Whereas some of them advocated a purely rationalistic, objective and so-called scientific approach to the research, others preferred a more humanistic approach.

#### ***3.1.1. Popper and Positivism***

Popper was a prominent contributor to the philosophy of science and his ideas on positivism is adopted and used to this day across many fields including marketing. Karl Raymond Popper was born in 1902 in Vienna. He was known to have been a Marxist in his early to mid teens but became a social democrat later on in life. Popper was not an official part of the then renowned ‘Vienna Circle,’ which as an association of philosophers’ gathering in the University of Vienna to exchange and debate ideas on ontology and epistemology. However, he was recognised as an affiliate and the members of the Vienna Circle named him ‘the official opposition’ (Magee, 1973). This was because he opposed the fundamental ideals of logical positivism, which was verifying a theory, and proposed the concept of falsification whereby you disprove a theory.

Popper (1965) believed that epistemology was concerned with growth of knowledge and the best way of studying growth of knowledge is by studying the growth of scientific knowledge. This conviction in scientific knowledge led Popper to reflect on the accepted concept of his time – induction. The inductive approach is where general conclusions are inferred from specific observations or in other words generalising the results of a specific experiment (Casti, 2000). Popper argued that universal generalisations cannot be based on single or particular observations. In fact, Popper claimed that the criterion of demarcation between what is and is not science (pseudo-science) is not verification or finding evidence to support one’s hypotheses. On the contrary, Popper claimed that all

scientists need to try and falsify or disprove their theory (Popper, 1965). The notion of falsification seems to have derived from Popper's belief that the advancement of knowledge and cosmology occurs due to 'the tradition of critical discussion' (Miller, 1983). Although Popper believed in logical positivism, he disagreed with the purpose of logic. For positivists, where logic bolsters scientific authority, for Popper logic is used to challenge it (Fuller, 2003).

Popper claimed that one cannot find the absolute truth. All scientists can do in their search for the truth is to get ever closer to the truth, but one can never know if one has found the absolute truth (Magee, 1973). Popper's contemporaries have often argued that this notion of 'truth' motivates scientists to continue in their quest for what is true. However, does the concept of motivation not teach us that aiming for something that is well beyond reach acts as a de-motivator (Peters, 1960)? Thus, it could be argued that if scientists believed that one can never know what truth is, then after a while they are likely to relinquish their endeavours. Also, as opposed to advancing the growth of knowledge, it could be argued that this would inhibit knowledge. Assuming that scientists follow in Popper's path and pursue the one question that they are trying to find an answer for, then they are likely to make this their life's work. In that case, if during their lifetime, scientists can only try to discover the answer to one question, all the other cosmological questions will remain unexamined.

A major problem of Popper's ideas was that he was seen to be setting the maxims of how scientists should behave and how they should conduct their research and has ignored the actual practices within the scientific communities. Although he revised his ideas later on and claimed that, in order to identify whether a theory is scientific, one should consider how scientists handled the theory as opposed to solely focussing on the logical structure of the theory (Casti, 2000). However, this revision seems to be without definite conviction as he fails to discuss what he means by how scientists handled the theory, and how that would impact on the validity or truthfulness of the theory itself. Many scientists and philosophers have often wondered whether Popper was just a naïve falsificationist. Some contemporaries of Popper would argue that he was a critical falsificationist at the level of methodology (Magee, 1973). This is due to his very objective notions of being extremely critical about the methods employed and the actual hypothesis itself. One cannot argue that Popper provides extensive discussion and detail on how hypotheses

should be unambiguous and specific so that it has a high degree of falsifiability (Popper, 1965). However, his absolute conviction that falsification is the criterion for demarcation for what can be considered as science has made even his supportive contemporaries concede that he was indeed a naïve falsificationist at the level of logic (Magee, 1973).

### ***3.1.2. From Positivism to Realism***

Ludwig Wittgenstein, a fellow Austrian of Popper, developed the idea regarding the relationship of thoughts expressed in language to world realities. He argued that although logic was necessary it is not sufficient, by itself, to explain objective reality and therefore logic can only take you so far (Casti, 2000). Popper disagreed with this view and claimed that although it is important to understand the functions of language, the problems of science and research should not be reduced to a mere linguistic puzzle (Popper, 1965). On the opposite extreme to Popper there were the ideas of Feyerabend. Amidst all the arguments for stringent scientific methods and setting standards for science, Feyerabend claimed that there was no such concept as scientific method. He argued that you cannot follow one set way for arriving at the scientific truth and that science should not have the sole privilege of deciding what constitutes science and truth (Casti, 2000). Feyerabend's ideas in a sense paved the way for the notion of relativism and the well renowned relativist Thomas Kuhn.

Thomas Kuhn was a young doctoral student at Harvard University, reading physics, when he started to investigate the history of physics. This investigation introduced him to the various philosophies of science and growth of knowledge. The prevailing concept with regards to knowledge at the time was realism. This is where scientists believe that there is an objective reality in existence which is independent of us and that this reality is discovered through the use of scientific methods (Casti, 2000). Although Popper preferred to distance himself from logical positivists as he opposed the concept of verification and assumed an attitude of 'them and I' (Popper, 1965), his views were positivist and realist in the sense that he strongly believed in complete objectivity. His idea of falsifying one's theories and constantly being critical about one's theories and methods were all developed to ensure this objectivity. To some extent, Popper seems to contradict this sense of objectivity by claiming that scientists should not give up their theories too easily in the face of falsification. As Popper claims 'there is room in science for debate: for attack and therefore also for defence' (Popper, 1974:126). Thus, a

scientist should remain totally objective about his theory or hypothesis while at the same time having a passion for his theory and being able to defend it. Is it humanly possible to remain totally objective and at the same time be so committed to a theory that one does not want to give it up too easily? Unfortunately, Popper does not explore this question. In contrast to the view of realism, Kuhn took the view that it is not possible to be completely objective towards one's theories and the way one perceives truth. Truth could also depend on the social perspective of the person with the theory, and thus as a person experiences different cultures and periods of life, what is seen as truth may be modified or changed. This view is known as relativism (Casti, 2000).

Kuhn's relativist position led him to discover what he termed 'paradigms.' Paradigms, according to Kuhn, are universally recognised scientific premises that provide a common framework for a field of scientists to work within and the scientists 'whose research is based on shared paradigms are committed to the same rules and standards for scientific practice' (Kuhn, 1970:11). In many ways Kuhnian views and ideas have resolved some of the weaknesses and gaps left in Popperian ideas. Popper focussed on how scientists should treat a theory or hypotheses once it was formulated. He did not particularly trouble himself with where and why the particular theory or hypothesis was derived or conjectured. By doing so he leaves himself open to criticism, whereas he argued fellow scientists against leaving themselves open for criticism. He claimed that researchers need to be critical about their own theory or someone else will perform it for them, but seems to have failed to follow it himself. According to Abu Bakr Al-Razi, one of the great classical thinkers from the east, philosophy consists of two parts – knowledge and practice. Anyone who fails to put into practice their knowledge or demonstrate their own viewpoints cannot be called a philosopher (Butterworth, 1995). In contrast to Popper's lack of focus on how theories and hypotheses are formed, Kuhn claimed that theories, hypotheses and research questions or, as he called it, 'puzzles' are derived from the accepted and prevalent paradigm within the particular field (Kuhn, 1970). Al-Ghazali, another classical eastern philosopher also propagated this view of Kuhn in the 1100s. He argued that something cannot be derived from nothing (Aminrazavi, 1995), or in Kuhnian terms you cannot derive hypotheses and theories unless there is a paradigm within which to base it. Popper's focus and even to an extent, preoccupation on testing and refuting the theories and hypotheses made him miss the inherent nature of theory development and search for the truth. His adamant focus only seemed to refer to quantitative methods to

test one's theories. Kuhn, on the other hand, provided a complete story of theory development by highlighting the role of not just quantitative, but also qualitative laws. He claimed that qualitative laws are used to derive theories and concepts from the existing paradigm, which in turn is tested by using quantitative laws (Kuhn, 1970).

As mentioned before, Popper's implication that each scientist should be totally dedicated to pursuing their theory can actually inhibit the growth of knowledge. Popper had a narrower focus with regards to how knowledge developed and this narrow focus seems to have encouraged a piecemeal approach to science. In the Popperian world, individual scientists will be pursuing their own theory and possibly making it their life's work and although this may eventually lead to growth of knowledge, this growth would be at a very slow pace indeed. Kuhn's approach provides a solution to this problem. In the Kuhnian world, scientists are not isolated souls but they work within the prevalent paradigm of their field of study. As the research questions and hypotheses derive from this paradigm, the paradigm then forces scientists to investigate some aspect of nature in detail and in-depth, as a group sharing a paradigm (Kuhn, 1970, 1977).

Popper and Kuhn both agree that critical debate is essential for the development and growth of knowledge. They differ however, in how this debate occurs. For Popper, the criticisms need to come from the scientist who is undertaking the research. He has to be critical so that others cannot criticise his theories. Here again, Popper leaves the scientist in isolation. Kuhn, on the other hand, claims that theories grow and evolve through critical debate within a particular field of science (Moloney, 2000). The community sharing the paradigm will evaluate and debate new theories and this creates synergy within the community which in turn helps effective growth of knowledge.

The main theory of Popper rests on falsifiability. In the view of Popper each scientist has the ability to develop or identify an innovative theory, a breakthrough. In order to make this breakthrough one needs to constantly and proactively falsify his or her theory. Popper however, does not discuss the question that arises as a consequence of falsification – what happens once a theory is falsified? Is a scientist supposed to continue to refine his theory, change the context of the study or just focus on investigating why the theory was falsified? If so, where and when does this process end? Kuhn also recognises that falsification occurs. However, as opposed to proactively setting out to falsify one's



theory, Kuhn claims that anomalies naturally occur during some studies. According to Kuhn, there comes a point when the prevalent paradigm can no longer explain certain anomalies (Kuhn, 1977). This could be due to all possible questions arising from within the paradigm already being answered or the particular paradigm being unable to explain and account for the natural growth and evolution of society and knowledge in related fields. Kuhn argues that when the paradigm repeatedly fails to provide an explanation for anomalies then the paradigm needs to be revised or changed. This is known as a paradigm shift and Kuhn equates this to a revolution (Kuhn, 1970). Thus, by providing a framework for dealing with anomalies, Kuhn in actual fact, deals with some of the questions mentioned above that Popper left unanswered.

Although Popper had very stringent views on what is and is not science, he does agree that pseudo-science is not necessarily unimportant or meaningless, but that it cannot claim to be a field of science (Popper, 1963). He also conceded that ‘what was a metaphysical idea today can become a testable scientific theory tomorrow’ (Popper, 1974: 123). Unfortunately, although Popper seems to have recognised that what he called pseudo-science still had a place in the quest for knowledge, he failed to incorporate this into his main views on growth of knowledge. If Popper’s strict criterion for demarcation of what is and is not to be regarded as science was adhered to, disciplines such as sociology and marketing would not have been able to make use of rich data that is provided through qualitative enquiry.

### ***3.1.3. From Theory to Practice***

It is generally accepted that researchers need to be clear about their philosophical orientations from the beginning of the research as this would guide their research methods and design (Creswell, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994). The philosophical debate between positivism-realism and modernism-postmodernism discussed above are still very much prevalent amongst scientists and researchers. However, many authors believe that these debates have reached the point of saturation (e.g. Patton, 2002). As Miles and Huberman (1994) claim, at a practical level, it is very hard to find researchers ‘encamped in one fixed place along a stereotyped continuum between relativism and postpositivism’ (p4). As Gummesson (2001) claims, ‘I do not see science as objective but as an interplay between objective and subjective forces, both equally important,’ (p27). Thus, with regards to practical research, whether one employs a hypothetico-

deductive quantitative method or an inductive qualitative method is dependant very much on the purpose of the research. The focus of the current research is emotional experience. Although many research in consumption emotions uses a positivistic, deductive approach to the study of emotions (e.g. Machleit and Eroglu, 2000; Madrigal, 2003; Louro et al, 2005) this may not provide sufficient understanding of why they are experienced and how. According to Gummesson (2001), in marketing, the quest to be seen as a scientific field and need for 'empirical' research has meant that the focus of research is narrowed down to quantitative data and statistical techniques. However;

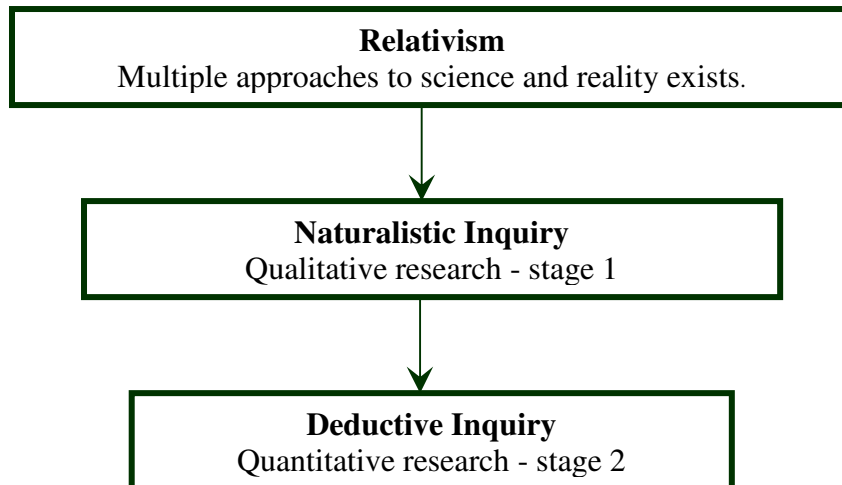
“No science, be it natural or social, can do without subjectivity, not even mathematics and physics, much less medicine, and much, much less marketing.....The selection of a problem, its variables, the design and purpose of a research program are subjective. Although the processing of numbers may be objective to some extent, the interpretation of statistical tables is subjective and the decisions to act on the data are subjective.” (Gummesson, 2001:42)

Given the arguments against measuring a subjective phenomenon such as emotions using objective techniques such as neurophysiology (Lazarus, 1991; O'Shaughnessy and O'Chaughnessy, 2003), the use of a mainly positivistic approach to the study of emotions has problems as discussed in chapter 2 (see section 2.5.). As such, the current research adopts the Kuhnian philosophy of relativism. This approach provides the researcher to adopt and use research methods that are appropriate to the topic under investigation rather than a forced method based on the merit of empiricism. It also allows the subjective information such as words, environmental influence and so on to be part of the data collection as well as analysis, providing greater depth to the study. Furthermore, personal construct theory also fits in with this approach of relativism. As Carroll and Carroll (1981) explain, one of the reasons for Kelly developing his theory was the fact that he wanted a more humanistic approach to studying an individual and their experiences. As mentioned before, Kuhn felt that people modify their views and beliefs based on their life experiences (Casti, 2000). This is also similar to the personal construct theory view of a person capable of learning from their experiences of the world and thereby their constructions.

Personal construct theory also provides the researcher with tools and techniques with which to discover people's constructions and thereby understanding a particular phenomenon. These tools, as will be discussed in Chapter 4, can be adopted to be used as

either qualitative, quantitative, or a combination of these approaches. Kuhn also saw that qualitative and quantitative research can go hand in hand. He argued that qualitative laws can be derived from the existing paradigm or theory which can then be subject to testing through the use of quantitative laws (Kuhn, 1970). Following on from this, the current research uses mixed methodology approach to answering the research questions.

Patton (2002) argues that stringent rules cannot be prescribed with regards to the choice of methods investigating any particular problems. Choice of methods is totally dependent on the context and applicability to the research question at hand. Both qualitative and quantitative methods have their own advantages and disadvantages. At the most fundamental level, qualitative methods aid in-depth and detailed study of issues, whereas quantitative methods aid generalisability of research findings (Patton, 2002). As Yin (1989) put it, 'the design is the logical sequence that connects the empirical data to a study's initial research questions and ultimately, to its conclusions' (p28). Using mixed methods in a study helps to simultaneously address a range of research questions as well as providing stronger inferences (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). The current research is exploratory in nature as it uses an alternative approach to understand consumption emotions (namely, personal construct theory). It also explores the emotions experienced as a result of overall game experience at a sport whereas previous research has only investigated emotions resulting from game outcome or team performance. As such, a qualitative stage is necessary to explore and understand the range of emotions experienced while spectating a game and how these emotions impact on overall game experience and return intentions. Following on from this, a quantitative stage would help test these emotions and relationships on a larger sample as well as identifying the emotions that are most relevant to cricket spectators. Using a quantitative study in this way would help provide more valid findings compared to the use of a single method (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). Further discussion on the use of mixed methods is provided in Chapter 4. The methodological design used in this study can be summarised as shown in figure 3.2 below:



*Figure 3.2 - Research Design*

### 3.2. Research Aims

The start of a research project, especially a research project such as a doctoral thesis, is usually the most confusing and complicated part of the whole project. This is because this is the stage where one lays the foundations on which one's whole thesis and research will be based. For most researchers this is a stage in which they seek to define their research aims and objectives. Often, the aims and objectives that the research begins with undergo many modifications and changes as the research progresses and the researcher widens his or her understanding of the subject matter. This current research project also followed a similar path. At the outset, the research aim was to understand what satisfies cricket spectators. The interest in the context of cricket stemmed from the researchers personal interest in the game as well as the fact that an initial search for literature revealed that research on cricket spectators is scarce. As the search for literature progressed and the concept of satisfaction was being investigated, it was evident that (as discussed in Chapter 2) consumer behaviour literature is generally dominated by cognitivism which propagates a rational, information processing approach to consumer behaviour (Foxall, 1990). This cognitive approach has been well received in the field of marketing as it provides marketers with a clearer explanation of how and why consumers make purchase decisions (e.g. Foxall, 1990; Gutman, 1982). However, recent consumer behaviour researchers have begun to

investigate the role played by consumption emotions in the satisfaction process (Pham, 2004). As most consumer experiences involve both emotional as well as cognitive elements, the study of consumers needs to take both of these aspects into account (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). Thus, the debate within the marketing community with regards to studying consumer behaviour can be broadly divided into cognitive and emotional. Many marketers prefer the cognitive approach as it helps them to describe consumer behaviour and decision making in logical linear models (Foxall, 1990). There are others who argue that human behaviour cannot be totally logical and consumers experience products and services and thus experiential consumption involves emotions (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Oliver, 1994; Pham, 2004). Especially within a hedonic concept such as sport spectating, satisfaction cannot be a purely rational concept. As such, the researcher became interested in the concept of emotions and consumption emotions.

The research on consumption emotions has helped provide great insights into how emotions are experienced before, during and after consumption. However, a review of the current literature on consumption emotions highlighted three major problems within this field. These were; the problem of how rationality was being dealt with in the study of emotions, the problem of using aggregated or dimensions of emotions (e.g. positive v negative emotions) and the problem of treating satisfaction as a separate entity to that of emotions. As was discussed in Chapter 2, the current research proposes to use personal construct theory introduced by Kelly (1955) in order to overcome these problems. As a result, the aim of the research moved on from looking at 'understanding what satisfies cricket spectators' to that of 'what constitutes a positive game experience'.

Leisure and sport consumption are often termed as hedonic consumption and thus are more experiential in nature (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). Thus, spectator sports provide a rich context within which to study emotions. Spectators can judge their experience at the game based on two aspects - cognitive (assessment of functional outcomes) and affect (how a product/service makes you feel). The cognitive and affective elements however do not have to be a separate process and it is often misleading to view it as such. It is therefore argued here that sport spectating involves cognitive and functional elements which then lead to emotional feelings about the experience. This argument is reflected in George Kelly's personal construct theory.

With relevance to sport consumption, sport psychologists have mainly focussed on emotions exhibited by athletes and participants. Within the sport marketing field, emotions have been mainly investigated with relevance to team performance and game outcome (e.g. Madrigal, 1995). Different stimuli elicit different emotions and Neo and Murrell (1993) state that consumers frequently generate more than one emotion after exposure to a certain stimuli. When attending a sporting event, spectators not only view the athletic contest but are also exposed to various other stimuli such as music, off-field entertainment and family time. Thus, considering only the game or the team as the stimuli limits our understanding of sport spectator consumption emotions and a more comprehensive investigation is required which examines the variety of emotions experienced by spectators while at the game, what stimulates these emotions and how spectators may react to these emotions.

In light of this, the primary aim of the current research is to understand the emotional experience of cricket spectators using personal construct theory. This is achieved in two stages as shown in Table 3.1 below. Each of these stages will be discussed in detail in subsequent chapters.

**Table 3.1: Stages of research, Purpose, and Methods used in this study**

Stage	Purpose	Method
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Explore the various emotions experienced by cricket spectators, with particular focus on identifying what emotions are experienced and why.</li> <li>b. Determine whether the emotions identified influence overall game experience and revisit.</li> </ul>	Spectator interviews using repertory grid technique.
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Investigate the applicability of the emotions identified in stage 1 on a larger sample.</li> <li>b. Identify the core set of emotions that are experienced by cricket spectators.</li> </ul>	Face-to-face, quantitative survey of spectators.

### **3.3. Research Context**

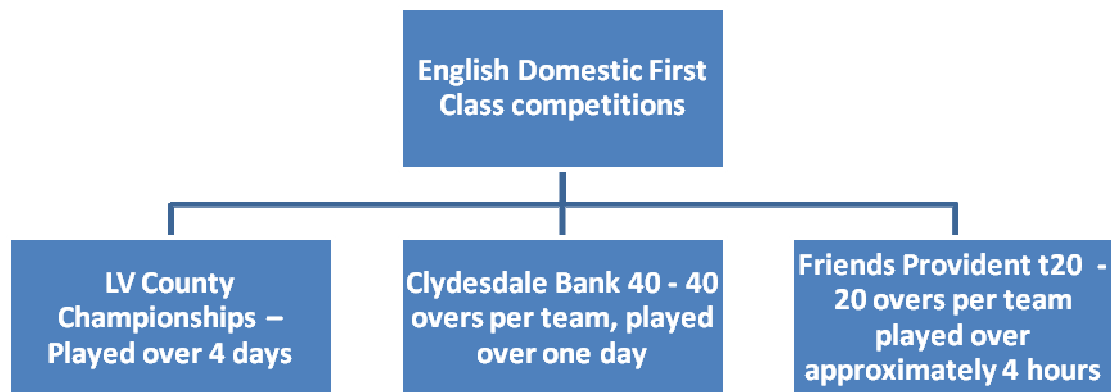
The research context for this study and data collection is cricket. Specifically the study focuses on the English domestic games. The boundaries of this research context and the rationale for this are discussed below. The discussion here is aimed at providing an insight into the nature of the English game and the current industry climate. At the start of this research project, the researcher planned to carry out a comparison study between cricket and tennis spectators. However, as the research progressed and the conceptual framework became concerned with that of emotions, it was decided to focus only on cricket spectators. As the concept of emotions in sport marketing is very much under researched and also as this research is adopting an underused theory (personal construct theory) to study emotions, this research is exploratory in nature. As such, a comparison study would be more suited to a future research project. Focussing on the single context of cricket would ensure that the phenomenon under investigation is researched in greater depth. Whereas a comparison study would have to take into account the differences between the sporting contexts and spectators, it would not have been possible to explore the emotions in greater detail in one study. It would also place great time and cost constraints on the research due to the length of time required to carry out the fieldwork. As a consequence, this study focuses only on the emotions relating to cricket spectating.

Cricket in England is governed by the England and Wales Cricket Board (ECB). The ECB is responsible for the national English team, its fixtures, domestic competitions, as well as the development of grassroots cricket and players. England and Wales have 18 first class counties (see Table 3.2 below) which participate in all the major first class domestic competitions. In addition to these there are also many minor counties which participate in non-first class competitions.

**Table 3.2: List of First Class Counties**

First Class Counties	
Derby	Middlesex
Durham	Northamptonshire
Essex	Nottinghamshire
Glamorgan	Somerset
Gloucestershire	Surrey
Hampshire	Sussex
Kent	Warwickshire
Lancashire	Worcestershire
Leicestershire	Yorkshire

The first class domestic competition in England consists of three major tournaments played during the English cricket season. The cricket season in England commences in April and concludes in September. The major first class domestic tournaments are shown in the figure below (see Figure 3.3).



**Figure 3.3 – First Class Domestic Tournaments in England**

Cricket has been played in England for many centuries and has a rich heritage and history. The appeal of cricket is in its heritage and perception of being a quintessentially English game which encapsulates the English national character and morality (Parry and Malcolm, 2004). Hence, it is also known as the gentleman’s game as opposed to the



volatile and often violent nature of football. Even though football has taken over cricket as the nation's favourite sport, cricket is still appealing to the public as a game that evokes nostalgia for a bygone golden age (Bennett et al, 2007). Mintel research (2007) estimated that the market size of cricket spectators increased by nearly 54% between the years 2002 and 2006. This increase in interest can be attributed to the launch and popularity of the Twenty20 format of the game as well as the England national team winning the historic Ashes tournament against arch rivals Australia (Mintel, 2007; Bennett et al, 2007). Cricket was the second most popular sport in the UK (Football being the number one sport) based on the number of people having an interest in the sport (Mintel, 2007). However, cricket was ranked fifth in terms of people paying to watch the game. Mintel (2007) also ranked cricket as the 3<sup>rd</sup> most televised sport, with football and golf being the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> respectively. The research claimed that the dominant position of broadcasting revenue at least in part reflects a comparatively low return from attendances from domestic games in particular. Although the ECB has taken various measures such as the introduction of the Twenty20 game as well as scheduling more day-night games in order to make the game accessible to a wider audience, attendance at the domestic competitions still remains comparatively low to that of international games. The challenge for the ECB is to convert the 28.3% (Mintel, 2007) people who were interested in the sport of cricket into becoming attendees at the game as well as sustaining this attendance. Although attracting and retaining spectators is a concern for any sport organisation, this is especially prominent in cricket due to its decline in domestic game attendance over the years. In order to meet these challenges, it is important to understand the expectations of the cricket spectators as well as providing them with a positive experience when attending the game. The current research would aid the management in this process by providing an understanding of how cricket spectators at the domestic games experience the game on an emotional level and how this emotional experience impacts upon the overall game experience and their intention to return to the game.

### ***3.3.1. Research Boundaries***

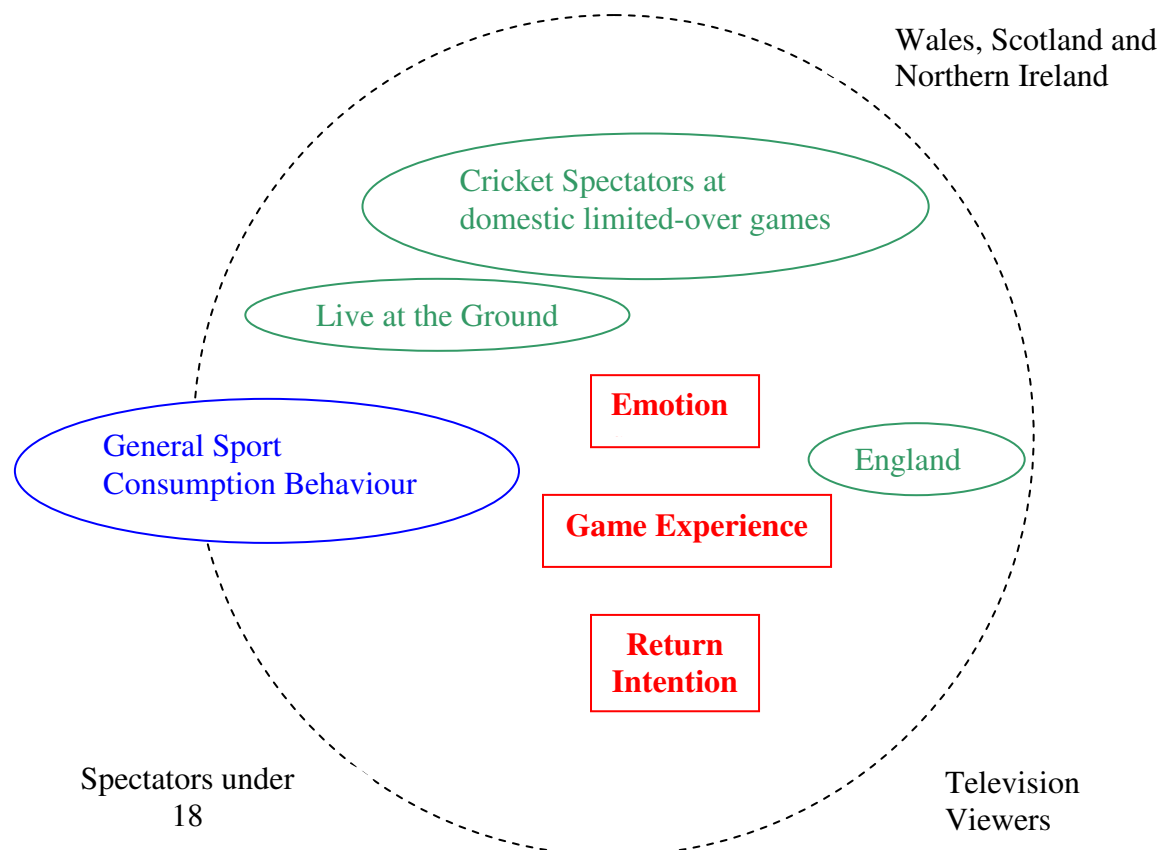
Figure 3.3 below shows context and boundaries of this research. Emotions, game experience, and return intentions are the main concepts that the study will focus on. Invariably, as the context of the study is sport consumption, it will draw from literature that discusses sport consumption behaviour. The issues related to context of research are depicted in green. The above mentioned concepts will be studied with relevance to

cricket spectators who attend live games in England. As the issues depicted outside the boundary show, television viewers and those aged under eighteen would not be included in the sample. Viewing a game on television would have different variables involved as the experience is different to that of live spectating at the ground. The atmospherics, the sights and sounds are all experienced in a passive manner when watching a game on television whereas when the spectator is in the ground they become a part of the atmosphere and a co-creator of the experience. Thus, the game experience of television viewers would be different to that of those experiencing the game in the ground and this would also mean that the emotions both sets of spectators experience would also be different. The research also focussed on adult spectators over the age of eighteen in order to overcome issues of parental consent. Also, due to time constraints and access issues, spectators who attend games in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland will be excluded.

The focus of the current research is also on the domestic limited-over competitions. This is because the international games involving the England team have good levels of attendance with the grounds often reaching near-capacity. This is especially the case when England play against strong opponents such as Australia, India and Pakistan (Mintel, 2007). The domestic games, on the other hand have relatively low attendance and sustaining spectators at the domestic level has been a major issue for the ECB (Mintel, 2007). The ECB has taken steps to restructure the domestic games and thereby increase the appeal of the game. Understanding how spectators experience the game and what constitutes a positive game experience would enable the management to be more effective in their plans to recruit and retain more spectators. Therefore, this research focuses on the domestic games as this would mean that the research would have real managerial implications that would assist the cricket management. Furthermore, the focus is on domestic limited-over competitions only. This research does not look at the county championship games that are played over four days. This is because, the championship games and the limited-over games have very different attributes. Whereas the championship games are relatively quiet and calm in terms of atmosphere, the limited-over games are colourful and boisterous. Also, when attending the limited-over competitions, spectators expect a result at the end of the game (i.e. team win or loss). At a championship game, however, the result is only known at the end of four days (unless the game ends earlier) and often the game can result in a draw. This means that the atmosphere and expectations of spectators of the championship games are different to

that of spectators of limited-over games. As this research is exploratory in nature, it was decided to only focus on limited-over games in order to ensure that the research was manageable and the focus remains on understanding the role of emotions in the overall game experience. Investigating the different roles of emotion in championship games as opposed to limited-over games maybe pursued in future research projects.

This study would also gather data on spectator demographics such as age and gender to gain insights into the type of respondents participating in the study. The focus of the study is not to assess the variance in emotional responses based on demographic differences. However, the demographic data gathered will be used in the quantitative data analysis to assess whether there are any differences in emotional experience based on demographic differences. This would provide insights into the emotional experiences of different groups of spectators based on their age, gender, membership status, and frequency of attendance.



**Figure 3.4 – Research Boundaries**

## ***Conclusion***

This chapter set out the way in which the theoretical issues identified in Chapter 2 will be dealt with. For any research project, it is important to adopt a clear research approach or philosophy as this would help understand how and why the research was designed in a specific way as well as how and why the data were treated and interpreted in a certain way. Thus, research philosophy influences the whole research project from conception to conclusions. The current research project adopts the relativistic philosophy as it enables the researcher to use methods and tools that are most appropriate to the research purpose as opposed to only using procedures and methods that are regarded as purely empirical. The relativistic approach also allows the principles of personal construct theory to be incorporated within its approach resulting in harmony between the theoretical framework chosen for this study and the philosophy adopted.

The primary aim of the research is to understand the emotional experience of cricket spectators using personal construct theory. The theoretical rationale for this aim was revisited and also the way in which this research aim will be achieved was set out. The research method consists of two stages. Stage one would consist of spectator interviews using repertory grid technique and stage two would use quantitative spectator surveys.

Finally, the research is set within the context of English domestic one-day cricket. The rationale for this was discussed and also information on English cricket was provided. It was mentioned that attendance at domestic cricket was relatively low and the challenge for the management was to attract and retain more spectators. In order to achieve this, it is important to understand the cricket spectators and what constitutes a positive game experience for them. This research would assist the management by enabling them to understand the emotional experience of cricket spectators and how this emotional experience relates to their overall positive game experience and return intentions.

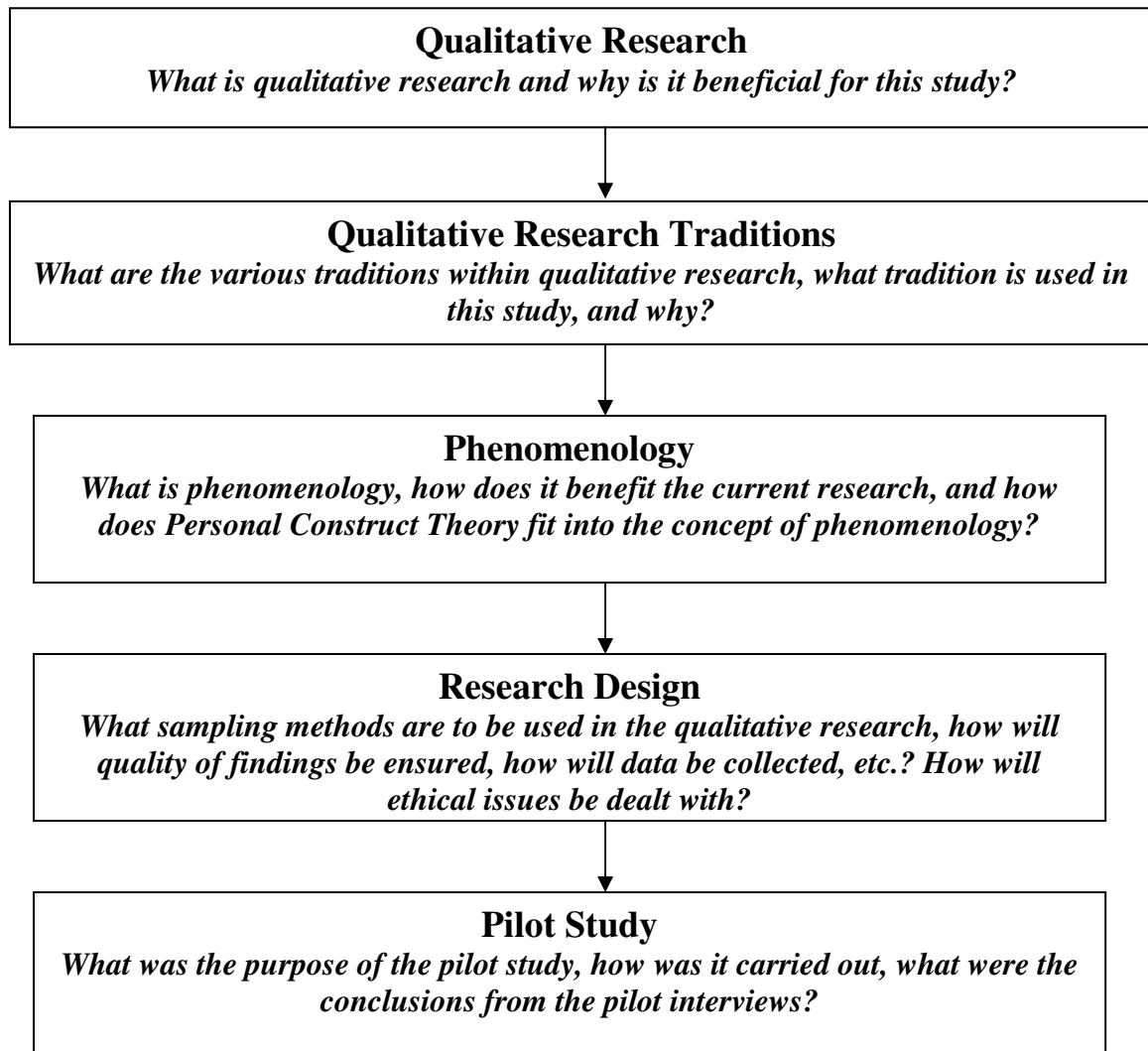
The next chapter discusses stage one of this research in further detail and discusses the research design of this stage as well as the pilot study.

## Chapter 4

### STAGE ONE – INTERVIEWS

#### *Chapter Introduction*

The previous chapter set out the philosophy which underlies this current research and also set out the purpose of the research. It was also discussed that the research purpose is achieved using two different methods of data collection. The first stage of the research would consist of qualitative interviews which would then be used to design a quantitative survey in the second stage of the research. This chapter focuses on the first stage of the research – the qualitative interviews. The chapter is structured as follows:



*Figure 4.1 - Structure of Chapter 4*

The chapter begins with a discussion on qualitative research. It argues that due to the concept of emotions being an under researched area in the arena of sport marketing, qualitative research that explores the nature of emotions is best suited. Once the researcher decides to use qualitative research as a methodology, the next step is to identify the nature of this qualitative research. That is, qualitative research has many approaches to research and data collection. The researcher needs to identify which approach is suitable to achieve the purpose of the research. In this case, phenomenology was decided to be the most appropriate research approach. This is because phenomenology is about understanding the essence of an experience or phenomenon. Also, phenomenology fits in well with the concept of personal construct theory. The concept of phenomenology rests on the principle that experiencing a phenomenon is essential in order to understand the phenomenon and also that the person experiencing it is the best authority to explain this experience. This agrees with the concept of 'man as scientist' which was advocated by Kelly (1955).

Following this, the research design is discussed in detail. It is argued that although qualitative research is emergent in nature which enables the researcher to adapt to the issues encountered in the field, it is beneficial to have a data collection plan. This would ensure that every research design decision that is made is based on its ability to serve the research purpose. Two data collection methods inherent in personal construct theory are proposed as tools to be used in the spectator interviews. These are construct elicitation and laddering.

Every research needs to consider the validity and quality of its findings from the outset. As such, the plan for the current research on verifying the qualitative findings is discussed. The main tool used to validate the qualitative data is triangulation. This involves using multiple methods in order to achieve the same purpose. In the current research, both qualitative and quantitative research methods are used in order to ensure that the findings have sufficient depth and breadth.

In order to assess the effectiveness of the research design and especially the research tools, it is important to carry out a pilot study. The pilot study carried out here involved four interviews using construct elicitation and laddering. At the end of the four interviews, the researcher assessed both the interview procedure and the information

obtained from the interviews. The major conclusion from the pilot study was that laddering did not help elicit emotional constructs that were relevant to the current research. As such, it was decided to focus more on the construct elicitation process and use the repertory grid technique to elicit emotional constructs.

## 4.1. Qualitative Study

Qualitative inquiry, also sometimes referred to as humanistic inquiry, is a way in which human experiences can be studied and understood through the collection of 'qualitative' data such as words, pictures, and descriptions (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 2002). Many authors agree that qualitative inquiry is undertaken in a natural setting in which the researcher is the instrument of data collection, focuses on the meaning of an issue to participants, and that qualitative data are analysed inductively (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Creswell, 1998; Patton 2002).

Qualitative research should only be undertaken if the nature of the research question and the purpose of the study warrant it (Creswell, 1998). The purpose of this research is to understand the emotions experienced by cricket spectators watching a live game in England. The literature review conducted for this study revealed that the phenomenon of emotions experienced by spectators need to be explored as a result of the overall game experience. Sport psychologists seem to have focussed almost exclusively on participant emotions and not on spectators (e.g. Cerin et al, 2000; Bull et al, 2005). Sport marketers on the other hand, have mainly studied spectator emotions as a result of victory or loss for the team (e.g. Madrigal, 2003). As such, employing a qualitative method would enable the concept of emotions as a result of overall game experience to be explored in depth and detail. Moreover, although quantitative scales to study emotions exist (e.g. differential emotions scale by Izard, 1977 and other emotions scales are discussed in Chapter 7, section 7.3) and have been widely used in consumption emotions studies, no such measure has been developed in the context of sport spectatorship. Furthermore, Parkinson and Lea (1991) claim that since common-sense distinctions between emotions are continuously under investigation, the comprehensiveness of pre-supplied emotion scales are doubtful. As Patton (2002) explains, it is often more appropriate to gather descriptive information about particular phenomena rather than using a scale that 'has the merit of being quantitative but whose validity and reliability [within a given context] are suspect' (p192). In reviewing the literature for this study, the researcher did not identify any studies that have investigated the emotional experience of sport spectators as a result of the overall game experience. Also, research on cricket consumption behaviour is scarce. Hence, there is no way of establishing whether the emotions measured in scales



such as the differential emotions scale (Izard, 1977; Izard et al, 1994) are the emotions that would be experienced by cricket spectators. Furthermore, even if the emotions measured in these scales were relevant in the cricket context, they do not provide any insight into why these emotions are experienced. Thus, in order to gain insights into the emotions experienced by cricket spectators and why these emotions are experienced, qualitative research was chosen as the most appropriate method for the first stage of this study.

## **4.2. Qualitative Research Traditions**

Following the debates on science versus pseudo-science and the acceptance of postmodernist approaches to knowledge and science, the field of qualitative inquiry has evolved steadily. Many academic publications have emerged that focus on qualitative research along with a wide array of literature discussing how qualitative studies should be conducted. Although this growth within the field has been beneficial in establishing the acceptance of qualitative research as a highly regarded research avenue, this has also led to some disadvantages. The proliferation of qualitative research has resulted in various authors identifying a range of approaches to conducting qualitative research. For instance, Tesch (1990) identified 28 traditions of qualitative research based on the main interest of the researcher; Wolcott (1992) introduced a tree diagram with various qualitative research approaches based on data collection strategies; and Lancy (1993) identified seven approaches to qualitative research based on disciplines such as anthropology and sociology. Although the authors who identified these various approaches have justified their classifications the novice researcher who, after deciding to conduct qualitative research, is then faced with a confusing array of choices.

The confusion with the array of qualitative research approaches is enhanced even more as investigating these traditions reveals that there is very little to differentiate between them. For example, Moustakas (1994) identified heuristic research and phenomenology as two approaches to qualitative research. However, both approaches aim to understand lived human experiences. Whereas phenomenology seeks to understand the meanings of experiences to people from their perspective (Moustakas, 1994), heuristic research seeks

to understand the meaning of human experiences from the researcher’s perspective (Moustakas, 1990). It could be argued however, that the focus of both heuristic and phenomenological approaches is the same – understanding the human experience of a phenomenon. In an attempt to minimise this confusion between research approaches, Creswell (1998) proposed five traditions of qualitative inquiry. These are biography, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography and case study approaches. Creswell (1998) proposed these traditions mainly because they each have a different focus as outlined in Table 4.1 below.

**Table 4.1: Focus of the Five Traditions (Adopted from Creswell, 1998)**

Research Traditions	Focus of Inquiry
Biography	Explores the life of an individual.
Phenomenology	Understands the essence of experiences about a phenomenon.
Grounded theory	Develops a theory.
Ethnography	Describes and understands a cultural/social group.
Case study	Develops an in-depth analysis of a single case or a few cases.

The approach to classifying qualitative research adopted by Creswell (1998) has the advantage of greatly simplifying and clarifying various approaches to research. Unlike some authors who discuss various approaches but fail to detail the exact differences between them (e.g. Patton, 2002), Creswell (1998) provides a detailed discussion and comparison between each of the five approaches with regards to research design elements such as data collection, data analysis and presentation of findings. Due to this clarity between approaches presented by Creswell (1998), his approach is preferred in this study and one of the traditions identified by him, phenomenology, is used. As Patton (2002) concludes, there is no common standard which can be applied when choosing among various approaches of qualitative inquiry and the choice is largely dependent upon the context and the purpose of the inquiry. Biography and grounded theory are not appropriate for this study as it neither seeks to explore an individual’s life nor to develop

a theory. Rather it aims to adopt an existing theory of emotion within the sport spectating context.

Ethnography and case study approaches are also not appropriate. This is because ethnography is used to describe and interpret the shared values, behaviours and beliefs (Harris, 1968). This approach has been used in the cricket context before by Parry and Malcolm (2004) to study the group of cricket supporters known as the 'Barmy Army'. The researchers used ethnography to understand the rationale behind this group and what their shared beliefs and values are with regards to cricket spectating. The aim of the current study is not to understand the cultural norms of any particular groups of cricket spectators but rather to understand the emotions experienced by spectators in general. As such, ethnography is not suitable for this study. Case study approach, on the other hand, is used to understand specific issues in a given context through one or more cases (Creswell, 1998). If using cases study approach, the researcher would only be able to investigate a few cases or spectators for this study. This would have meant that the emotions experienced by only a few select spectators would have been taken into consideration. Cricket is attended by spectators of all ages and gender of which some are members whereas others are infrequent attendees. In order to understand the emotions experienced by these various groups, it was necessary to recruit participants from these various groups. As such, case study approach would have been more limited in the variety of spectators that the study could have used and hence was not an appropriate approach for this study.

The purpose of the current study is to understand the emotional experience of cricket spectators watching a live game in England. Phenomenology is the most appropriate approach to serve this purpose as the focus of phenomenological research is to understand the essence of human experiences (Creswell, 1998).

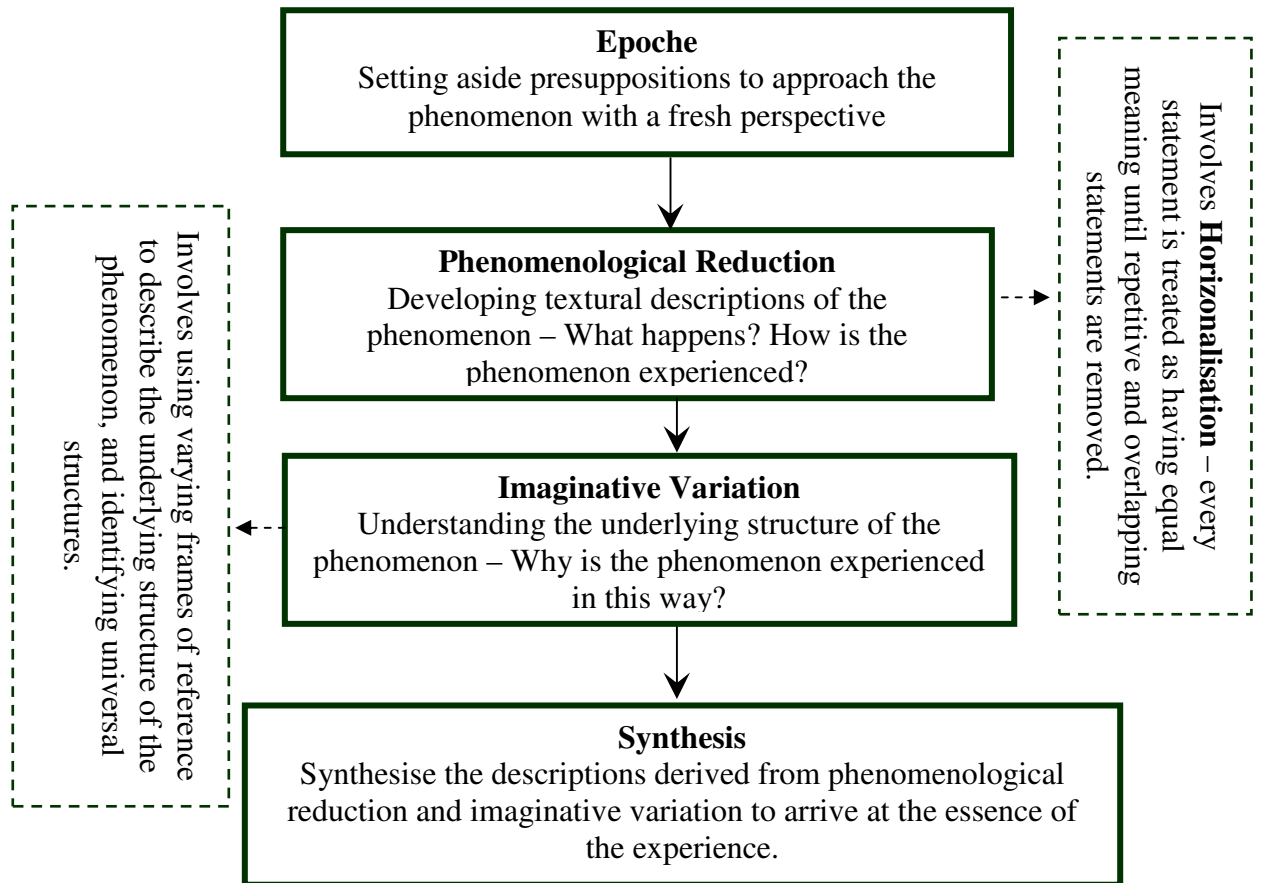
#### ***4.2.1. Phenomenology***

Phenomenological research is based on the philosophical underpinnings of Edmund Husserl. The term 'phenomenology' refers to conscious knowledge, 'the science of describing what one perceives, senses, and knows in one's immediate awareness and experience' (Moustakas, 1994: 26). Thus, when working within the paradigm of phenomenological research, the researcher accepts that phenomena are consciously

experienced by the participants and therefore first person descriptions are the best way of understanding the phenomenon (Patton, 2002; Van Manen, 1990). In phenomenological research the researcher aims to understand the essences of the experience or the phenomenon. As Husserl explained, essence is a common or universal condition without which a thing would not be what it is (Moustakas, 1994). In the context of the current research it is argued that emotions are the essence without which the game experience would not be what it is. Thus, in order to understand the nature of cricket spectating experience, one needs to understand what emotions are experienced by them and how these emotions occur.

Phenomenological research is one of the most structured in terms of research design and data analysis procedures and therefore it is the most preferred approach in the field of social sciences and psychology (Creswell, 1998). One of the main criticisms targeted towards qualitative inquiry concerns the validity of its findings or conclusions. Unlike quantitative methods that use statistical measures to ascertain the validity of findings, qualitative findings are based on interpretations of the researcher and thus are open to bias (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Qualitative researchers have advanced various ways in which validity of findings can be ensured including triangulation and participant feedback on conclusions (Creswell, 1998; Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Phenomenological approach to qualitative inquiry attempts to minimise researcher bias from the outset. Phenomenology is known to be a philosophy without presuppositions where the researcher suspends all preconceived judgements about what is real until they are founded on a more certain basis (Creswell, 1998). This setting aside of all presuppositions and approaching the research from a fresh frame of mind is known as *epoche* or bracketing. As Moustakas (1994) clarifies, although it may not be humanly possible to achieve a perfectly open mind about a phenomenon, the *epoche* principle inspires the researcher to examine personal biases. By identifying and understanding personal bias about the phenomenon, the researcher is then able to interpret the data gathered excluding these biased views and thus enhancing openness to new perspectives. The fundamental steps of phenomenological research process based on Moustakas (1994) are outlined in Figure 4.2 below:



*Figure 4.2 – Phenomenological Research Process*

#### **4.2.2. Phenomenology and Personal Construct Theory**

The current study adopts the theoretical framework of personal construct theory as discussed in Chapter 2. The principles and tools of personal construct theory can be used within almost any approach to research. For example Botterill and Crompton (1996) investigated the nature of tourist experience using two tourists as case studies. The case studies were approached from the perspectives and techniques of personal construct theory. However, Kelly's idea of people creating their constructs or 'construing' is phenomenological in nature as it requires an experiencing of the state (McCoy, 1981). That is, a person needs to experience an event or occurrence in order to be able to create constructs about the event or to modify/change existing constructs regarding the event. As Burr and Butt (1992) explain, to Kelly, it is not the events themselves which influence or mould people but the meaning with which these events are invested by the individual which forms the potent ingredient. This is in agreement with the overarching view of

phenomenology which seeks to identify the meaning people ascribe to their experiences. Within the paradigm of phenomenological research, it is accepted that phenomena are consciously experienced by people and therefore first person descriptions are the best way of understanding the phenomenon (Patton, 2002; Van Manen, 1990). This greatly corresponds to the view of Kelly (1963) who propagated the idea of ‘man as scientist.’ Kelly (1963) believed that as opposed to judging people from an ‘expert’ point of view (i.e. researcher, clinician and so on), if you wanted to know something about someone, just ask them and they will give you an accurate account. Therefore, the concept of phenomenology fits in well with the principles of personal construct theory.

### 4.3. Research Design

Creswell (1998) recommends that all qualitative research should begin with a single focus or overarching purpose with various research questions within the main purpose. This would ensure that the major research design decisions are arrived at based on the overall purpose and thus avoid being distracted by the various research questions (Creswell, 1998; Miles and Huberman, 1994). The aim of this study and the research questions for this stage of the research are shown in Table 4.2 below:

**Table 4.2: Research Aim and Questions for Stage 1**

Overall Purpose	Research Questions
To understand the emotions experienced by cricket spectators watching a live game in England.	Explore the various emotions experienced by cricket spectators, with particular focus on identifying what emotions are experienced and why.
	Determine whether the emotions identified influence overall game experience and return intentions.

The emergent nature of qualitative inquiry has meant that it has developed a reputation for being unstructured (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Although recent developments in the field have created a plethora of books and articles on structured approach to

qualitative inquiry (e.g. Patton, 2002; Creswell, 1998), many researchers still prefer to follow a 'loose' approach to qualitative research design. The argument for adopting a loose approach is that it suits the very principles of qualitative inquiry where the researcher has the flexibility to adopt, change the design based on emergent issues during fieldwork. However, Miles and Huberman (1994) argue that even within the emergent approach of qualitative inquiry there are advantages to having a structured or 'tight' approach to research design. When the researcher plans the research design in advance, there is an opportunity to ensure that design decisions are made based on the purpose of the study and the research questions. It also gives the researcher the opportunity to be well prepared for the field work and thus minimise unforeseen problems. Moreover, 'tighter designs also provide clarity and focus for the beginning researchers worried about diffuseness and overload' (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 17). In considering the advice of Miles and Huberman (1994) the current research adopts a 'tight' research design while acknowledging that some of the techniques and plans may have to be modified based on the situation on the field.

In order to satisfy the purpose and answer the research questions, a plan for data collection was developed as outlined in Table 4.3.

#### ***4.3.1. Sampling***

The commonly accepted sampling strategy within qualitative inquiry is purposeful sampling where the purpose is to select information-rich cases whose study will illuminate the phenomenon under investigation (Patton, 2002). There are various techniques of purposeful sampling including intensity sampling, criterion sampling, opportunistic or emergent sampling and snowballing. Due to the emergent nature of qualitative inquiry, it is often not possible to determine the exact sampling technique to be used during a particular study (Creswell, 1998). Also, as Miles and Huberman (1994) conclude, 'very seldom does a start-up sampling frame survive the lovely imperfection and intractability of the field' (p31). Therefore it is common for researchers to use a combination of sampling techniques while conducting their fieldwork (Patton, 2002; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

**Table 4.3: Data Collection Plan**

<b>Data Collection Activity</b>	<b>Description</b>
Subject being studied	<b>Multiple individuals who have watched a live one-day, domestic cricket game in England</b>
Sampling technique	<b>Primary technique – criterion sampling Secondary techniques – maximum variation sampling and snowballing</b>
Access and rapport issues	<b>Gaining consent from spectators to participate in the study</b>
Method of data collection	<b>Spectator interviews</b>
Recording data	<b>Tape record interviews, field notes from interview protocols</b>
Common data collection issues	<b>Time and place of conducting interviews; bracketing personal experiences and judgements</b>
Storing information	<b>Both hard copies and computer files of interview transcripts and field notes</b>

As the current study uses a phenomenological approach, the primary sampling technique used here is criterion sampling. This is because the nature of phenomenological inquiry is to understand the human experience of a particular phenomenon through first-hand accounts of experiences. This then requires the participants to have experienced the phenomenon so that they can describe it. Thus a phenomenological research sample uses criterion sampling by default – the criterion being those who have experienced or are experiencing the phenomenon. This study will therefore draw on participants who have attended one-day, domestic cricket games in England.

Unlike in quantitative research, representative sampling is not a requirement in qualitative inquiry. However, it is important to select a sampling technique that enhances the generalisability of the findings (Miles and Huberman, 1994). This would ensure the avoidance of selecting too narrow a sample (e.g. only members of cricket clubs, only



men). Thus, a maximum variation sampling will be used in this study and a conscious effort will be made to include participants based on various categories such as gender, age and membership. Snowball or chain sampling is whereby the researcher identifies participants through the introduction or recommendation of other participants (Patton, 2002). This sampling technique particularly benefits the emergent nature of qualitative inquiry as researchers have the opportunity to exploit the emerging fieldwork situation (Patton, 2002; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Thus in order to take advantage of the emergent nature of qualitative inquiry and include a sample which is information rich as possible, snowball sampling will also be used in this study.

With regards to sample size, there are no rules within qualitative inquiry. The accepted norm is for the researcher to continue collecting data until no new information is uncovered and thus the information reaches saturation (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2002). Patton (2002) claims that as there is no perfect research design in qualitative inquiry, trade-offs are inevitable. One such trade-off is between quality and quantity of data. Does the researcher go for a higher number of participants but have less depth of information or have in-depth information with a small sample size? Patton (2002) concludes that the validity and meaningfulness of insights generated during qualitative inquiry is dependent upon the information richness of the sample rather than the mere number of interviews or participants. Kvale (1996) went as far as claiming that qualitative studies have assumed an approach of 'the more interviews, the more scientific' as a defensive overreaction. In reviewing research methodologies in sport-based literature, Biddle et al (2001) highlighted the view of various authors that in qualitative research larger sample sizes have been associated with a heightened chance of analysis error. This is because larger sample sizes involve a great amount of raw information which Kvale (1996) termed as the 'thousand page dilemma.' When analysing this vast amount of information there is a chance that researchers may commit errors such as generalising data too much or missing out segments of important data. Although computer-assisted analysis may help manage the data better, the researcher still has to go through coding and so may still incur analysis errors (Krane et al, 1997).

For researchers who have time constraints and those who are beginners in qualitative inquiry, it is recommended that a minimum sample size be specified based on reasonable coverage and access issues. The number can then be increased if necessary depending on

information needs as the research evolves (Patton, 2002; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Based on this recommendation and in line with a recent study in marketing that used laddering procedure (Schoenfelder & Harris, 2004), the current study sought to interview ten cricket spectators. As the data collection proceeds, if it was identified that a saturation point is being reached, then the interviews will end at ten. Otherwise the sample size will be reviewed and more interviews will be conducted as necessary.

#### **4.4. Method of Data Collection**

For the first few decades since its introduction, personal construct theory and its tools were used mainly within clinical psychotherapy to formally analyse individual conceptual structures (Adams-Webber, 1981). Recently however, the theory has been used to investigate a variety of human experiences and construing such as tourism, management, marketing and politics (e.g. Schoenfelder & Harris, 2004; du Preez, 1975). Although no research in marketing to date has used personal construct theory to understand the emotional experience of consumers, the theory is emerging within the tourism and leisure marketing studies (e.g. Botterill & Crompton, 1996). Also, no research was identified within the sport marketing literature to date that approached spectator experiences from this particular perspective. Therefore, this study is amongst the first to use the principles of personal construct theory within the sport marketing and the wider consumption behaviour context.

As mentioned before, there are various approaches to studying human behaviour. The debate within the marketing community with regards to studying consumer behaviour can be broadly divided into cognitive and emotional. Many marketers prefer the cognitive approach as it helps them to describe consumer behaviour and decision making in logical linear models (Foxall, 1990). There are others who argue that human behaviour cannot be totally logical and consumers experience products and services and thus experiential consumption involves emotions (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). George Kelly, on the other hand, felt that psychologists should not worry too much about the differences between cognition and emotion (Bannister & Fransella, 1986). He in fact seemed to have viewed it as a process in which cognitive elements of an experience leads onto higher

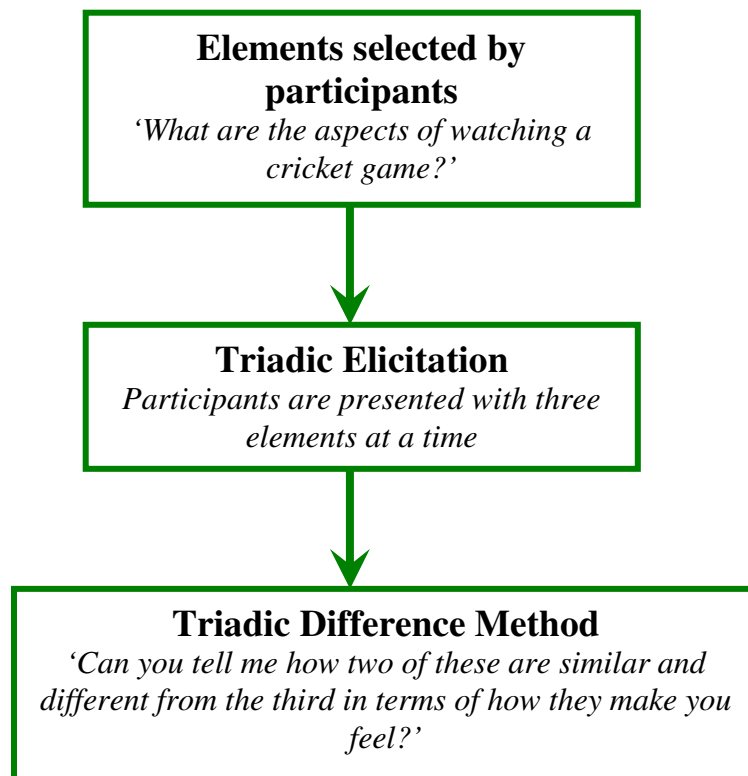
order constructs of emotions. Through the organisation corollary (see Table 2.1. in Chapter 2), Kelly (1963) explained that constructs are linked in a hierarchical system. For instance, when watching a live cricket game, a spectator may make a judgement regarding the seating arrangements at the stadium. This judgement could be based on primarily cognitive aspects such as convenience, comfort, and so on. This cognitive judgement can lead onto higher order emotions as throughout the game the feeling of discomfort intensifies and results in a strong emotional feeling of disliking the venue. This process leading on from cognition to emotion forms the basis of the laddering technique which will be discussed below. Leisure and sport consumption are often termed as hedonic consumption and thus are more experiential in nature (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). Spectators can judge their experience at the game based on two aspects - cognitive (assessment of functional outcomes) and affect (how a product/service makes you feel). As discussed in Chapter 2, the cognitive and affective elements however do not have to be a separate process and it is often misleading to view it as such (O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy, 2003; Boden and Williams, 2002). It is therefore argued here that sport spectating involves cognitive and functional elements which then leads to emotional feelings about the experience. This argument is reflected in Kelly's (1955) approach to seeing cognition and emotion as two parts of the same process. Thus using personal construct theory and its techniques to understand the emotions of spectators is judged as an appropriate method for this study.

#### ***4.4.1. Construct Elicitation***

The central tenet of personal construct theory is based on the idea of personal 'constructs'. The individual is seen as an active element in understanding his world through forming his own construction of the world and its occurrences. Kelly saw constructs not as a particular feature of the world (i.e. a mere label to be put onto an object or experience) but as an interpretative act of a person (Warren, 2001).

Personal construct is defined as the representational schema which a person creates and attempts to fit over the realities of which the world is composed (Adams-Webber, 1970). The process proposed by Kelly (1955) to understand someone's personal constructs is known as 'construct elicitation'. This construct elicitation process is summarised in Figure 4.3 below.

The researcher uses elements to elicit relevant constructs. ‘Elements’ are the subject matter of the interview and these elements used will define the nature of the conversation during the interview (Stewart & Stewart, 1981). For example, Botterill and Crompton (1996) investigated the tourist experience and used photographs of holidays as elements representing vacations. There are different approaches with regards to choosing elements for the interview. Firstly, the researcher can choose the elements to be used such as brand names (e.g. Schoenfelder & Harris, 2004) to understand the perceptions of various brands and use them to elicit constructs. Secondly, the participants can be asked to choose elements that are relevant to the topic under investigation. This approach was used by Botterill and Crompton (1996) where they asked participants to choose photographs that reflect their vacation experience and used these photographs as elements.



**Figure 4.3** - Construct Elicitation plan for the current study

Some researchers (e.g. Stewart and Stewart, 1981) suggest that elements need to be homogenous. This would mean that the same set of elements will be used by all participants to elicit constructs. This has the advantage of being easier to analyse the grids. Especially if statistical measures such as cluster analysis and principal component

analysis are to be used then it is important to have the same set of elements in all interviews so that these measures can be applied. However, others argue that in some instances heterogeneous set of elements would provide more representative constructs of the phenomenon (Wright and Lam, 2002). Elements form the backbone of the interview procedure as Wright and Lam (2002: 113) explain;

“Elements form the backbone of all construct elicitation. They in and of themselves determine the direction and level of the entire grid interview.”

As such, the elements need to be relevant to the individual participant in order to ensure that the constructs elicited are also relevant to the individual. While investigating perceptions of impulse shopping, Bayley and Nancarrow (1998) asked respondents to name purchases they would class as being impulsive. The authors argued that asking participants to choose impulse purchase categories would help elicit salient features of the experience.

As shown in Figure 4.3 above, the current study would request the spectators to identify aspects of a cricket game. These will then be written in cards and used as elements from which to elicit constructs. This approach is expected to achieve two aims. Firstly, asking the spectators to identify aspects of a cricket game would elicit salient features of cricket spectating. Secondly, aspects of the cricket game provided by the researcher would involve the researcher’s preconceived judgements of what spectators should perceive a cricket game to be. Using these pre-supplied elements to elicit emotional constructs may, therefore, provide biased conclusions which can be avoided by asking participants to supply the elements. Once the elements are chosen, the next step is to use these elements to elicit constructs.

There are various methods which can be used to elicit constructs during an interview. These are shown in Table 4.4 below:

**Table 4.4: Overview of construct elicitation techniques** (Source: Stewart and Stewart, 1981; Epting et al, 1993; Hagans et al, 2000)

<b>Construct Elicitation Procedure</b>	<b>Explanation of procedure</b>	<b>Uses and Weaknesses</b>
<b>Monadic procedure</b>	Asks participants to consider one element at a time.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Enables the interviewer to explore each element in-depth.</li> <li>• More applicable in a clinical context where deeper personal meanings and core constructs need to be unveiled.</li> <li>• Time consuming and does not allow tapping into the bipolar nature of the construct which is the essence of understanding how people construe their experiences.</li> </ul>
<b>Dyadic procedure</b>	Asks participants to consider two elements at a time and they are asked to consider whether the two elements are either similar or different in any way.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Useful when the elements are very complex and only considering two elements therefore, reduces the complexity to some degree.</li> <li>• Very useful when carrying out research with children as they are able to respond to this more than the other procedures.</li> <li>• In reducing the complexity, the dyadic procedure may minimise the need to consider the similarity/difference of elements in any depth and as such the constructs may be superficial.</li> </ul>
<b>Triadic Procedure</b>	Asks participants to consider three elements at a time and group two elements based on any similarities or differences they have in common.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Participants may find the task complex if the elements involved are quite complex.</li> <li>• The original procedure introduced by Kelly (1955) and also the most commonly used.</li> <li>• Provides constructs that are relevant and</li> </ul>

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As the table above shows, there are benefits and disadvantages to all these methods. The original approach proposed by Kelly (1955) to elicit constructs is known as the triadic difference method where participants are presented with three elements and asked to report a way in which two of the elements are alike and thereby different from the third (Stewart & Stewart, 1981). The similarity and difference reported by the participant would form the two poles of the construct. This approach is also the most commonly used by many researchers (e.g. C. Claeys et al, 1995; Jansen-Verbeke and van Rekom, 1996). This is because the triadic method, by asking for a similarity and/or difference, ensures that all aspects of the elements are considered. The results obtained from triadic elicitation procedures are also found to provide more comprehensive data which are easier to understand and more genuine (Stewart and Stewart, 1981). Therefore, the current research would use the triadic elicitation procedure in order to unearth emotional constructs of cricket spectators.

The question used to elicit constructs in this research would specifically ask for how the elements are similar and different ‘in terms of how they make you feel?’ This line of questioning to elicit constructs is known as qualifying questions (Stewart & Stewart, 1981). Qualifying questions are used so that constructs that are specifically relevant to the purpose of the interview are elicited. As the purpose of the current research is to identify what emotions are experienced by spectators while spectating a cricket game, constructs elicited needs to relate to emotions. Thus it is appropriate to ask specifically for how the elements are similar and different in terms of ‘how they make you feel?’

#### ***4.4.2. Laddering***

Laddering is defined as ‘a form of construct elicitation in which the person is able to indicate the hierarchical integration of their personal construct system’ (Bannister & Fransella 1986: 50). The construct system of an individual is viewed as being organised in a hierarchy by personal construct theory. In this hierarchy of constructs some are peripheral (bottom of the ladder) and others are closer to the centre (top of the ladder) and are known as the core constructs (Stewart & Stewart 1981). By conducting the

interviews using the technique of laddering, it is possible for the interviewer to unveil the hierarchy of constructs.

As discussed above, the current study is based on the principle that consumer behaviour cannot be studied purely on cognitive terms. Consumer behaviour almost always involves an emotional element as well. Laddering has been used by researchers to identify both cognitive constructs (e.g. functions of a product) which would form the bottom of the ladder and emotional constructs forming the top of the ladder. For example, Schoenfelder and Harris (2004) found that laddering was very useful in their research to ascertain emotional reasons for brand preference and getting past the more obvious cognitive reasons.

The laddering technique usually involves the following steps:

1. Construct elicitation.
2. Interviewer asks the participant which end of the construct pole they would normally prefer to be associated with. For example, if the constructs elicited were *boring-interesting*, the participant will be asked which one of those constructs he would prefer.
3. Once the participant identifies a construct pole (e.g. interesting), the interviewer then builds the ladder upwards by asking 'why' questions (e.g. why is having an interesting game important to you?).
4. The interviewer usually continues asking 'why' questions until the participant starts to repeat themselves as this indicates that they have already reached their higher order constructs.

Although laddering is used by psychologists to unveil an individual's core or higher order constructs, this is not very relevant for marketing and evaluative researches (Stewart & Stewart, 1981). This is because higher order constructs or core constructs are those that are central to a person and that which guides their beliefs and values. Therefore, the core or higher order constructs are more relevant to therapy or counselling situations.

However, it can be argued that an individual's brand preference and consumption of certain products such as luxury cars and organic foods are driven by these core beliefs and values. Hence, they do need to be understood. Superordinate constructs are important as they have more implications and are also more resistant to change (Hinkle,



1965). In the context of the current research, superordinate emotions would be less transient and thus more measurable. But revealing core constructs can cause trauma and conflict to the participant which the researchers are not qualified to deal with and hence it is more used in the therapy or counselling context. Thus, a good rule of thumb is to not go beyond one level of ‘why’ questions on any construct (Stewart & Stewart, 1981). Hence in order to find a balance between understanding some superordinate constructs relating to emotions but at the same time avoiding causing trauma by unveiling core beliefs or values, the current research would attempt to use three levels of laddering which will then be reviewed following the pilot interviews.

#### 4.5. Plan for Quality and Verification of the Findings

When planning a study, be it quantitative or qualitative, it is important to think about validity of the findings from the outset. In quantitative research, testing for validity often occurs after the data is collected (Creswell, 1998; Patton, 2002). Many contemporary quantitative researchers however advocate the importance of considering the research design as well as statistical measures when assessing validity. In qualitative research, it is commonly agreed that quality and validity of findings is a process which starts from the planning of the research design through to writing the research report (Patton, 2002; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Creswell, 1998). The current study plans to adopt the steps outlined in Table 4.5 to try to ensure validity of the qualitative findings:

**Table 4.5: Plan for ensuring validity of the findings**

Procedure for Verification	Plan for the Current Study
Design of the study	<b>Research design procedures is driven by how best to answer the research question within the tradition of phenomenology</b>
Triangulation	<b>Method triangulation – use of both qualitative and quantitative data</b> <b>Data triangulation – use of interviews and field notes</b>
Comparing findings to literature	<b>The findings from data analysis will be compared and contrasted to the existing literature</b>

At the start of this research project, the researcher did not have any preconceived preferences for any one research method. The researcher had previously used both qualitative and quantitative research methods and is comfortable with using either method. As the purpose of the research and the conceptual framework started to take shape the first task was to understand the concept of emotions and also to identify what methods have been used in the existing literature to understand and study emotions. The predominant method used among consumer behaviour and consumption emotions researchers is the positivistic, quantitative scales (e.g. Richins, 1997). Reviewing research published on marketing in general in the *Journal of Marketing* and the *Journal of Marketing Research*, Dahlstrom et al (2008) concluded that there is little diversity of research strategies, metrics or methods in the literature. The authors found an increasing amount of quantitative analysis of the marketing phenomenon in general. The current research project adopts a theory of emotions that is underused in the consumption emotions and the broader consumer behaviour arena which is in contrast to the dominant positivistic paradigm in the field. Also, the research is carried out in the context of cricket spectating which is an under researched context within the sports marketing arena. As such, the exploratory nature of this research was best suited to qualitative methods. However, Dahlstrom et al (2008: 148) argued that,

‘knowledge of convergent substance accrued from divergent means is more robust and generalizable than the contribution made by any single research activity.’

Furthermore, as Patton (2002) explains, ‘methodological orthodoxy, superiority, and purity should yield to methodological appropriateness’ (p68). In light of this, the current research will use both qualitative research in order to gain a deeper understanding of emotions experienced when watching a live cricket game and quantitative research to increase the validity of the qualitative findings. This is in line with the suggestion that,

‘Over a period of inquiry, an investigation may flow from inductive approaches, to find out what the important questions and variables are (exploratory work) to deductive hypothesis-testing or outcome measurement aimed at confirming and/or generalizing exploratory findings.’ (Patton, 2002:57).

In the early years of social science research, quantitative and qualitative research was viewed as belonging to different paradigms or world views. As such, they were not to be used in combination because this was seen as adopting a confused research paradigm which also meant that the research interpretations and findings are confusing and lacks

validity (Hammond, 2005). In view of this Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) argued that researchers need to be pragmatic about their research and choose their methods based on appropriateness to the research aims. Therefore, they presented what they termed as the ‘pragmatic paradigm’ within which researchers can successfully combine both qualitative and quantitative methods. This is often referred to as triangulation.

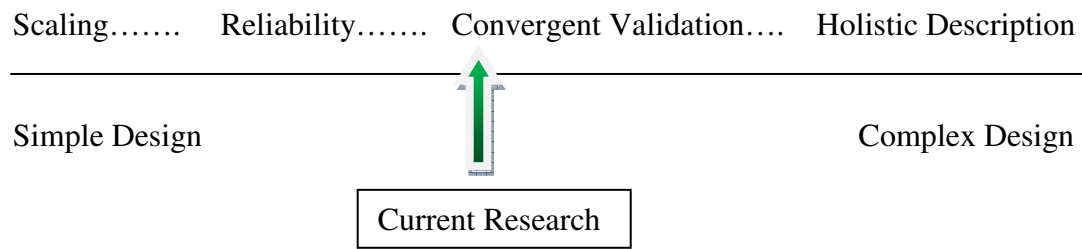
The concept of triangulation is not a new one. Webb et al (1966) discussed it in the 1960s. Even prior to this, the concept still existed and was known by various names such as; convergent methodology, convergent validation, or multi-method/multi-trait research (Dick, 1979). Triangulation is the use of various methods in the study of a single phenomenon.

‘Because each method reveals different aspects of empirical reality, multiple methods of observations must be employed. This is termed triangulation. I now offer as a final methodological rule the principle that multiple methods should be used in every investigation.’ (Denzin, 1978: 28)

Denzin (1978) introduced four ways in which researchers can triangulate their methods and information:

- 1) Data triangulation – this is the use of various sources of data in a single study (e.g. secondary and primary data).
- 2) Investigator triangulation – this is the use of different researchers in the research process. For instance using different researchers to carry out the interviews and their findings would mean that you have the depth of these various researchers’ insights, experiences, and interpretations.
- 3) Theory triangulation – this is the use of multiple theories to interpret a single set of data. This method has the advantage of looking at the data in different ways and understanding how and why variance in interpretations may occur.
- 4) Methodological triangulation – this is the use of multiple methods to study a single problem. For instance researchers may use a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods to understand a single problem.

Dick (1979) claimed that in any particular research project, triangulation can occur at various levels and he proposed a continuum of triangulation. As seen on Figure 4.4, triangulation can be at a simple design level or be part of a complex research design.



**Figure 4.4 – Continuum of Triangulation Design (Dick, 1979)**

Scaling is the simplest form of triangulation whereby the researchers try to find an explanation for a quantitative finding through the use of an observation or vice versa. For instance, if a researcher identifies that there is extreme discontent among employees, he looks at the employee activities over the past period and discovers there was a strike last year. This method of triangulation does not add much value to the research and the research is not necessarily planned as a mixed methods research. The next stage in the continuum is the method of triangulation that provides reliability to your data. This is what Denzin (1978) referred to as data triangulation. Here researchers use various data within a single method. For instance, a researcher using a qualitative research method may use interviews, focus groups, observations and field notes (or any combination of these) to answer the same research question. Next in the continuum is the form of triangulation that is most commonly used, between methods triangulation. A researcher uses multiple methods (e.g. qualitative and quantitative) in order to understand a single phenomenon. This form of triangulation provides more valid results. As Figure 4.4 demonstrates, the current research project falls between the continuum of reliability and convergent validity. This is because, at the first stage of qualitative research, the research employs interviews as well as field notes in order to identify what emotions are experienced by cricket spectators. This would ensure reliability. Also, the second stage of research uses quantitative survey in order to assess the generalizability of the qualitative research findings. Thus, by using multiple methods, the results would have convergent validity.

In order to provide a better understanding of the benefits of using mixed methods in research, Greene et al (1989) undertook a review of over 50 studies employing mixed

methods. The authors identified five potential advantages of using mixed methods as follows;

- 1) Initiation – discovering new insights through contradictory findings.
- 2) Triangulation – testing the convergence and validity of results.
- 3) Complementarity – providing added depth and clarification to findings.
- 4) Development – using the results of first method to inform and design second method.
- 5) Expansion – extending the breadth and scope of the research.

As discussed above, triangulation and using mixed methods provide great benefits to any research project. Especially, triangulation provides the benefit of validity to a research project that employs qualitative methods. As Patton (2002) claimed, both traditional scientific researchers as well as researchers adopting a constructivist research paradigm agree that triangulation adds validity to findings. Furthermore, converging of two methods ensures that the results are valid and not simply a methodological artefact (Dick, 1979). This is because,

When using triangulation ‘the weaknesses in each single method will be compensated by the counter-balancing strengths of another. Each method has its assets and liabilities.....triangulation purports to exploit the assets and neutralise, rather than compound liabilities.’ (Dick, 1979:604)

The use of triangulation in the current research, therefore, is expected to utilise the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative methods whilst minimising their respective weaknesses. As such, the results would be more valid.

#### **4.6. Ethical Issues**

In every research project, whether it is for managerial purposes or academic purposes, ethical issues need to be thought through at the design and planning stage. This ensures that all the design decisions are made in consideration of ethics and thus problems at the implementation stage are minimised or even eliminated. The Market Research Society is a world leading organisation serving the market research community. It is a membership based organisation with members ranging from practitioners to academic researchers.

The Market Research Society also provides training to the researchers on carrying out market research. Being a leading authority in market research, the society also publishes a code of conduct by which all its members are expected to adhere. This code of conduct also ensures that all those who carry out research understand the ethical considerations involved in the research process. The principles of the code of conduct published by the Market Research Society in April 2010 are as follows:

- 1) Researchers shall ensure that participation in their activities is based on voluntary informed consent.
- 2) Researchers shall be straightforward and honest in all their professional and business relationships.
- 3) Researchers shall be transparent as to the subject and purpose of data collection.
- 4) Researchers shall respect the confidentiality of information collected in their professional activities.
- 5) Researchers shall respect the rights and well-being of all individuals.
- 6) Researchers shall ensure that respondents are not harmed or adversely affected by their professional activities.
- 7) Researchers shall balance the needs of individuals, clients and their professional activities.
- 8) Researchers shall exercise independent professional judgement in the design, conduct and reporting of their professional activities.
- 9) Researchers shall ensure that their professional activities are conducted by persons with appropriate training, qualifications and experience.
- 10) Researchers shall protect the reputation and integrity of the profession.

The general principles of the code have been agreed upon as the key ethical considerations for every research project. These are: seeking consent, avoiding deception, maintaining confidentiality, and protecting the anonymity of individuals with whom we speak (Creswell, 1998; Patton, 2002). The ways in which these key ethical issues will be dealt with in this first stage of the current research project are outlined in table 4.6 below. The specific ethical issues relating to the second stage of the research, the quantitative survey, will be discussed in Chapter 7.

**Table 4.6: Ethical Issues in the Current Research Project.**

Ethical Issues	Plan for the Current Study
Seeking Consent	<b>Written research consent form to be provided to participants and both the researcher and participant would sign the consent form.</b>
Avoiding Deception	<b>The research consent form and a participant information sheet would be provided to all interested participants detailing the research purpose and procedure.</b>
Maintaining Confidentiality	<b>The participants will be informed that at any point during or after the interview, they can request that some or parts of the information they provide be excluded from the research data.</b>
Protecting the Anonymity of Individuals	<b>The participants' identity would not be included in the interview transcripts or when discussing the findings.</b>

Consent for the research for this project needs to be sought at two different levels. Firstly, as the research will be carried out during the cricket games, the ideal location to carry out the research would be at the cricket ground. In order to do this, consent needs to be sought from the county cricket ground management. The researcher contacted the county cricket club management and verbally explained the purpose of the research and the research procedure. If required by the management, a copy of a letter confirming that the researcher was a student of the University of Greenwich was sent to the clubs. Also, the management were informed that a copy of the final research findings would be provided to the club. Once the cricket club management provided consent for the research to be carried out in their venue, individual cricket spectators would be approached on the day of the games while they are in the cricket ground. In order to recruit participants for the interviews, verbal explanation of the purpose of the research and the procedure would be explained to them. If they are interested in participating, a written participant information sheet would be provided detailing the research. The

participant information sheet used in the research is included in Appendix 1. Also, the research information sheet contains the contact information of the researcher which allows the participants to contact the researcher following the interview if they require any further information or they want their interview to be withdrawn from the study.

Once the participants have read the information sheet, they would have the chance to ask any questions or clarify any information. Following this, the participants would be requested to sign a research consent form (included in Appendix 2). The consent form allows participants to request a copy of the transcript so that they can have the opportunity to exclude any information from being included in the data analysis and findings. The consent form also seeks permission for the interview to be audio taped for ease of transcription. Also, during both the qualitative interviews and the quantitative survey, the researcher would be carrying the University of Greenwich research student identification card so that the participants are reassured of the identity and credibility of the researcher.

The research design, procedure, consent form and the research information sheet used in this research were also submitted to the University of Greenwich Research Ethics Committee for approval and the research was approved by the committee.

#### **4.7. Pilot Study**

Once the research design has been decided upon, the next stage of the research project is to carry out a pilot study. The aim here is to assess and evaluate the research design as well as the tools that are being used in the research (Creswell, 1998; Patton, 2002). In the case of this current research project, the researcher was employing tools such as construct elicitation and laddering that was new to the researcher. As such, it was important to carry out some pilot interviews in order to gain some experience using these techniques as well as to ensure that the tools used help elicit the required information. This would ensure that the researcher is confident in using the research tools and at the same time the information obtained from the interviews are relevant to the purpose of the research. The pilot interviews would therefore, help confirm or modify the research design and research



tools before the final interviews are carried out and thereby saving resources such as time and money.

Preferably, the pilot research should emulate the final research design and data collection procedure so that any field issues can be identified and dealt with prior to the final research (Miles and Huberman, 1994). This was not possible in the current study. Due to the nature of the research, the best way to gain access to the cricket spectators is at the cricket grounds during the games. However, this necessitates that the data collection take place during the cricket season in England. When this research had reached the stage of pilot interviews, the cricket season had ended and thus carrying out interviews at the cricket ground was not possible. Waiting for the next cricket season would have delayed the project for at least six months. Therefore, in order to ensure that the research progresses swiftly, it was decided that the pilot interviews would be carried out in various venues such as local cricket clubs where spectators can be accessed. Although this was a major drawback of the pilot interviews it does not detract from the purpose of the pilot stage. The main purpose of the pilot stage is to assess the effectiveness of the research tools chosen for the interviews. This can be achieved through carrying out interviews regardless of the place and the procedure with which participants were recruited.

As mentioned in Chapter 3, at the start of this research project, the plan was to carry out a comparison study between cricket and tennis spectators. This plan was still in place during the pilot interview stage of the research. Hence, when looking to recruit participants for the pilot study both cricket and tennis spectators were sought. In order to recruit spectators, the researcher contacted various minor cricket and tennis clubs in London. The club management were contacted via the telephone and emails and the researcher explained the nature of the research project. The management were asked if it would be possible for the researcher to attend one or more of the club games and interview some spectators. As club cricket and tennis was not very well attended and usually the spectators were the friends and family of the players, the number of spectators available for interviews during a game would be very small. Also, due to the nature of the research, the participants of the interview needed to have attended at least one domestic one-day cricket or a tennis competition. In order to effectively utilise the time, the clubs offered to identify spectators, who were often parents, players or spouses of those playing for the club, who have attended at least one game of domestic cricket or

tennis in the past twelve months. The clubs then contacted these individuals regarding the research and if they were willing to participate, the researcher arranged a day and time to suit the participants. All the interviews took place at the cricket or tennis clubs on the day there was a game being played. This was more convenient for the participants and also ensured that the health and safety risks are minimised for both the researcher and the participant.

A total of four pilot interviews were conducted with three cricket spectators and one tennis spectator over a period of two weeks. All three cricket spectators were male and the tennis spectator was a female. Prior to the interview, the details of the study were discussed with each participant and they were provided with the research information sheet which provided additional information of the study as well as the contact information of the researcher (see Appendix 1). In addition, the participants signed an interview consent form providing consent to be interviewed and for their interview to be tape recorded (see Appendix 2). The interview guide which was used is provided in Appendix 3. The interviews started with some questions to understand the experience of the participant as a spectator and their level of interest in the game. These questions also enabled the participants and the researcher to build a rapport and make the participant feel at ease. The remainder of the interview followed the steps of construct elicitation and laddering discussed in section 4.4 above.

The interviews were transcribed verbatim and analysed manually. The main purpose of the pilot study was to ascertain the effectiveness of the research tools used, namely construct elicitation and laddering. As such, a detailed analysis of the interview data was not seen as very relevant. Also, once the pilot interviews are analysed, the researcher has insights into what aspects of the cricket/tennis game are seen as salient by participants, what emotions they experience and so forth. This prior knowledge may affect the researcher's judgement while carrying out subsequent interviews. Thus, in order to help minimise researcher bias, it was decided against carrying out a complete and detailed analysis of pilot interview data. However, the effectiveness of the research technique and the questions asked is reviewed and discussed below.

#### ***4.7.1. Review of Pilot Interviews and Suggestions for Improvement***

##### ***4.7.1.1. Access, Time & Rapport Issues***

Access to participants was obtained through contacting minor cricket clubs in London as well as County tennis associations. As the pilot interviews were carried out at the end of the cricket and tennis seasons in England, the participants were not present at the game during the interview. This was a major drawback of the pilot study as the qualitative research is planned to be carried out during the professional cricket and tennis games. Not carrying out the pilot study during games meant that spectators' response to participation in the study could not be assessed. However, cricket and tennis associations have provided access to their competitions and agreed for the research to be carried out during the games. Thus no major problems to access and spectator participation in the study are expected at this stage. Participants of the pilot study did not have any problems with regards to the research information sheet and the consent form and as such no amendments to these documents will be carried out.

Each interview lasted between thirty to forty-five minutes approximately. Published research using construct elicitation and laddering do not provide details on the average lengths of interviews (e.g. Schoenfelder & Harris, 2004; Neimeyer et al, 2001). Therefore, no guideline was available as to how long the interviews should last. As such, the appropriateness of the duration of the interviews could not be assessed. However, private discussions with experienced qualitative researchers revealed that approximately forty-five minutes to an hour is the average length of an interview using construct elicitation and laddering.

The first pilot interview was with a cricket spectator and was carried out without any written interview guide. Also, no preliminary questions were asked regarding the participants' background or interest in the game and so on. As a result of this, the first interview was unstructured and the researcher did not feel confident about the steps of construct elicitation and laddering. In addition, it was felt that starting the process of construct elicitation without prior conversation did not help put the participant at ease. As the process of construct elicitation and laddering started without any preamble, the participant seemed overwhelmed by the request to think of aspects of a typical cricket game. Thus, subsequent pilot interviews were conducted using an interview guide which

also included some preliminary questions (see Appendix 3). In the subsequent interviews conducted using the interview guide, the researcher was able to build a better rapport with the participants. These interviews were also more structured and thus helped the researcher to follow the steps of construct elicitation and laddering more effectively. Having the interview guide also helped the participants. It seemed that as the researcher felt more confident and comfortable in using the research tools, the participants felt more at ease with communicating their thoughts. This could be because confidence in using the research tool conveyed a sense of authority and authenticity to the researcher which enabled the participants to trust the researcher more. In light of this, future interviews will be conducted using the interview guide.

#### ***4.7.1.2. Elements***

The construct elicitation process began with the participants being requested to write down the aspects that make up a cricketing/tennis experience on cards. As discussed before, there are various ways in which constructs can be obtained. One of these methods involves the researcher providing the elements written on cards to all interviewees who would then use this same set of elements to elicit bi-polar constructs. This has the disadvantage of using the researcher's preconceived idea of what a cricket/tennis game is. The constructs therefore, could be biased. However, asking the interviewees to think about a typical game and write down the aspects of the game that they would be experiencing on the day would ensure that the salient aspects of the game are captured. Because they are salient they are also likely to be the more important aspects of attending the game. During this procedure of eliciting elements, none of the participants encountered any difficulties in writing down elements on cards. The elements written on cards provide great insight into the individuals' perception of a cricket/tennis game. Whereas for one participant it was all about the active involvement through playing the game himself, for another it was about facilities such as seating, food outlets and so on.

Reviewing the pilot interview transcripts revealed that sometimes the participants discuss elements such as enjoying the game with friends and taking kids to the game. However they did not write these on the cards as elements. This could be because they were not very clear as to what should be written down on the cards. It is possible that they assumed the researcher's interest only lies in aspects such as seating and food outlets and the game itself. In future interviews, the researcher would need to explain to the

participant in more detail as to what aspects of a cricket/tennis game could involve. Also, if any participants discuss certain elements of the game but fail to write them on the cards, the researcher could suggest they write them down and if not find out why they may not wish to write them down. This would help to obtain a wider variety of elements. Also, some of the elements written on cards were not relevant. For instance, one participant (PI2) wrote 'ease of ticket allocation for international games' and 'cost of ticket for high class games' as elements. While discussing these elements however, it was clear that they were only relevant to international cricket games and not to county first class games. As the focus of the current study is county first class cricket games, these two elements were not relevant for the interview. In future interviews, the researcher needs to review the elements written by the participant prior to using them to elicit constructs. This would ensure that all the constructs elicited are of relevance to the particular phenomenon under investigation.

#### ***4.7.1.3. Construct Elicitation and Laddering***

Reviewing the interview transcripts it was clear that the nature of constructs elicited have a great impact on the process of laddering. For instance, when a participant (PI2) was asked to identify the two similar elements based on 'how it makes you feel,' the bipolar constructs elicited were 'frustration – enjoyment'. These two emotions were part of all of this participant's bipolar constructs which were elicited using various triads of elements. However requesting participants to provide constructs with regards to 'how it makes you feel' during subsequent interviews did not elicit emotions. Instead, these participants produced constructs such as safe-change and player interaction – social interaction. Thus, it was clear that even though they were requested to identify the similarity and difference between the elements based on how they made them feel, some participants elicited cognitive constructs. This was not a problem when it came to laddering as participants found it easy to ladder upwards from these cognitive constructs onto higher order emotions. Thus it was evident that it would not be the case that all interviews or even all the constructs in the same interview would elicit constructs that are made of single words that clearly correspond with emotions. The researcher needs to choose the constructs that may not be an obviously emotional construct and discuss it further with the participants to understand and identify what emotions the participant is trying to convey.

During the laddering process, the researcher decided to stop building the ladder when participants found it difficult to move past a particular level or when they tended to repeat themselves. This was because, as mentioned above, participants often produced cognitive constructs and laddering up more than three levels was necessary in order to elicit emotional constructs.

Although the process of laddering itself did not cause any problems or issues, once all the four interviews were concluded, the researcher felt that it was still not possible to understand specific emotions that are experienced by the participants. This is because, when the process of laddering commences, it was evident that what was being unveiled were the values of participants that transcends cricket or tennis and goes further to encompass their beliefs. Discussing their values and what drives their choices in life was novel to the researcher as well as most of the participants. For instance, as one participant while going through the laddering procedure, described cricket as being a comfort. He described this as something that he does not have in other aspects of his life.

‘Cricket always makes me feel comfortable, if that makes sense. Its not threatening, it’s a lot of my working life here you spend dealing with people’s problems, people who are struggling with anti-social behaviour....so cricket is an escape. It’s comfortable, it’s easy, and it’s a refuge for me. It’s a way of escaping the problems and issues of the world and just immerse myself into something that I really enjoy where I feel at peace, I feel comfortable, I feel non-threatened...’ (PI4).

Following the interview this participant mentioned that the interview and especially the last part of the interview (where laddering was carried out) has made him realise how he viewed cricket and attending cricket in his life. Although, this information was very interesting and insightful to both the researcher and the participant, it does not necessarily serve the purpose of the interviews. The purpose of the interviews is to understand and identify what specific emotions are experienced by the cricket spectators. These emotions were unveiled more during the construct elicitation process rather than the laddering stage. It was felt that the laddering procedure and the information obtained through this procedure did not add any value or depth that served the purpose of the research. As such, the laddering procedure itself is unnecessary for this research. It would be more beneficial to utilise the time spent on laddering to elicit constructs that are more valid and information rich. Laddering is still used in this process as sometimes when the participant identifies ‘spending time with family – watching the game by

myself' laddering up or down as required can help identify the emotions that the participant is trying to express. This is discussed in more detail when the repertory grid is discussed in the next chapter.

To conclude, the pilot interviews helped arrive at the following decisions regarding the research tools and procedures used:

- 1) Use an interview guide for all interviews as this ensures that the interview is carried out in an organised and orderly fashion.
- 2) Explain the procedure of writing down elements in more detail and provide examples of aspects if necessary.
- 3) Once elements are identified take time to ensure that the elements relate particularly to domestic one-day cricket rather than any other form of cricket.
- 4) Laddering at the end of the construct elicitation process did not unveil specific emotions but rather it elicited spectators' values and belief systems which were not specifically relevant to this research.
- 5) Laddering as a main tool needs to be removed from the interview process.  
Laddering can still be used in order to help arrive at emotional constructs as and when required.

Following on from these findings of the pilot interviews, it was decided to investigate the possibility of using repertory grids as the interview tool. The repertory grid involves the same procedure of eliciting elements and then using these elements to elicit constructs. However, the difference is that instead of using these constructs as the basis for moving onto laddering, the repertory grids use the construct elicitation process itself to elicit emotions that are relevant to cricket spectators. The repertory grid and the process involved in a repertory grid interview will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

## ***Conclusion***

The choice of what methods to use in any given research project should be driven by its purpose. The current research uses the personal construct theory of emotions which is relatively under used in marketing and consumer behaviour research. Also, emotions is an under researched subject within the context of sports spectating. As such, the exploratory nature of this research is best suited to a qualitative research approach. Phenomenology is a tradition of qualitative research that focuses on studying the essence of the human experience. It also fits in with the principles of personal construct theory of discovering the meaning behind an experience as well as viewing the person experiencing the phenomenon as the authority on his or her experience. As such, phenomenology is an appropriate tradition within which to carry out the current research.

In-depth interviews are the primary method of data collection within the tradition of phenomenology. In addition to this, personal construct theory introduces certain tools that can be used in the interviews to ensure constructs that are relevant to the topic are being investigated. Two of these tools, construct elicitation and laddering, are chosen as data collection tools in this research.

The sceptics of qualitative research regularly point out that unlike quantitative research, qualitative research findings are more difficult to validate. However, there are ways in which researchers can ensure that the findings from their research are valid. One of the major ways of ensuring validity of qualitative data is through triangulation. The current research uses both qualitative interviews and a quantitative survey in order to understand the emotional experience of cricket spectators. This triangulation of methods would ensure that the findings have greater validity.

Finally, the details of the pilot study carried out in order to assess the effectiveness of the research procedure and tools were discussed. A major conclusion from the pilot study was that laddering was not effective in unveiling emotions that were experienced during the game. Construct elicitation was more effective in this regard and as such repertory grids which focus on eliciting emotional constructs will be used as a research tool. In the following chapter, the repertory grid technique is discussed in detail.

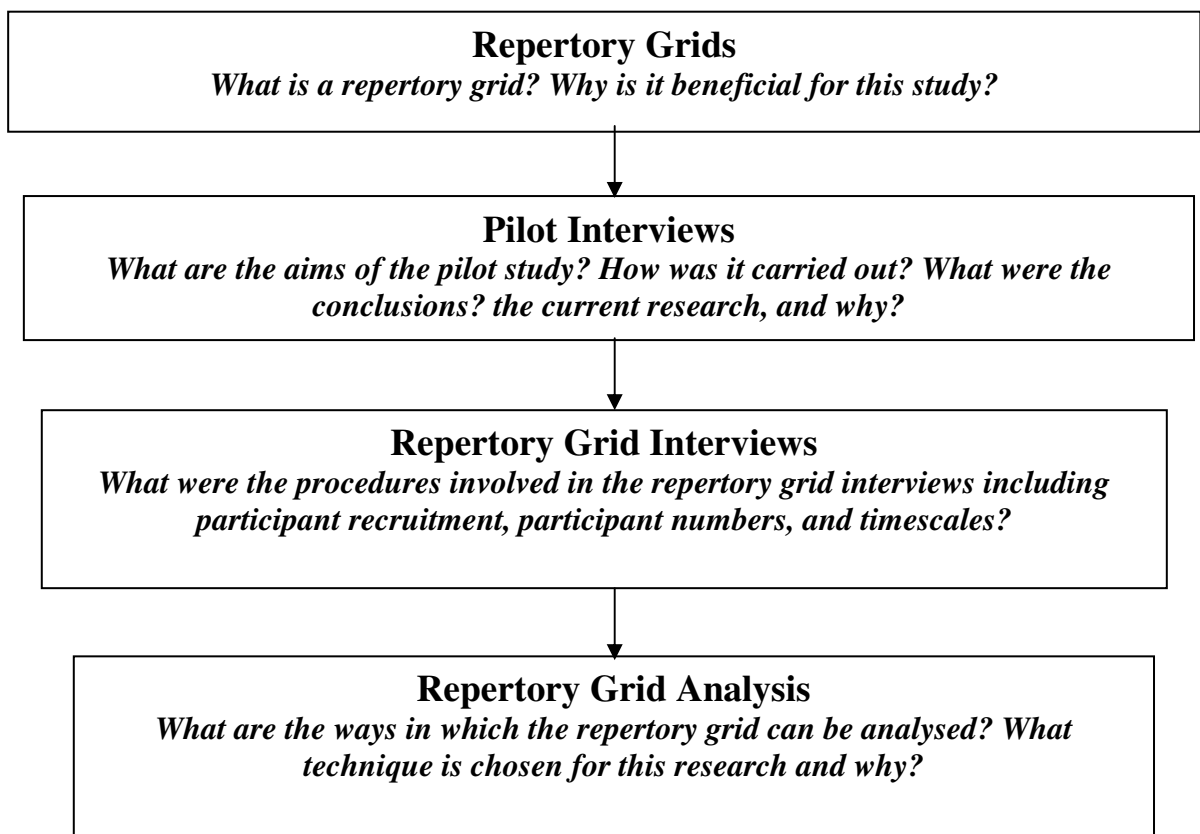


## *Chapter 5*

# REPERTORY GRID INTERVIEWS

### *Chapter Introduction*

The previous chapter discussed the qualitative research phase of this study. The chapter also outlined the choice of research tradition and the data collection tool to be used in this research. As discussed in the previous chapter, the evaluation of the pilot interviews revealed that laddering as a tool to identify and understand the emotions of cricket spectators was not effective. As such, a different data collection method was required. This chapter discusses the alternative data collection method used and the interviews that have been carried out using this tool. The chapter is structured as follows:



*Figure 5.1 - Structure of Chapter 5*

The chapter begins with an explanation of what a repertory grid is. This was a tool originally developed by Kelly (1955) in order to identify and understand people's

constructs. This stemmed from the philosophy of personal construct theory which believes that 'man is a scientist'. As such, he is the expert on his own experiences and feelings and thus Kelly (1955) developed the repertory grid to help him unveil his constructs. Although repertory grids were used originally in the counselling and therapy setting, its uses within the research context is starting to gather pace. This is evidenced by many researchers who propagate and use the repertory grids in their research (e.g. Rogers and Ryals, 2007; Schoenfelder and Harris, 2004; Botterill and Crompton, 1996). As the discussion on the repertory grids point out, the advantage of the repertory grid lies in the fact that it prompts deeper and more considered thinking about a given topic compared to in-depth interviews while minimising researcher bias.

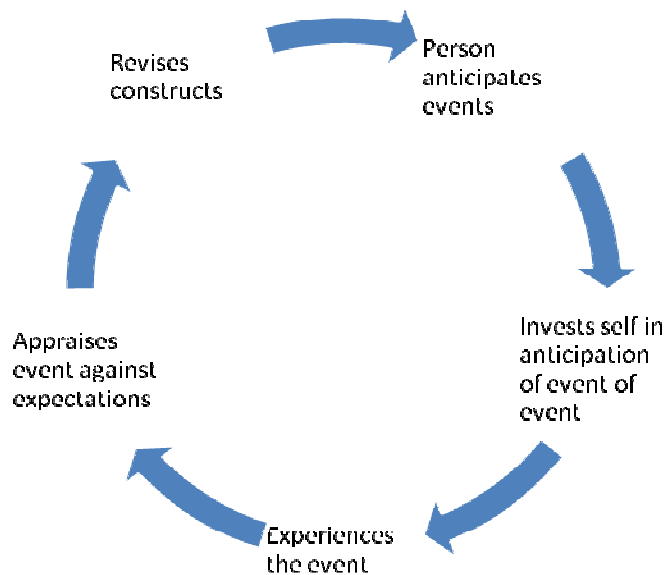
In order to ensure the effectiveness of the repertory grids for the current research, two pilot interviews were carried out with cricket spectators. The participant recruitment and procedure of the pilot interviews are discussed. Following the evaluation of these pilot interviews, several conclusions are arrived at. Most importantly, the repertory grid was an effective tool in identifying and understanding spectator emotions. Some procedural changes in administering the grid were made as a result of the pilot study including changing the question used to elicit elements from participants.

Following the pilot interviews, the final spectator interviews were carried out during 40-over domestic cricket games in 2008. The venues, participant recruitment, number of participants, and the duration of interviews are all discussed. The interview procedure and grid administration is discussed in detail. This discussion also forms the first stage of grid analysis known as the process analysis. Process analysis sets out the context within which the grid data is analysed and interpreted.

There are various tools with which to analyse repertory grids. These range from purely qualitative to quantitative tools. These various tools are outlined. As the discussion details, the objective of this stage of the research is to identify and understand the emotions experienced by the cricket spectators. As such, the choice of analysis tool needs to be focussed on understanding the meaning expressed in the grids and quantitative tools are not always the best method in which to do this. Hence, content analysis is chosen as the appropriate analysis tool for this research. The chapter concludes by setting out a data analysis plan for the grid interviews.

## 5.1. Repertory Grids

George Kelly (1955), in developing his theory, proclaimed that man is a scientist. This is the basic underpinning of the personal construct theory. Man is a scientist, because his actions are guided by the theories he holds about himself and those around him (Burr and Butt, 1992). Through daily events and occurrences in his life, man tests these theories or assumptions he has of the world which is then either confirmed or modified, or in Kelly's terms, reconstructed. This act of perception of events and experiencing was discussed by Kelly in what he termed the 'experience cycle' (See Figure 5.2).



**Figure 5.2** – Experience Cycle (Source: Winter et al, 2007; Stewart and Stewart, 1981)

As the experience cycle suggests, people anticipate events based on various factors. For instance, spectators anticipate what will happen at a cricket game and how they expect the experience to be. These expectations may be based on previous experience, what they have heard from friends and family, what was mentioned in the marketing material and media reports, and so on. Then, they invest themselves in this anticipation by purchasing the ticket and other preparations for attending the game. Once spectators are at the game and they are experiencing the event, they assess the actual experience against expectations or anticipations. Based on whether the actual experience met their expectations, they either confirm their expectations or constructs or modify the

expectations or constructs. These modified or accepted constructs then become the basis for expectations during the next event or game that spectators would attend. These anticipations or expectations that are held by the individual are known as constructs.

Constructs are the essential unit of analysis in personal construct theory (Jankowicz, 2004). A person's constructs are 'an interpretation of life events the person produces to help deal with the world of experience' (Epting et al, 1993:79). This act of creating constructs is known as construing. As Jankowicz (2004) explains, 'to construe is to make sense of something; to have a personal understanding of it; to find meaning in it' (p10). The idea of a construct is quite distinct to the notion of concepts. Whereas concept is a verbal label given to an idea or theory that is accepted, constructs are evolving and subject to constant testing and retesting. Furthermore,

“the word ‘construct’ carries with it both the sense of having been constructed or developed from experience, and also the sense of being that through which we construe – or see and interpret – the world. Thus if you can understand someone’s construct system you can not only understand his history, but you can also make some predictions about how he is likely to behave in a given situation because you know something about what that situation is likely to mean to him.” (Stewart and Stewart, 1981: 7)

Kelly's (1955) idea of the individual as a scientist meant that in order to understand the individual and any aspect of their life and experiences, you should ask them. However, Kelly (1955) acknowledged that at times (and to some people), language can be both ambiguous and inadequate at describing their meanings (Burr and Butt, 1992). This is certainly the case when it comes to emotions. More often than not, people find it difficult to verbalise the emotions that they are feeling. Also as with emotions, people may not be conscious of the feeling they experience or constructs they hold. In order to identify these constructs the person, the scientist, may need some help. Kelly (1955) proposed that this help can be provided through a tool called repertory grid.

Kelly developed the repertory grid in order to understand the way in which people interpret their experiences. Using the repertory grid ensures that the interviewer obtains a mental map of how the participants view and interpret the world around them. This map is then written down or captured with the minimum of interviewer bias (Stewart and Stewart, 1981). As Fromm (2004) explains, there are three major questions that concern

someone who wants to understand an individual from a personal construct theory perspective:

- 1) “How does a person deal with his environment and attribute meaning to things and events?
- 2) How can he communicate something about these subjective processes to others?
- 3) How can others understand what he tells them?” (Fromm, 2004:12).

The answer to the first question is constructs. People deal with their environment and make sense of their world by construing and developing constructs about experiences. The latter two questions of communicating the constructs and understanding the constructs are achieved through the use of repertory grids. With specific reference to marketing research, Rogers and Ryals (2007: 597) explain that;

“Repertory grid is a research tool that elicits the underlying constructs that people use to interpret what is going on around them and that inform their decision making.”

With specific reference to the current research the repertory grid would help understand how spectators experience attending a cricket game in emotional terms. This understanding of their emotional experience would help determine if they had a positive game experience and as a consequence decide to return to the game.

In the past, emotions research both in psychology and consumer behaviour have measured emotion through the use of pre-defined rating scales, free verbal descriptions, and neurological research. Pre-defined rating scales are the most preferred approach of consumer behaviourists who adapt and use scales such as the Differential Emotions Scale (Izard, 1977) and Consumption Emotions Set (Richins, 1997). Although these scales have been widely used and proven to be valid as well as reliable, it limits the scope of exploring emotions. Respondents completing these emotion scales are constrained by the pre-defined emotions that are already available in the scale and thus are unable to fully express the range of emotions they are feeling (Parkinson and Lea, 1991). Neurologic research has recently begun to proliferate the consumer behaviour research on emotions. However, reducing the complexity and richness of emotions to mere neural activity of the brain has been criticised as an attempt at reductionism (O’Shaughnessy and O’Shaughnessy, 2008; Lazarus, 1999). Furthermore, the same neurological activity can

be caused by two or more emotions and as such the differentiation between these emotions are left to the researcher. Thus as well as researcher bias, neurological research methods also eliminate the respondents' interpretation and understanding of the emotions they are feeling. Free verbal descriptions are often used in emotions research which employs a qualitative research design. Although the free verbal description of emotions obtained from the participants have richness and depth of data, analysis and interpretation of these data becomes very complex. This can result in the emotions being expressed by the participants being misinterpreted and misrepresented. Thus the likelihood of capturing holistic meaning of what emotions the respondent experienced becomes more difficult (Parkinson and Lea, 1991). Repertory grid, as a method to understand emotions, on the other hand, helps overcome some of the problems with the above mentioned measures as well as combining some of the advantages of them. As Parkinson and Lea (1991: 74) explain;

“Instead of using respondents' similarity ratings as the new data from which dimensions of emotional meaning are extracted, the present approach (repertory grids) picks out definitions of the distinctions between emotions directly, then participants use these semantic dimensions as a basis for emotion ratings. Instead of predefining rating scales for comparisons between emotions, here participants are encouraged to decide what differences are significant for them.”

The repertory grid does have some disadvantages. As the tool is an inherent part of the theory, some of the theoretical underpinnings affect the repertory grid. For instance, Kelly's (1955) notion of man as scientist implies that people constantly and continuously test their hypothesis (understanding of the world or specific events) and as such their constructions about these events may be modified or changed. Therefore, the responses obtained from the same participant regarding the same experience at two different points in time may elicit different constructs. Thus, retesting as an empirical procedure may be difficult (Rogers and Ryals, 2007). However, in relation to consumption for products and services, organisations constantly strive to provide improved products, services and consumption experiences in an attempt to attract and retain customers. Thus, the aspects of consumer experiences evolve and change over time and this would mean that their constructs do change over time. Therefore, the difficulty in retesting is not necessarily a difficulty but a true reflection of consumer experience. Another disadvantage of repertory grids is that it can be time consuming to conduct and also the period of data collection during a research project can be lengthened due to the need for finding

participants who are willing to commit their time and at the same time be willing to undertake the tasks involved in the grid procedure (Rogers and Ryals, 2007). However, this can be overcome by using the repertory grid to understand the phenomenon in detail and the results of these grids can be subject to larger scale quantitative surveys for generalisability if required. Combining methods does not compromise the theory behind repertory grids as Kelly (1955) considered both quantitative and qualitative methods of measurement to be equally valid in helping you understand human experiences (Bannister and Fransella, 1986).

On the positive side, the repertory grid helps researchers to discover the true nature of human experiences and achieve this understanding with minimum of researcher bias. It is also particularly useful in researches such as this one as it helps explore phenomena that are either under researched or require an alternative perspective because,

“It helps researchers to explore the unarticulated concepts and constructs that underlie people’s response to the world.” (Rogers and Ryals, 2007:610)

Furthermore, the grid interviews have the advantages of a depth interview in that it helps understand the phenomenon under investigation in greater detail and depth. However the repertory grid goes beyond the confines of a conversation as follows,

“In talking to each other, we come to understand the way in which the other person views the world, what goes with what, what implies what, what is important and unimportant, and in what terms the person seeks to assess people, places and situations. The grid formalises this process and assigns mathematical values to the relationships between a person’s constructs. It enables us to focus on particular subsystems of construing, and to note what is individual and surprising about the structure and content of a person’s outlook on the world.....It is a formalised version of the kind of information we are always seeking about each other, and the kind of understanding we are always in the process of gaining about each other.” (Fransella et al, 2004:5)

### ***5.1.1. Repertory Grid Interview Procedure***

Since its development by George Kelly (1955), the repertory grid has been used in a variety of contexts in various ways. There is no single or standardised method of conducting a repertory grid interview as the literature includes repertory grids that vary in design and procedures (Hagans et al, 2000). However, there are certain aspects of the grid interview that remain constant in every form of repertory grids. These are:

- 1) Topic – the grid needs to be focussed on a well defined topic or phenomenon as the idea is to understand the participant’s view of that particular experience. The elements used and the constructs elicited would therefore be linked to the topic under discussion.
- 2) Elements – aspects of the topic or phenomenon that the participant uses to identify and understand their constructs.
- 3) Constructs – the participant’s view and experience of the phenomenon under investigation.
- 4) Ratings – the rating of constructs against the elements in order to understand how the construct relates to the elements.

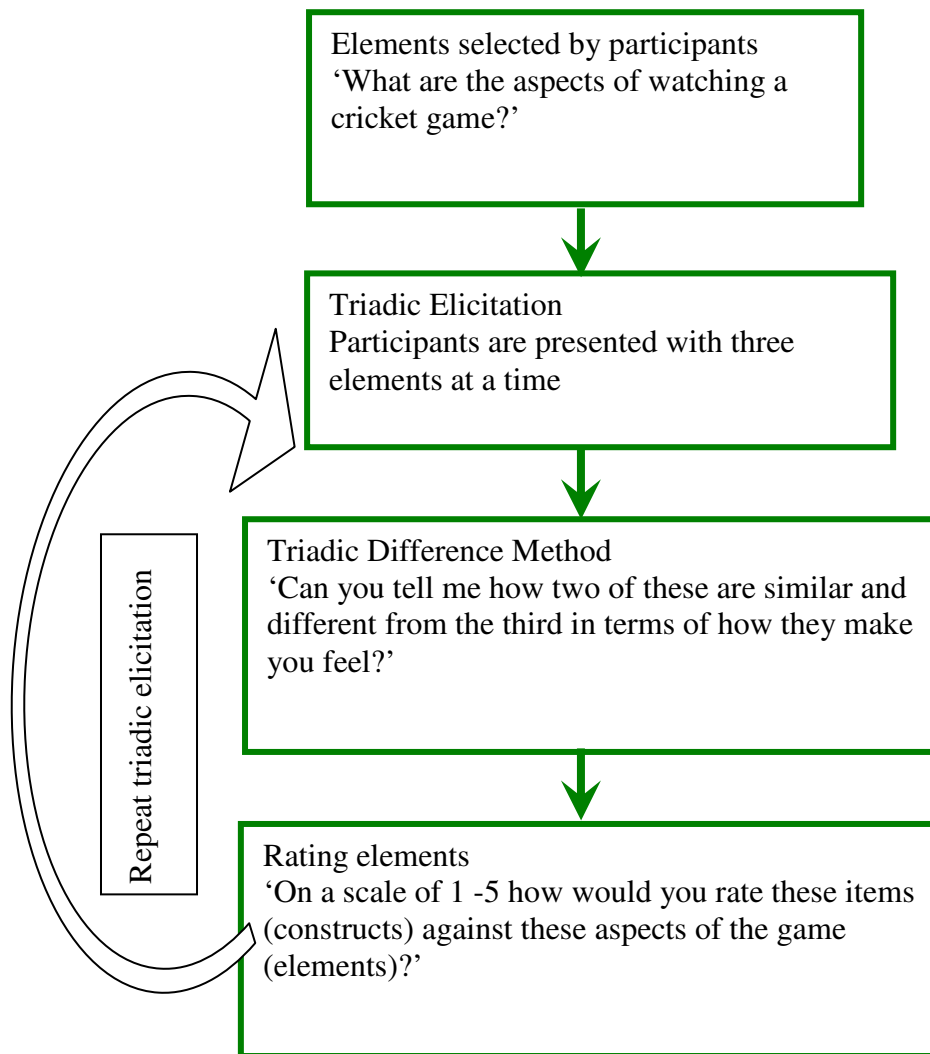
(Source: Jankowicz, 2004; Neimeyer et al, 2005)

The procedure for eliciting constructs and administering a repertory grid is similar to the procedure discussed in Chapter 4 (see Figure 4.3). The only difference is that the participant would now be requested to rate the constructs against the elements. This procedure of repertory grid administration which will be used in the current research is shown in Figure 5.3 below.

As the figure indicates, the elements will be written down by the participants on cards. In the current research, each participant would be requested to identify aspects of cricket game that are important to them and then the triadic elicitation would be used to elicit constructs. These procedures were discussed in detail in Chapter 4 (see section 4.4). Once the first set of constructs is elicited the triadic elicitation procedure is used repeatedly with different triadic combinations until all or most triadic combinations are exhausted. Finally the participants are requested to rate the constructs against the elements. The rating of constructs helps provide a detailed picture of the participant’s view of the particular phenomenon under investigation.

“the constructs in a grid tell you something about *how* the interviewee thinks about a topic. The ratings tell you *what* s/he thinks about individual elements.”  
(Jankowicz, 2004:54)





*Figure 5.3 – Construct Elicitation plan for the current study*

As with quantitative scales, the rating scale can range from a basic two point scale to scales with various points. However, the current research uses a 5-point scale to rate the constructs. This is because the middle point in an odd scale allows the participant to choose a neutral point rather than forcing them to make a choice. Also, to use a scale with more points such as an 8 or 9 point scale is excessive. As Jankowicz (2004) explains, the larger the scale used, the more participants are forced to make very fine judgements consistently for all the elements. The author termed this as ‘spurious precision’. As such, in order ensure that the scale is manageable for the participants a five point scale is seen as appropriate for this research.

The constructs are the focal point of the repertory grid as it is the constructs that provide the researcher a doorway into the participant's mind. In the current research project, the constructs would be the emotions that the spectators experience. According to Kelly (1955), the constructs that a person has are bipolar in nature. As he states in his dichotomy corollary (see chapter 2 section 2.4) a person's construction system is composed of a finite number of dichotomous constructs. Bipolarity of a construct is an important aspect for the repertory grid as it reveals the full extent of the individual's perception and view of the world.

“Personal constructs are bipolar dimensions which each person has created and formed into a system through which they interpret their experiences of the world. It is the bipolarity construct that distinguishes it totally from a concept. For example, by stating that something is a *tree*, we are also stating specifically *what a tree is not* – for instance, it is *not a bush*. The opposite of the concept *tree* is everything that is *not a tree*.” (Fransella et al, 2004:16)

Personal constructs are however, not merely bipolar in the sense of a dictionary or semantic opposite. The aim of the repertory grid is to elicit the construct in its true bipolar nature which is a difference or opposite in the psychological sense and not merely semantic (Stewart and Stewart, 1981; Fromm, 2004). Thus when the construct is elicited during the grid interview, the participants identify a similarity that two out of the three elements have. This similarity forms one end of the construct known as the emergent construct. The difference with the third element forms the bipolar element and is known as the implicit construct (Jankowicz, 2004). At the end of the grid interview the interviewer would have a grid with two poles (emergent and implicit pole) which represent the constructs. A completed grid obtained from a pilot interview is presented in Figure 5.4.

As the bipolarity of a construct suggests, what is opposite to the construct is the ‘opposite’ as understood or viewed by the individual interviewee. As such it can be argued that;

“On the whole personal constructs are initially very private and even the individual himself is only partly aware of them and able to communicate them.” (Fromm, 2004:15)

This then solicits the question of whether repertory grids are useful in research such as this current one. If the individual grids and constructs only apply to that individual and each individual has a unique set of constructs then can they be aggregated at any level to find a common set of constructs (or in this case emotions) that can be applied to cricket spectators in general? The commonality corollary described by Kelly (see Chapter 2 section 2.4) suggests that a group of people may be similar not in terms of an outsider's (or researcher's) hypotheses but in their own typical ways of construing. Thus, the commonality between a group of people sharing the same experience is about these people being like-minded about that particular experience (Butler and Green, 1998). Furthermore, similarities between people's constructs are most likely because individuals are not born and do not grow up in a vacuum. Individuals are influenced by experiences of various cultural and social norms that can shape the way they understand and react to certain experiences (Fromm, 2004). As Kelly himself explained;

“Each study of an individual becomes a problem in concept formation for the psychologist. After he has conceptualised each of his cases, he next has the task of further abstracting the individual constructs in order to produce constructs which underlie people in general.” (Kelly, 1963:43)

It is, therefore, methodologically possible to use repertory grids to investigate the aspects common to many people without violating the theoretical assumption that we are all unique in certain other respects (Bannister and Fransella, 1986). This is demonstrated many times through existing literature that uses the repertory grid technique to understand common themes of customer experiences (e.g. Schoenfelder, and Harris, 2004; Rogers and Ryals, 2007; Naoi et al, 2006). As such, using repertory grids in the current research would also help understand a common set of emotions that are experienced by cricket spectators attending a domestic one-day game.

## **5.2. Pilot Interviews Using Repertory Grids**

The pilot interviews discussed in Chapter 4 were carried out with a view to assessing the effectiveness of the laddering technique to elicit an understanding of spectators' emotional experience. As discussed, in Chapter 4, these interviews helped identify that laddering, as a tool to understand specific emotions that were experienced, was not very

effective. As such, the repertory grid was chosen as the method to identify and understand the emotional experience of cricket spectators. However, as the researcher has no previous experience of administering a repertory grid, it was essential to carry out some pilot interviews. The aim here was to assess the researcher's ability to administer the repertory grid effectively. Also, the pilot interviews would help ascertain whether the repertory grid design chosen here is effective in eliciting the constructs that are essential for this research.

In order to achieve these objectives, two pilot interviews were carried out using the repertory grid technique. As with the previous pilot study discussed in Chapter 4, London based cricket clubs were contacted and were provided information about the study. Interested participants were asked to contact the researcher to arrange a convenient date and time for the interviews. At this stage of the research, the decision to focus only on cricket spectators as opposed to carrying out a comparison study between cricket and tennis spectators was already made. The rationale for this (as discussed in Chapter 3) was that the exploratory nature of this study would be best suited to looking at a single context in more depth rather than trying to compare two contexts. As such, only cricket spectators were sought for the pilot interviews. Two pilot interviews were carried out and each interview lasted approximately forty-five minutes. Both participants were male and had been interested in cricket since a very young age. One of the interviews took place in the community association offices where the cricket club was based. The second interview took place in the participant's work place as this was most convenient for the participant.

Prior to the start of the interview, the purpose and the nature of the study were explained to the participant and they were provided with the research information sheet (Appendix 1). The participants were then requested to sign the consent form (Appendix 2). Following this, some general questions relating to the participants' interest in the game and their level of attendance at games were discussed. This was so that participants start feeling comfortable with talking to the researcher prior to commencing the grid interview. The grid interview followed the procedure outlined in Figure 4.3. Participants were requested to write down elements in cards. The specific question put to them in order to elicit the elements was "If one day cricket game is made of various events and activities, what would these events and activities be?" Once the participants had written the

elements in cards, these cards were coded for ease of recording the similarity/differences in the grid. Also, the wordings of the elements were modified in order to ensure that all the elements on the cards represent the same type of activity. This ensures that, when comparing elements, participants are comparing like with like (Wright and Lam, 2002). For instance, during the pilot interview, participants wrote down elements such as fielding, batting, food and drink, and banter. These elements, although all referring to activities taking place at the cricket game, refer to different activities undertaken by different people. For instance, fielding and batting are activities undertaken by the players in the field. Food and drink, and banter, on the other hand, are activities that are undertaken by spectators in general. However, it is not clear whether the participant is referring to watching the banter going on within the crowd or if he is referring to taking part in bantering. The topic of investigation here is the experience of spectators. As such it is important that they compare activities that they take part in and experience. In order to achieve this, it was decided to follow Wright and Lam's (2002) suggestion of rewording the elements. The elements are re-worded into verbs or in other words, into terms ending with 'ing'. For instance, 'fielding' was reworded into 'watching fielding'; 'banter' was reworded, following consultation with the participant, into 'bantering with the crowd' and so on. It should be noted here that these rewording of elements took place in consultation with the participant to ensure that the meaning they were trying to express was not compromised.

Once the elements were reworded and coded, the participants were presented with three randomly selected cards at a time and asked to identify two cards that are similar based on 'how it makes you feel'? When the similarity had been noted they were asked how the third card differed from the other two. This provided the bipolar construct that relates to that specific set of elements. This procedure was repeated with approximately 4-5 triads. Although the literature on repertory grids suggests that the triads should be used until all the possible combinations are explored or until the participant starts providing repetitive constructs, due to time constraints of the pilot interview participants, it was decided to keep the procedure short. This is not a major drawback as the aim of the pilot study was to assess the effectiveness of the procedure which does not necessarily require for all the possible constructs to be elicited. At this point, they were asked to rate the constructs on a five-point scale along the elements. This helped identify what emotions

are related more or less to each of the elements. Once this was done, the interview was concluded.

### 5.2.1. Review of Pilot Interviews

The first interview elicited five bi-polar constructs from seven elements. The second interview elicited three constructs from five elements. The repertory grids obtained from each of these interviews are provided in figures 5.4 and 5.5 below.

1	Observing captain's tactics	Watching Fielding	Watching Bowling	Watching Batting	Listening to commentary	Participating in spectating	Queuing (for tickets and/or enter to the ground)	5
Anticipation	√ 1	√ 1	1	1	3	3	X 4	Irritation
Interesting	1	1	1	1	2	3	5	Boring
Exhilarating	1	1	1	1	2	2	5	Mundane
Entertaining	√ 2	1	1	1	2	√ 2	X 4	Annoying
Belonging	3	2	2	2	X 5	√ 1	√ 1	Outsiders

Figure 5.4 – Grid from Pilot Interview 1

	Watching Fielding	Eating and Drinking	Interacting with people	Watching wickets	Watching batting	
1						5
Happy	X 5	√ 2	√ 1	2	3	Appreciation
Empathy	√ 1	5	√ 4	1	X 1	Relaxation
Empathy	√ 2	4	4	X 5	√ 3	Excitement
Overall positive game experience	2	3	1	1	2	Overall negative game experience
Will make me come back to the game	4	3	2	2	2	Will not make me come back to the game

*Figure 5.5 – Grid from Pilot Interview 2*

The first row of the grid contains the elements that were elicited during the interviews. The two columns at either end of the grid represent the two poles of the constructs. The column on the left-hand side is the emergent pole (similarity between the elements) and the last column is the contrast pole (the difference in the elements triad). The symbols ‘X’ and ‘√’ are used to identify the three elements that were used in eliciting the particular construct. The two ticks indicate that the two elements were grouped as being

similar whereas the element with the cross indicated the element that was different. For example, in Figure 5.5, Happy-Appreciation was a construct elicited from the elements 'Watching Fielding', Eating and Drinking', and 'Interacting with people'. In this triad, the latter two elements were identified by the participant as being similar because they make him happy whereas the third element (Watching Fielding) was different because that makes him appreciate the skill of the players.

As the purpose of the pilot is to review the effectiveness of the grid procedure and to identify any procedural tactics that needs to be modified, the contents of the grids obtained from the pilot interviews were not analysed. However, the procedures used were reviewed and are discussed below.

In order to help with the repertory grid design and administration techniques, the researcher had an advisor who was experienced in using repertory grids and personal construct theory. The pilot interviews were discussed with the advisor in detail in order to identify any problems with the procedure and tactics. Overall, the interviews went well in terms of rapport between the participant and the interviewer. When asked to write elements on cards, participants did not take long to do this. However, it was evident that initially the focus of the participants was all on the game itself or in other words on-field activity such as fielding, batting and bowling. Although this is not surprising given the context of the research is cricket, it was felt that focussing primarily on the game-related aspects was not beneficial. This was because the game itself is only one aspect of the spectators' experience. Various other factors such as friends and family, atmosphere at the game, off-field entertainment would also have an impact on the spectators' experience. The focus of the current study was to understand the emotional experience with regards to the overall game experience which includes both on-field as well as off-field elements. Therefore, an alternative question for eliciting elements was needed. As the focus of the study is emotional experience, it was decided to get participants to focus on this from the outset. As such the following set of instruction will be used to elicit elements in future interviews:

- 1) Imagine you are at a typical domestic one-day cricket game, you are feeling good about being there. What is happening around you to make you feel this way? The participants would write these on cards.



- 2) Imagine you are at a typical domestic one-day cricket game, you are not feeling good about being there. What is happening around you to make you feel this way? The participants would write these on cards.
- 3) Imagine you are at a typical domestic one-day cricket game, you are feeling neither good nor bad. What is happening around you to make you feel this way? The participants would write these on cards.

This procedure aims to achieve the following results:

- 1) Asking them to think about a typical domestic one-day game would focus their attention on the activities and events that occur during the domestic one-day competition rather than an international or a championship game.
- 2) Requesting participants to think of occurrences when they are feeling good, bad, and neutral would help capture all aspects of the experience. Otherwise there is a risk of participants only focussing on negative or positive aspects of their attendance while ignoring the rest.
- 3) As their focus would be on emotional experience from the stage of element elicitation, eliciting emotional construct is expected to be more effective.

Rewording the elements into verbs did not create any problems and participants found it easier to make the comparisons as they were comparing activities that they took part in either actively or passively. When eliciting constructs, the participants understood what was being asked of them and engaged with the task enthusiastically. In some instances laddering down was necessary in order to ensure that the participant is focussing on emotional constructs. For instance, when following the construct elicitation question, the participant started describing the differences/similarities. A few probes (laddering down) were required to elicit the emotion terms. In some cases, interviewer suggested that from listening to the participant 'does 'happy' fit in with what you are describing to me?', 'so what you were feeling was 'empathy' does that sound right?' and so on. This is quite common during repertory grid administration and laddering up or down when discussing individual constructs can help focus the mind of the participant and it also enables the researcher to check their understanding of the emotion that is being expressed (Jankowicz, 2004; Fromm, 2004). The construct elicitation process in some instances was not very straightforward as the participant struggled to articulate their construct or in this case their emotion. In discussing this with the research advisor, it was identified that

the researcher was trying too hard to obtain the perfect emotional construct. This meant that the laddering procedure was used extensively until the participant came up with a clear verbal label of an emotion such as ‘anticipation-irritation’; ‘entertaining-annoying’ and so on. This is not desirable as the premise of personal construct theory is that the constructs are from the individual. As such, the term that they use to refer to a construct is, in most cases, the way the individual has understood the construct to be. Trying to get a clear verbal label of emotion may therefore force the participant to ‘label’ the construct into something that they think the interviewer wants to hear. In order to avoid this, it was decided that in the future interviews, laddering would be used to check the interviewers understanding of the construct that is being expressed rather than trying to create a verbal label for it.

The last two constructs shown in Figure 5.5 (second pilot interview) are constructs that were supplied by the researcher. When planning your research tools it is always advisable to consider how the data will be handled and analysed once the tool has been used. The analysis procedure which will be used with the grids elicited from this research rests mainly on content analysis. The rationale for this would be discussed later in the chapter. However, in order to carry out this content analysis, it is necessary to provide an overall summary construct. The overall summary construct represents how the individual feels about the topic under investigation (Jankowicz, 2004). In other words, it is their overall summary of how they feel about the topic. Here, as the focus of the research is to assess the impact of emotions on spectators’ overall game experience and return intentions, it was decided to supply two constructs that summed up their experience. These two constructs were: ‘Overall positive game experience – Overall negative game experience’ and, ‘Will make me come back to the game – Will not make me come back to the game.’ As the decision to supply these constructs was made after the first pilot interview, it was only used in the second pilot interview. The participant was explained the reason for supplying the constructs and they did not have any concerns regarding this.

When rating the constructs, the participants understood what was required of them and did not encounter any problems with the task. As such no modifications to the rating procedure or the scale were necessary.

To summarise, the review of the pilot study indicated the following procedural issues with administering the repertory grids which have been modified:

- 1) The elements elicitation question elicited primarily game related elements. In order to ensure that the elements relate to the overall game experience, the element elicitation question was changed. The new question would ask participants to consider the activities or events occurring during the game that make them feel good, bad, and neutral.
- 2) Construct elicitation needs to be more relaxed. That is rather than forcing the participants to come up with a dictionary term of emotion, laddering up/down will be used to clarify the meaning they are expressing.
- 3) Two supplied constructs will be provided once the participant has completed construct elicitation. These constructs relate to the overall game experience of the spectators and their intention to return to watch the game. The rationale is to summarise their overall game experience and return intentions in relation to watching a one-day game.

### **5.3. Spectator Interviews**

Following the pilot interviews, the final spectator interviews were carried out. The procedure of recruitment of participants and the interview administrations are discussed below.

#### ***5.3.1. Recruiting Participants***

The researcher had contacts at several county cricket clubs in England due to carrying out research at cricket games previously. These cricket clubs were contacted via telephone and email in order to provide information regarding the current research as well as to request permission to carry out the interviews at their venue. The cricket clubs that provided access to their spectators for the purpose of the research are as follows:

**Table 5.1: List of County Venues Used for Interviews**

County Teams	Venue, Location
Surrey County Cricket Club	The Brit Oval, London
Kent County Cricket Club	St Lawrence Ground, Canterbury
Marylebone Cricket Club	The Lords, London
Hampshire County Cricket Club	The Rose Bowl, Southampton
Northampton County Cricket Club	The County Ground, Northampton
Sussex County Cricket Club	The County Ground, Hove

The cricket clubs provided a complimentary ticket for the researcher providing access to the ground. All but one cricket club also agreed to provide the researcher with a room where the interview could take place. These rooms were hospitality boxes that were free on the day of the game. This proved beneficial as the spectators did not have to miss the game during the interview as they had an excellent view of the game. In all but one case, the researcher provided the participants with some light refreshments such as biscuits, juice and water. One of the clubs agreed to provide the refreshments to the participants. The one club that did not have any hospitality boxes available advised the researcher to use the members only bar in which to carry out the interviews.

All the interviews were carried out during 2008 cricket season on the day of 40-over games played during the day. This had the benefit of helping participants focus on the nature and experiences at a one-day game. No interviews were carried out during the Twenty20 games where the game only lasts approximately 3-4 hours. The rationale for this was that as the pace of the game is much faster, potential participant numbers would be extremely low. Spectators also start arriving at these games much closer to the start of the game as opposed to a 40-over game where spectators start arriving from about an hour and a half before the start. The interval during the Twenty20 games are also much shorter (about 15 minutes) compared to the 45minutes at a 40-over game. As the recruitment of participants was planned to take place primarily before the start of the game and during the intervals, the Twenty20 games would not have been very productive for the purpose of the interviews.

During the day of the interviews, the researcher arrived before the gates officially opened and set up the room for the interview. This usually involved getting the refreshments ready and laid out as well getting the forms, index cards, Dictaphone and so on ready for the interview. Once the gates opened and spectators start arriving, the researcher approached participants randomly and explained the nature of the study and provided them with a leaflet that had further information regarding the interviews. The leaflet used for this purpose is provided in Appendix 5. This leaflet had brief information regarding the nature of the research, contact information of the researcher, as well as the details of a prize draw. In order to encourage spectators to participate in the research, a prize draw was provided as an incentive. The participants had a choice of entering the prize draw to win one of three prizes. The prizes were a cricket bat signed by the England team (this was provided by the England and Wales Cricket Board for the purpose of the prize draw); a signed football shirt by a former premier league player (this was in order to attract a more younger audience); and a ticket for a Twenty20 game of the participant's choice in the following season. In some cases the participants agreed to take part once the researcher had explained the study and then they were taken to the hospitality room to conduct the interviews. In the instances where the spectators had not made up their mind or wanted to participate at a later time during the game, the leaflet was left with the spectators and they were informed that they could call the researcher's telephone number to arrange a time for the interview that day.

In total, six games were attended by the researcher with one game at each venue. It was not very easy to attract spectators to take part in the interview. As the duration of the interview was relatively long and the participants had to leave their seating area to come into the hospitality room for the interview, this also put spectators off from participating. On two occasions where it was proving especially difficult to attract any participants at all, the interviewer carried out the interview in the spectators' seating area. This was not ideal as there were distractions from other spectators and also laying out the cards for comparison and so on was more difficult. However, in order to ensure participation in the research it was decided to carry out the interviews at the seating area in these cases. On some days the researcher was only able to interview one spectator during the whole game, whereas on other days the researcher was able to interview two spectators and on one of the days the researcher carried out four interviews.

### *5.3.2. Sample Size and Length of Interviews*

Twelve spectators were interviewed in total for this research. In naturalistic inquiry, the aim is not necessarily to obtain a representative sample but an information rich sample who can share their experiences from various perspectives (Patton, 2002; Miles & Huberman, 1994). As such, the sampling technique chosen for this study was criterion sampling and maximum variation sampling. The rationale for this was discussed in Chapter 4, section 4.3. In line with this, the primary criteria when requesting spectators to participate in the study was that they have attended at least one day of domestic one-day cricket. The attendance had to be during the current season or the previous season. This was in order to capture the experiences that were not too diluted in memory. Also, the researcher tried to approach people who could provide various perspectives. This included members, non-members, male and female. The final total of 12 interviews included 2 females and 10 males. There were also 2 non-members and 10 members of a county cricket club. This is not unusual for a research carried out in domestic competitions. As the Mintel report on Spectator Sports (2007) indicates, only 21% of cricket spectators are female. Also, more members tend to attend domestic competitions in comparison to non-members (Kuenzel and Yassim, 2010). Therefore, the participants in this study represent the domestic cricket spectatorship reasonably well.

With regards to the sample size, Biddle et al (2001) cite qualitative studies that use a sample size of 7 -75 interviews. The authors point out that there are no set guidelines on the ideal or required sample size in a naturalistic study. However, Kvale (1996) point out that having too much data can actually reduce the quality of the data especially when it comes to data management and analysis stages of the research. With regards to repertory grid interviews, literature indicates varying numbers of sample sizes. Botterill and Crompton (1996) used two participants in a case study approach to understand the nature of tourist experiences. Rogers and Ryals (2007), on the other hand, interviewed ten key account managers to demonstrate the effectiveness of repertory grids in marketing contexts. Some authors such as Parkinson and Lea (1991) have used as many as 42 participants to understand the way in which people conceptualise emotions. It is worth noting here that Parkinson and Lea (1991) used a student sample who participated in the study as part of their first year module. The grids were also administered during their class time. As such, it can be argued that recruiting participants was not an issue for the researchers here in comparison to investigations carried out in natural settings such as the

current research which interviewed spectators at a cricket game. In a similar vein, Naoi et al (2006) carried out 20 interviews with students in order to understand the historical tourist district. These various sample sizes used in the literature demonstrates that there is no recommended sample size for repertory grid interviews. However, Young (1995) suggested that for the purpose of construct elicitation, small sample sizes can still provide valid results. As such the sample size of 12 in the current research is seen as sufficient. Also, as the repertory grid interviews are to be followed by a quantitative survey in order to further validate and generalise the findings, a larger sample size was not seen as very relevant for this stage of the research.

The interviews lasted on average 45 minutes each. Although there are no firm guidelines on the duration of administering repertory grids, literature has suggested a range of time scales. Parkinson and Lea's (1991) interview of students lasted approximately 30 minutes each. Naoi et al (2006) on the other hand stated that their repertory grid and laddering interviews lasted from 40 minutes to 1 hour and 30 minutes. In the current research the end of construct elicitation and thereby the interview was based on two factors. Firstly, the common criterion of saturation was used (Jankowicz, 2004). This is where the participants start providing repetitive constructs for the various triads of elements. Providing repetitive constructs indicate that the participant has explored or stated the constructs that are relevant to that particular topic. Secondly, when it was evident that the participant was tiring of eliciting constructs and seemed more distracted, then the interview was ended. This only occurred on two occasions and it was decided to end the interview because if the participant is not fully concentrating on comparing the elements and providing constructs then the constructs elicited would not carry much personal meaning.

### ***5.3.3. Interview Procedure***

Personal construct theory and its research tools are based on the premise that people are the experts about their own experiences. Therefore, when carrying out research within this paradigm and using its tools, it is important that the participant feels and is treated like the expert on the subject matter. In order to achieve this Fromm (2004) suggests the following steps:

- 1) Information about the purpose of the interview and what is expected of the subject  
- In the current research, the purpose of the study and the nature of the interview was explained verbally to each participant. Following this, each participant was also provided with a written research information sheet as well as a participant consent form and were given as long as they needed to read through them and ask any questions they may have.
- 2) Information about the procedure for the interview – The researcher verbally explained the procedure of the interview to each participant in this research. Especially the fact that the participants need to write things on cards and compare these cards were emphasised. Participants were also given the option of writing the elements themselves or saying it for the researcher to write them down. All participants chose to write the elements themselves.
- 3) Practising the procedure for the interview – This was not possible in the current research due to time constraints. However, the participants were given sufficient time to write elements on cards, compare cards as well as rate the cards. They were reassured that they could take as long as they needed as well as change their mind with regards to ratings and element comparisons.
- 4) Explaining the unusual features of the interview situation – When initially informed about the study, the initial impression the participants seemed to have had of the procedure was answering a set of questions asked by the researcher. Each participant was explained the procedure in terms of writing elements in cards and comparing elements as well as rating them. They were reassured that this was a tool to get them to think more carefully about the topic and their responses in no way indicated any right or wrong answer.

In addition to the above steps, Fromm (2004) also recommends a few further guidelines to ensure that the participant is given the freedom to articulate his or her own constructs. This is crucial in personal construct theory as the construct belongs to the individual and is personal to that individual, the constructs come directly from them. These guidelines from Fromm (2004) and the way in which these were met in the current research are as follows:

- 1) Refraining from making judgements about the content – although in some instances, laddering up and down is necessary to understand the particular meaning that the participant is trying to express, the researcher ensured that no



comments were made regarding the elements, constructs, or the ratings provided by the participants.

- 2) Refraining from formulating on behalf of the subject – Sometimes the participants took their time to formulate the constructs and in some cases they were very hesitant in explaining the construct. This only occurred during the construct elicitation process rather than the elements elicitation. When this occurred, the researcher reminded the participant that they could take their time to think about it and also reassured them that there is no right or wrong answer. What the researcher was interested in was the participants' meaning and their experience. Participants were not offered any suggestions in terms of emotional words or phrases to be used as constructs.
- 3) Being open for corrections – Participants were informed that they are free to revise their elements, constructs or ratings. Especially before rating of the constructs began, the participants were shown the grid and given a chance to check that their meaning has been captured and also to make any corrections.
- 4) Adjusting to the subject's pace – As mentioned before, participants were all reminded that they could take as long as they require to verbalise their constructs or even to decide on ratings. They were constantly reassured that it was fine for them to take their time.
- 5) Adjusting to the subjects' general well-being – The participants were provided with light refreshments which they were free to have anytime during the interview. They were also reminded that they could take a break at anytime during the interview. In some cases participants chose to have some refreshments during the interview but none of them requested to have a break.

The interview followed the procedure set out in Figure 4.3 above. Following some general questions regarding the participants' general interest in cricket and attendance at domestic one-day games in particular, the elements elicitation commenced. The participants were asked to think of a typical domestic one-day game and imagine that they were feeling good about being there. They were then asked to think of the things happening around them to make them feel this way. This was followed by asking them to imagine feeling bad about being there as well as feeling neutral about being there.

On average each interview elicited 7 elements. Number of elements in each interview ranged from 5 to 11 (only one interview had 11 elements). There are no set guidelines as to how many elements each grid should have. However, the nature of the current research which elicits elements from participants rather than supplying them makes it difficult to control the number of elements that are being provided by the participants. It was also important that the participants were not restricted to providing only a certain number of elements as this could curtail the exploration of what a cricket game really means to them. Rogers and Ryals (2007) warn that having too many elements can, in fact, make the grid unwieldy. This is because comparing all these various elements would prove quite cumbersome to the participants. The authors suggest that it is best not to work with more than ten elements. Thus, the number of elements elicited in this research fits in with this advice. Overall, spectators found it easier to identify constructs as a response to activities that make them feel good or bad compared to activities that make them feel neutral. This indicates that, to domestic one-day cricket spectators, their experiences are either positive or negative. In other words, they feel strongly about their experiences to a lesser or greater degree. Neutral experiences seem to be almost non-existent. This also highlights the importance of ensuring spectators have a positive game experience so that they may wish to return to the game.

#### ***5.3.4. Construct Elicitation and Ratings***

Once the participants had completed the element elicitation, the researcher explained to them that the element card needed to be coded for ease of recording data. The elements also needed to be re-worded into verbs ('-ing' words to relate to the participant taking part in the activity or experience) as discussed above. While this was being carried out, the participants were asked to take some refreshments and they were also reassured that coding and re-wording of elements is part of the normal procedure and in no way implies that the researcher is checking the elements to make a judgement on them. At this point, if required, the researcher sought to clarify what the participant was trying to say in some of the element cards. This was important as misunderstanding of the elements and thus the comparisons made in order to elicit constructs can impair the interpretation of the data.

Following the re-wording and coding of the element cards, the participants were provided with various triads of elements. It was evident during the pilot interviews that not all

possible triadic combinations were being used during the interview. This was mainly due to the fact that constructs were starting to repeat themselves. Additionally, during the final interviews carried out at the cricket games, having a long interview may become tiring and distracting for the spectators. Therefore, it is also important to ensure that the interview does not last too long. As such, it was decided to provide triads in a way that each element is included at least once. Prior to the interviews, the researcher prepared a list of possible triadic combinations for 10 elements. To illustrate, each element card was coded as A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J. Then, these numbers were included in possible triadic combinations, such as shown in Table 5.2 below.

**Table 5.2: Possible Triadic Combinations of Elements**

<i>Primary Triads</i>		<i>Secondary Triads</i>			
ABC	BCD	HIJ	IBC	GAB	EAB
DEF	CDE	IJA	IFG	GBC	EBC
GHI	DEF	IAB	HAB	GDE	DAB
JAB	EFG	IBC	HBC	FAB	CDA
	FGH	ICD	HCD	FBC	
	GHI	IDE	HEF	FCD	

As Table 5.2 shows, the primary triads use each element at least once. This ensures that all elements are considered at least once by the participants when formulating their constructs. This way, the emotions experienced by participants through all activities of the game that are salient to them are uncovered. Once the primary triads have been used, then the researcher moved onto exploring as many of the secondary triads as possible. During the administration of the grid, once the primary triads were considered, most other secondary triadic combinations tended to elicit repetitive constructs. At this stage the construct elicitation was ended. On average, five triadic combinations were used before construct elicitation was brought to a close. In a majority of cases 6 combinations were used and in two cases 4 were used. The two interviews which used four combinations were the interviews that took place in the seating area of the ground rather than an interview room. In these cases, as the spectators coming in and players practising in the

ground was starting to distract the interviewee, the construct elicitation was concluded after the four primary triads had been used.

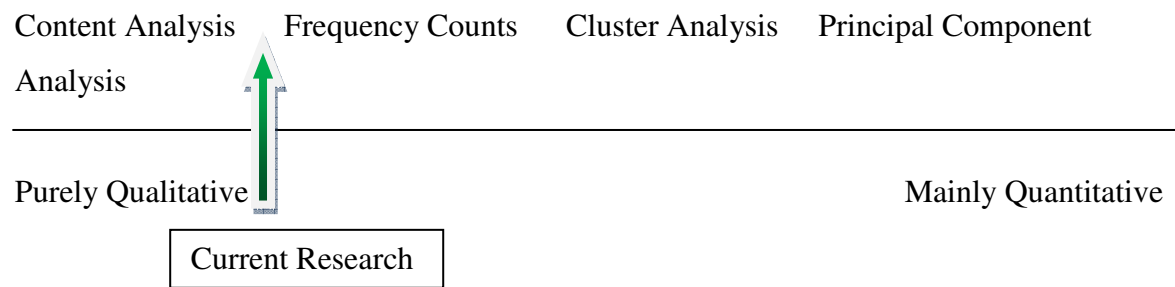
When eliciting constructs, there were instances when the participant offered more than one construct for the same triadic combination. Following Jankowicz's (2004) advice, these constructs were all recorded as separate constructs. As the author explains, constructs have a range of convenience, which means within a given range (a set of elements) the same constructs may apply. On average, each interview elicited five constructs with a majority of them eliciting six. A relatively small number of constructs is not unusual as "it's remarkable how few, genuinely different constructs a person has on any one topic" (Jankowicz, 2004: 44). This is especially the case for a topic such as emotions. This is because, emotions are superordinate constructs that have a wider range of convenience and as such the same emotion can be experienced for a wider set of elements. For instance, Happiness can be experienced due to having a good time with friends, seeing good performance from the team and having good weather. As such, about 5-6 constructs that was elicited during the current interviews can be said to have focussed on the important emotions that are experienced by the participants. When the construct elicitation process was concluded, the researcher explained to the participant that two more constructs will be added at the end in order to understand the overall experience in comparison to the emotions expressed. While this was being done by the researchers, the participants were encouraged to take some refreshments. Following this, the participants were asked to rate each construct, including the two supplied constructs, against the elements. The rating of the constructs can be done in one of two ways. Firstly, after each construct is elicited the participant can be asked to rate the construct immediately. This is especially useful when rating a large number of constructs as the participant would not then have to revisit all the constructs again. Secondly, the construct elicitation procedure can be concluded first before the ratings are requested. The current research followed the second approach as this would minimise the interruption to the participants' thoughts on emotional experience and make the construct elicitation process flow smoothly. Also, having the constructs revisited to rate those (when there are only a small number of constructs as in this research) can also encourage the participants to think about why they mentioned these constructs and give them a chance to revise them.

### ***5.3.5. After the Interviews***

Once the grid administration was complete, the participants were thanked for their time and effort in taking part in the study. Often, the participants discussed the interview procedure they had just taken part in. In most cases, the participants commented that the interview had made them think differently about cricket. As one participant put it “I’ve never thought of cricket this way before”. Also, participants discussed how their view of their personal involvement with cricket has been either changed or reinforced. For instance, at the beginning of the research, one participant mentioned that cricket was one of those things that he just liked to watch as an escape from routine. It was not important enough to get worked up about, even though he was member of a cricket club and attended games both at the home ground as well as away. Once the interview was concluded he mentioned that he did not realise how strongly he felt about certain aspects of watching a game and how important they were to his experience. Some participants also mentioned that it was hard work and that they felt drained. This showed that a lot of thought and effort had gone into element elicitation, construct elicitation, as well as the ratings that had been undertaken. It can be argued that this proves that the repertory grid had enabled the participants to think more deeply and carefully about their emotional experiences and as such is proven to be an effective tool for this current research.

## **5.4. Repertory Grid Analysis**

When planning and designing the research method for any research, thought should also be given to how the data collected will be dealt with and analysed. This is true for methods using both qualitative and quantitative techniques. With regards to the repertory grid, there are many ways which can be used to analyse the data. These range from purely qualitative, mixture of qualitative and quantitative, to fully quantitative analysis tools. Figure 5.6 below illustrates the various techniques.



**Figure 5.6 – Continuum of Repertory Grid Analysis Tools**

As the figure above shows, repertory grid analysis tools range from purely qualitative tools of content analysis to primarily quantitative tools of principal component analysis. The term ‘mainly quantitative’ is used here as opposed to ‘purely quantitative’ in acknowledgement of the fact that even so called purely quantitative tools require subjective interpretations. There are also various forms of content analysis such as the one proposed by Honey (1979). This technique includes categorisation of constructs and then using percentage calculations in order to identify the most important categories. This is indicated in Figure 5.6 using a green arrow. Honey’s (1979) content analysis used in this research is discussed later in this chapter as well as the next chapter (Chapter 6).

The choice of which analysis tool to use is dependent upon the nature of the research and the purpose of the data collection. As Jankowicz (2004) suggests, the choice of which repertory grid analysis technique to use depends on three factors:

- 1) How well it enables you to summarise the participant’s meanings.
- 2) How well it enables you to draw inferences and conclusions from them
- 3) How well it enables you to communicate the understanding derived from these repertory grids to your audience (e.g. in your thesis or to your organisation).

It is important to point out here that when discussing repertory grid analysis, the focus is on analysing the core of the grids which are the constructs (Fransella et al, 2004). The tools mentioned above all relate to understanding the structure of the grids and making sense of the participants’ meaning expressed as constructs. This emphasis on constructs derives from Kelly’s (1955) fundamental postulate of personal construct theory (See Chapter 2, Table 2.1). The fundamental postulate states that ‘a person’s processes are psychologically channelized by the ways in which he anticipates events.’ As Fransella et al (2004: 83) explain;

“The ‘ways’ (referred to in the fundamental postulate) are the constructs of the grid, and the ‘events’ are the elements. The emphasis in the corollaries to this postulate is directed towards the constructs, and echoing this, the ways in which grid data have been analysed have also been focused on constructs rather than on elements.”

This is not to say that elements are not important. Elements can help understand how the participant views the particular experience. Furthermore, if the elements are elicited (instead of being supplied), they can highlight the salient features of the experience as the participant views it. The way in which elements were treated in this research will be discussed in further detail in Chapter 6.

Returning back to understanding the structure of the grids and its constructs, many researchers have used tools such as cluster analysis and principal component analysis. For instance, Parkinson and Lea (1991) sought to identify how emotion terms are understood by participants and used principal component analysis to identify the major components of their understanding. Botterill and Crompton (1996) on the other hand, used cluster analysis to understand the way in which participants experience travelling to various destinations. Cluster analysis is used to analyse the repertory grids and identify clusters of elements and constructs that are similar to each other. In other words, cluster analysis groups elements and constructs based on how similar they are to the rest of the elements and constructs in the grid. Principal component analysis on the other hand, reduces the amount of information about the relationships between elements and constructs and expresses it more economically (Fromm, 2004). In other words, principal component analysis looks at the variance in the ratings of elements and constructs and identifies distinct patterns of variability (Jankowicz, 2004).

Stewart and Stewart (1981: 65) provided a useful comparison of cluster analysis and principal component analysis with regards to analysing repertory grids. This comparison is provided in Table 5.3 below.

**Table 5.3: Comparing Cluster Analysis and Principal Component Analysis (Source: Stewart and Stewart, 1981)**

<i>Cluster Analysis</i>	<i>Principal Component Analysis</i>
Retains the relationships between elements and constructs in the visual representation of data.	Discards some information of the relationships between elements and constructs in the visual presentation of the data.
Requires inspection to understand the relationship between the elements and constructs.	Relationships between elements and constructs that are retained are easily understood.
When comparing two or more grids, only elements OR constructs need to be common between the grids.	When comparing two or more grids, BOTH the elements and constructs need to be common between the grids.
Is easy to administer the grid interactively and analyse the grid as you go along.	Difficult to administer interactively or to analyse the grid as you go along.
Relatively easy to understand how the relationships are transferred from the grid to the map (easy to work backwards and understand how the relationships were established).	Relatively more difficult to demonstrate how the relationships are transferred from the grid to the map.

When using techniques such as cluster analysis and principal component analysis to analyse grid data, researchers use grid analysis software packages. There are various analysis packages available to carry out grid administration and analysis such as GridLab, GridStat, and EnquireWithin to name but a few. Also, generic software packages such as SPSS can also be used to analyse the grid. However,

“the computer analysis of grids has also threatened to make the grid method itself curiously arthritic. The popularity of standard computer packages for analysing grids has tempted psychologists to make their hypotheses and modes of exploration the servant of a computer program, rather than the reverse.....If you proceed to centre your argument upon such measures *because they are yielded by the computer program* and not because they are central to theoretical issues which are at stake for you, then all is not well. Your argument should tell you what to



count; your counting methods must not be allowed to dictate your argument.” (Higginbotham and Bannister, 1983: 2).

Other authors have also commented on the fact that ease of analysis presents the danger of quantification at the expense of quality of understanding (Rogers and Ryals, 2007). In the current research project, the repertory grid interviews were carried out in order to identify the distinct emotions that are experienced by the spectators watching domestic one-day cricket. The results and findings from this stage of the research would be further subjected to a quantitative survey in order to validate the results as well as increase generalisability. As such, quantitative rigour is not essential at this stage of the research. Rather the focus is on depth and meaning of data obtained. Furthermore, in order to carry out statistical analysis such as cluster analysis or principal component analysis on grid data, commonality of elements and constructs are required. As the table 5.3 above specified, in order to carry out cluster analysis, all the grids need to have a common set of elements. In other words, the same elements may need to be supplied by the researcher. If principal components analysis is to be used, then both the elements and the constructs need to be common in all grids. Thus, essentially, the grid acts as a form of quantitative questionnaire with pre-supplied constructs and elements which the participants only rate. As discussed previously in chapter 4 (see section 4.4.), the decision to elicit elements from each participant as opposed to provide elements was made for this research. This is because supplying the elements would mean that the researcher’s bias on what a one day cricket game should be would enter the research process. In addition to this, eliciting constructs from the participants would enable the researcher to understand their perspective on the game and thus provide a rich context within which to interpret and understand the role of emotions (i.e. constructs in the grid). Supplying constructs to the participants would mean that the emotions that are experienced by the individual participants may not be fully uncovered and the grid would essentially act as another form of quantitative scale to measure emotions. In order to avoid this, constructs were also elicited from individual participants. Hence in this research, in the interest of quality and depth of data, it was decided to forgo quantitative analysis.

When analysing multiple grids with individual constructs and elements, there are two techniques which can be used – frequency counts and content analysis. Frequency count is a technique involving simply counting the number of times particular constructs or elements are mentioned by participants. This is a useful technique when trying to

identify common trends within a sample of participants (Stewart and Stewart, 1981). This technique was used by Rogers and Ryals (2007) in their attempt to understand the perception of key account managers about the nature of their client relationships. Similar to the current research, Rogers and Ryals (2007) elicited both elements and constructs from each individual participant and as such aggregating these grids required a technique other than the more quantitative techniques (such as the cluster analysis and principal component analysis). By using frequency counts researchers can identify how often each element or construct occurs and thereby identify which elements and constructs are more important to the sample. However, it does not necessarily account for the underlying meaning behind each element and more importantly the meaning behind the constructs. In order to aggregate the data without much compromise to the meaning expressed through the constructs, content analysis can be used.

#### ***5.4.1. Content Analysis***

Content analysis is a technique that helps analyse multiple grids without common elements or constructs. It helps summarise the various meanings expressed by the participants by categorising these meanings (Jankowicz, 2004). As well as providing a tool to deal with multiple grids with individual elements and constructs, it also ensures that the researcher considers the meaning expressed by the constructs rather than merely using the verbal label that the participant used to express their meaning. Although researchers such as Naoi et al (2006) content analysed their constructs in their attempt to understand how visitors evaluate historical destinations, Fromm (2004) suggests that generally, researchers prefer the relative ease and convenience of computations compared to the time-consuming technique of content analysis. In content analysis, the focus is no longer the relationships within a grid but the meaning expressed across the grids. Thus, the unit of analysis becomes the individual construct rather than the individual grids (Jankowicz, 2004). As Fromm (2004: 153) explains,

“Construct analysis can be used with two completely different objectives; on the one hand, to capture and represent the subjective meaning of the elicited personal constructs as accurately as possible, and on the other, to attach an objective meaning to the data in the context of an external construct system.”

The aim of the current research is to understand what emotions cricket spectators experience when attending a domestic one-day cricket game. As such, content analysis

would enable the researcher to identify and understand the emotions being expressed as constructs and classify these emotions in some sort of order to identify the key emotions relevant to cricket spectators. Therefore content analysis is chosen as the best technique with which to analyse the repertory grids in this research.

There are two main ways in which constructs can be classified or grouped when carrying out a content analysis.

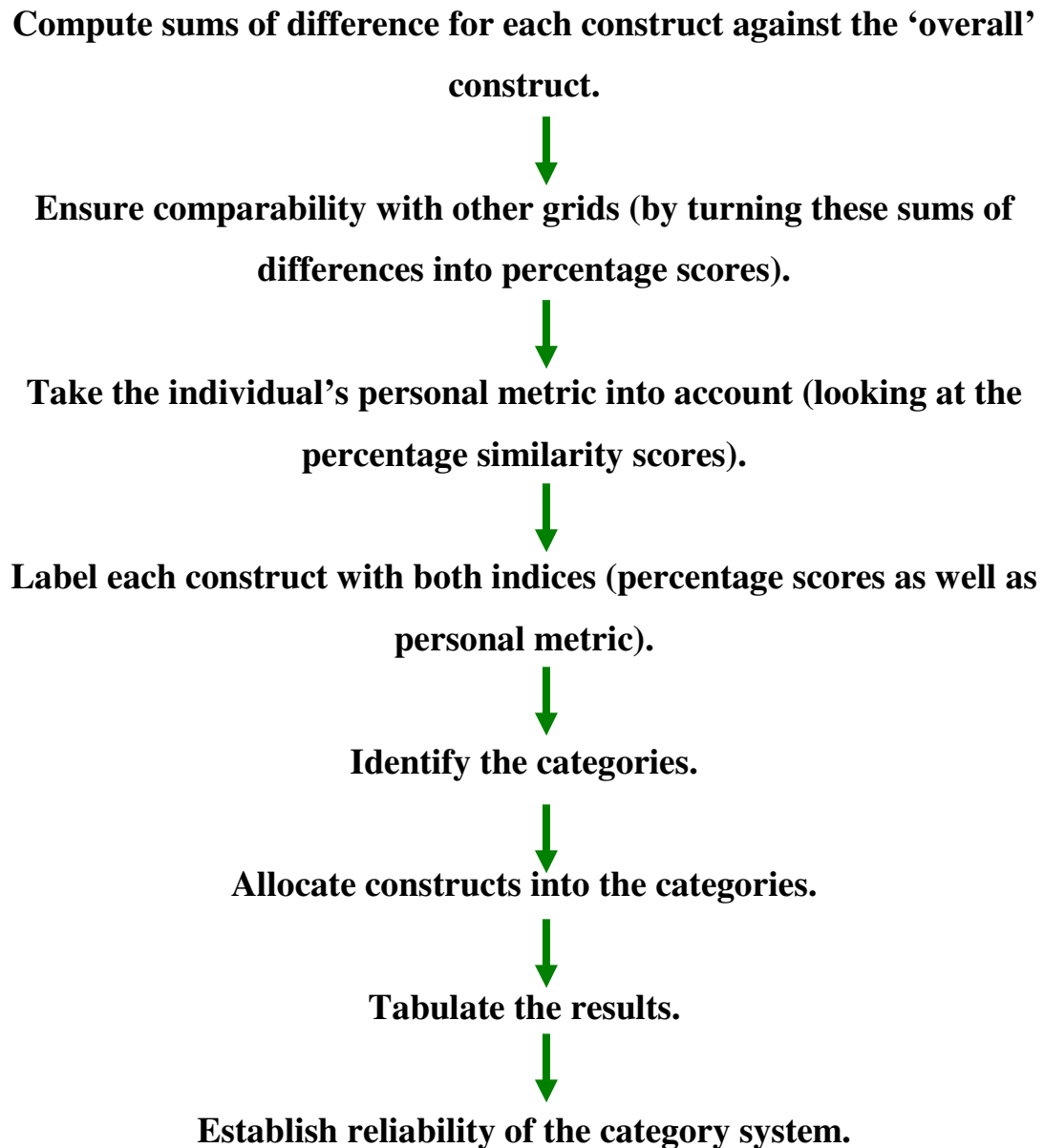
- 1) Bootstrapping – this is where the categories are identified based on the constructs available in the grids. Here the categories considered to be most appropriate are created by the researcher based on the data.
- 2) Standard category or theory based analysis – this is whereby the researcher uses existing category schemes created and used by themselves previously, created by other researchers but used widely, or categories that exist in the relevant theoretical framework in order to categorise the constructs.

Jankowicz (2004) points out that it is also possible to combine the bootstrapping and standard/theory based category themes. For instance, while using a standard or theory based scheme to categorise constructs, if the researcher discovers that there are some constructs that do not fit into the existing categories then new categories can be created. In this current research, a theory based category system will be used to analyse the constructs. This is because personal construct theory has a set of emotions that are defined by Kelly (1955) which were further developed by McCoy (1977). These emotions and their definitions would help identify and classify the emotional meaning expressed by the participants through their constructs. These emotions are provided in Chapter 6.

When the focus and unit of analysis becomes the constructs themselves as with content analysis, then this means the researcher is not able to take into account the full range of information provided by the participants. This is because content analysing the constructs only would mean that the researcher ignores the ratings provided by the participant. In order to make maximum use of all the information provided in the repertory grid, Honey (1979) developed a specific form of content analysis. Here the constructs are aggregated across the sample by content analysing and categorising constructs. In addition to this it uses the ratings to understand how closely linked these

constructs are to the overall topic under discussion. As such, when using Honey's construct analysis, the researcher needs to supply a construct that summarises the whole experience. This was the reason behind supplying two summary constructs in the current research. These constructs, as discussed before, were: 'Overall positive game experience – Overall negative game experience' and 'Would encourage me to go to the game – Would discourage me from going to the game'. The process of content analysis presented by Honey (1979) which will be used in the current research is outlined in Figure 5.7 below.

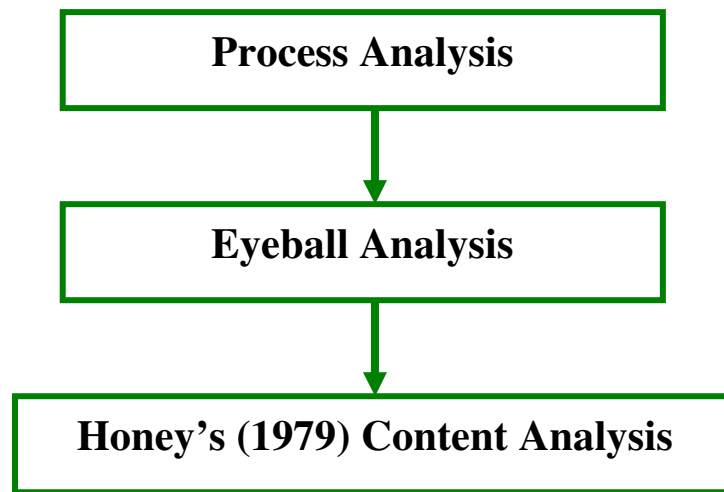
The different stages of this process will be discussed in Chapter 6 where the data analysis and results are presented and discussed. In addition to carrying out the content analysis two other techniques are also used before the content analysis is commenced. This is because, regardless of which analysis tool is used in the research, it is important to understand the context of the research and data collection and familiarise with the individual grid. This would ensure that the data is analysed and interpreted more effectively while keeping close to the way in which the meanings were created and expressed. This is achieved through carrying out a process analysis and eyeball analysis (Jankowicz, 2004). Hence, the overall plan for analysing the repertory grids is presented in Figure 5.8 below.



*Figure 5.7 – Honey’s (1979) Content Analysis Procedure*

Process analysis is whereby the process through which the grid was administered and data collected is evaluated in detail. This is important because;

“the process by which the information is obtained is informative in itself, and understanding this will provide you with a background for the other analyses you’ll be doing.” (Jankowicz, 2004:77)



*Figure 5.8 – Plan for Repertory Grid Analysis in the Current Research*

In order to ensure that the process and the researcher's impressions and evaluations of the interview are captured, field notes were written by the researcher. Immediately after each interview, the researcher recorded the participant details (gender, age range, interest in cricket, etc) as well as the grid administration procedure. This ensured that details are captured when they are still fresh in the researcher's mind. The field notes written following an interview is provided in Appendix 6. The process of grid administration used in the current interview is discussed in section 5.3 above in great detail. This sets out how the participants were recruited, the interview procedure, any incidents that occurred during the interview, and any deviations to the plan as well as participant reaction to the grid following the interviews. Eyeball analysis and content analysis will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 6 where the results are presented.

### ***Conclusion***

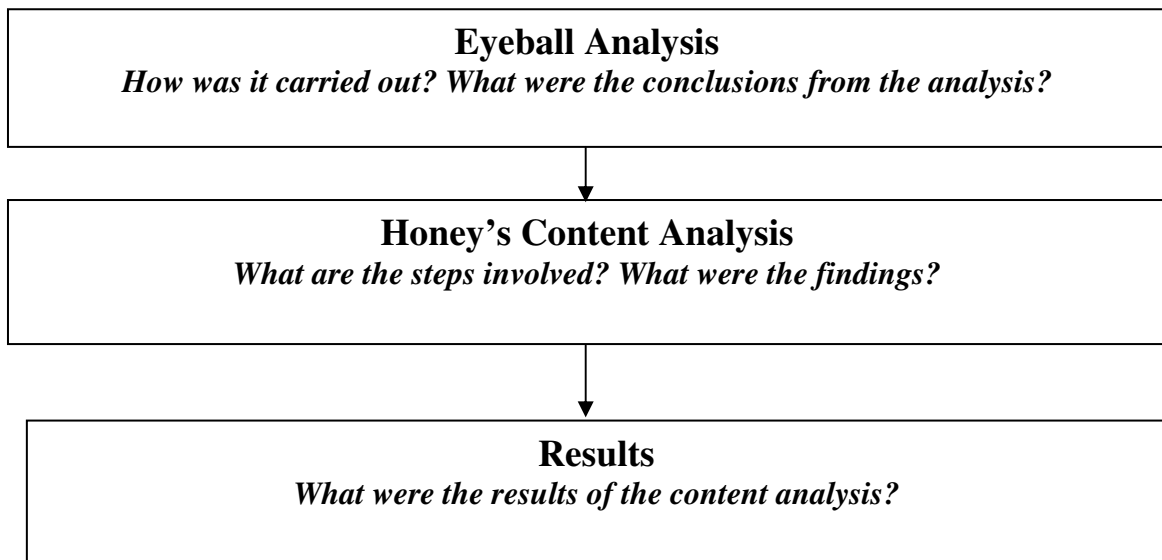
The choice of repertory grid as the interview tool for this research was made following the first round of pilot interviews discussed in Chapter 4. This chapter discussed the rationale for choosing repertory grids. Repertory grids are an integral part of personal construct theory and hence provide the best way in which to understand people's constructs. In order to ensure that the repertory grid is effective in identifying and understanding emotions as well as to check the effectiveness of the grid plan, a second round of pilot interviews was carried out with two cricket spectators. Once the pilot studies are evaluated and conclusions taken on board, the final set of spectator interviews was carried out. In total, 12 spectators were interviewed at 40-over domestic games during the 2008 cricket season. These interviews were detailed in a process analysis. Finally, the plan to analyse the repertory grids was discussed. This analysis and the findings from the interviews are presented in the following chapter.

## *Chapter 6*

# **REPERTORY GRID ANALYSIS & FINDINGS**

### *Chapter Introduction*

The previous chapter introduced the repertory grid and discussed the effectiveness of the technique. It also discussed the pilot interviews that were carried out, the process of the grid interviews, and the grid analysis techniques. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss how the repertory grids were analysed in the current research and also to examine the findings from these analyses. The chapter is structured as follows:



*Figure 6.1 - Structure of Chapter 6*

The chapter begins by revisiting the repertory grid analysis procedure chosen for this study. As the previous chapter discussed the rationale for these choices in detail, the aim here is to describe how the analysis was carried out at each stage of this process.

The process analysis, which evaluates the process of the repertory grid administration, was discussed in great detail in chapter 5. This analysis helps provide context within which the data can be analysed and interpreted. The analysis in this chapter focuses on eyeball analysis and content analysis. The purpose of the eyeball analysis is for the



researcher to become familiar with the contents of the grids. At this initial stage, the researcher can draw some conclusions on how the research context is represented by the participants. As the content analysis would deal with in-depth analysis of the constructs, the focus here was to analyse the elements. Eyeball analysis of the elements showed that domestic one-day cricket, as perceived by the spectators, consists of common themes. These include, game related aspects, socialising, weather and spectator behaviour. Furthermore, the eyeball analysis of the elements also helped identify four key spectator segments of domestic one-day cricket spectators. These segments were based on how different spectators perceived the game and the game experience they expected from attending the game.

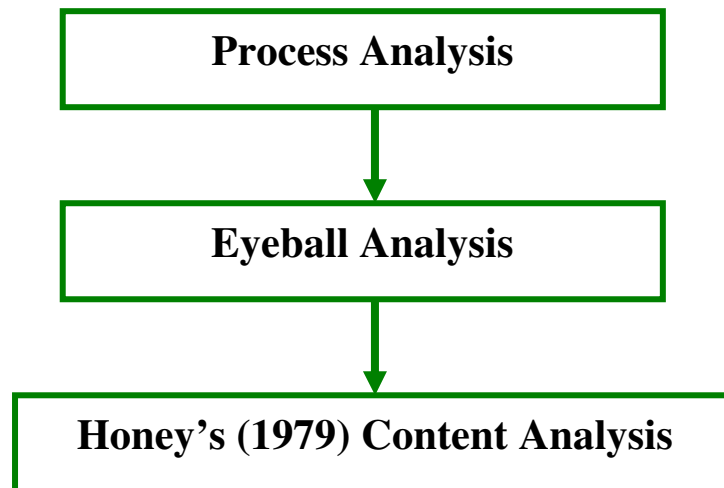
Following this, the eyeball analysis of constructs was discussed. Although the constructs will be subject to content analysis and thereby investigated in greater detail, the aim here was to show the researcher's initial interpretation of the constructs.

Honey's (1979) content analysis is a procedure that helps analyse multiple grids without common elements or constructs. This procedure is preferred to that of generally used content analysis procedures as it would utilise the data captured through ratings in the grid. Whereas general content analysis is a purely qualitative form of analysis, Honey's (1979) procedure also has a quantitative aspect to it due to the nature of the ratings. Each stage of Honey's (1979) content analysis procedure is discussed along with the results.

Finally, the result of Honey's content analysis procedure is presented. Ten emotions were identified as being relevant to domestic one-day cricket spectators. However, each of these ten emotions has varying degrees of relationships to overall game experience and return intentions. As the current research uses triangulation, all the ten emotions, including those with a weak relationship to game experience and return intention, will be assessed by a quantitative survey at the next stage of the research process.

## 6.1. Repertory Grid Analysis

The plan for analysing repertory grids was outlined in the previous chapter as follows:



*Figure 6.2 – Plan for Repertory Grid Analysis in the Current Research*

Process analysis is whereby the process of the interview and grid administration is evaluated in detail (Jankowicz, 2004). The rationale is that, by understanding the process provides background and context to the data which then enriches the interpretation (Jankowicz, 2004; Fromm, 2004). The process analysis was presented and discussed in Chapter 5. To summarise, the process analysis indicated the following:

- 1) The place where the interviews took place was ideal as it was set within the context which was the subject of the interview. This ensured that the experiences that the spectators discuss are salient in their minds.
- 2) Participants were provided with information about the interview including the purpose, procedure, and approximate duration prior to them being taken into the interview rooms. Especially with regards to the duration, it was important that the participants understood this so that they do not expect the interview to be a short conversation. This is because, if they were not prepared to commit to the time then the interview may need to be hurried and thereby constructs elicited may not have sufficient depth.
- 3) Twelve interviews were carried out in total with each interview lasting approximately forty-five minutes each.

- 4) The interviews elicited an average of 7 elements and 5 constructs. Researchers suggest that more than 10 elements would be difficult to work with (e.g. Rogers and Ryals, 2007; Stewart and Stewart, 1981) and as such an average of 7 elements is seen as appropriate. Also, as the constructs elicited here relate to higher order constructs of emotions, it is expected that participants may not have a wide range of constructs (Jankowicz, 2004). Hence, an average of 5 constructs per interview is seen as acceptable.
- 5) There were no major issues or concerns that arose during the recruitment of participants or grid administration. The participants understood the tasks they had to undertake and engaged in the task well.
- 6) Overall, the interviews can be said to have achieved the aim of identifying and understanding spectator emotions effectively. The depth of thought that went into the grid administration and specifically construct elicitation was evidenced by the comments the participants made following the interview. This included comments such as 'I've never thought of cricket in this way before' as well as 'it was hard work....but it made me think differently about how I feel about cricket'.

### ***6.1.1. Eyeball Analysis***

The aim of the process analysis was to review the interview process in order to identify any issues that may have an implication for the analysis and interpretation of the grids as well as setting out the context within which the grids can be analysed and interpreted (Jankowicz, 2004; Fromm, 2004). The next stages of the analysis focus on the grids themselves. The aim of carrying out an eyeball analysis is to become familiar with the individual grids and their contents. As the name suggests, eyeball analysis is visually looking at the grids in order to understand the elements and constructs the individual has identified and also to look at the ratings. The focus at this stage is on the individual grids themselves and understanding them rather than looking for common themes or meaning. The next stage of the analysis (content analysis) moves on to amalgamate the various grids in order to identify common emotions and meanings.

Researchers such as Jankowicz (2004) advise that an eyeball analysis be carried out prior to commencing any further analysis. This is because when the grids are elicited by various interviewers for one project or if software packages were used to elicit grids, prior to analysing and interpreting these grids, the researchers need to be familiar with

them on an individual grid level. On the other hand, if the grid administration and elicitation as well the analysis is carried out by the same researcher, as is the case with the current research, it is still important to carry out an eyeball analysis. By doing this, the researcher can take a step back from all the process and involvement in order to get an overview of each grid. Obtaining knowledge and familiarity with each grid in this manner would enhance the analysis procedure as the researcher understands what each individual grid represents; the amalgamation of meaning between these grids becomes more effective (Jankowicz, 2004; Fromm, 2004).

It is important to note here that as far as the researcher is aware, no published research using repertory grids to date, has reported an eyeball analysis of their grids. This could be due to the fact that, given the word constraints of published articles, the focus tends to be on the analysis that presents the results rather than the procedures that preceded it. Also, authors such as Fransella et al (2004) do not provide details on eyeball analysis. The analysis of grids in Fransella et al' (2004) book tends to focus almost exclusively on quantitative analysis of grids which is seen to complement the grid procedure set out by Jankowicz (2004). However, eyeball analysis is important not only because it helps researchers become familiar with their grids but also because it adheres to the underlying principles of personal construct theory and the repertory grids. The basic assumption of personal construct theory and thereby the repertory grid is that man is a scientist. This principle implies that it is the individual who knows best about his experiences and therefore we, as researchers, need to be guided by what they say and how they view their world and the experiences within it. As such, when it comes to analysing and interpreting the grids, it is important that their meaning is fully understood. Eyeball analysis provides the researcher an opportunity to revisit the individual grids and thus revisit the individuals' meanings expressed through these grids before trying to amalgamate these meanings.

Jankowicz (2004) provides a six step procedure to carry out an eyeball analysis. These six steps of the eyeball analysis are as follows:

- 1) What is the participant thinking about?
- 2) How has the participant represented the topic?
- 3) How does the participant think?
- 4) What does the participant think?

- 5) Look at the supplied elements and/or constructs and ratings.
- 6) Draw conclusions.

### ***6.1.2. Eyeball Analysis Results***

Some authors (e.g. Fromm, 2004) who discuss eyeball analysis (sometimes also known as eyeballing) do not provide a detailed method which can be used to carry out this analysis. Hence, the six step procedure proposed by Jankowicz (2004) is used for the eyeball analysis in this research. This approach is preferred here because Jankowicz's (2004) approach is detailed and helps understand all aspects of the grid. Each stage of the eyeball analysis is presented and discussed below.

#### ***6.1.2.1. What is the participant thinking about?***

This relates to the topic of the interview and the grid. Understanding the topic is important as the constructs and meaning obtained through the grid applies to how the participant views this particular topic only. Understanding the topic is relevant in interviews where the participant chooses and defines the topic such as a therapy or counselling context. In research interviews such as the current one, the topic is already defined by the researcher. The question therefore becomes how well the participant understood the topic under discussion.

In the interviews carried out for this research, each participant understood the topic well. This was evident during the discussion prior to the grid administration where the participants were discussing their general interest in cricket. They always distinguished between their experiences at international, Twenty20, championship as well as domestic one-day games. As one participant explained:

“I usually prefer the sort of game with fifty over a side or 40 over a side. The championship games are nice because you can relax, you know, it's a day out and you can chill out just taking the day to relax. Whereas these games (referring to one-day games) tend to be a little bit more tense. Not so keen on the Twenty20 it is a bit too tense and a bit too fanatic.” (*Oval505-1*)

The focus of the interview and therefore the topic of the grid (to understand the emotions experienced by domestic cricket spectators and why) was emphasised many times prior to the grid administration. Both the written participant consent form as well as research information sheet mentioned the focus is on domestic one day games. Also, once the initial discussion on the participants' general interest in cricket was over, prior to starting

the grid procedure, the participants were asked to focus on the domestic one day games for the remainder of the interview. This helped ensure that the participant understood that the focus of the topic was domestic one day games.

***6.1.2.2. How has the participant represented the topic?***

The representation of the chosen topic is understood by looking at the elements. The way in which elements were elicited and how the elements spread across various aspects of this experience tells us how the participant has represented the topic. Each grid and their representation of the topic through the elements are shown in Table 6.1 below.

**Table 6.1: Eyeball Analysis of Elements**

<i>Interview Number</i>	<i>Elements in the interview</i>	<i>Commentary</i>
Lords405-1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a)Exciting run chase</li> <li>b)Lots of sixes</li> <li>c)Something unusual</li> <li>d)Hot summers day</li> <li>e)Watching a one-sided game</li> <li>f) Cold miserable day</li> <li>g)Sit near annoying people</li> </ul>	<p>Four out of the seven elements here are elements elicited as a response to activities/events that happen when the participant is feeling good at a typical game (a – e). The participant did not identify any elements as being activities/events that made him feel neutral. Looking at the elements, it is evident that most of the elements relate to game-related aspects. Thus, the way in which the topic of domestic one day cricket experience is represented by this participant is through on-field, game related activities. Two other aspects that define the experience are weather and other spectators.</p>
Lords 405-3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Watching a lot of people enjoying the game</li> <li>b)Slow moving game</li> <li>c)Being with friends</li> <li>d)Eating and drinking</li> <li>e)Being by yourself</li> <li>f) Queuing for food</li> <li>g)Not being able to follow the game</li> <li>h)Feeling the tradition</li> </ul>	<p>This is a male participant who has very little involvement in cricket in terms of regular attendance. During the discussion preceding the grid administration, the participant explained that he attends cricket usually with friends to have a day out and domestic cricket is attended very rarely. Looking at the elements elicited by this participant it is evident that, to this participant, the experience of cricket is about spending a relaxing, good time with friends. None of the elements are related to the performance of the teams or the on-field aspects. The element regarding the slow moving game relates to the fact that as the pace of the game is slow there is more opportunity to spend the day with friends compared to football game. Hence, the topic is represented by this participant as an experience primarily driven by socialising, relaxing and having a good time. Two out of three elements that</p>

		were identified as aspects that are related to ‘feel bad’ factor (e and g) are aspects that, as the participant explained, things that he would experience if his friends were not there. This emphasises the fact that to this participant the emotional experience depends on being with friends and socialising with them.
Oval505-1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Kent doing well</li> <li>b) Good weather</li> <li>c) Close match</li> <li>d) Never sure who will win</li> <li>e) Bad weather</li> <li>f) Only a game</li> </ul>	Looking at the elements from this male participant, it is evident that most of his elements (four out of six) relate to the game itself. The two other constructs that do not relate directly to the on-field aspects of the game (b and e) were also relevant, as explained by the participant, because they can have an impact on whether the game is played or not. Hence, the elements here show that, for this participant, the game experience is represented by the game itself. It is important to indicate that socialising with other spectators or spending time with friends or family is not relevant to this participant’s experience. This is in contrast to most of the other participants interviewed. The representation of the elements in this way (i.e. the focus being on the game itself) also agrees with what the participant mentioned in the discussion preceding the grid administration. He explained that he tends to come to cricket by himself as this was his time.
Oval505-2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Having quality of cricket</li> <li>b) Having good weather</li> <li>c) Bringing my food</li> <li>d) Having good company</li> </ul>	This was a participant who described himself as an ‘anorak’ of the game. His elements show that his experience of attending cricket revolves around broadly three aspects: the game itself and the performance by the teams, having a good day at the game, and the administration/management of the game elements. The topic, in his case, is represented by



	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>e) Having day out/an event</li> <li>f) Witnessing petty officialdom</li> <li>g) Having bad weather</li> <li>h) Being reluctant to restart the game</li> <li>i) Witnessing rowdy crowd behaviour</li> </ul>	<p>the game aspects combined with having a day out and socialising. These aspects were important to him in order to ensure that he has a positive experience of the game. It is interesting to note that the aspect relating ‘feel bad’ factor, relates primarily to how the game is managed (f and h). For spectators such as this participant who is a student of the game it seems to be important that they are treated as such by the management. Witnessing rules and regulations that are seen as petty and decisions such as restarting the game following a rain interruption needs to be clearly communicated and explained so that these spectators do not feel offended.</p>
Hove805-1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Watching Sussex win</li> <li>b) Having good weather</li> <li>c) Having comfortable seating</li> <li>d) Chatting to good company</li> <li>e) Watching Sussex play badly</li> <li>f) Having drunks around</li> <li>g) Watching abusive behaviour towards players</li> </ul>	<p>This was a female participant who is a member of a county cricket club and a regular attendee at the domestic games. Looking at her elements, although seeing her team perform well is important to her experience, most of her experience revolves around other aspects. These include having good company and hence socialising with others as well as good seating and weather which contributes to comfort and therefore enjoyment of the game. Also, for this participant, the negative aspects of the game stems from other spectators’ bad behaviour. Hence, for this participant, attending a game represents positive aspects which can be ruined by some fellow spectators.</p>
North1005-1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Watching my team play well</li> <li>b) Having a good crowd</li> <li>c) Having good PA/tannoy</li> </ul>	<p>This participant was a retired male member of a county cricket club. For this participant, attending cricket is about having a good day out. Even though he was a member of a club which implies that he attends the game regularly, the game itself was only one aspect of</p>

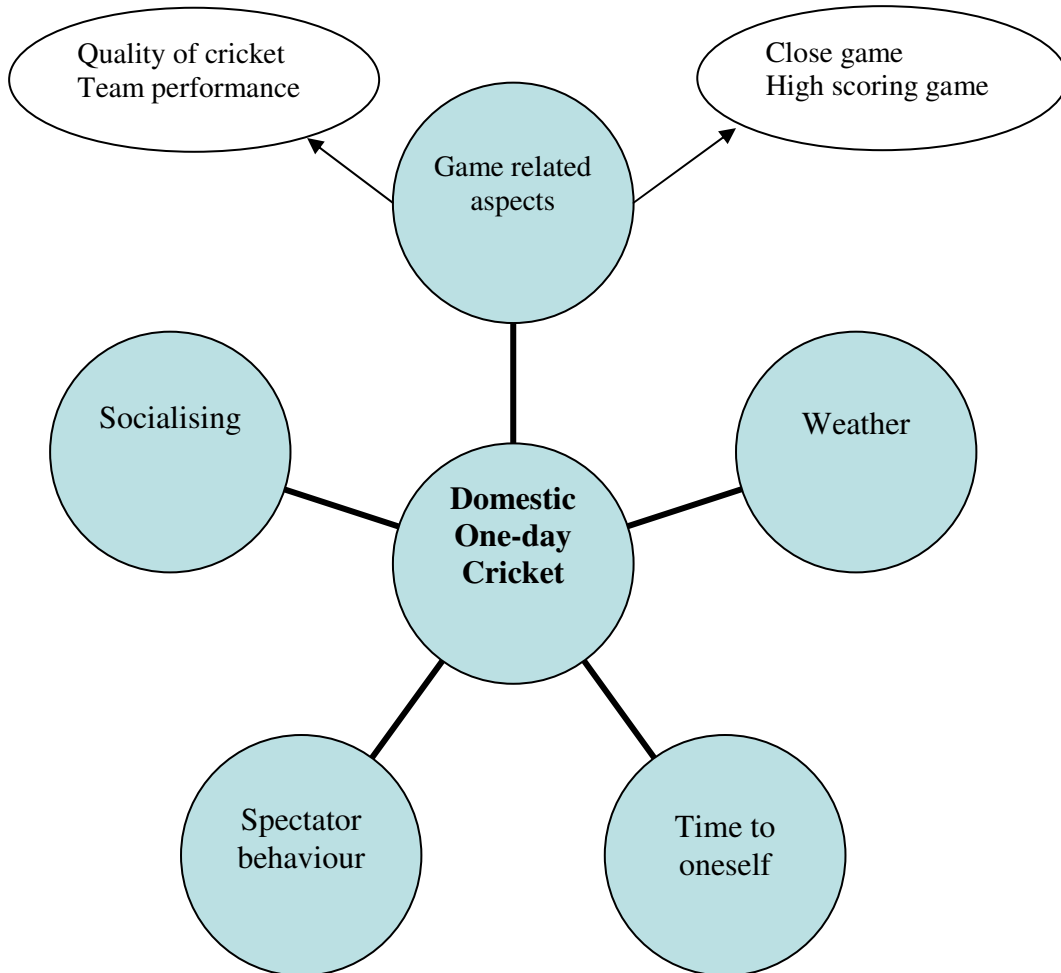
	<p>communication</p> <p>d) Hearing people say nasty things about players</p> <p>e) Watching umpires make bad decisions</p> <p>f) Experiencing a general good day out</p>	<p>having a good day out. Other aspects of a ‘feel good’ factor are experienced by having a good crowd provides the atmosphere at the game as well as having public announcement systems that provide relevant information that is clearly heard. With regards to ‘feel bad’ factors the participant mentioned negative aspects of crowd behaviour. This, combined with the positive element (b) about having a good crowd, shows that although having a crowd is important to provide a good atmosphere, badly managed crowd behaviour can have a negative impact on the atmosphere. The topic for this participant, is therefore, represented by primarily having a good day out enjoying the good atmosphere.</p>
North1005-2	<p>a) Having time away</p> <p>b) Experiencing good weather</p> <p>c) Watching lots of scoring</p> <p>d) Watching teams playing well</p> <p>e) Experiencing cold weather</p> <p>f) Experiencing a slow game</p>	<p>This was a male participant who was a young student at university and occasionally attends the county game. Looking at his elements, it is interesting that he does not include any elements involving socialising or spending time with friends and family. Four out of the six elements (a-d) are all in response to ‘feeling good’ while at the game. All the elements relate primarily to game related aspects. The weather related elements are also aspects that can determine whether the game takes place on that day or not. The excitement and performances on the field enables the day out to be a good one and therefore enabling the participant to have an enjoyable time away from his daily routines. Hence, the topic is represented by this participant as a means to take time out by himself, to relax and enjoy a day out away from his daily routines.</p>
Cntrbry110	<p>a) Having good weather</p>	<p>For this older participant who was member of a county cricket club, the game related</p>

5-1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>b) Having local teams compete</li> <li>c) Having a result</li> <li>d) Being by myself</li> <li>e) Having it rain</li> </ul>	<p>aspects are important. Seeing teams that are from the neighbouring counties mean that there is more rivalry and banter among the spectators. Therefore, this enhances the atmosphere as well as providing a closely fought game. Three out of the six elements (a, c, e) are all related. If you have good weather then the game tends to be played full without any rain interruptions. This would ensure that there is a result at the end of the game. Although this participant struggled to identify ‘feel bad’ factors about being at the game, being by himself (d) was the major factor that would make him feel bad (according to him). This is because he often comes to the game with his wife and they arrange to meet friends at the game. Not having these people around would not provide the same experience. Hence, the topic is represented by this spectator as being enjoying the cricket, regardless of who wins and how the team perform, with family and friends.</p>
Cntrbry110 5-2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Meeting friends</li> <li>b) Having good weather</li> <li>c) Watching the technical aspect of players</li> <li>d) The feeling of camaraderie and history of game</li> <li>e) Having it rain</li> <li>f) Having bad behaviour by spectators</li> </ul>	<p>This is a male spectator who was a member of a cricket club. It should be noted that when the participant wrote the element d, the researcher suggested writing them as two different elements. However, the participant felt that it was the same thing as the camaraderie at the game demonstrates the history and tradition that can be experienced at a cricket game. Apart from one element (c), all the other elements relate non-game specific aspects of attending a game. Also, to this participant, it does not matter which teams compete, he is interested in the technical aspects of all players regardless of their team. Only two out of his six elements are in response to the ‘feel bad’ factor during the game (e and f). This indicates that his overall impression of domestic one-day game is positive. Hence, for this</p>

		participant, the topic is represented by spending a good day out with family and friends and socialising with fellow spectators.
Cntrbry110 5-3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Watching two good teams play</li> <li>b) Watching high scoring games</li> <li>c) Watching a close game</li> <li>d) Having a day out with friends</li> <li>e) Having cold weather</li> <li>f) Having a few loud spectators</li> </ul>	This was a male spectator who was a member of a county club. Looking at his constructs, it is evident that he enjoys the game related aspects of attending cricket. Three out of his six constructs (a-c) relate to activities happening on the field. He also likes to enjoy the game with friends and socialising with them. Cold weather, he explained, causes some discomfort when sitting outside and viewing the game but it would not stop him from coming as long as his friends were there. Although more spectators means better atmosphere, bad behaviour from some spectators can also cause this participant to 'feel bad' about being at the game. Hence, the topic is represented by this participant as being a fun, fast paced game which he can enjoy as a day out with friends.
Cntrbry110 5-4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Not being near drinkers</li> <li>b) Watching a competitive game</li> <li>c) Not being near shouters</li> <li>d) Having warm weather</li> <li>e) Seeing the crowd enjoying cricket</li> <li>f) Watching Kent playing well</li> <li>g) Watching individuals batting well</li> <li>h) Watching aggressive crowd behaviour</li> </ul>	This was a female participant who was a member of a county club. She visits the game often and meets and socialises with other members. To this participant game experience is dominated by the actions of other spectators. Six out of the ten elements elicited by this participant relate to actions of other spectators (a,c, e, h, i, j). Looking at these six elements shows that although having a good crowd who enjoys cricket is important, certain actions such as drunken behaviour, shouting, and obstructing the view are all actions of the other spectators which can have a negative impact on the game experience. To this participant, the topic of domestic one day cricket is clearly represented by two broad aspects. Firstly,

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>i) Having kids playing in front (blocking the view)</li> <li>j) Watching beery, loud behaviour</li> </ul>	having a competitive game and good quality of cricket. Secondly, crowd related behaviour.
Rbowl1205-1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Watching Hampshire doing well</li> <li>b) Winning cup finals</li> <li>c) Having good weather</li> <li>d) Having games during midweek</li> <li>e) Watching floodlit games</li> <li>f) Having a full crowd</li> <li>g) Watching outstanding performances</li> <li>h) Having bad weather (rain)</li> <li>i) Travelling to see team lose</li> <li>j) Watching a one-sided game</li> <li>k) Watching bad behaviour by players/spectators</li> </ul>	<p>This participant was a male member of a county club and a keen student of cricket. Looking at his elements, it is evident that his primary enjoyment of attending cricket derives from game related aspects. Five out of the eleven elements relate to the performance of teams. A good atmosphere at the game is also important to this participant (as shown by elements e and f) and he likes the floodlit games as they provide more of a vibrant atmosphere. However, bad behaviour by spectators as well as players on the field can impact on his experience negatively. Hence, to this participant, the topic is represented mainly through game related aspects and how the teams and individuals perform. At the same time a good atmosphere is also important.</p>

As the table above shows, although the expectations of different spectators when attending a one-day competition are different, there are common themes within these elements. Figure 6.3 below exhibits the common themes relevant to game attendance and expectations of spectators as identified through the elements.



**Figure 6.3 – Results of Element Eyeballing**

The figure above shows that attending domestic cricket and therefore expectations of domestic cricket can be broadly classified into five main aspects. These are; weather, spectator behaviour, game related aspects, socialising, and having time to oneself. As shown in the diagram, game related aspects can be further divided into two aspects. For some spectators the game is about their team performing well and seeing individual performances that are memorable as well as the overall quality of the

cricket being played. For others, on the other hand, the game is about excitement and adrenalin gained from closely fought games and high scoring games. Another prominent aspect of attending the game is spectator behaviour. For most spectators behaviour of other spectators can either make or break their experience. Although many participants of the interview acknowledged that having a larger crowd and seeing crowd enjoying cricket is good, there is also a negative side to this. When there is good natured banter and camaraderie among spectators at a game this can create a good and friendly atmosphere. However, bad behaviour such as abuse towards players, shouting and drunken behaviour by some spectators can impair the enjoyment of others.

In addition to identifying the game aspects that are important to spectators, eyeballing the elements also indicated distinct groups of spectators who share common elements when attending a domestic one-day cricket game. Although the aim of this research does not relate to segmenting cricket spectators, the elements elicited in this research indicate that it may be possible to segment cricket spectators based on how they experience the game. These groups or segments of spectators evident from the above element analysis are shown in table 6.2 below.

As the table shows, there are four potential cricket spectator segments. These are the anoraks of cricket, cricket socialisers, solitary spectators, and casual spectators. These four segments were based primarily on their expectation from a cricket game and therefore the nature of cricket experiences they seek when attending a domestic one-day cricket game. It is important to note here that these segments are very tentative and based on a small sample of 12 spectators. However, this provides a starting point to understanding spectators and segmenting them based on their expectation. Segmenting spectators in this way allows the cricket management to tailor their promotional mix as well as their mix of game experience elements (such as off-field entertainment, crowd management, and seating arrangement) to various groups of spectators and thereby providing them with a positive experience. The purpose of presenting these segments here is only to indicate the potential of using the repertory grids to segment spectators based on their game experience. As this is not the focus of the current study, this will not be subject to any further investigation

during the quantitative stage of the research. However, future research needs to explore this in more detail.



**Table 6.2: Potential Domestic One-day Cricket Spectator Segments**

<i>Anoraks of Cricket</i>	<i>Cricket Socialisers</i>	<i>Solitary Spectator</i>	<i>Casual Spectator</i>
<p>Spectators who are highly involved with the game. This involvement is often demonstrated through county club membership. Primary interest is quality of cricket being played. Victory for their team is desirable but is more interested in the overall quality of cricket and good performance from both sides playing. Like to enjoy the technical aspects of the game as a way of sharing and demonstrating their knowledge of cricket.</p>	<p>Spectators who are members of a county cricket club. Although their membership was initiated due to the interest in the game, their primary motivation for attending the game is to socialise with friends who are also members and followers of the game. They attend cricket even on days when the weather is bad because they know their friends are coming. For these spectators, it is all about having a good day out with friends and family while watching a game of good cricket.</p>	<p>These are spectators who are interested in the game and follow both the domestic and international games on media. However, they mainly attend domestic games as they are more accessible due to availability of tickets and prices of tickets. This includes both members and non-members and mostly male spectators. They prefer to attend the game by themselves. Attending the game gives them a chance to relax and take some time away from their daily routines. They see attending the game as their personal time away from work, studies, and also friends and family. These spectators enjoy a competitive and closely fought game and their day would be ruined by bad behaviour of other spectators.</p>	<p>These are casuals of cricket. They do not attend the game often. They may not know much about the game and they are not members of any cricket club. These spectators attend the game as it gives them a chance to go out with friends and/or family and have an enjoyable day. They prefer fast moving games with high scores and a lot of action on the field. They would also enjoy a larger crowd at the game and a lively atmosphere.</p>

### ***6.1.2.3. How does the participant think about the topic?***

The next stage in the eyeball analysis is to look at the constructs that the interview elicits. In looking at the constructs, it is possible to understand the emotional experience of cricket spectators while at the game. This is because constructs are the means with which the participants express their experience and meaning. It is important to look at both poles of the construct as it is only through the bipolarity of the constructs the full meaning is expressed (Jankowicz, 2004). In the constructs elicited for this research, the emotional meaning was often expressed indirectly. Or in other words, it was not very often that the participants identified terms that are commonly regarded as emotional terms such as anger, sadness, and joy. More often than not, the emotional meaning being expressed needed to be interpreted from their explanations and discussion of the construct. This task is undertaken more specifically when content analysing the constructs in order to identify the emotional experience of all the participants. However, at this stage of the analysis, the task is to familiarise oneself with the range of constructs being expressed and get a feel for the individual participant's experience. As such, the first impressions of studying the constructs from each individual grid are presented in table 6.3 below.

**Table 6.3: Eyeball Analysis of Constructs**

<i>Interview Number</i>	<i>Constructs</i>	<i>Commentary</i>
Lords405-1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Exciting – Dull</li> <li>b) Annoying – Relaxed</li> <li>c) Frustrating – Glad to be alive</li> <li>d) Contentment – Frustration</li> <li>e) On-edge – Bored</li> <li>f) Memorable/unusual – Predictable</li> </ul>	<p>The element analysis of this male participant revealed that to this participant, attending the domestic one-day game is enjoying a good game of cricket which can be spoiled by bad behaviour of other spectators. Looking at the constructs, it can be seen that four out of six constructs relate to enjoying an exciting and memorable game. In line with the elements of this participant, the constructs suggest that for this participant, the emotional experience sought is about excitement and liveliness. Enjoying such a game makes him feel content. This enjoyment can however, be ruined by frustration and annoyance caused by other spectators' behaviour.</p>
Lords405-3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) Social/relaxed/at ease – Hectic/non-communal</li> <li>b) Knowing/fun/interesting – Lost/not know what's going on</li> <li>c) Lost/excluded – Inclusive</li> <li>d) Well/social/occasion – Anxiety/missing</li> </ul>	<p>This participant's elements related primarily to having a good time and socialising with friends. In line with this, his emotional experience at the game revolves around two main aspects. Firstly, he feels relaxed as the game is slow moving (compared to a football game for instance) as opposed to a hectic and short-lived game. Secondly, being with friends who know about the game helps him understand what is going on and this</p>

	<p>e) Relaxed about self – In a hurry</p> <p>f) All day – Occasional</p>	<p>makes him feel part of the atmosphere and thus included as opposed to feeling lost and anxious.</p>
Oval505-1	<p>a) Feeling settled – Disappointed</p> <p>b) A little tense – Not too worried</p> <p>c) Not too emotionally involved – Too involved</p> <p>d) Makes the whole thing worthwhile – Wasting the day</p> <p>e) Escape – Not enjoying it</p>	<p>For this spectator, as the elements suggested, attending cricket was about the game itself. Looking at his constructs, his emotional experience is centred upon feeling comfortable while at the game. This comfort is derived from escaping from the daily routines and having a good game. Throughout the grid elicitation, the participant emphasised the fact that he does not get too emotionally involved in cricket. The emotional experience he seeks from attending the game therefore is the feeling of comfort and relaxation. He does not think too much about the management of the game and spectator behaviour as this would mean he experiences more intense emotions. Experiencing emotions that are intense and as such ‘getting too emotionally involved’ would mean that he does not get the relaxation and comfort for which he attends the game in the first place.</p>
Oval505-2	<p>a) Happy – Unhappy (not being able to go)</p> <p>b) Sharing/pleasantness – Threatened</p> <p>c) Focus/settledness – Unsettled</p> <p>d) Agitated/tension – Calmness</p>	<p>For this participant the emotional experience of attending the game is about feeling happy, pleasant, settled and peaceful. The negative elements of the game such as bad management and bad game can distract from this sense of happiness and cause him to feel agitation and threatened.</p>

	<p>e) Happy to be alive – Depressed/despairing</p> <p>f) Idealic/peace – Awful/low</p>	
Hove805-1	<p>a) Day out – Having to go to work/no play</p> <p>b) Comfort – Uncomfortable</p> <p>c) Relaxing – Annoyed</p> <p>d) Happy – Miserable</p> <p>e) Annoying – Enjoying without spoiling it</p> <p>f) Spoils your day – Behaviour not happening/enjoying</p>	<p>For this participant, attending the game was about the game itself and having good company to socialise with. The constructs of this participant suggests that, the emotional experience is about feeling comfortable about being at the game and feeling relaxed and happy. Bad behaviour by spectators can cause misery and annoyance which leads to a spoilt day.</p>
North1005-1	<p>a) Make me feel happy – Miserable/sad/lost game</p> <p>b) Feeling good – Cheesed off/Frustrated</p> <p>c) Not like – Liking it</p> <p>d) Don't miss it/want to know – Make sure don't miss it</p>	<p>For this participant, attending the game was all about having a good crowd and a good atmosphere which can be ruined by bad behaviour by spectators. In line with this, his emotional experience is about feeling happy and feeling good about being at the game. Experiencing bad behaviour from some spectators can, on the other hand, make him feel frustrated and miserable.</p>
North1005-2	<p>a) Relaxed/time on own – Not worth it</p> <p>b) Adrenaline/entertainment – No atmosphere/quiet/slow</p> <p>c) Something going on – Nothing happening</p>	<p>The elements of this participant suggested that attending a game was about having some time to himself, away from the daily routines, by going to the game. The emotional experience for this spectator is about relaxing at a game which provides entertainment which leads to excitement.</p>

	d) Improved atmosphere – No atmosphere	
Centrbry1105-1	<p>a) Not wasting time – Having a good time</p> <p>b) Getting away/escape – Stuck in the middle/at work</p> <p>c) Can't control/out of control – Something you can control</p> <p>d) Contrast to work – Stuck indoors with lots of people</p> <p>e) Hoping something would happen – Worry</p> <p>f) Different/variety – Routine/boring/mundane</p>	<p>For this participant, attending the game was about spending time with family and friends while enjoying the cricket. The constructs of this participant suggests that the emotional experience is about escaping the daily routines by seeking variety which leads to excitement. The fact that you cannot control what happens at the game adds to this sense of variety and excitement. Hope also plays a key role in that there is always hope for something unexpected happening.</p>
Centrbry1105-2	<p>a) Satisfied – Disappointed</p> <p>b) Pleased/pleasant – Unhappy</p> <p>c) Proud – Indignant</p> <p>d) Wouldn't like/low – Feel good</p> <p>e) Unhappy - Happy</p>	<p>The elements of this spectator showed that for him, attending the game was about socialising and spending time with friends and family. The constructs suggests that the emotional experience is about feeling happy, satisfied and pleased. Not having friends and not socialising would make him feel unhappy.</p>
Centrbry1105-3	<p>a) Excitement – Sorry for the other team</p> <p>b) Pumped up – Demoralised</p>	<p>The element of this participant showed that attending the game was about enjoying a game that was closely contested and has high scores. In line</p>

	<p>c) Could go either way – A tie</p> <p>d) Spoiling the game – A good day out</p> <p>e) Involvement – Be on own</p> <p>f) Good laugh – Not having a good laugh</p>	<p>with this, the main emotional experience for this participant relates to the feeling of excitement. Having friends to share this experience with makes it more enjoyable as he feels he is involved in the action and can have a good laugh.</p>
<p>Cntrbry1105-4</p>	<p>a) Irritated/distracted – Relief</p> <p>b) Barmy in spirit/put a smile on my face – Barricaded/miserable/tense</p> <p>c) Feel part of it/social – Being isolated</p> <p>d) Not tense/well being – Concentrated</p> <p>e) Threatened/frightening – Safe/supported</p> <p>f) Frustrating – Freedom</p> <p>g) Contentment - Disappointment</p>	<p>For this participant, attending the game was primarily about the quality of cricket as well as behaviour of other spectators. Looking at the constructs, the primary emotional experience is derived from the actions of other spectators. Bad behaviour from spectators makes this participant feel threatened, frustrated, and irritated. Not having this bad behaviour combined with quality of cricket, makes her feel content and peaceful.</p>
<p>RBowl2005-1</p>	<p>a) Exuberance/sense of community – Isolation</p> <p>b) Contented/a nice place to be – Uncomfortable/Disappointed</p> <p>c) Miserable - Contentment</p>	<p>This participant's elements showed that attending the game was about the quality of cricket which can be ruined by the bad behaviour of other spectators. The constructs elicited by this spectator shows that his team performing well and socialising with friends makes him feel exuberant and contented. Bad behaviour by spectators and players can detract from this experience and make him feel miserable.</p>

The table above provides the initial interpretation of the constructs. The emotions experienced by domestic cricket spectators, expressed as constructs, are much more complex and thus summarising and drawing conclusions without further analysis would not be of any use. As such, the initial interpretations of these constructs are only provided to demonstrate how the researcher saw the constructs at first glance. Further analysis of the constructs in the form of content analysis is discussed following the eyeball analysis.

#### ***6.1.2.4. What does the participant think?***

This relates to the rating provided in the grids. Whereas the element and constructs can convey how the participant thinks of the topic and the experiences and meanings derived from this experience, the ratings convey what the participant thinks of the elements and constructs. When analysing the grid, it is possible to identify elements or constructs that are closely related, (have similar meanings) from calculating simple sums of differences between the ratings. This would show the simple relationships within individual grids. However, when analysing multiple grids, calculating sums of differences would provide no meaningful results. Therefore, tools such as cluster analysis and principal component analysis are used (Jankowicz, 2004; Fromm, 2004). However, as discussed in Chapter 5, a tool such as cluster analysis requires common elements and or constructs. Hence, the analysis tool used in this research is content analysis. Nevertheless, the ratings are still used as part of this content analysis procedure which will be discussed later in this chapter. The purpose here is merely to familiarise with the ratings on the grids and identify any unusual or noticeable patterns. The grids with the ratings are provided in Appendix 7.

Looking at the ratings on each grid, no unusual or noticeable patterns were identified. Using a five-point rating scale, most of the constructs received ratings of 1 and 5. This is to be expected when researching a topic such as emotions which tend to provide more intense feelings and thus extreme ratings. However, there is a fairly even spread of 2, 3, and 4 points. A very few number of constructs had more than four ratings of 3 which indicates that the construct does not apply very well to that particular element. Overall, the ratings are equally distributed given the topic under investigation.



#### ***6.1.2.5. Supplied constructs and ratings***

In this research two constructs were supplied to each participant at the end of their construct elicitation procedure. These two supplied constructs were; Overall positive game experience – Overall negative game experience, and Would encourage me to go to the game – Would discourage me from going to the game. The rationale for providing these two constructs was to understand the impact of emotions on overall game experience and return intentions. Also, using Honey's (1979) approach to content analysis requires the use of a summary construct that summarises the experience. As the current research uses Honey's (1979) approach to content analysis, the supplying of the two constructs was essential.

The purpose here is for the researcher to become familiar with the ratings provided to the supplied constructs and to note any unusual ratings provided by the participants. Looking at the ratings for the supplied constructs, a majority of the ratings are in 1s and 5s. This indicates that the elements chosen were strong aspects influencing the overall game experience and intention to return to the game. There are a few elements that have ratings of 3 which indicate that those aspects would not strongly influence participants' decision to revisit the game. Nevertheless, they are still relevant as they have some influence. These elements include 'eating and drinking', 'Kent doing well', and 'having good PA/tannoy system'. This indicates that team performance and having good communication systems for instance may cause annoyance to people but does not provoke negative emotions that are strong enough to deter spectators from attending the game. Overall, the ratings of the supplied constructs did not have any unusual patterns.

#### ***6.1.2.6. Draw conclusions***

Eyeball analysis or eyeballing is a process recommended by researchers (e.g. Jankowicz, 2004; Fromm, 2004) in order for the researcher to familiarise with the grids and understand the grids better prior to carrying out more formal analysis procedures. The major conclusion from the eyeball analysis carried out for this research relates to the elements. Eyeballing the elements provided great insights into how the participants perceived the game and what their expectations were when attending the game. It also indicated four types of spectators who attend the domestic one-day games. The analysis also helped establish that there were no unusual

constructs or ratings that were noticeable in the grids which indicate that the grid administration procedure had been effective in unveiling the emotional meaning of attending cricket games.

## **6.2. Honey's Content Analysis**

The various techniques available to analyse repertory grids were discussed in Chapter 5. These included techniques ranging from content analysis, frequency counts, to principal component analysis. As explained in Chapter 5, the current research used individual elements and constructs and therefore techniques such as cluster and principal component analysis cannot be carried out. This is because these techniques require elements and constructs common to all grids. Content analysis is an effective technique to use when the aim of the research is to understand the meaning expressed through the constructs in multiple grids (Jankowicz, 2004; Fromm, 2004). The aim of the current analysis is to understand the emotions experienced by the spectators attending a domestic one-day cricket game. As such, content analysis is suitable for this research. However, content analysis has a disadvantage. Although it utilises all the constructs and attempts to understand the meaning expressed by each construct in depth (as opposed to frequency counts which only counts the number of times the construct has been mentioned), it does not take into account the information provided through the ratings. The ratings in the grid helps researchers understand the relationship between constructs and elements. To lose all the information provided by the ratings would diminish the richness of the data and therefore the findings.

In order to overcome this problem of loss of data (i.e. ratings) while still using a technique which provides depth of results (i.e. content analysis), Honey (1979) introduced a technique. This is referred to as Honey's content analysis (e.g. Jankowicz, 2004). Honey (1979) demonstrated the use of his technique through a detailed discussion of how he manually analysed multiple grids carried out as part of a management effectiveness research. According to Honey (1979), his aim of presenting this technique was to demonstrate that manual analysis can be carried out

across multiple grids to gain effective outcomes. His grids consisted of individually elicited elements and constructs and therefore is similar to the current research.

The benefit of Honey’s (1979) technique is that it uses some of the ratings that are provided in the grids. This is done by supplying at least one summary construct that summarises the overall experience. Comparing all the elicited constructs to the supplied construct would help identify the constructs that are either more or less closely related to the overall experience. In this current research, two constructs were supplied. Comparing these two constructs with the elicited constructs would help identify the emotions that are closely related to the overall game experience and revisit as well the emotions that are least related.

The steps involved in Honey’s (1979) content analyses were outlined in Figure 5.7 (see Chapter 5). The content analysis of grids in this research is presented below through describing each of the steps outlined in Figure 5.7.

**6.2.1. Compute sums of difference**

As the focus here is to understand the nature of the relationship between the constructs elicited from the participant and the overall summary constructs supplied by the researcher, the sums of differences only need to be computed for each construct against the summary constructs only. The way in which the sum of differences is calculated is demonstrated here using an extract of the grid obtained from the first pilot interview (see figure 6.4 below). The sum of difference between the two constructs shown here is:

$$(1-1) + (1-1) + (1-1) + (1-1) + (3-2) + (3-3) + (4-5) = 2$$

Anticipation	1	1	1	1	3	3	4	Irritation
Interesting	1	1	1	1	2	3	5	Boring

**Figure 6.4:** Extract from Pilot Interview 1

Due to the bipolar nature of a construct all the ratings in a grid cannot be compared directly. That is to say, when a rating scale is provided in a questionnaire scale, then all the positive poles for instance, would be on the same side.

e.g. Attractive 1 2 3 4 5 Unattractive

Familiar 1 2 3 4 5 Unfamiliar, etc.

However, the constructs in a grid are recorded based on whether it is the emergent pole (similarity between two elements that was identified by the participant recorded on the left hand side) or the implicit pole (how the third element differs from the other two recorded on the right hand side). For example;

Attractive 1 2 3 4 5 Unattractive

Unfamiliar 1 2 3 4 5 Familiar

As such, the second construct has a reversed set of ratings to that of the first construct. In order to take this into account when analysing constructs, the sum of differences need to be calculated twice. Firstly, it needs to be calculated as it appears on the grid. Secondly, it needs to be calculated with the ratings reversed (to show how the ratings would have been if the two poles of the constructs were reversed). Using the example provided above, the extract from the first pilot interview is shown below with the ratings of the second constructs reversed (shown in brackets below the original rating). The sum of difference between these constructs now is:

$$(1-5) + (1-5) + (1-5) + (1-5) + (3-4) + (3-3) + (4-1) = 20$$

Anticipation	1	1	1	1	3	3	4	Irritation
Interesting	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	2 (4)	3 (3)	5 (1)	Boring

**Figure 6.5** - Extract from Pilot Interview 1 with scores reversed

Honey's (1979) analysis is only concerned with the ratings for each construct against the overall summary construct. As such, the ratings need to be reversed for the

overall construct only and the smaller of the two differences needs to be noted. This is because the smaller the difference the closer the constructs are similar in meaning.

### ***6.2.2. Ensure comparability with other grids***

The rationale of computing the sums of differences for the constructs was to identify which constructs are closely related in terms of the meaning they express. When analysing a single grid or grids with the same number of elements and constructs, the sums of difference would be sufficient to understand this relationship. However when analysing multiple grids, the researcher needs to be able to compare the sums of differences across the grids. When the multiple grids have different elements and the number of elements varies across each grid, the comparison of sums of differences becomes meaningless. In order to compare the sums of differences and hence analyse the constructs across multiple grids, the sums of differences need to be converted into percentage scores. As Jankowicz (2004) explains “because the sums of difference scores are based on a sum across a different number of elements, they can’t be compared directly but must be turned into a % similarity score” (p114).

The way in which the percentage similarity score is calculated is as follows:

$$100 - \left( \left\{ \frac{SD}{LR - 1} \times E \right\} \times 200 \right)^*$$

SD – sum of difference

LR – Largest possible rating (i.e. in a 5 point scale it would be 5)

E – number of elements

\*the sum is multiplied by 200 instead of 100 in order to take into account that a reversed score relationship may be involved.

Once the percentage similarity scores are calculated, then the constructs within each grid are divided into highest third, intermediate third, and lowest third. Honey (1979) referred to this as ‘topping’ and ‘tailing’ the data. The reason for this is to broadly categorise the constructs into those that are more or less closely related to the overall summary constructs. Once these calculations and division of constructs are concluded, then the content analysis can begin. Once the constructs are content analysed, the researcher can almost immediately use the calculations and ‘top/tail’

data to identify the categories of constructs that are more or less closely related to the summary construct.

### ***6.2.3. Identify the categories***

Categories for content analysis can come from one of two ways. These include existing literature and theories as well as creating categories to suit the data and the specific context at hand (see Chapter 5 section 5.4 for further discussion on categorising constructs). Personal construct theory has provided definitions of emotions which were first discussed by Kelly (1955) and later developed by McCoy (1977). As predefined emotions were available from the personal construct theory, it was decided to use these emotions as the categories within which the constructs from this research would be allocated. By using the predefined set of emotions available from theory, the researcher can ensure that the emotional categories that are identified as relevant to cricket spectators are categories that have been used before and thus reliable. When using pre-existing categories there is always a chance that the data are forced to fit into a predefined system rather than letting the data define the categories themselves (Patton, 2002). In order to deal with this, it was decided to use the emotions defined by Kelly (1955) and McCoy (1977) as a starting point. Whilst content analysing, if any constructs do not fit into these emotions, then new categories/emotion definitions can be developed.

Prior to commencing content analysis each construct from the grids was written down on index cards along with their percentage similarity scores and high/medium/low indices. Each card was coded so that the researcher could identify which grid it originated from. For example Cntrbry1105 – 1.5 would indicate that this construct was the fifth from interview number Cntrbry1105 -1. The list of constructs and their codes are shown in table 6.4 below.

**Table 6.4: Constructs and their codes**

<i>Code</i>	<i>Construct</i>
Lords405-1.1	Exciting - Dull
Lords405-1.2	Annoying - Relaxed
Lords405-1.3	Frustrated – Glad to be alive
Lords405-1.4	Contentment - Frustration
Lords405-1.5	On-edge - Bored
Lords405-1.6	Memorable/Unusual - Predictable
Lords405-3.1	Social/Relaxed/At ease – Hectic/Non-communal
Lords405-3.2	Spirit of the game/Knowing/Fun – Lost/Not know what’s going on
Lords405-3.3	Lost/Not knowing what’s going on/Excluded – Inclusive
Lords405-3.4	Well/Social mood/Leisure activity/Occasion – Uncomfortable/Anxiety/Missing
Lords405-3.5	Relaxed about self/Socialising – Not communal/In a hurry
Lords405-3.6	All day – Occasional
Oval505-1.1	Feeling settled – Disappointed
Oval505-1.2	A little tense – Not too worried
Oval505-1.3	Not too emotionally – Too involved
Oval505-1.4	Makes the whole thing worthwhile – Wasting the day
Oval505-1.5	Escape – Not enjoying it
Oval505-2.1	Happy – Unhappy (not being able to go/denied option)
Oval505-2.2	Sharing/Pleasantness - Threatened
Oval505-2.3	Focus/Settledness – Unsettled
Oval505-2.4	Agitated/Tension - Calmness
Oval505-2.5	Happy to be alive – Depressed/Despairing
Oval505-2.6	Idyllic/Peace – Awful/Low
Hove805-1.1	Day out – Having to go to work/No play
Hove805-1.2	Comfort – Uncomfortable
Hove805-1.3	Relaxing – Annoyed
Hove805-1.4	Happy – Miserable
Hove805-1.5	Annoying – Enjoying without spoiling it

Hove805-1.6	Spoils your day – Behaviour not happening
North1005-1.1	Make me feel happy – Miserable/Sad/Lost game
North1005-1.2	Feeling good – Cheesed off/Frustrated
North1005-1.3	Not like – Liking it
North1005-1.4	Don't miss it /Want to know – Making sure don't miss it
North1005-2.1	Relaxed/Time on own – Not worth it
North1005-2.2	Adrenaline/Entertainment – No atmosphere/quiet/slow
North1005-2.3	Something going on – Nothing Happening
North1005-2.4	Improved atmosphere – No atmosphere
Cntrbry1105-1.1	Not wasting time – Having a good day
Cntrbry1105-1.2	Getting away/Escape – Stuck in the middle/At work
Cntrbry1105-1.3	Can't control/out of control – Something you can control
Cntrbry1105-1.4	Contrast to work – Stuck indoors with lots of people
Cntrbry1105-1.5	Hoping something would happen – Worry
Cntrbry1105-1.6	Different/Variety – Routine/Boring/Mundane
Cntrbry1105-2.1	Satisfied – Disappointed
Cntrbry1105-2.2	Pleased/pleasant – Unhappy
Cntrbry1105-2.3	Proud – Indignant
Cntrbry1105-2.4	Wouldn't like/Low – Feel good
Cntrbry1105-2.5	Unhappy – Happy
Cntrbry1105-3.1	Excitement – Sorry for the other team
Cntrbry1105-3.2	Pumped up – Demoralised
Cntrbry1105-3.3	Could go either way – A tie
Cntrbry1105-3.4	Spoiling the game – A good day out
Cntrbry1105-3.5	Involvement – Be on own
Cntrbry1105-3.6	Good laugh – Not having a good laugh
Cntrbry1105-4.1	Irritated/Distracted – Relief
Cntrbry1105-4.2	Barmy in spirit/Put a smile on my face – Barricaded/Miserable/Tense
Cntrbry1105-4.3	Feel part of it/Social – Being isolated
Cntrbry1105-4.4	Not tense/well being – Concentrated
Cntrbry1105-4.5	Threatened/Frightening – Safe/Supported



Cntrbry1105-4.6	Frustrating – Freedom
Cntrbry1105-4.7	Contentment – Disappointment
RBowl2005-1.1	Exuberance/Sense of community – Isolation
RBowl2005-1.2	Contented/a nice place to be – Uncomfortable/Disappointed
RBowl2005-1.3	Miserable – Contentment

The category system used, which was the emotions and their definitions obtained from Kelly (1955) and McCoy (1977) is provided in table 6.5 below.

**Table 6.5: Emotions and their definitions (Kelly 1955; McCoy, 1977)**

<i>Emotion</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Threat	Awareness of imminent comprehensive change in one's core structure
Fear	Awareness of imminent incidental change in one's core structure
Bewilderment	Awareness of imminent comprehensive change in non-core structure
Doubt	Awareness of imminent incidental change in a non-core structure
Love	Awareness of validation of one's core structure
Happiness	Awareness of validation of a portion of one's core structure
Satisfaction	Awareness of validation of a non-core structure
Complacency	Awareness of validation of a small portion of some non-core structure
Sadness	Awareness of the invalidation of implications of a portion or all of the core structure
Guilt	Awareness of dislodgement of the self from one's core role structure
Self-confidence	Awareness of the goodness of fit of the self in one's core role

	structure
Shame	Awareness of dislodgement of the self from another's construing of your role
Contempt (or disgust)	Awareness that the core role of another is comprehensively different from one's own and/or does not meet the norms of social expectation
Anxiety	Awareness that the events with which one is confronted lie outside the range of convenience of the construct system
Contentment	Awareness that the events with which one is confronted lie within the range of convenience of the construct system
Startle (or surprise)	Sudden awareness of a need to construe events
Anger	Awareness of invalidation of constructs leading to hostility

#### **6.2.4. Allocate constructs into categories**

Before carrying out the content analysis, the researcher studied the emotions and their definitions provided in table 6.4 above to understand each of the emotions. Each emotion and its definition was written on a separate sheet of paper and also the explanations of these emotions provided by Kelly (1955) and McCoy (1977) were at hand in order to obtain clarification if required. In addition to this the researcher also had the hard copies of the interview transcripts to hand. These transcripts were used if the researcher needed to check the explanation or discussion which was provided by the participant when identifying any particular constructs. As Fromm (2004: 155) explains;

“In order to be able to understand the subject's constructs, it is first necessary for the interpreter to use the subject's explanations, examples and counter-examples to determine which constructs have a similar function to those in his own constructs system when discriminating objects of his experiences as the

subject's constructs. A construct which has a similar function may well be expressed in different terms.”

Firstly, the constructs were broadly divided into two categories – positive emotions and negative emotions. This was done in order to provide a starting point in the categorisation procedure. Once the constructs were broadly divided into these categories, then the constructs in each category were allocated into a pile under the appropriate emotion category. The emotion in which that construct belonged was based on the literal meaning of the construct combined with the participants' explanation of the construct. For instance the construct 'exciting – dull' (Lords405 - 1.1) was allocated into the category of 'startle/surprise' because the participant mentioned that when new things are happening then it makes the game exciting. Overall, the constructs that referred to 'excitement', 'memorable experience', and 'memorable' were mentioned by the participants as a way to keep their interest in the game. According to personal construct theory definition of 'startle/surprise' it is the sudden awareness that a person needs to construe events. This need to suddenly construe events is brought about because new or unexpected events occur constantly. When the spectators are at the game and unexpected events such as extraordinary performances by one or more players occur then the spectators may need to construe their expectations of the game constantly. This constant need to construe makes the game interesting and memorable. As such, these constructs were allocated to the category of 'startle/surprise'. Once all the constructs were allocated into an emotion category and the researcher was satisfied with the allocation of constructs to the emotion categories, then the results were tabulated as shown in table 6.6 below. As the table shows, one construct did not fit into any of the emotion categories and was left in the miscellaneous category. This construct was 'all day – occasional' and the interview transcript (Lords405-3) did not reveal any emotional connotations to this construct.

**Table 6.6: Emotion Categories of Constructs**

<i>Category</i>	<i>Definition/Explanation</i>	<i>Construct Code</i>
Contentment	Events with which one is confronted lie within the range of convenience of the construct system. When they are watching the game and they experience a ‘typical’ day at the game. Nothing different is happening which requires them to re-construe events at the game. This makes them feel ‘settled’, ‘content’, ‘calm’, etc.	Oval505-1.1 Oval505-2.3 Hove805-1.2 Cntrbry1105-2.4 Oval505-2.6 Cntrbry1105-1.3 Cntrbry1105-4.4 Cntrbry1105-4.2 RBowl2005-1.2 Lords405-1.4 Cntrbry1105-4.7 Oval505-1.3
Startle/ Surprise	Sudden awareness of a need to construe events. This need to construe/re-construe events on a continued basis provides ‘excitement’. It is also in contrast to work or daily life where (usually) people have a routine and thus the need to reconstrue events on a regular basis makes it ‘boring’ and ‘predictable’.	Lords405-1.1 Lords405-1.6 Lords405-1.5 North1005-2.3 North1005-2.2 Cntrbry1105-1.6 Cntrbry1105-3.1 Cntrbry1105-3.2 Cntrbry1105-3.3 North1005-2.4 Hove805-1.1 Cntrbry1105-1.2 Cntrbry1105-1.4 Oval505-1.2
Happiness	Validation of a portion of core structure. People’s construction of certain aspects of the cricket game is validated and thus they feel like	North1005-1.4 Oval505-2.5 Cntrbry1105-2.3

	they are 'proud' that they know the game/what to expect from the day. Because this validation is preferred and sought after, they wouldn't want to miss the game. Attending the game helps them to re-affirm their constructs. What they fundamentally believe cricket to be is validated.	Cntrbry1105-2.2 Cntrbry1105-2.5 Oval505-2.1 North1005-1.1 Hove805-1.4
Anxiety	Events with which one is confronted lie outside the range of convenience of the construct system. This feeling of not knowing how to understand the events that are happening and what to expect next makes them feel 'tensed'.	Lords405-3.5 Lords405-3.4 Oval505-2.4 Lords405-3.2 Lords405-3.3
Anger	Invalidation of constructs leading to hostility. As what they anticipated to happen at the game didn't happen and their constructs were invalidated they feel 'miserable' and 'frustrated' this may also lead to hostility towards the team, officials or even other spectators.	RBowl2005-1.3 Lords405-1.3 Lords405-1.2 Hove805-1.3 Cntrbry1105-4.6
Satisfaction	Validation of a non-core structure. Certain aspects of the game are validated and this validation may be shared with fellow spectators. This makes them feel accepted as a 'cricket spectator'. Being accepted as one of the clique is not core to their sense of being but nevertheless, this acceptance is valued as makes them feel 'involved'.	Cntrbry1105-3.5 Cntrbry1105-4.3 RBowl2005-1.1 Lords405-3.1 Cntrbry1105-3.6 Cntrbry1105-2.1
Threat	Imminent comprehensive change in one's core structure. Due to events happening in the game they feel that they may have to change their perception of the game and this change would	Cntrbry1105-4.5 Oval505-2.2

	involve them comprehensively altering the construction of cricket as a ‘safe’ and ‘social’ occasion.	
Doubt	Imminent incidental change in a non-core structure. People have certain expectations when attending the game (e.g. good cricket, good day out, etc). However they are also aware that these expectations may not be completely fulfilled. However, this change to the constructs wouldn’t necessarily change their overall/fundamental perceptions of the game.	Oval505-1.4 North1005-2.1 Cntrbry1105-1.1 Hove805-1.6 Oval505-1.5 Cntrbry1105-3.4 Cntrbry1105-1.5
Contempt/ Disgust	Core role of another is comprehensively different from one’s own and/or does not meet the norms of social expectation. This emotion is experienced as a result of the action of other spectators mainly but also could be actions from the team. Behaviour such as ‘drunken behaviour’, ‘abuse towards players/spectators’ etc. would result in contempt.	North1005-1.2 North1005-1.3 Hove805-1.5 Cntrbry1105-4.1
Miscellaneous/ No-category found		Lords405-3.6

### ***6.2.5. Establish reliability of the category system***

When conducting quantitative research, establishing reliability can be achieved through statistical measures. However, qualitative research does not involve statistical measures for assessing reliability. Nevertheless, it is still important to ensure that the findings obtained from qualitative analysis are still valid and reliable. Especially as the qualitative data analysis and interpretation is very much integrated

with the researcher's own impressions and understandings, it is important to check that these impressions and understandings are valid and reliable.

Before proceeding with the next stage of the research, it is important to ensure that the categorisation of constructs by the researcher is reliable. The best way to check the reliability of content analysis is by ensuring that the content analysis is carried out by someone other than the researcher (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Jankowicz, 2004).

The rationale behind this is that when someone other than the researcher content analyses the data then the categories that they allocate the data into would reveal whether someone other than the researcher has interpreted the data in the same way. The nature of subjectivity in the interpretation of qualitative data means that it is not possible to expect the categorisation of data by the researcher and another individual to have a perfect match. The aim is to get them as closely matched as possible. Aiming for 90% agreement is considered the benchmark when content analysing repertory grids (Jankowicz, 2004).

In order to assess the reliability of the content analysis in this research, one other person was requested to carry out the content analysis of the grids. The person carrying out this content analysis has many years of experience using personal construct theory and the repertory grids to carry out research within a sports coaching context. As such, this individual had a good understanding of the personal construct theory of emotions, their definitions as well as Honey's (1979) content analysis. The decision to use someone experienced in personal construct theory and repertory grids was in order to enhance the reliability. As this is the researcher's first attempt to use personal construct theory and the repertory grids, this was the first time the researcher was using the emotions and their definitions provided by Kelly (1955) and McCoy (1977). Hence, having someone who is experienced in this area would ensure that the interpretation of the emotions and their meanings and the categorisation of the constructs is accurate. The person content analysing the constructs was provided with a list of constructs and their codes and the list of emotions and their definitions. One week after sending this information the researcher contacted the person to check that the content analysis has been completed. Following this, both parties exchanged their categorisation of constructs.

Subsequent to the initial content analysis by both the researcher and the research collaborator, both parties classified 49 out of 64 constructs in the same way. Thus there was 76% agreement in the content analysis of both parties. Table below 6.7 shows the results of the content analysis by the collaborator.

**Table 6.7: Categorisation of Constructs by the Research Collaborator**

<i>Category</i>	<i>Construct Code</i>	
Contentment	Oval505-1.1 Cntrbry1105-1.3 Cntrbry1105-4.4 Cntrbry1105-4.2 RBowl2005-1.2 Lords405-1.4	Cntrbry1105-4.7 Oval505-2.3 Hove805-1.2 Cntrbry1105-2.4 Oval505-2.6
Startle/Surprise	Lords405-1.1 Lords405-1.6 Lords405-1.5 North1005-2.3 North1005-2.2 Cntrbry1105-1.6 Cntrbry1105-3.1 Cntrbry1105-3.2	Cntrbry1105-3.3 Hove805-1.1 Cntrbry1105-1.2 Cntrbry1105-1.4 North1005-1.4 Cntrbry1105-2.2
Happiness	Oval505-2.5 Cntrbry1105-2.3 Cntrbry1105-2.5 Oval505-2.1	North1005-1.1 Hove805-1.4
Anxiety	Lords405-3.5 Lords405-3.4 Oval505-2.4 Lords405-3.2	Lords405-3.3 Oval505-1.2
Anger	Lords405-1.3 Lords405-1.2	Cntrbry1105-4.6 North1005-1.2



	Hove805-1.3	
Satisfaction	Cntrbry1105-4.3 RBowl2005-1.1 Lords405-3.1 Cntrbry1105-3.6	Cntrbry1105-2.1 North1005-1.3
Threat	Cntrbry1105-4.5 Oval505-2.2 Oval505-1.3	
Doubt	Cntrbry1105-1.5	
Contempt/Disgust	Hove805-1.5 Cntrbry1105-4.1	
Sadness	RBowl2005-1.3 Oval505-1.4 North1005-2.1 Cntrbry1105-1.1	Hove805-1.6 Oval505-1.5 Cntrbry1105-3.4
Miscellaneous/No-category found	Lords405-3.6 North1005-2.4 Cntrbry1105-3.5	

As the table above shows, the collaborator included one category ‘sadness’ in addition to the categories that were used by the researcher. Both the researcher’s own categorisations as well as that of the collaborator are shown together in table 6.8 below. This table shows the constructs that both parties categorised in the same way as well as indicating (in red) the difference in the collaborator’s categorisation of constructs.

**Table 6.8: Categorisation of constructs by the researcher and the collaborator**

Collaborator Researcher	Sadness	Contempt/ Disgust	Doubt	Threat	Satisfaction	Anger	Anxiety	Happiness	Startle/ Surprise	Contentment	Miscellaneous
Contempt/D isgust		Hove805- 1.5 Cntrbry110 5-4.1			North1005-1.3	North100 5-1.2					
Doubt	Oval505-1.4 North1005-2.1 Cntrbry1105- 1.1 Hove805-1.6 Oval505-1.5 Cntrbry1105- 3.4		Cntrbry11 05-1.5								
Threat				Cntrbry 1105- 4.5 Oval505 -2.2							
Satisfaction					Cntrbry1105-						Cntrbry11

					4.3 RBowl2005- 1.1 Lords405-3.1 Cntrbry1105- 3.6 Cntrbry1105- 2.1						05 -3.5
Anger	RBowl2005- 1.3					Lords405- 1.3 Lords405- 1.2 Hove805- 1.3 Cntrbry11 05-4.6					
Anxiety							Lords405- 3.5 Lords405- 3.4 Oval505-				

							2.4 Lords405- 3.2 Lords405- 3.3			
Happiness							Oval505- 2.5 Cntrbry110 5-2.3 Cntrbry110 5-2.5 Oval505- 2.1 North1005- 1.1 Hove805- 1.4	North1005- 1.4 Cntrbry110 5-2.2		
Startle/Surp rise							Oval505- 1.2	Lords405- 1.1 Lords405- 1.6		North1005 - 2.4

									Lords405- 1.5 North1005- 2.3 North1005- 2.2 Cntrbry110 5-1.6 Cntrbry110 5-3.1 Cntrbry110 5-3.2 Cntrbry110 5-3.3 Hove805- 1.1 Cntrbry110 5-1.2 Cntrbry110 5-1.4		
Contentmen				Oval505						Oval505-1.1	

t				-1.3						Oval505-2.3 Hove805-1.2 Cntrbry1105-2.4 Oval505-2.6 Cntrbry1105-1.3 Cntrbry1105-4.4 Cntrbry1105-4.2 RBowl2005-1.2 Lords405-1.4 Cntrbry1105-4.7	
Miscellaneous											Lords405-3.6

In order to understand the rationale behind each other's categorisation of constructs and thereby discuss the differences, the researcher and the collaborator had a discussion session. During this session, each category and the constructs that were allocated into them were discussed and debated. The two constructs that were classified as 'miscellaneous' by the collaborator (North1005-2.4 and Cntrbry1105-3.5) were done so due to a lack of clarification on what the participants were trying to convey. For instance the construct 'improved atmosphere – no atmosphere' (North1005-2.4) did not convey any emotional meaning to the collaborator. However, looking at the context of the interview as a whole, the researcher interpreted this as a construct of the emotion 'startle/surprise'. Many participants referred to atmosphere at the game to convey the combination of events such as on-field activity, fast paced game and spectator behaviour. Hence, when there are many activities or events that are taking place, it keeps the spectators on edge. This means that they may be required to reconstrue events on a continuous basis. As such, this would be an emotion relating to startle or surprise. Similarly, the construct 'involvement – be on own' (Cntrbry1105-3.5) was interpreted by the researcher based on the overall interviews. When referring to involvement, as spectators cannot get involved in the game itself, the only involvement they can engage in is with other spectators. Thus, being a member and socialising with other members was seen as an act of involvement. Also casual spectators felt involved when they are socialising with other spectators as they then become part of the friendly atmosphere. Satisfaction, in personal construct theory, is a validation of a non-core construct. Sharing the experience of cricket and socialising with others makes spectators feel that their non-core construct of being a 'cricket spectator' is accepted and acknowledged by others within the relevant circle. As such, the construct of 'involvement – be on won' was seen by the researcher as belonging to the emotion of satisfaction.

The session to discuss the content analysis of the researcher and the research collaborator led them to reach an agreement on some constructs which were then reassigned to an agreed category. The result of the discussion session by the researcher and the collaborator is shown in table 6.9 below.

**Table 6.9: Revised categorisation of constructs by the researcher and the collaborator**

Collaborator Researcher	Sadness	Contempt/ Disgust	Doubt	Threat	Satisfaction	Anger	Anxiety	Happiness	Startle/ Surprise	Contentment	Miscellaneous
Contempt/D isgust		Hove805- 1.5 Cntrbry110 5-4.1 North1005- 1.3 North1005- 1.2									
Doubt			Cntrbry11 05-1.5								
Threat				Cntrbry 1105- 4.5 Oval505 -2.2 Oval505 -1.3							
Satisfaction					Cntrbry1105-						



					4.3 RBowl2005- 1.1 Lords405-3.1 Cntrbry1105- 3.6 Cntrbry1105- 2.1 Cntrbry1105 -3.5						
Anger	RBowl2005- 1.3					Lords405- 1.3 Lords405- 1.2 Hove805- 1.3 Cntrbry11 05-4.6					
Anxiety							Lords405- 3.5 Lords405-				

							3.4 Oval505- 2.4 Lords405- 3.2 Lords405- 3.3			
Happiness								Oval505- 2.5 Cntrbry110 5-2.3 Cntrbry110 5-2.5 Oval505- 2.1 North1005- 1.1 Hove805- 1.4 North1005- 1.4		

								Cntrbry110 5-2.2			
Startle/ Surprise							Oval505- 1.2		Lords405- 1.1 Lords405- 1.6 Lords405- 1.5 North1005 -2.3 North1005 -2.2 Cntrbry11 05-1.6 Cntrbry11 05-3.1 Cntrbry11 05-3.2 Cntrbry11 05-3.3 Hove805-		

									1.1 Cntrbry11 05-1.2 Cntrbry11 05-1.4 North1005 - 2.4	
Contentment									Oval505-1.1 Oval505-2.3 Hove805-1.2 Cntrbry1105-2.4 Oval505-2.6 Cntrbry1105-1.3 Cntrbry1105-4.4 Cntrbry1105-4.2 RBowl2005-	

										1.2 Lords405-1.4 Cntrbry1105-4.7	
Sadness	Oval505-1.4 North1005-2.1 Cntrbry1105-1.1 Hove805-1.6 Oval505-1.5 Cntrbry1105-3.4										
Miscellaneous											Lords405-3.6

As the table above shows, most of the disputed constructs except for 2, were agreed upon by the researcher and the collaborator following the discussion session. Therefore the final rate of agreement between the two parties was 97% which shows a substantial level of reliability of the content analysis procedure. With regards to the constructs that the two parties could not agree upon, it is recommend that the researcher's original categorisation should prevail (Jankowicz, 2004). This is because the researcher due to their involvement has a better understanding of the context of the interviews and thereby the meaning being conveyed through the constructs. Therefore, as the research project as a whole is based on the researcher's interpretations, the category system that is taken forward should also be that of the researcher (Jankowicz, 2004).

Following on from this the final result of the categorisation of constructs is shown in table 6.10 below.

**Table 6.10: Final Result of Categorisation of Constructs**

<i>Category</i>	<i>Definition/Explanation</i>	<i>Construct Code</i>
Contentment	Events with which one is confronted lie within the range of convenience of the construct system. Spectators experience Contentment when they are watching the game and they are experiencing a 'typical' day at the game. Nothing different is happening which requires them to reconstrue events at the game. This makes them feel 'settled', 'content', 'calm', etc.	Oval505-1.1 Oval505-2.3 Hove805-1.2 Cntrbry1105-2.4 Oval505-2.6 Cntrbry1105-1.3 Cntrbry1105-4.4 Cntrbry1105-4.2 RBowl2005-1.2 Lords405-1.4 Cntrbry1105-4.7
Startle/ Surprise	Sudden awareness of a need to construe events. This need to construe/reconstrue events on a continued basis provides 'excitement'. It is also in contrast to work or daily life where (usually)	Lords405-1.1 Lords405-1.6 Lords405-1.5 North1005-2.3

	<p>people have a routine and thus maintaining the construction system on a regular basis makes it 'boring' and 'predictable'. This is in direct contrast to the need to reconstrue constantly which makes the experience interesting and exciting.</p>	<p>North1005-2.2  Cntrbry1105-1.6  Cntrbry1105-3.1  Cntrbry1105-3.2  Cntrbry1105-3.3  North1005-2.4  Hove805-1.1  Cntrbry1105-1.2  Cntrbry1105-1.4  Oval505-1.2</p>
Happiness	<p>Validation of a portion of core structure. People's construction of certain aspects of the cricket game is validated and thus they feel like they are 'proud' that they know the game/what to expect from the day. Because this validation is preferred and sought after, they wouldn't want to miss the game. Attending the game helps them to re-affirm their constructs. What they fundamentally believe cricket to be is confirmed.</p>	<p>North1005-1.4  Oval505-2.5  Cntrbry1105-2.3  Cntrbry1105-2.2  Cntrbry1105-2.5  Oval505-2.1  North1005-1.1  Hove805-1.4</p>
Anxiety	<p>Events with which one is confronted lie outside the range of convenience of the construct system. This feeling of not knowing how to understand the events that are happening and what to expect next makes them feel 'tensed' and 'unsettled'.</p>	<p>Lords405-3.5  Lords405-3.4  Oval505-2.4  Lords405-3.2  Lords405-3.3</p>
Anger	<p>Invalidation of constructs leading to hostility. As what they anticipated to happen at the game didn't happen, their constructs were invalidated and they feel 'miserable' and 'frustrated'. This may also lead to hostility towards the team, officials or even other spectators.</p>	<p>RBowl2005-1.3  Lords405-1.3  Lords405-1.2  Hove805-1.3  Cntrbry1105-4.6</p>

Satisfaction	Validation of a non-core structure. Certain aspects of the game are validated and this validation may be shared with fellow spectators. This makes them feel accepted as a ‘cricket spectator’. Being accepted as one of the clique is not core to their sense of being but nevertheless, this acceptance is valued as it makes them feel ‘involved’.	Cntrbry1105-3.5 Cntrbry1105-4.3 RBowl2005-1.1 Lords405-3.1 Cntrbry1105-3.6 Cntrbry1105-2.1
Threat	Imminent comprehensive change in one’s core structure. Due to events happening at the game (such as team being heavily defeated or being verbally or physically harmed by other spectators) they feel that they may have to change their perception of the game and this change would involve them comprehensively altering the construction of cricket as a ‘safe’ and ‘social’ occasion.	Cntrbry1105-4.5 Oval505-2.2 Oval505-1.3
Doubt	Imminent incidental change in a non-core structure. People have certain expectations when attending the game (e.g. good cricket, good day out, etc). However they are also aware that these expectations may not be completely fulfilled. This change to the constructs wouldn’t necessarily change their overall/fundamental perceptions of the game. It does however make them wonder whether they may need to reconstrue their experiences and expectations.	Cntrbry1105-1.5
Contempt/ Disgust	Core role of another is comprehensively different from one’s own and/or does not meet the norms of social expectation. This emotion is	North1005-1.2 North1005-1.3 Hove805-1.5



	experienced as a result of the action of other spectators mainly but could also be actions from the team. Behaviour such as ‘drunken behaviour’, ‘abuse towards players/spectators’ etc. would result in contempt.	Cntrbry1105-4.1
Sadness	Invalidation of the implications. Due to the invalidation of the constructs, spectators feel or are aware that cricket for them is not going to mean the same again. This negative reconstruction makes them feel sad as they have lost something they loved and valued.	Oval505-1.4 North1005-2.1 Cntrbry1105-1.1 Hove805-1.6 Oval505-1.5 Cntrbry1105-3.4
Miscellaneous/No-category found		Lords405-3.6

As the above table shows, the categorisation of constructs resulted in ten categories of emotions. The one construct (Lords405-3.6) which was classified and not fitting into any emotion category by both the researcher and the collaborator was removed from further analysis of the constructs.

The emotion categories obtained from this content analysis procedure provides an indication of which emotions are important to spectators when attending a live domestic one-day cricket game. The next step is to understand, using the similarity percentage scores and the H-I-L index (discussed above), which of these emotions are more or less closely related to the two summary constructs of overall game experience and intention to return to the game. Table 6.11 shows the emotion categories, their associating constructs, percentage similarity scores as well as the H-I-L index.

**Table 6.11: Emotions, associated constructs, % similarity scores and H-I-L index**

<i>Category</i>	<i>Constructs</i>	<i>Construct Code</i>	<i>Game experience</i>		<i>Return intentions</i>	
			<i>% score</i>	<i>H-I-L</i>	<i>% score</i>	<i>H-I-L</i>
Contentment	Feeling settled – Disappointed	Oval505-1.1	75%	H	67%	I
	Focus/Settledness – Unsettled	Oval505-2.3	78%	H	83%	H
	Comfort – Uncomfortable	Hove805-1.2	86%	I	86%	H
	Wouldn't like/low – Feel good	Cntrbry1105-2.4	83%	H	75%	H
	Idealic/Peace – Awful/Low	Oval505-2.6	72%	H	89%	H
	Can't control/out of control – Something you can control	Cntrbry1105-1.3	40%	L	60%	I
	Not tense/well being – Concentrated	Cntrbry1105-4.4	75%	I	75%	H
	Barmy in spirit – Barricaded/miserable/tense	Cntrbry1105-4.2	90%	H	80%	H
	Contented/a nice place to be – Uncomfortable/disappointed	RBowl2005-1.2	91%	H	73%	H
	Contentment – Frustration	Lords405-1.4	64%	I	21%	L
Contentment – Disappointment	Cntrbry1105-4.7	100%	H	80%	H	
Startle/ Surprise	Exciting – Dull	Lords405-1.1	57%	I	57%	I
	Memorable/unusual – Predictable	Lords405-1.6	50%	I	50%	H
	On-edge – Bored	Lords405-1.5	43%	L	57%	H
	Something going on – Nothing happening	North1005-2.3	83%	H	75%	I

	Adrenaline/entertainment – No atmosphere/quiet/slow	North1005-2.2	83%	H	75%	I
	Different/variety – Routine/boring/mundane	Cntrbry1105-1.6	60%	I	40%	L
	Excitement – Sorry for the other team	Cntrbry1105-3.1	83%	H	83%	H
	Pumped up – Demoralised	Cntrbry1105-3.2	83%	H	83%	H
	Could go either way – A tie	Cntrbry1105-3.3	67%	I	67%	I
	Improved atmosphere – No atmosphere	North1005-2.4	75%	I	83%	H
	Day out – Having to go to work/no play	Hove805-1.1	93%	H	79%	I
	Getting away/escape – Stuck in the middle/at work	Cntrbry1105-1.2	40%	L	40%	L
	Contrast to work – Stuck indoors with lots of people	Cntrbry1105-1.4	60%	I	40%	L
	A little tense – Not too worried	Oval505-1.2	58%	L	67%	I
Happiness	Don't miss it/want to know – Making sure don't miss it	North1005-1.4	92%	H	92%	H
	Happy to be alive – Depressed/despairing	Oval505-2.5	78%	H	83%	H
	Proud – Indignant	Cntrbry1105-2.3	33%	L	42%	L
	Pleased/pleasant – Unhappy	Cntrbry1105-2.2	83%	H	75%	H
	Unhappy – Happy	Cntrbry1105-2.5	83%	H	75%	H
	Happy – Unhappy (not being able to go/denied option)	Oval505-2.1	78%	H	83%	H
	Make me feel happy – Miserable/sad/lost game	North1005-1.1	67%	L	67%	L
	Happy – Miserable	Hove805-1.4	86%	I	71%	I

Anxiety	Relaxed about self/socialising – Not communal/in a hurry	Lords405-3.5	81%	H	75%	I
	Well/social mood/leisure activity – Uncomfortable/anxiety	Lords405-3.4	75%	I	69%	L
	Agitated/tension – Calmness	Oval505-2.4	33%	L	39%	L
	Spirit of the game/knowing/fun – Lost/not know what's going on	Lords405-3.2	75%	I	81%	H
	Lost/not knowing what's going on/excluded - Inclusive	Lords405-3.3	75%	I	69%	L
Anger	Miserable – Contentment	RBowl2005-1.3	100%	H	82%	H
	Frustrated – Glad to be alive	Lords405-1.3	86%	H	43%	I
	Annoying – Relaxed	Lords405-1.2	50%	I	36%	I
	Relaxing – Annoyed	Hove805-1.3	71%	I	86%	H
	Frustrating – Freedom	Cntrbry1105-4.6	80%	I	80%	H
Satisfaction	Involvement – Be on own	Cntrbry1105-3.5	100%	H	100%	H
	Feel part of it/social – Being isolated	Cntrbry1105-4.3	50%	L	70%	I
	Exuberance/sense of community – Isolation	RBowl2005-1.1	77%	L	59%	L
	Social/relaxed/at ease – Hectic/non-communal	Lords405-3.1	81%	H	75%	I
	Good laugh – Not having a good laugh	Cntrbry1105-3.6	100%	H	100%	H
	Satisfied – Disappointed	Cntrbry1105-2.1	83%	H	75%	H
Threat	Threatened/frightening – Safe/supported	Cntrbry1105-4.5	55%	L	65%	L

	Sharing/pleasantness – Threatened	Oval505-2.2	56%	I	61%	I
	Not too emotionally – Too involved	Oval505-1.3	67%	I	58%	L
Doubt	Hoping something would happen – Worry	Cntrbry1105-1.5	50%	I	30%	L
Contempt/Di sgust	Feeling good – Cheesed off/frustrated	North1005-1.2	67%	L	67%	L
	Not like – Liking it	North1005-1.3	83%	I	83%	I
	Annoying – Enjoying without spoiling it	Hove805-1.5	86%	I	86%	H
	Irritated/distracted – Relief	Cntrbry1105-4.1	75%	I	75%	H
Sadness	Makes the whole thing worthwhile – Wasting the day	Oval505-1.4	83%	H	75%	H
	Relaxed/time on own – Not worth it	North1005-2.1	67%	L	75%	I
	Not wasting time – Having a good day	Cntrbry1105-1.1	90%	H	90%	H
	Spoils your day – Behaviour not happening	Hove805-1.6	71%	I	86%	H
	Escape – Not enjoying it	Oval505-1.5	83%	H	75%	H
	Spoiling the game – A good day out	Cntrbry1105-3.4	25%	L	25%	L

Each emotion and the constructs within them can now be interpreted to assess the relationship of these emotions to the overall game experience as well as return intentions. This relationship is assessed using percentage similarity scores as well as the top/tail data indices (High, Intermediate, and Low scores).

***Contentment*** - This emotion had 11 constructs allocated to it. The majority of these constructs (7 out of 11 for game experience; 8 out of 11 for return intentions) had a high percentage similarity score and scored high on the HIL index. This indicates that this emotion is strongly related to both game experience as well as return intentions. Furthermore, the constructs in this emotion was obtained from a wide range of interviews which indicates that the emotion is of importance to the sample as a whole as opposed to only a few participants of the study.

***Startle/Surprise*** - This emotion consisted of 14 constructs making it the emotion with the highest number of constructs. Over 50% of the constructs here had percentage scores with a high rating on the index for both game experience and return intentions. Although it also included a few constructs with a low rating on the index, this is far outweighed by the high scores. As such, startle/surprise can be said to have a significantly strong relationship to both game experience and return intentions.

***Happiness*** - This emotion had 8 constructs allocated to it. The constructs for this emotion had a majority of percentage similarity scores with a high index for both game experience and return intentions. Also, the eight constructs here come from five different interviews indicating that the sample as a whole places importance on this emotion. The emotion of happiness therefore, is closely related to both game experience and return intentions of domestic one-day cricket spectators.

***Anxiety*** - This emotion consisted of 5 constructs. The percentage similarity score for these constructs in relation to game experience indicates that this emotion is of intermediate importance to the sample. With regards to return intentions, the percentage scores indicate that this emotion has a low impact on return intentions. It is also important to note that four out of the five constructs here were all from one single interview. This indicates that anxiety, although important to the spectator in participating in this interview, is not really relevant to the sample as a whole. In the case of this

particular participant (Lords405.3), he was attending the game because of his friends who have knowledge of the game. If these friends did not attend he would not be attending the game as he does not follow cricket and would not know what was happening with regards to the game. Hence, being by himself and feeling lost were predominant in this spectators mind which resulted in many of his constructs relating to anxiety. As a result, it can be concluded that anxiety has a very low impact on both game experience and return intentions.

**Anger** - This emotion had 5 constructs allocated to it. The percentage similarity scores for both game experience and return intentions are evenly spread between high and intermediate. This indicates that anger has a significant impact on spectators' game experience as well as return intentions.

**Satisfaction** - This emotion had 6 constructs allocated to it. The percentage similarity scores with regards to game experience have a majority of high scores (4 out of 6). This indicates that this emotion is closely related to game experience. With regards to return intentions, the 50% of the constructs have a percentage similarity score with a high index and two more with intermediate index. The six constructs here also come from six different interviews indicating the relevance of this emotion to the sample as a whole. As such, satisfaction has a very close relationship with game experience and a significant relationship with return intentions.

**Threat** - This emotion had 3 constructs allocated to it. With regards to game experience, the percentage similarity score for the constructs have a considerable number of intermediate and low indices. For return intentions, the percentage similarity scores of the constructs have a mostly low and intermediate index. This indicates that threat has a weak relationship with both game experience and return intentions.

**Doubt** - This emotion only had one construct. The construct had an intermediate percentage similarity score with regards to game experience and a low score for return intentions. As this emotion also had only one construct, this can be said to have a weak relationship with both game experience and return intentions.

**Contempt/disgust** - This emotion had 4 constructs allocated to it. With regards to game experience, the percentage similarity scores for the constructs have a majority of intermediate scores. With regards to return intentions, 50% of the constructs have a high score followed by intermediate scores. Thus, contempt/disgust has a weak relationship with game experience and a significant relationship with return intentions.

**Sadness** - This emotion consisted of 6 constructs. With regards to game experience, 50% of the constructs have a high percentage similarity score. With regards to return intentions, four out of the six constructs have a high percentage similarity score. Also, the six constructs here come from five different interviews indicating the relevance of this emotion to the sample as a whole. Hence, sadness has a significant relationship to game experience and strong relationship to return intentions.

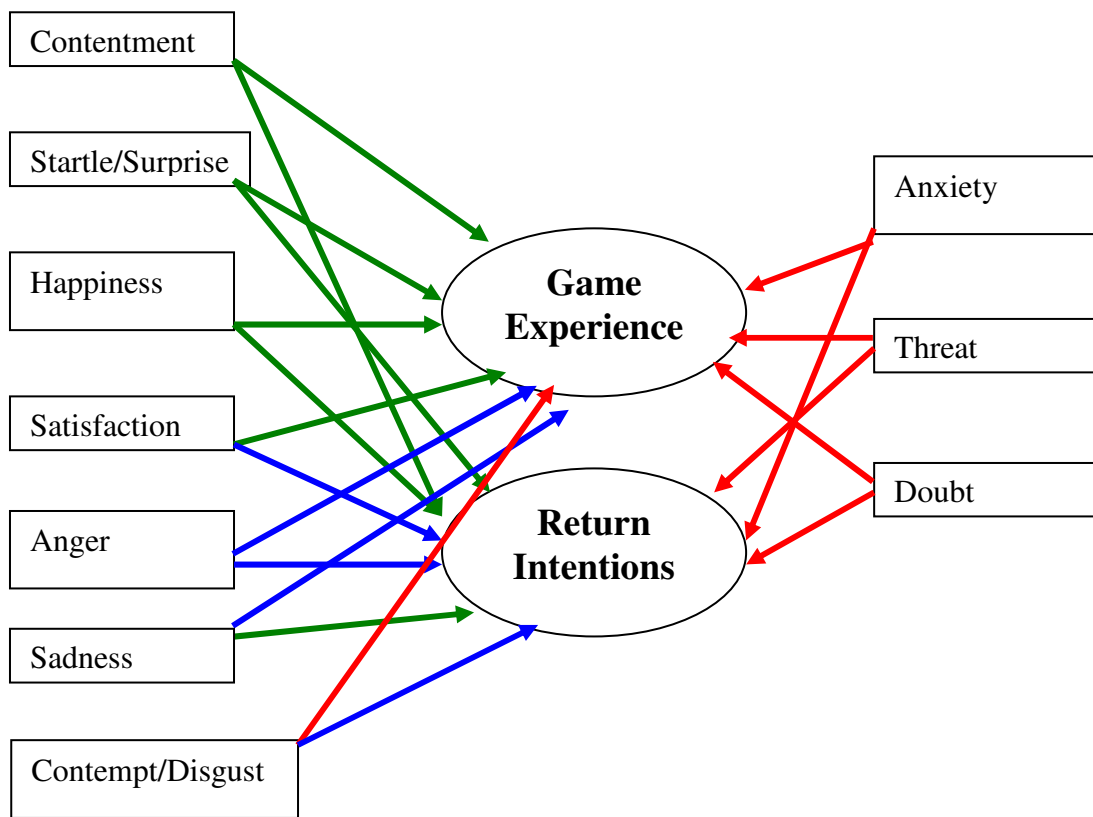
### **6.3. Results from Content Analysis**

The procedure and the steps of Honey's (1979) content analysis that was discussed above has helped to identify the set of emotions that are relevant to domestic one-day cricket spectators. Ten emotions were identified as being relevant in this context. Each of these emotions was identified to have strong, important or weak relationship to both the game experience and return intentions of spectators. The ten emotions and their relationship to game experience and return intentions are shown in figure 6.4 below.

Strong relationship with either game experience or return intentions indicate that these emotions have a great impact on spectators' overall game experience and their intentions to return to the game. This is indicated in green arrows in the figure (the coloured arrows are used here to clearly indicate the different relationships each emotion has on game experience and return intentions). Emotions that have an important relationship, indicated in blue, indicate these have a considerable impact on both game experience and return intentions. However, these emotions do not have the same impact on game experience and return intentions as the emotions with the strong relationships. In other words, emotions with a strong relationship are extremely important to the overall game experience and return intentions of spectators. Emotions with an important relationship



will enhance the game experience of spectators and their intention to return but they can still have a positive game experience without these emotions. The emotions with a weak relationship (indicated in red) are those that do not have an impact on game experience or return intentions. Spectators may not like experiencing these emotions but they are not important enough to change their overall experience or return intentions.



**Figure 6.6 - Results of Content Analysis**

### 6.3.1. Overall Game Experience

As discussed in Chapter 2, sport marketing literature has paid minimal attention to the concept of emotions experienced as a result sport spectating. Prominent sports marketing researchers who have investigated emotions (e.g. Madrigal 1995, 2003; Madrigal and Bee, 2005) have focussed mainly on emotions resulting from the performance of the team and the game outcome. However, experiencing a game involves more than the game itself. These include aspects such as socialising, escape, atmosphere at the venue and so on (e.g. Wann et al, 2002). Especially with a sport such as cricket which is played over a

long period of time, aspects such as socialising take on great significance. Hence, emotions need to be understood as a result of overall game experience and not just as a result of team performance. Overall game experience here is defined as the overall experience of spectators when they are attending a game which includes game related aspects (team performance, victory) as well as non-game related aspects (meeting friends, atmosphere at the game, off-field entertainment, management of the facilities, etc).

The results from the first stage of this research (repertory grid interviews) helped identify ten emotions that were relevant to domestic one-day cricket spectators. Contentment, startle/surprise, happiness and satisfaction are seen by spectators as emotions that are extremely important for their game experience. Experiencing these emotions would mean that they have a positive game experience. Anxiety, threat, doubt and contempt/disgust are emotions that have a weak impact on game experience. Hence, these emotions do not have a great impact on cricket spectators' game experience. This could be because cricket is generally viewed by spectators as a peaceful and social game. As such, experiencing emotions such as threat and anxiety are not anticipated. Anger and sadness are emotions that are important to spectators' game experience but they are not the defining factor in their overall game experience. As these are negative emotions, not experiencing these emotions during a game will enhance their experience and experiencing them may make them feel less positive about their experience.

### ***6.3.2. Return Intentions***

The relationship between emotion and behaviour is a much debated one (Plutchick, 1980). However, it is generally agreed in the marketing sphere that emotions are important to generate behaviour such as return intentions (O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy, 2003; Yuksel et al, 2010). Also from a management perspective, understanding what emotions are important to cricket spectators is helpful as long as they can use this insight to reach effective decisions. An important way in which the insight of emotional experience can be converted into action is by using it to increase spectators' intention to return to the game. Understanding the relationship between emotions and return intentions therefore, can help enhance management decision making on retaining spectators.

The results from this stage of the research show that there are four emotions that have a great impact on spectators' intention to return to the game. These emotions are contentment, startle/surprise, happiness and sadness. With the former three emotions, experiencing them would mean that spectators would have an intention to return to the game. With the latter emotion, sadness, experiencing it would put spectators off from attending in the future. Contempt/disgust, anger and satisfaction are important emotions with regards to return intentions but they may not be very important in spectator decisions to return to the game. For instance, if they experience contempt/disgust, they may take this into consideration in their intention to return to the game but this emotion in itself would not be the deciding factor in their decisions. Anxiety, threat and doubt are three emotions that have a weak impact on return intentions. As with the game experience emotions, the reason for these emotions having a weak relationship could be that cricket spectators do not see these emotions as significant in the cricketing context. However, it is also possible that, in considering their overall game experience, spectators focussed more on their positive experiences rather than the negative aspects. Hence, future research should place more emphasis on the negative experience of the game in order to gain a better understanding of the role played by the negative emotions on return intentions.

### ***6.3.3. Anxiety and Doubt***

As discussed above, these two emotions have a very weak relationship with both game experience and return intentions. Anxiety consisted mostly of constructs obtained from one interview. Therefore this emotion is not relevant to the sample in general. Doubt on the other hand only had one construct and therefore can also be said to be not generally relevant to the sample. This makes these two emotions very insignificant within this research context. However, as the next stage of the research, quantitative survey, aims to test the emotions for its relevance and importance to the cricket spectators on a larger scale, it was decided to retain these emotions moving forward. The quantitative stage would either confirm the irrelevance of these emotions or show that contrary to the findings here they are relevant to cricket spectators. Either way, it would be interesting to compare the results for these two emotions to the results obtained from the quantitative survey.

## ***Conclusion***

This chapter provided a discussion on the various processes of analysing the repertory grids and the results from these analyses. The analysis of repertory grids follows a more structured approach compared to other qualitative interview techniques such as in-depth interviews. The overall process of analysing repertory grids commences from understanding the context of the interviews (process analysis), to understanding what each grid tries to convey (eyeball analysis) and finally to understanding the meaning being expressed through constructs (Honey's content analysis). The process analysis was discussed in Chapter 5 and concluded that there were no identifiable issues that can impact on the analysis of the findings. Although all the stages of the eyeball analysis were discussed here, the main focus was to analyse the elements as the constructs and the ratings would undergo further detailed analysis in the subsequent stage. The eyeball analysis of elements identified the various aspects that constitute a domestic one-day cricket game from the spectators' perspective. These aspects were spectator behaviour, weather, game related aspects, socialising and time to oneself. The eyeball analysis of the elements also helped indicate four potential domestic one-day cricket spectator segments: anoraks of cricket, cricket socialisers, solitary spectator, and casual spectator.

The content analysis of constructs followed the process introduced by Honey (1979) as this would help analyse multiple grids with no common elements/constructs whilst still utilising the ratings provided in the grids. The categories used to content analyse the constructs were derived from the emotions defined by Kelly (1955) and McCoy (1977). Following the reliability assessment of the categorisation procedure (97% reliability), ten emotions were identified as being important to domestic one-day cricket spectators.

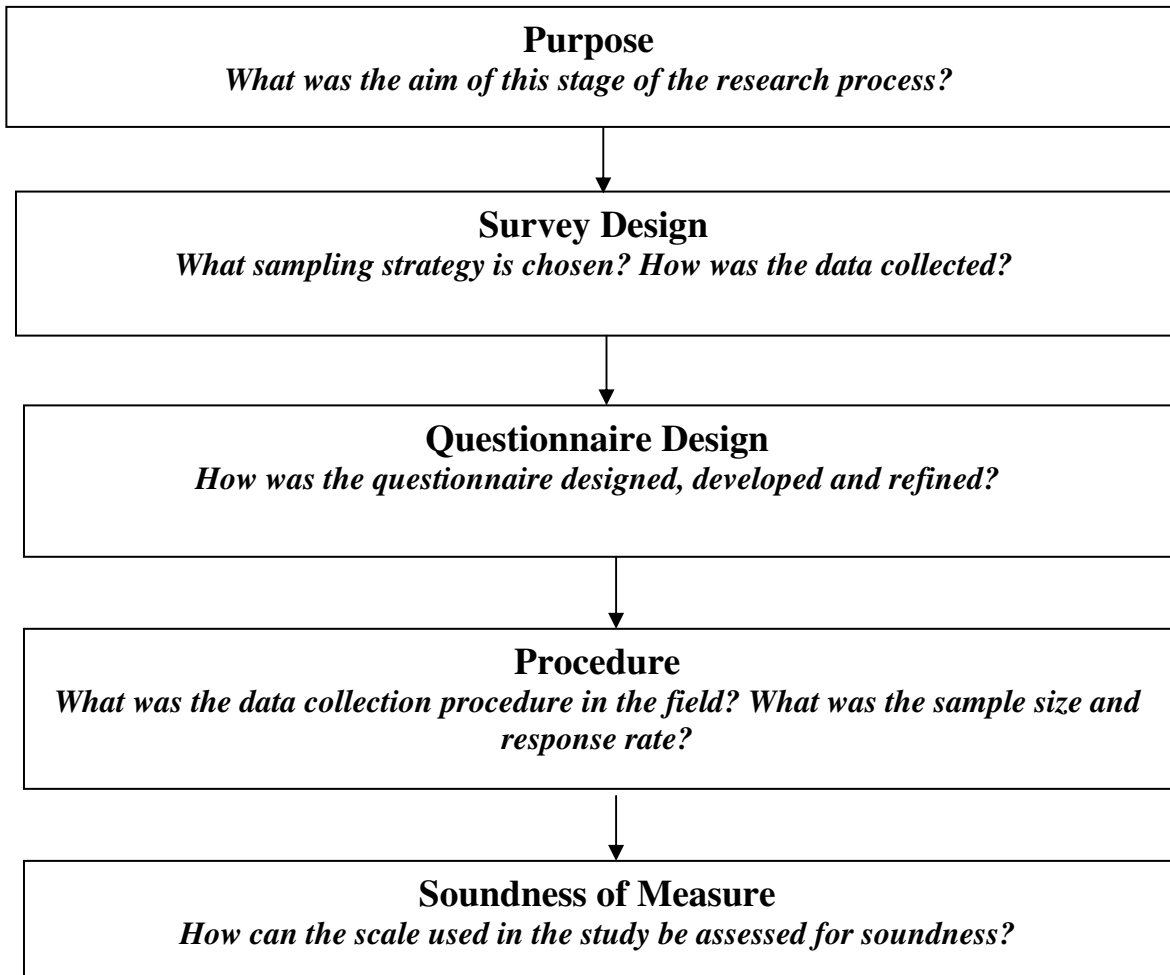
The next chapter discusses the second stage of this study which is the quantitative survey. The ten emotions identified as a result of the content analysis would be further subject to quantitative testing in order to establish greater reliability and generalisability.

# *Chapter 7*

## **STAGE TWO - QUANTITATIVE SURVEY**

### *Chapter Introduction*

The previous chapter discussed the results of the first stage of the research, the repertory grid interviews. The interviews helped identify ten emotions that were relevant to domestic one-day cricket spectators. This chapter discusses the plans and procedure of the second stage of the research, quantitative survey. The chapter is structured as follows:



*Figure 7.1 - Structure of Chapter 7*

The chapter begins by discussing the purpose of this quantitative stage of the research. Although the research as a whole has a purpose which was discussed in Chapter 3, it is also important to identify specific aims for each stage of the research (Miles and

Huberman, 1994). This is so that the design of each stage of the research is purposeful and helps achieve the overall aims of the research. The purpose of this stage is to test the ten emotions identified through the repertory grid interviews on a larger sample. This would also help derive the core set of emotions that are relevant to domestic one-day cricket spectators.

Following the discussion of the purpose of the survey, the chapter outlines and discusses the survey design. Sampling decision is important in any research and hence the survey design commenced by discussing the sampling strategy and technique. Due to the nature of the fieldwork being carried out at the cricket grounds, non-probability sampling was seen as most appropriate. Using a purposive sampling technique, various categories of spectators (age, gender and membership status) would be approached for participation in the study. With regards to the sample size, although opinions vary on what sample size is ideal, based in the previous literature on sport and leisure marketing as well as the data analysis technique to be used, a sample of 300 was seen as appropriate. The data will be collected using a self-administered questionnaire which the researcher would distribute in person to the spectators.

The designing of the questionnaire is an important aspect of any survey because getting the measures wrong would mean that the concepts are not measured and hence the purpose of the research not met. Three stage process suggested by Churchill and Iacobucci (2005) was used to help design the questionnaire here. Firstly, existing literature and the repertory grid constructs were used to identify items to measure each construct. Secondly, a panel of judges was used to evaluate the appropriateness of the chosen items. Finally, the final questionnaire was designed with the addition of demographic questions relating to age, gender, membership, and level of game attendance.

Next, fieldwork procedure during data collection is explained. The final sample size and response rates are discussed and further discussion on the data will be carried out in the next chapter. The chapter ends with a discussion on how the soundness of the measures was ensured. The soundness of measures usually refers to the validity and reliability of the scale. If the scale and measures used are valid and reliable then this would provide sufficient statistical power for the analysis conducted using these measures (DeVellis,

1991). The ways in which validity and reliability are assessed is examined and the plans for assessing validity and reliability in this study are also outlined.

## 7.1. Purpose

The purpose of the interviews carried out in the previous stage of the research was to identify the emotions that were relevant to domestic one-day cricket spectators attending a live game. Ten distinct emotions were identified as being important in this context. The second stage of the research consists of a quantitative study. The overall purpose of this stage of the research and the more specific research questions are shown in Table 7.1 below.

*Table 7.1: Research Aim and Questions for Stage 2*

Overall Purpose	Research Questions
To investigate the applicability of the ten emotions identified from the previous stage on a larger sample.	What is the core set of emotions that are relevant to the experience of domestic one-day cricket spectators?
	What is the relationship between each of the core emotions, game experience, and return intentions?

The previous stage of the research carried out using repertory grids only used twelve interviews and it can be argued that the results from such a small sample cannot be representative of the rest of the cricket spectator population. In order to assess the general applicability of these emotions on a larger sample, this second stage of study would use a quantitative survey. The rationale for the choice of these two research stages and mixed methods were discussed in detail in Chapter 3. As well as helping to identify the core set of emotions experienced by the cricket spectators, the quantitative study would also help develop a measurement scale that can be used to measure domestic one-day cricket spectator emotions in future research.



## 7.2. Survey Design

Compared to qualitative research which has an emergent design, quantitative research is very structured. The research design needs to be well thought through as problems with the research design can have a negative impact on the results (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005). Table 7.2 outlines the design choices that were made for this stage of the research.

### 7.2: Research Design for Quantitative Study

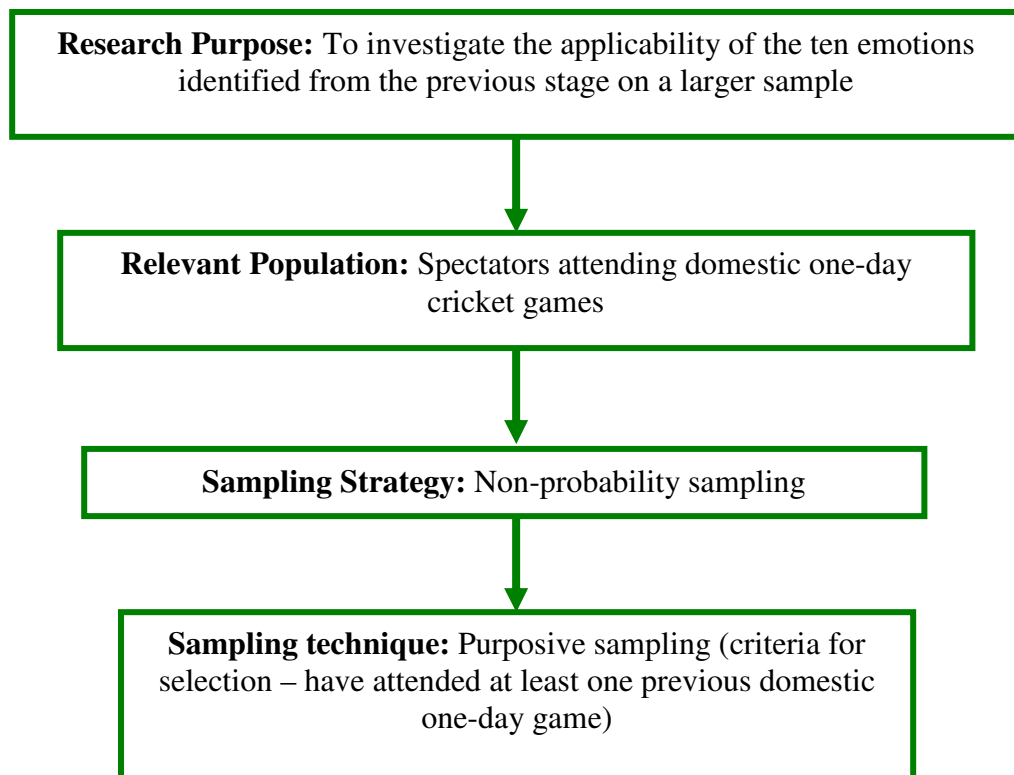
Research Activity	Description
Subject being studied	<b>Multiple individuals who have watched a live one-day, domestic cricket game in England</b>
Sampling technique	<b>Non-random sampling using a purposive sampling strategy</b>
Access and rapport issues	<b>Gaining consent from spectators to participate in the study</b>
Method of data collection	<b>Self-administered questionnaires</b>
Common data collection issues	<b>Time and place of conducting interviews</b>
Storing information	<b>Hard copies of completed questionnaires and electronic tabulation of responses for analysis</b>
Data analysis	<b>Factor analysis and correlation analysis using SPSS software package.</b>

#### 7.2.1. Sampling

The sampling decision made for this research is shown in Figure 7.2. The subjects of this survey, as in the previous stage of the research are spectators who attend domestic one-day cricket competitions. The important decision the researcher has to face is which of these subjects they should seek for participation in this study. As it is often not possible for researchers to include all their potential subjects in a study (known as a census), decisions have to be made on selecting part of the potential subjects. The concept of sampling means that by selecting some of the subjects from a population researchers can draw conclusions about the entire population (Cooper and Schindler, 2003). There are

two main strategies that researchers can employ when making sampling decisions (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005; Cooper and Schindler, 2003):

- a) Probability sampling – a random selection process where each subject of the population has a known, non-zero chance of being included in the sample.
- b) Non-probability sampling – an arbitrary and subjective process where each member does not have a known, non-zero chance of being included.



*Figure 7.2 – Sampling Plan for Quantitative Study*

The probability sampling strategy includes techniques of selecting a sample in a planned and random way. These techniques include random sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling. Due to its objectivity, probability sampling is considered to be superior to that of non-probability sampling. However,

“While, in theory, probability sampling may be superior, there can be breakdowns in its application. Even carefully stated random sampling procedures may be subject to careless application by the people involved. Thus, the ideal probability

sampling may be only partially achieved because of the human element.”  
(Blumberg et al, 2008: 252)

Added to this, the researcher may only be interested in looking at whether there is a positive or negative effect rather than the accurate size of an effect (Blumberg et al, 2008). As the current research is exploratory in nature, the purpose is to understand whether there is an effect (i.e. whether the emotions are important to the spectators). In this instance, a probability sampling strategy is not strictly required. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003), there are many reasons why a non-probability sampling strategy would be more effective for a given research. Firstly, cost and time. Designing and implementing a random sampling strategy would be very time consuming and often costly due to the need to access databases and contact information of potential subjects. Secondly, when non-probability sampling strategies are well thought through and designed, they often tend to produce acceptable results. Finally, non-probability sampling may be the only feasible option. This could be due to an identifiable sampling frame not being available and also if the research is being carried out at a major event it may not be possible to construct a probability sample (Cooper and Schindler, 2003). The latter point is especially true for the sports spectator research context where the subjects are known (spectators attending an event) but acquiring a sampling frame and also using a probability sampling procedure would not be feasible. This is also the reason why many researchers in the leisure research literature employ non-probability sampling techniques (e.g. Fisher, 1998; Madrigal, 2003, 2008; Kwon and Armstrong, 2004; Lee et al, 2008; Yuksel et al, 2010). In line with this, this research also employs a non-probability sampling strategy.

The specific non-probability sampling technique to be employed in this research would be purposive sampling. This is where the sample is chosen based on certain criteria. The criteria for participating in the study would be the attendance of at least one other domestic one-day cricket game in the previous or current season. This criterion has also been used in previous research trying to capture the attitudes and opinions of sports fans attending a particular venue so that they are able to respond as a result of having experienced the phenomenon under investigation (e.g. Sumino and Harada, 2004). Attempts would also be made to recruit participants from various groups of spectators such as male, female, members, and non-members. This is in line with the sampling

technique used in the previous stage of the research (repertory grid interviews) and it is hoped to attain a similar sample to that of the repertory grid interviews.

### ***7.2.2. Sample Size***

Once the researcher has decided on which sampling strategy to employ, the next question is how big the sample should be. Although there is no specific agreement among researchers on what the ideal sample size for a given research is, it is generally considered safer to have a larger sample so that most multivariate analysis can be performed on the data (Field, 2009). Researchers have also suggested acceptable sample sizes based on the nature of statistical analysis to be performed. For example, Hoe (2008) suggested that any number above 200 would provide sufficient statistical power for data analysis when using multivariate techniques. With regards to factor analysis, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), in reviewing advice of other researchers, suggested 200 is a fairly good sample size whereas 300 and above would be better.

Reviewing the literature on sport and leisure marketing shows that researchers have used a wide range of sample sizes. For example Fisher (1998) used a convenience sample of 84 students to understand sport fans' team identity with their favourite sports team. Lee et al (2008) on the other hand used a convenience sample of 580 respondents to assess the impact of festivalscapes on patrons' experience. Most of the researchers who used a high sample size often employed multiple investigators to collect data which would have enabled them to achieve a higher sample size. Lee et al (2008) for instance, used 33 researchers to collect data. Kerr et al (2005) used two teams consisting of five researchers each to collect 333 questionnaires from Japanese soccer fans. Most commonly used sample size among leisure and sport marketing researchers seems to be around 200 (e.g. Madrigal (2003) used 228; Bigné et al (2005) used 200; Yuksel et al (2010) used 246; Kwon and Armstrong (2004) used 200). In considering the advice by Tabachnick and Fidell (2005) as well as the sample sizes used by most researchers in leisure and sport marketing, this research would aim to have a sample size of 300.

Decision of the sample size also took into account the practical implications of this study. The field work will be carried out by one researcher and from the researcher's previous experience of field work at domestic cricket competitions (e.g. Kuenzel and Yassim 2007; Kuenzel and Yassim, 2010) it was estimated that approximately 50 questionnaires can be collected at each game. Hence, attending 6 days of domestic cricket competitions

would enable the researcher to reach the desired sample size. This would also help minimise the time and cost involved in the field work.

### 7.2.3. Ethical Issues

The ethical issues that were discussed in Chapter 4 (see section 4.6) are also applicable to this stage of the research process. The specific ethical issues that impact on this stage and the way in which these issues would be dealt with are presented in table 7.3 below.

**Table 7.3: Ethical Issues for the Quantitative Study**

Ethical Issues	Plan for the Current Study
Seeking Consent	<b>Spectators will be approached in person by the researcher who will verbally explain the purpose of the research and request consent.</b>
Avoiding Deception	<b>Any questions that the spectators have prior to giving consent would be fully answered by the researcher.</b>
Maintaining Confidentiality and Protecting the Anonymity of Individuals	<b>The questionnaire would not require the participants to include their names or personal information and they will be free at any point to discontinue completing the questionnaire.</b>

During the repertory grid interviews the participants were provided with a written research information sheet as well as requested to sign a written consent form. However, when carrying out surveys using questionnaires, the researcher needs to find a balance between making the research simple to participate in and the need to provide sufficient information before obtaining consent. In order to achieve this balance most surveys using questionnaires in business research consider oral consent to be sufficient (Cooper and Schindler, 2003). Prior to requesting consent, the researcher would verbally explain the purpose of the research and answer any questions the participants may have. Once the participants consent to the research, they will be provided with a questionnaire for completion.

#### **7.2.4. Access and Data Collection Issues**

Most of the county cricket clubs that provided access to carry out the repertory grid interviews also agreed to provide permission for the research to be carried out in their cricket grounds. Each county club where the survey will be conducted are listed in table 7.4 below.

**Table 7.4: List of County Venues Used for Quantitative Study**

County Teams	Venue, Location
Surrey County Cricket Club	The Brit Oval, London
Kent County Cricket Club	St Lawrence Ground, Canterbury
Marylebone Cricket Club	The Lords, London
Hampshire County Cricket Club	The Rose Bowl, Southampton
Sussex County Cricket Club	The County Ground, Hove

Similar to the repertory grid interviews, the surveys will be carried out during the days of the domestic one-day competitions. The way in which the domestic competitions are scheduled means that the one-day competition known as the Friends Provident Trophy is played at the beginning of the season (in April and May). The survey was carried out during these competitions. Although prominent sport marketing researchers such as Madrigal (2003; 2008) carry out their research in a laboratory setting, many researchers advocate the advantages of conducting the research in situ (e.g. Bigné et al, 2005; Kuenzel and Yassim, 2007; Lee et al, 2008). As Bigné et al (2005: 837) explain, the objective for carrying out research in situ is ‘getting up close to the stimuli that triggered the emotions that the consumer experiences as a visitor during his/her enjoyment of the attraction.’ In line with this, it was decided that carrying out the survey at the one-day cricket games would ensure that the participants are able to respond to the questions more effectively and accurately.

#### **7.2.5. Method of Data Collection**

In line with many research both in sport marketing and wider leisure marketing research contexts (e.g. Kuenzel and Yassim, 2007; Bigné et al, 2005; Hill and Green, 2000), self-administered questionnaires will be used to collect data in person by the researcher.

Before deciding on this method other alternative data collection methods were considered as shown on table 7.5 below.

**Table 7.5: Options of Data Collection Method**

<b>Data Collection Method</b>	<b>Rationale for Choice/Rejection of Method</b>
Telephone or Mail Survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Not possible to obtain contact information of sample.</li> <li>• Low response rates.</li> </ul>
Email or Web-based Survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low response rate due to relatively low website activity of fan club websites.</li> <li>• Skewed sample of responses due to only a certain part of the population willing to participate in the study.</li> </ul>
Personally Administering Questionnaires	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Higher response rate.</li> <li>• Ensure purposive sampling is established.</li> <li>• Ability to answer any questions from participants prior to obtaining informed consent.</li> </ul>

The primary reason for not conducting a telephone or mail survey was the access to contact information of the sample. Although the county cricket clubs as well as the England and Wales Cricket Board supported the research by providing access to the games and their venues to carry out the research, they were not willing to share information on spectator contact information. In a majority of cases the database of spectators that were owned by the clubs consisted of members. As such, using these databases would not have provided a wider sample representative of all the population. The researcher was able to identify some fans' websites that were set up and run by fans of certain county cricket clubs. However, it was evident when visiting the websites that

they are not very widely used as the information was out of date and the chat rooms were also not widely used. Also, respondents returning surveys through emails or post can represent extremes of the population resulting in a skewed response (Blumberg et al, 2008). In order to overcome these problems, questionnaires administered in person at the cricket grounds were chosen as the most effective data collection method.

There are some disadvantages to personally administering questionnaires. These include relatively high costs of training the individual researchers on the research purpose and the questionnaire items as well as travelling to various locations to reach the audience. Personally administering questionnaires would also require longer periods in the field to collect data (Blumberg et al, 2008). For the purpose of the current research, as multiple researchers would not be used, the training of researchers is not an issue. The researcher will be very familiar with the research purpose and the instrument and also has previous experience in administering questionnaires at domestic cricket competitions in England and Wales. In order to minimise the time and cost issues, only the venues that are in the South-east of England were chosen for the field work as these venues are within easy reach for the researcher. There are also many advantages of carrying out personal administration of questionnaires. Firstly, the response rates for personally administered surveys are higher compared to mail or telephone surveys. Kuenzel and Yassim (2007) who carried out a cricket spectator survey using the personal technique had a response rate of 91% and it is hoped that this research would also be able to achieve a high response rate by personally collecting field data. Secondly, the researcher would be able to apply the purposive sampling technique chosen for this study. By personally approaching the spectators, the researcher would be able to ascertain whether they fit in with the criteria of having attended at least one domestic one-day cricket game during the current or the previous season. The researcher would also be able to reach a wider audience by approaching male and female spectators as well as members and non-members by visiting different seating areas. Thirdly, as part of the ethical requirement, the researcher would be able to explain the purpose of the research to the potential participants and answer any questions they may have. This way the researcher can ensure that the participants provide informed consent to participate in the research.

The questionnaires for the survey will be distributed by the researcher in person which will then be completed by the participants. This technique, known as self-administered



questionnaires has the advantage of providing anonymity to the respondent enabling them to respond to the questions more honestly. It also enables the researcher to distribute many questionnaires to potential respondents at the same time (Nardi, 2006). In the current research context, the latter advantage is particularly relevant as this would mean that the researcher is able to maximise responses at each game. There is a danger when carrying out research in the way proposed here (i.e. self-administered questionnaires distributed in person by the researcher) that the sample self-select themselves. However, self-selection is present to some extent in all research because every respondent chooses whether or not to respond to a survey (Cooper and Schindler, 2003). As such, self-selection is an issue that cannot be avoided and as the researcher would ensure that various types of spectators are included in the sample (different genders and membership status) the sample would not be skewed towards any particular type of respondent that could represent the extreme views due to self-selection.

### **7.3. Questionnaire Design**

In surveys using questionnaires, the designing of the questionnaire needs to be given great consideration. This is because the design of the questionnaire can impact on the response rate, errors in measurement as well as impact upon the constructs that are measured. Although many researchers have provided advice on how to design and develop a questionnaire it still remains ‘an art, not a science’ (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005: 234). Based on the suggestion of Churchill and Iacobucci (2005), the designing of the questionnaire followed the following steps:

- 1) First Phase – Generate a large number of statements or items from literature, personal experience and other relevant sources.
- 2) Second Phase – Get a panel of judges to assess the questionnaire items.
- 3) Third Phase – Construct the final questionnaire.

#### **7.3.1. Generate a Large number of Statements or Items**

When designing a questionnaire, the usual starting point is the existing literature and a review of this literature would help identify various instruments as well as items that are used to measure similar concepts (Blumberg et al, 2008). Reviewing the mainstream

marketing as well as leisure and sports marketing literature revealed various items that are being used to measure emotions. These various items were compiled as shown in table 7.6 below.

**Table 7.6: Scale Items from the Literature**

<i>Category/ Constructs</i>	<i>Items</i>	<i>Source</i>
Contentment	Contented Fulfilled <i>used as 'peacefulness' measures</i> Calm Peaceful <i>used to measure degree of arousal</i> Calm At rest Relaxed Serene	Richins, 1997 (CES)     Mano, 1991; Mano, 1999; Mano & Oliver, 1993
Startle/Surprise	Surprise Amazed Astonished <i>used as 'interest' measures</i> Attentive Concentrating Alert not at all excited/very excited not expecting to be entertained/really expecting to be entertained expecting a boring game/expecting an exciting game  daily and routine activities (reversed) breaking out of the daily routine	Izard, 1977 (DES)     Izard (DES)   Madrigal, 2003    Shoham et al, 1998

Happiness	<p>Happiness</p> <p>joy</p> <p>loving</p> <p>cheerful</p> <p><i>used as 'enjoyment' measures</i></p> <p>delighted</p> <p>happy</p> <p>joyful</p>	<p>Power &amp; Tarsia, 2007</p> <p>Izard (DES)</p>
Anxiety	<p><i>used as 'worry' measures</i></p> <p>nervous</p> <p>worried</p> <p>tense</p>	Richins, 1997 (CES)
Anger	<p>enraged</p> <p>angry</p> <p>mad</p> <p>frustrated</p> <p>angry</p> <p>irritated</p> <p><i>used as 'negative affect' - in relation to anger p32</i></p> <p>irritated with the (team)</p> <p>frustrated with the (team)</p> <p>angry at the (team)</p>	<p>Izard (DES)</p> <p>Richins (CES)</p> <p>Madrigal, 2003</p>
Satisfaction	<p><i>in relation to quality of performance</i></p> <p>I am satisfied with the way (team) performed in this game</p> <p>I am satisfied with the quality of the (team) performance</p> <p>I am not satisfied with the (team) performance tonight</p>	Madrigal, 2003

	<p>I am not satisfied with the quality of the (team) performance</p> <p>This is one of the best theme parks I could have visited</p> <p>I am satisfied with my decision to visit this theme park</p> <p>My choice to visit this theme park was a wise one</p> <p>I have really enjoyed myself in this theme park</p> <p>I am sure it was the right thing to visit this theme park</p> <p><i>used as 'social status' measures</i></p> <p>in society today, people who participate in this sport are appreciated</p> <p>my friends would think highly of me if I participated in this sport</p> <p>my social status will be enhanced if I participate in this sport</p>	<p>Bigne, et al 2005</p> <p>(adapted Oliver 1997)</p> <p>Shoham et al, 1998</p>
Threat		
Doubt		
Contempt/Disgust	<p><i>used as 'disgust' measures</i></p> <p>feeling of distaste</p> <p>disgusted</p> <p>feeling of revulsion</p> <p><i>used as 'contempt' measures</i></p> <p>contemptuous</p> <p>scornful</p> <p>disdainful</p>	Izard (DES)
Sadness	<p><i>used as 'distress' measures</i></p> <p>downhearted</p> <p>sad</p> <p>discouraged</p>	Izard (DES)

	depressed sad miserable	Richins (CES)
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As the table above shows, the items identified from the literature were included under one of the ten emotion categories. No potential items were identified for the emotions of Doubt and Threat. Some of these items listed above were originally used under a different emotion name or categorisation of emotion. For instance, the items ‘peaceful’ and ‘calm’ were originally used as items to measure Peacefulness. However, in the context of this research feeling peaceful and calm were seen as part of feeling Content. As such, these items would fit in well with the items for Contentment.

Review of the literature showed that three instruments were being widely used by many researchers. These are the Differential Emotions Scale (DES) developed by Izard (1977, 1994), the Consumption Emotions Set (CES) developed by Richins (1997), and the Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (PAD) developed by Mehrabian and Russell (1974).

Differential Emotions Scale (DES) was developed by the psychologist Izard (1977). The items in the scale were derived from a cross-cultural study on emotion expression labelling. This scale has been refined many times through techniques such as factor analysis and inclusion of additional items. Due to its high content validity and reliability, many researchers have adopted it in the marketing sphere for use in consumer research (e.g. Allen et al, 2005a; Koenig-Lewis and Palmer, 2008).

Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (PAD) was developed by Mehrabian and Russell (1974) in order to assess the emotional response to various environmental stimuli. Marketers have used this scale to assess emotions as a response to advertising and other marketing stimuli (e.g. Bigné et al, 2005; Lee et al, 2008). With relevance to the current research, items from the PAD measure were not included as they do not measure emotions themselves. Instead the purpose is to measure the underlying emotional states as a result of certain stimuli. Since this research is interested in measuring distinct emotions, the items from the PAD measure were not seen as appropriate.

Consumption Emotion Set (CES) was developed by Richins (1997) due to the need for a context specific measure of emotions. Richins (1997) argued that the consumption of a product or service would elicit different emotions to the ones that arise in an intimate personal relationship. As such, Richins (1997) developed the CES scale specifically for consumption emotions. Due to CES being specifically designed for the consumption context, it has been a popular instrument for marketers (e.g. Ruth et al, 2002; Mudie et al, 2003; Sumino and Harada, 2004). Although the CES and the DES have wide usage and high reliability, they could not, by themselves, be used in this study. As the table above showed, some of the items were used to measure different emotions to those in this research. As such, the ten emotions to be measured in this study cannot be measured using either the CES or the DES.

In addition to the CES and DES items were also identified from individual researchers such as Madrigal (2003) in order to include a wide range of items. This is because including more items can increase the reliability of the measures (Hair et al, 1998). As well as the items from these literatures another source for deriving items for this study was the repertory grid interviews. The constructs obtained through the repertory grid interviews are items that represent the ten emotions identified. As such, it is appropriate to include these emotional terms or items in the instrument. Especially for the emotions Threat and Doubt, as no items from existing literature were identified, these constructs from the repertory grids will be the primary source from which to derive items. Using the constructs derived from the repertory grids also helps to make the items more specific to the cricket spectating context. As Blumberg et al (2008: 530) advise,

“It is quite difficult to generalise the reliability and validity of selected items or portions of a questionnaire that have been taken out of the original context.”

As the constructs representing the ten emotions were of specific relevance to cricket spectating, including these in the questionnaire would enable the questionnaire to be more context specific.

Measures for Game Experience were specifically created for this study as it was not possible to identify items relating to the overall game experience when attending a game. Scale to measure Return Intentions was obtained from Kuenzel and Yassim’s (2007)

study as it had high reliability (Cronbach's alpha 0.77) and it was also used in the context of cricket spectators.

### ***7.3.2. Judgement Panel to Assess Questionnaire***

Churchill and Iacobucci (2005) claimed that the real test of a questionnaire is how it performs under actual conditions in the field. Hence many researchers perform a pre-test or a pilot test of a questionnaire. For the purpose of this research however, it was decided not to carry out a pre-test. This was because of time constraints. As the field work for the research had to be carried out during the one-day domestic competitions, the study could only take place in summer. However, due to the way the games are scheduled, the two one-day competitions are scheduled with one competition at the beginning of the game and the second competition during the latter part of the season. The time constraints of the current research meant that the survey instrument needed to be ready for field work at the beginning of the season (April – May). Due to these time constraints, it was decided that instead of a pre-test, a judgement panel will be used to assess the questionnaire items. Using fellow instrument designers and colleagues to review the instrument often generates considerable amounts of constructive suggestion resulting in a much improved and refined questionnaire (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005; Blumberg et al, 2008).

The judgement panel consisted of five individuals. Three of these were experienced researchers and two were postgraduate students. A combination of experienced researchers and postgraduate students were included as this would enable a wider range of experiences and opinions to be taken into account. The panel were provided with a list of the ten emotions and their definitions so that they have an understanding of what each emotion is and what items may fit into it. Along with this they were also given a list of emotions and corresponding items that were chosen from the literature as well as the repertory grid constructs. The list of items sent to the judgement panel is provided in Appendix 8.

The definitions sent to the judgement panel also included a definition of Game Experience. Game experience was defined as the overall experience that spectators have when they attend a one day cricket game. This experience could be positive or negative. This was so that the panel is clear on what the researcher means by game experience in

this context. The revisit items were not included in the assessment process as these were items that have already proven to be valid and reliable in the cricket spectating context (Kuenzel and Yassim, 2007).

A five point scale (1 being a very good fit and 5 being a very bad fit) was provided for the panel and they were requested to assess how well the items fit into each category or construct. This assessment was made based on the definition and the descriptions of the emotions and considering whether the items chosen reflect these emotions. At the end of the questionnaire they were also requested to provide further comments or suggestion they may have to improve the questionnaire. All the judges in the panel commented positively on the questionnaire. A basic frequency count on the ratings of the items was carried out in order to assess how each item was seen fitting into the constructs by the panel. The frequency count is shown in Table 7.7 below.

**Table 7.7: Result of Judgement Panel Feedback**

When I am at a one day cricket game, I feel;		1	2	3	4	5
Contentment	content	3	2			
	fulfilled	3		1		1
	calm	4		1		
	serene	2		2		
	Peaceful	2	1	1		1
	at rest	3	1	1		
	relaxed	4	1			
Startle/ Surprise	a sense of surprise	3	2			
	amazed	2	1		2	
	astonished	2	1		1	1
	Attentive	3	2			
	alert	2	3			
	Excited	4	1			
	It's a chance to break out of the daily routine	3	2			



Happiness	happy	4	1			
	joyful	2	2		1	
	I know what one day cricket is about	4		1		
	I know what to expect	4		1		
	pleased	4	1			
	delighted	2	1	2		
	cheerful	4	1			
Anxiety	nervous	4				1
	worried	3			1	1
	tense	4	1			
	I don't know what to expect	4	1			
	unsettled	4				1
	lost	3				2
	agitated	2		1	1	1
	Anxious	2	2	1		
	Uneasy	2	1	1		1
Anger	enraged	2	1			2
	angry	3				2
	mad	2	2			1
	frustrated	3	1	1		
	irritated	4		1		
	annoyed	4		1		
Satisfaction	a sense of involvement	3		1		1
	satisfied	4	1			
	Its a social activity	4		1		
	a sense of community	2	1	1		1
	part of the social atmosphere	2	2	1		
	I can have a good laugh with the other spectators	3	2			
	a sense of approval	3	2			

Contempt/ Disgust	distaste	2	1	2		
	disgusted	3	1		1	
	revulsion	3	1		1	
	contemptuous	3		1	1	
	scornful	3		1	1	
	disdainful	3	1	1		
	disapproval	2	3			
Sadness	downhearted	4		1		
	sad	4		1		
	discouraged	2	1	2		
	depressed	3	1	1		
	miserable	4	1			
	that my day is spoilt	4		1		
	Gloomy	3	2			
	Sorrowful	3	1		1	
Threat	threatened	4		1		
	unsafe	3	2			
	unpleasant	2	1	2		
	intimidated	3	1	1		
	at risk	4			1	
Doubt	hesitant	3	2			
	uncertain	3	1		1	
	a sense of reservation	4		1		
	worried	3	1	1		
	Doubtful	3	1	1		
	Unsure	3	1	1		
Game	I have a positive experience when I attend one day	4	1			

Experience	cricket games					
	My experiences when attending a cricket game is usually positive	2	1	2		
	At the end of my day at one day cricket, I often feel that I have had a good experience	4	1			
	My overall experience of attending one day cricket is positive	2	3			
	I feel I have had a positive experience when I have attended one day cricket	4	1			

As the table above shows, most of the items were identified as fitting in with the respective categories. Very few items were rated 4 or 5 indicating that these do not fit into the categories. One of the panel members also commented on the length of the questionnaire and suggested that maybe the number of items in each category could be reduced. However, having multiple items in a questionnaire can increase the reliability of the measures (Churchill, 1979; Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005). As Hair et al (1998: 10) point out ‘multiple responses reflect the true responses more accurately than does a single response’. Also, the exploratory nature of this research means that as many items as possible can be assessed for their fitness using exploratory factor analysis which can help ascertain items that are not suitable. Hence it was decided to include all the items in the final questionnaire. The number of items included in each emotion category as well as Game experience and return intentions are shown in table 7.8 below.

**Table 7.8: Number of Items in Each Category/Construct**

<i>Construct</i>	<i>Number of Items</i>
Contentment	7
Startle/Surprise	7
Happiness	7
Anxiety	9
Anger	6
Satisfaction	7
Contempt/Disgust	7
Sadness	8
Threat	5
Doubt	6
Game Experience	5
Return Intentions	4
Total Number of Items	78

### **7.3.3. Final Questionnaire**

Once the items measuring the various constructs are identified and finalised, the next task is to construct the final questionnaire. At this stage, additional questions to be included in the questionnaire, scales to be used as well as the sequencing of the questions need to be taken into consideration.

Firstly, the types of data that need to be used as well as the rating scale to be used need to be decided. There are four types of data that are commonly used in questionnaires (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005; Blumberg et al 2008). These are:

- 1) Nominal data – these are used for categorising responses into two or more categories (e.g. male/female, member/non-member).
- 2) Ordinal data – these are used for ordering the data in some way (e.g. ranking the preferred brands).
- 3) Interval data – uses a rating scale in which the intervals between the numbers are meaningful (e.g. the rating scale provided to the judgement panel in this research to assess the questionnaire items).

- 4) Ratio data – uses a rating scale where there is an absolute zero point (e.g. measuring temperatures).

These four data types can be classified into two categories based on their measurement properties (Hair et al, 1998):

- a) Non-metric data – these include Nominal and Ordinal scales.
- b) Metric data – these include Interval and Ratio scales.

For the purpose of this research, it was decided that interval and nominal data would be most suitable. The items to measure the various emotions categories and the constructs of game experience and return intentions will be measured using an interval scale. Interval scale provides metric data that can be subject to parametric tests and thus multivariate analysis such as factor analysis can be carried out on these data (Cooper and Schindler, 2005). Also, most scales used in marketing research use interval data (e.g. Richins, 1997; Bigné and Andreu, 2004; Koenig-Lewis and Palmer, 2008; Kuenzel and Yassim, 2010) due to its ability to be subjected to various analysis techniques.

Along with the scale to be used, the ratings of these scales also need to be considered. The items derived from various literatures showed that researchers have used rating scales ranging from 4 points (Richins, 1997) to 9 points (Madrigal, 2003). Churchill and Peter (1984) undertook an extensive review of various rating scales and concluded that many of the choices regarding the number of points in a scale do not actually have any significant impact on reliability. Blumberg et al (2008) agree with this view and claim that there is little conclusive support for choosing a 3 point scale over a scale with 5 or more points. The most commonly used rating scales in quantitative research range from 3 to 7 points (Blumberg et al, 2008). In considering these views, it was decided to use a five point Likert scale for this research. This is because the repertory grid interviews used a 5 point rating scale to rate the constructs. Therefore, it was decided to use the same scale points in the quantitative survey as it is measuring many of the same constructs as those provided in the repertory grids. The most commonly used measurement scale in quantitative research is the Likert scale developed by Rensis Likert in 1932 (Nardi, 2006). The Likert scale is popular because it helps compare a person's score from a well defined sample group (Blumberg et al, 2008). As the Likert scale has also been used in previous research within the context of sport spectating (e.g. Madrigal,

2003; Kuenzel and Yassim, 2007; 2010), it was decided that this type of scale would be suitable for the current research. To measure the emotion items a frequency scale was used ranging from 'never' to 'very often'. Although some emotion researchers (e.g. Kerr et al 2005; Phillips and Baumgartner, 2002) use intensity scale to measure emotions (measuring the extent to which the person feels the emotion) this research would use a frequency scale (measuring how often the person feels the emotion). This is in line with many emotion researchers in sport marketing (e.g. Madrigal, 2003; Sumino and Harada, 2004) as well as psychology (e.g. Izard et al, 1994). In considering the views of many researchers, Madrigal (2003) commented that frequency measures are more appropriate when measuring emotions that have been experienced over a period of time. For instance, when measuring the emotional response to a new perfume, the measured emotion would be experienced at the point of consumption and in this case measuring the intensity of emotions would be appropriate. On the other hand, when attending a sports game, emotions are experienced throughout the game and the emotions experienced are measured over a period of time. In this case frequency of emotional experience would be more appropriate. Especially with regards to one-day cricket which is experienced over a day, various emotions are experienced throughout the day and measuring intensity may only highlight the extreme emotions that were experienced whereas measuring frequency would help capture the multitude of emotions experienced throughout the day. With regards to the game experience and return intentions items, the five point scale measured the agreement with a set of statements. This is in line with many researchers measuring similar constructs (e.g. Kuenzel and Yassim, 2007; Madrigal, 2003; Sumino and Harada, 2004).

In addition to the items measuring the emotions, game experience as well as the return intentions, the questionnaire also included some demographic questions. This related to the age, gender, membership status, as well as their attendance level at domestic one-day games. This information was collected in order to get a clear view of the type of sample that was included in the research as well as to get a general picture of the nature of spectators attending domestic one-day cricket. As these data would only be used to categorise participants by gender, age, membership and attendance levels, a nominal scale will be used. The items to measure age, gender, membership and attendance were successfully used by the researcher in previous research on cricket spectators (Kuenzel and Yassim, 2007, 2010) and as such considered to be suitable for the current research.

With regards to questions sequence, researchers agree that target questions or the questions that are specific to the investigation should appear first in the questionnaire (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005; Cooper and Schindler, 2003). This is because the target questions are often interesting and thus could capture the participants' interest and also including personal and demographic questions at the beginning can put people off from participating in the study (Cooper and Schindler, 2003). Following this advice, the items relating to emotions were included first, followed by the items relating to game experience and return intentions. Finally, the questions relating to gender, age, membership and attendance were included at the end of the questionnaire. In addition to this, the set of items for various emotions and the set of items for game experience and return intentions were placed randomly in the questionnaire. Mixing the items up in the questionnaire means that there is no detectable order to the scale values and this helps eliminate response bias (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005; Nardi, 2006).

Churchill and Iacobucci (2005) claimed that the appearance of the questionnaire can have an influence on respondent cooperation. In order to ensure that the questionnaire design was user friendly, three different designs of the questionnaire were produced (See Appendix 9a, 9b, and 9c). The three versions of the questionnaire were given to two members of the family to assess user friendliness. Family and friends were chosen to assess the user friendliness as they would be able to assess the questionnaires more in line with an ordinary participant of the survey as opposed to an experienced researcher looking at the questionnaires from the technical perspective. Following the recommendation of these two informal assessors, the questionnaire provided in Appendix 9a was chosen for the study as it was considered to be the easiest to follow and complete.

#### **7.4. Procedure**

The data collection took place in the summer of 2009. The researcher was the only person involved in the data collection process. Similar to the repertory grid interview procedure, the researcher arrived at the cricket ground an hour before the game commenced. The questionnaires were handed out to spectators prior to the commencement of the game as well as during the lunch interval. This was so that the

spectators are not disturbed while they are watching the game. Also, according to Blumberg et al (2008), certain sources of error can contaminate the results. Two of these sources relate to participant and situational factors. Source of error resulting from the participants involves anything that can make the participants reluctant to answer the questions. If the spectators were approached while the game is in progress, then they may not be willing to participate in the study or they may not want to provide answers to all the questions. Source of error relating to situational factors include anything that may distract the participants from focussing on the questionnaire. Carrying out the data collection before the start of the game and during the lunch interval would mean that participants are more willing to respond to the survey as well as minimising distractions from the game itself.

The researcher approached the spectators and explained the purpose of the research. Mostly, the participants did not have any questions relating to the study itself. Some participants asked whether the research is being carried out in collaboration with either the cricket club or the England and Wales Cricket Board. As this was not the case, the researcher explained that the sole purpose of the study was for academic purposes. Once the participants agreed to participate in the study, they were provided with a questionnaire attached to the clipboard and a pen. Several questionnaires were distributed at the same time and while the participants were completing the questionnaires, the researcher carried on approaching more spectators for the study. This ensured that as many spectators as possible were approached for the study as well as minimising errors that can occur due to the researchers presence [unconscious nodding, smiling or other gestures that may be seen by the participants as encouraging or discouraging (Blumberg et al, 2008)]. However, the researcher remained in a certain seating area while all the participants from that area have returned the questionnaire to ensure that the questionnaires are collected back from all the participants. At the end of the lunch interval, when all the questionnaires are returned, the researcher numbered each questionnaire so that a record of where the questionnaires were collected from can be kept.

#### ***7.4.1. Sample Size and Response Rates***

The researcher attended eight domestic one-day cricket games and collected a total of 307 questionnaires. As explained above (see Section 7.2 – Sample Size), based on previous experience of field work at domestic cricket games, the researcher estimated that



approximately 50 questionnaires can be collected at each game. Questionnaires collected back at most games came very close to 50 or surpassed this mark. In three out of the eight games 60 questionnaires were collected. In two games, 42 and 46 questionnaires were collected. In three more games it was only possible to collect 11, 21 and 7 questionnaires respectively. This was due to a change in the data collection method. The five games where most questionnaires were collected from allowed the researcher to approach the spectators in the seating areas and while they were waiting for the game to commence, they were more willing to participate in the study. However, two of the cricket clubs did not allow the researcher to approach spectators at the seating area. This unexpected and very late change in the plans meant that at these games the researcher had to intercept spectators as soon as they enter the ground (at the gates). This method did not prove very successful in comparison to the games where the researcher approached the spectators at their seating areas. The change of methods at these grounds meant that the researcher was not able to collect as many questionnaires as anticipated.

Out of the 307 questionnaires collected, some were removed following a brief check by the researcher. These questionnaires were removed because in some cases the participants had not responded to one page of the questionnaire or they have abandoned the questionnaire halfway through the process. This elimination resulted in 279 questionnaires.

Table 7.9 below shows the breakdown of response rates by location of the game. As the breakdown of response rates demonstrate, the three games in which the spectators were intercepted soon after they entered the grounds had relatively low response rates. This also had an impact on the overall response rate. However, the overall response rate of 74.88% is still relatively high and this also ensures that the sample bias is minimised. This is because as the response rate gets higher then the sample bias decreases (Fowler, 1984). Sample bias is when only a part of the sample responds to the questionnaire. This may indicate that only certain part of the sample have participated in the study (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005; Blumberg et al, 2008). A high response rate indicates that a significant proportion of the sample responded to the questionnaire and thus minimised any bias in the sample.

**Table 7.9: Breakdown of Response Rates by Location of Game**

<i>Location</i>	<i>Response rate</i>
Sussex 1	(60/64) <b>93.75%</b>
Canterbury 1	(60/66) <b>90.9%</b>
Rose Bowl	(42/45) <b>93.3%</b>
Brit Oval 1	(11/16) <b>68.75%</b>
Canterbury 2	(60/65) <b>92.3%</b>
Lords	(21/92) <b>22.82%</b>
Sussex 2	(46/49) <b>93.88%</b>
Brit Oval 2	(7/13) <b>53.85%</b>
<b>Overall Response Rate</b>	<b>(307/410) 74.88%</b>

At the end of the fieldwork, the researcher entered the questionnaire responses onto the SPSS software in preparation for the data analysis. SPSS was chosen as the analysis software because it was the preferred choice of software available from the researcher's institution and the researcher had previous experience of using this analysis package (e.g. Kuenzel and Yassim, 2010). Furthermore, comparing three analysis packages (SPSS, SAS, and SYSTAT) with regards to carrying out factor analysis, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) commented that, in comparison to the other packages, SPSS provides extensive information on factor extraction and rotation, and several estimation procedures for factor scores are also available. As the chosen data analysis technique for this research is factor analysis, SPSS was considered to be an appropriate analysis package to be used here.

## **7.5. Soundness of Measures**

Researchers need to plan and design their survey methods in an effective way in order to minimise errors in research (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005). However well the researcher designs the survey, certain factors can have an impact on how sound the survey is. This is due to errors in measuring the various constructs relevant to the research. Thus, prior to any data analysis, it is important that the measures are assessed to ensure they are sound and fit for purpose. In order to be a sound measurement, 'the

tool should be an accurate counter or indicator of what we are interested in measuring' (Blumberg et al, 2008: 447).

There are two types of errors that can detract from the value of the results. These are systematic error and random error (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005). Random errors occur due to transient aspects of the respondent, researcher and other field related aspects.

Blumberg et al (2008) explain four sources of random error that may occur in research.

- 1) Participant related – reluctance to answer certain questions relating to private issues such as income. The reluctance could also be due to boredom or anxiety.
- 2) Situational factors – distractions during the completion of the questionnaire.
- 3) Researcher related – unconscious prompting such as nodding which may indicate a sense of approval causing the participants to provide a certain type of response. This can also be due to errors when coding or entering data.
- 4) Instrument related – ambiguous or confusing language in the questionnaire or poor selection of items included in the questionnaire.

Minimising the random errors caused by these four sources need to be a constant driver when planning the research. As discussed before, the survey design for this research took several actions in order to deal with the above mentioned sources of error. These were;

- 1) No questions that are generally considered to be too personal were asked in the questionnaire. The questions relating to age and gender were there to obtain a picture of the type of respondents to the questionnaire and hence even if these data were missing they would not have any significant impact on the results. Also, following Cooper and Schindler's (2003) advice, questions relating to the topic (emotions) were included at the start of the questionnaire in order to capture the respondents' interest.
- 2) The questionnaires were administered before the start of the game and during the lunch interval. This meant that the participants were not distracted by the game. However, it was not possible to fully eliminate distractions as these could also be caused by other spectators and public announcement systems.
- 3) As the questionnaires are self-administered, the researcher did not stay next to the participants while they completed the questionnaire. While some participants were completing the questionnaires, the researcher continued to approach other spectators in the same seating area. Once this was done, the researcher stayed at the back of the

seating area (out of view of the participants) while they completed the questionnaires and returned them to the researcher.

- 4) The questionnaire items were carefully selected from existing measures as well as repertory grid constructs which were directly derived from the participants. Also, the questionnaire items were evaluated by a panel of judges in order to ensure their appropriateness.

As well as random error, systematic errors can also affect the results. System errors are errors that can affect the measurement in a predictable way (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005). For instance, measuring a person's weight in a poorly calibrated weighing scale would predictably provide an inaccurate measure. System errors usually occur due to defects in the measurement scale being used to measure the concepts. In order to assess the soundness of an instrument or scale, two common criteria are used, validity and reliability. Hair et al (1998) claimed that all variables used in analysis and specifically in multivariate techniques have some degree of measurement error. The assessment of validity and reliability therefore, do not attempt to prove that the instruments and the measures are error free. Instead they demonstrate that they are sufficiently sound enough to measure the constructs under investigation.

### ***7.5.1. Validity***

When a measurement instrument or scale is said to be valid it implies that the items measure the concepts correctly and accurately. Furthermore, Churchill and Iacobucci (2005: 291) explained that validity refers to 'the extent to which scores reflect true individual characteristics, not systematic biases, not random errors.'

The measures should be valid in two ways, external validity and internal validity (Blumberg et al, 2008). External validity of a research relates to the ability of the findings to be generalised across the population. External validity is ensured through the careful planning of sampling strategies. In this research, non-probability sampling strategy was employed. The participants were chosen using a purposive sampling technique. The researcher ensured that a wide range of participants were included in the sample who were of different ages, gender and membership status. The breakdown of the sample by these characteristics would provide an assessment of whether the research has

achieved external validity. The demographic breakdown of the sample is provided and discussed in Chapter 8.

Internal validity refers to the ability of the instrument to measure what it claims to measure (Blumberg et al, 2008). There are three main forms of validity that are widely accepted to assess the accuracy and correctness of the measures; Construct, Content; and Discriminant validity (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005). Content validity focuses on the adequacy of the items to capture and measure the constructs in the study. Construct validity seeks to clarify whether the items measure what they are supposed to measure. Discriminant validity on the other hand, checks that a measure is not correlated too highly with other unrelated measures. The various forms of validity and the ways in which they can be assessed are shown in table 7.10 below.

**Table 7.10: Forms of Validity and their Assessment** (Source: Blumberg, et al 2008; Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005)

<i>Type of Validity</i>	<i>Assessment Method</i>	<i>Assessment in the Current study</i>
Content Validity	Judgement panel	Judgement panel
Construct Validity	Convergent-discriminant Techniques	Correlation
Discriminant Validity	Correlation	Correlation

As the above table shows, content validity of the current questionnaire has already undergone a test using a judgement panel. The judgement panel assessed the questionnaire items to evaluate whether they fit into the chosen emotion and that they are fit for purpose. As no problems were reported by the judgement panel, the questionnaire can be said to have content validity. Construct and discriminant validity are measured using correlation statistical techniques. Correlation analysis is a test used to assess whether the items correlate with other items and that the measures in the questionnaire are homogenous and reflect the same underlying constructs. Exploratory Factor Analysis

in this study would use a correlation approach and thus the factors extracted based on their correlations with related factors would demonstrate the construct as well as discriminant validity of the measures. Correlation is also used to test reliability of a measure as discussed below.

### **7.5.2. Reliability**

Reliability is the ability of the instrument or scale to measure the items consistently each time they are used.

“A measure is reliable to the degree that it supplies consistent results...Reliability is contributor for validity but is not a sufficient condition for validity” (Blumberg et al, 2008: 455).

As Blumberg et al (2008) point out above, validity and reliability are interlinked to a certain extent. The measure can be reliable without being valid. For instance, a bathroom scale might measure a person's weight each time consistently but if it is not calibrated correctly then it is providing inaccurate reading each time. Hence, as well as ensuring the measures are valid, researchers also need to ensure that they are reliable. Blumberg et al (2008) suggest that ensuring reliability is a concern throughout the research design and field work. They suggest investigator consistency and multiple items as ways in which to improve reliability. Investigator consistency is about using well-trained and motivated investigators to do the field work. In the current research, the researcher carrying out the field work was also the researcher designing the research as well as the questionnaire items. Hence, the researcher was well versed with information on the purpose of the research and field-work procedures. Also, the importance of the survey to the completion of the research project and its impact on the researcher's personal career meant that there was a great deal of enthusiasm and motivation on the part of the researcher. Multiple items are commonly considered to be a way in which reliability can be improved (Hair et al, 1998; Nardi, 2006). As discussed before (questionnaire design), a trade off had to be made between the length of the questionnaire and reliability for this research. Reducing the number of items and thereby reducing the length of the questionnaire was rejected in favour of retaining multiple items in order to improve reliability.

Reliability can be assessed in one of two ways, stability and reliability (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005). Stability is the ability of the instrument or the measures to provide the same results on a particular sample when the measures are administered more than once (Blumberg et al, 2008). The way in which stability of a measure is tested is using test-retest reliability where two studies with the same sample are carried out at two different times and the results are correlated. For the current research it was not possible to carry out a test-retest reliability check due to the time constraints on the research project. The second assessment of reliability is equivalence which focuses on the homogeneity of the set of items which makes up the instrument or scale (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005). The way in which equivalence is assessed is through split-half reliability tests or coefficient alphas. The advantage of assessing equivalence is that it only requires one administration of the questionnaire. The current research will use Cronbach's coefficient alpha to test equivalence as it is the most effective test for multi-item scales at interval level of measurement (Blumberg et al, 2008). Hence, it would be appropriate for this research which uses multi-item measures with an interval scale. Cronbach's alpha is also widely used to test reliability in marketing, sport and leisure studies (e.g. Kwon and Armstrong, 2004; Sumino and Harada, 2004; Yuksel et al, 2010). The statistical tests for validity and reliability (Correlation and Cronbach's Alpha) are provided in Chapter 8 whilst discussing factor analysis.

### ***Conclusion***

This chapter discussed the purpose and design of the second stage of this research, the quantitative survey. The survey was carried out using a non-probability sampling technique and a self administered questionnaire. Similar to the fieldwork procedure during the repertory grid interview stage, the researcher approached the spectators at the domestic one-day cricket games and requested participation in the study. Finally, the chapter ended with a discussion on the sample size and response rates. Although the plan was to collect 300 responses, the researcher was only able to collect 279 usable questionnaires. The major issue that arose during the field work was that two of the cricket clubs changed their conditions of access to the research. In the three games the researcher attended at these two clubs, the researcher was not allowed to approach spectators at their seating area and had to intercept them as soon as they entered the grounds near the gates. This change of plans had a significant impact on the response rate as well as the final number of questionnaires collected. However, as discussed in Section 7.2 (sample size), a sample size of 200 or above is seen as appropriate for data analysis techniques such as factor analysis and hence 279 responses is still a good sample size for this research.

The next chapter discusses the demographic breakdown of sample in order to assess the nature of participants in this study. This is followed by a discussion of factor analysis, reliability and the results of the quantitative study.

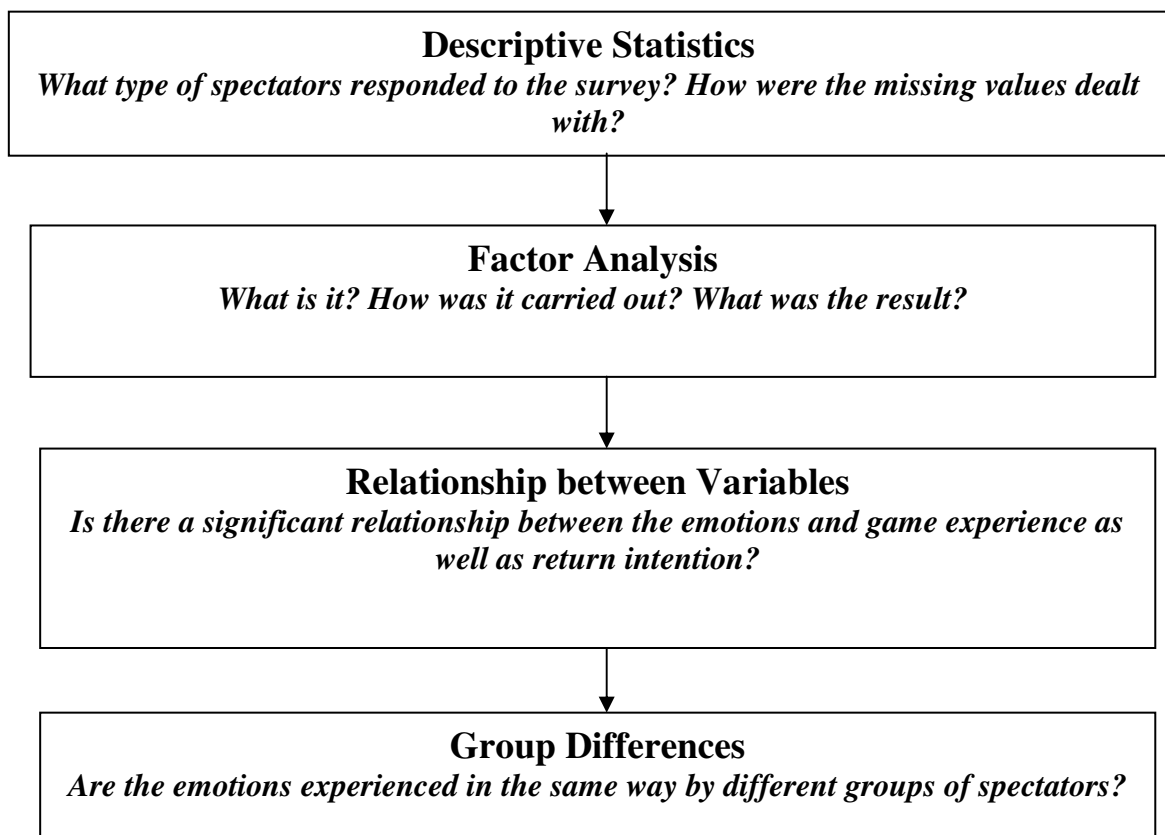


## *Chapter 8*

# QUANTITATIVE SURVEY ANALYSIS & RESULTS

### *Chapter Introduction*

The previous chapter discussed the purpose, rationale for the quantitative survey, as well as the survey design. This chapter examines how the data gathered from this survey is analysed and outlines the results. The chapter is structured as follows:



*Figure 8.1 - Structure of Chapter 8*

The first step of data analysis commences with the researcher gaining an understanding of the nature and patterns of data that have been collected. This is done by identifying the type of spectators participating in the survey, missing value analysis, and measures of central tendency. Missing values have great importance for data analysis as they can bias the results obtained using these data (Tabacknick and Fidell, 2007). The options for dealing with missing data are discussed and as a result, all questionnaires with any missing data are excluded from the analysis. The next stage is to understand the type of

respondents and the breakdown of the sample is provided by gender, age, membership status and levels of attendance. Finally, the central tendencies of the responses are discussed to understand the way in which respondents viewed the items.

In order to achieve the purpose of this stage of the research, statistically significant emotions needed to be identified. Factor analysis is used here to identify the relevant emotions based on the emotional items used in the survey as well as to arrive at a scale which can be used to measure the significant emotions in future studies. The procedure of factor analysis and the resulting factors (emotions) are discussed. Following the factor analysis, the resulting scale is assessed for reliability.

Once the set of emotions was identified using factor analysis, the relationship between these emotions and game experience and return intentions are examined. Pearson's product moment correlation is used to test these relationships and the results are outlined. Finally, t-tests and ANOVAs are used to assess whether the emotions are experienced similarly by all groups of spectators.

## **8.1. Descriptive Statistics**

Prior to carrying out detailed analysis of the data some summary statistics need to be calculated to obtain an overall view of the data.

“When researchers are confronted with a bulk of data relating to each of a number of variables, they are faced with the task of summarising the information that has been amassed” (Bryman and Cramer, 2009: 86).

In the previous stage of this research, the repertory grids resulting from the interviews went through an eyeball analysis procedure before further detailed analysis of the grids was carried out. The rationale was to understand the contents of the grids as well as identify any patterns noticeable from the data. The patterns emerging from the elements led to identifying the various aspects of one-day cricket from the spectators’ perspective. Similar to this eyeballing process, data obtained from quantitative surveys also need to undergo a familiarisation process by the researcher. In addition to familiarity the researcher would also be able to identify any patterns or issues with the data. The eyeballing process was carried out manually by the researcher but when it comes to survey data, a manual estimation of patterns is not possible. As Bryman and Cramer (2009) claim, once you surpass about 20 cases of data it becomes impossible for the naked eye to notice any patterns or trends without the use of statistical measures.

### ***8.1.1. Missing Data***

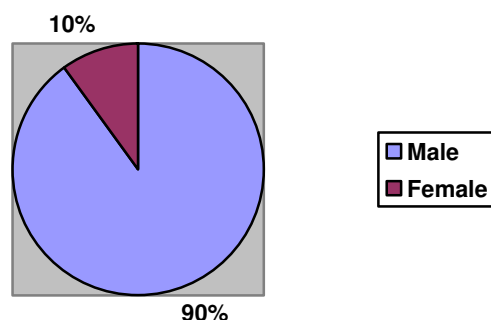
Part of examining the data prior to analysis involves examining the data for missing values. Missing values occur due to respondents either missing out questions due to human error or refusing to answer questions if they find them too personal (Hair et al, 1998). In the case of the current research, the participants may have missed out certain questions due to the length of the questionnaire. Out of the 307 questionnaire collected for this research, 28 were removed prior to data entry due to large portions of the questionnaire containing missing data.

The resulting 279 questionnaires were entered for analysis. However, missing data may have hidden biases resulting in statistical analysis of the data set also being biased (Hair et al, 1998). Therefore researchers need to deal with missing data prior to carrying out any analysis. There are many ways to deal with missing values. These include using

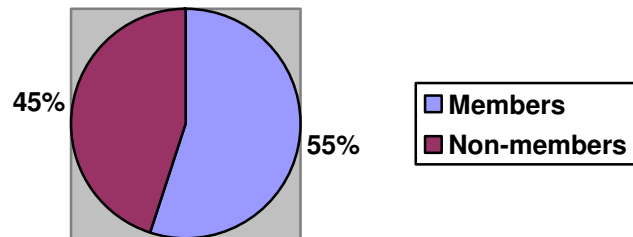
only complete cases for analysis, deleting the relevant missing cases or variables for each analysis carried out, or imputation methods whereby missing values are estimated based on valid values from other responses. The current study uses the complete cases approach whereby any case/questionnaire with any missing values are removed from the data set and hence only cases with complete data are used in the analysis. This method is the simplest and most direct approach to dealing with missing data (Hair et al, 1998). The main reason why researchers may not want to use this approach is that it may reduce the sample to too small and thus inappropriate for certain statistical analysis techniques (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Hair et al (1998) recommend that the complete case approach is best suited for situations where relatively large samples mean that deleting all cases with missing data would not result in reducing the sample to an insignificant one. In the case of the current research, when all the cases with missing data are deleted, the sample size is reduced to 212. This however, is still significant and the main analysis technique planned for this study (factor analysis) can still be carried out. The minimum sample size required for a factor analysis is stated as 100 by Hair et al (1998) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) claim that a sample of 200-300 as being fairly good. As such, using a complete case approach to dealing with missing data is appropriate for this research.

### ***8.1.2. Breakdown of Sample***

The process of understanding the data was commenced by trying to understand the nature of participants in the study. The figures below show the sample breakdown by gender, membership status, age, and level of attendance.



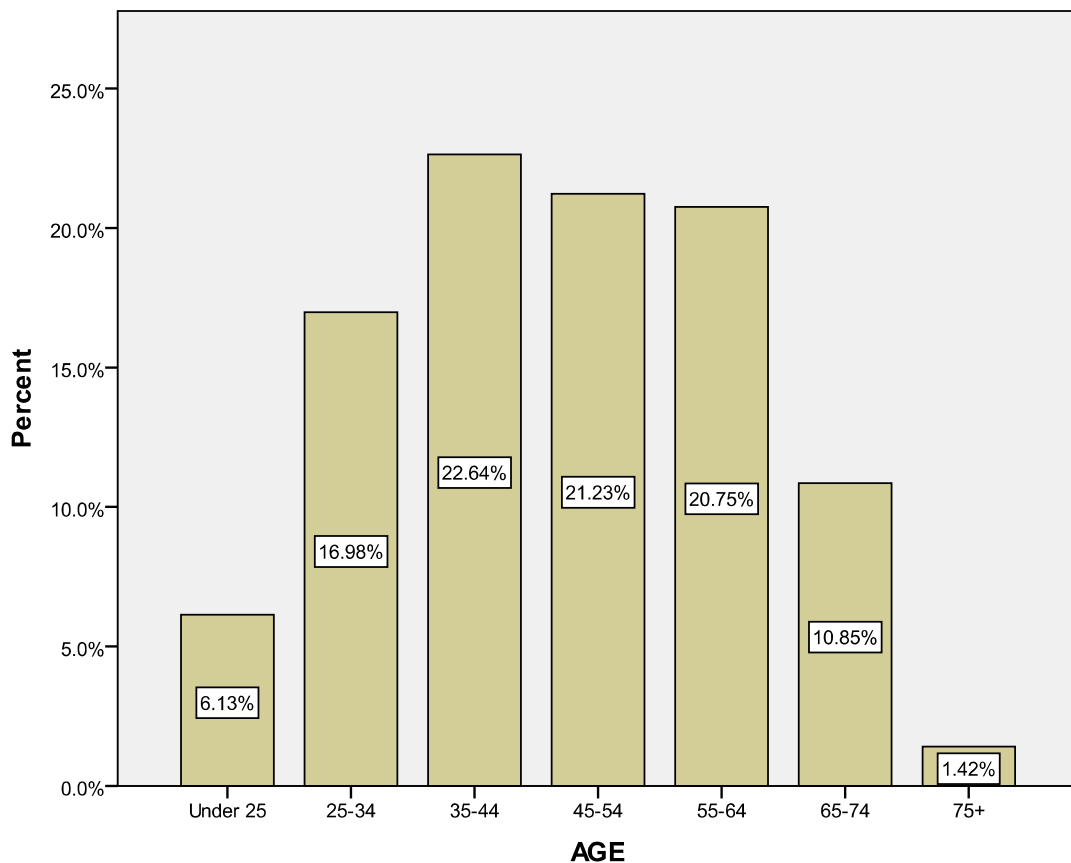
***Figure 8.2 - Gender Breakdown***



*Figure 8.3 - Membership Status*

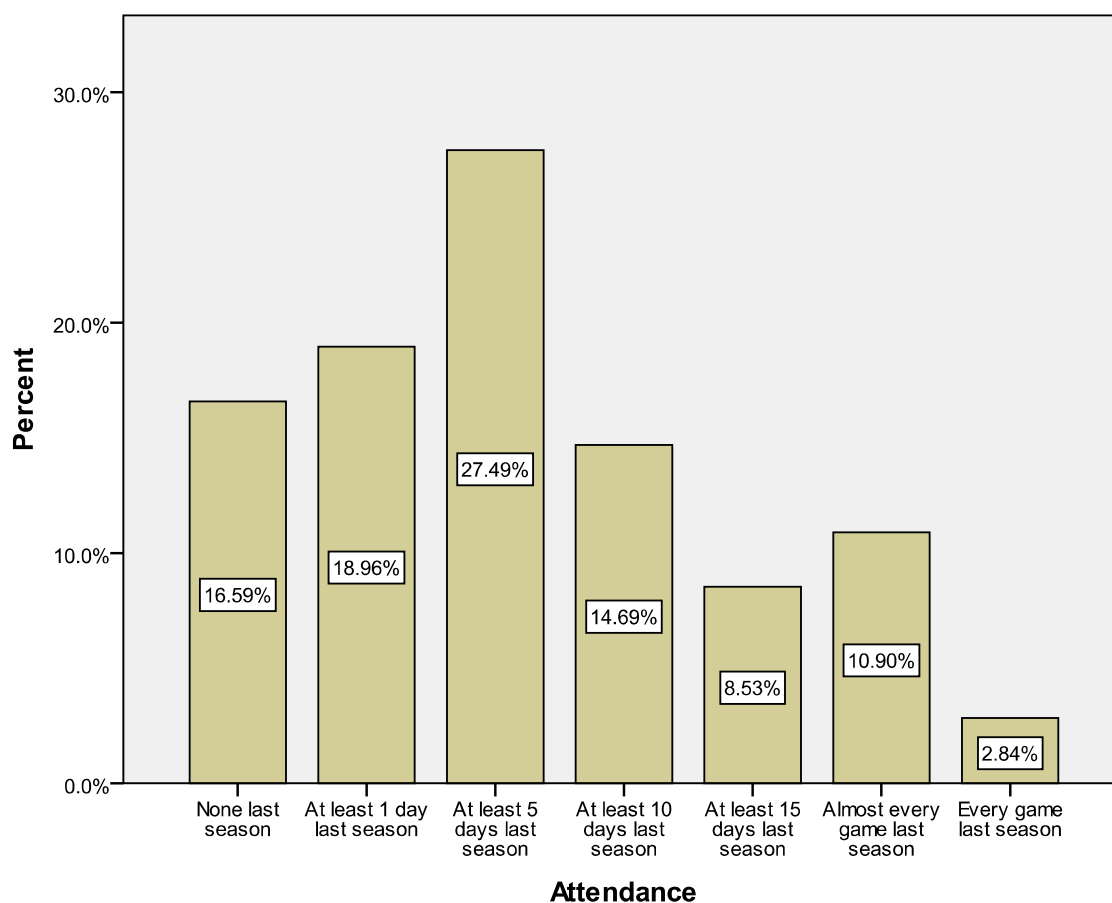
The data for membership and gender did not have any missing values and hence the complete data set was used in the SPSS Frequency counts to calculate the percentage of members as well as gender breakdown. As the figures above show, 90% of the participants in the study were male and 10% were female. This gender imbalance is common in live sport spectating across all spectator sports in the UK. According to Mintel (2007), only 11% women attended live spectator sports compared to 30% of men. The gender imbalance is even more pronounced with regards to cricket spectating where women's interest in the domestic game has been traditionally very low (Mintel, 2005; 2007). The gender representation in this study agrees with previous research carried out in domestic cricket where 85% of participants were male (Kuenzel and Yassim, 2010). As such, the gender representation of the sample in this research appears to be representative of the domestic cricket spectator population. With regards to the membership, the participants are more evenly spread between members (55%) and non-members (45%). This again is similar to Kuenzel and Yassim's (2010) research on domestic cricket spectators which included 56% of members.

The following two figures provide the breakdown of the sample by age and attendance level.



*Figure 8.4 – Sample Breakdown by Age*

The figure above shows that around 46% of the sample was under the age of 44. 42% of the sample was aged between 45 and 64 with approximately 12% of the sample aged 65 and above. There were no missing values for this set of data and hence the complete sample responded to the question. Similarly to that of the gender imbalance, domestic cricket is also known to have an age imbalance (Mintel, 2005, 2007). England and Wales Cricket Board has attempted to address this imbalance by trying to encourage younger spectators to attend the domestic competitions. This includes the launch of a shorter version of the game known as the Twenty20 (Mintel, 2005). Although the attendance by younger spectators at the Twenty20 competitions has been good, this still has not completely transferred onto the other forms of the game (Mintel, 2007). As such, the age groups represented in this sample also seem to be representative of the domestic cricket spectator population.



*Figure 8.5 – Breakdown of Sample by Level of Attendance*

The level of attendance was measured using a scale similar to that used by Arnett and Laverie (2000) and Kuenzel and Yassim (2010). In order to understand the attendance levels of the participants, it was measured in relation to the attendance during the previous season as the field work was carried out during the start of the season. Hence the current season had just got under way which meant that measuring attendance levels in the previous season would provide a more accurate picture of the general attendance level of the respondents. Also, the items did not request exact number of days attended but an approximate number of days. This was because Kuenzel and Yassim (2010) found during their pilot study that spectators could not remember the exact number of games they attended and hence an approximate level of attendance was suggested by the authors. A similar approach was used here.

A purposive sampling criterion for this survey was that the respondents have attended at least one previous domestic one-day game (this could be one in either this season or the previous season). Since the researcher checked with each participant to ensure that they met this criterion, the sample as a whole had attended at least one game prior to the game where the research was carried out. The figure above shows that around 17% of the sample did not attend any games at all in the previous season. A majority of sample (61%) have attended approximately 1 to 10 days of domestic one-day cricket during the previous season. A further 22% of the sample had attended at least 15 or more games in the previous season. As such, most of those participating in the study were experienced spectators who can respond to the items in the questionnaire effectively based on their emotional experiences. Also, the 17% of participants who did not attend any games in the previous season provide a different perspective on the emotional experience of cricket spectators.

Overall, the breakdown of sample by age, gender, membership, and attendance level shows that the sample included a wide range of spectators who are generally representative of the domestic cricket spectator population. Hence, the results obtained from this sample would provide results that are indicative of the domestic cricket spectators in general which also shows that the research has external validity.

### ***8.1.3. Central Tendency***

As well as understanding the nature of participants in a research, the researcher also needs to understand the nature of data that will be analysed in the study. Generally, the researcher works on the assumption that the responses that are obtained from the survey are valid and that they are representative of the type of response that can be expected from the population as a whole (Field, 2009). In order to test that these assumptions are correct there are various statistics that can be of use. These statistics help summarise a distribution of values obtained for each construct or variable through identifying the central tendency of the values. Bryman and Cramer (2009) define central tendency as the typical value in a distribution. Measures of central tendency, therefore, help the researcher identify whether the data as a whole fits in with the responses received from the overall sample.



The most commonly used and widely reported method of assessing central tendency is the mean (Bryman and Cramer, 2009). The mean of each item is the average score received by that particular construct. This therefore indicates to the researcher how the construct is viewed by the sample on average. However, the researcher also needs to assess how this value is dispersed across the sample. The levels of dispersal in relation to the mean would help identify how widely distributed the opinions of the sample are about the given construct. The level of dispersion is assessed by identifying the standard deviation. The standard deviation calculates the average amount of deviation from the mean. Standard deviation is widely recognised as the main measure of dispersion and is routinely reported in research (Bryman and Cramer, 2009).

In addition to the mean and standard deviation, the standard error also needs to be estimated. Standard error is the standard deviation of the sample means and it informs the researcher whether the sample is representative of the population that is being studied (Field, 2009). This is an important measure because in studies such as the current one, where the purpose of the quantitative survey is to assess the generalisability of the emotions to the domestic one-day cricket spectators as a whole, the data needs to very closely represent the population. Table 8.2 below shows the descriptive statistics for the individual items.

**Table 8.1: Descriptive Statistics**

<b>Descriptive Statistics</b>								
	<b>N</b>	<b>Range</b>	<b>Min.</b>	<b>Max.</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std.</b>		
						<b>Std. Error</b>	<b>Deviation</b>	<b>Variance</b>
Unsettled	212	4	1	5	1.33	.043	.627	.393
Lost	212	3	1	4	1.12	.029	.425	.180
Satisfied	212	4	1	5	3.87	.053	.771	.595
Angry	212	3	1	4	1.69	.052	.764	.583
Peaceful	212	4	1	5	3.88	.058	.840	.705
At rest	212	4	1	5	3.93	.058	.843	.711
Relaxed	212	4	1	5	4.19	.052	.756	.571
A sense of surprise	212	4	1	5	2.83	.066	.962	.925

Attentive	212	4	1	5	3.97	.053	.772	.596
Astonished	212	4	1	5	2.49	.064	.926	.858
Uneasy	212	4	1	5	1.51	.054	.788	.621
Alert	212	4	1	5	3.68	.061	.887	.786
Excited	212	4	1	5	3.79	.052	.759	.576
Content	212	3	2	5	4.02	.047	.688	.474
Agitated	212	3	1	4	1.83	.054	.789	.622
It's a chance to break out of the daily routine	212	4	1	5	3.82	.072	1.047	1.096
Fulfilled	212	4	1	5	3.66	.053	.778	.606
Cheerful	212	4	1	5	4.08	.048	.701	.491
Nervous	212	4	1	5	1.99	.074	1.071	1.147
Irritated	212	3	1	4	1.89	.056	.818	.670
Amazed	212	4	1	5	2.66	.062	.897	.805
Distaste	212	3	1	4	1.43	.047	.688	.474
Worried	212	3	1	4	1.52	.052	.751	.564
Annoyed	212	4	1	5	1.75	.060	.880	.774
I don't know what to expect	212	4	1	5	2.19	.077	1.125	1.266
Mad	212	2	1	3	1.31	.041	.596	.356
A sense of involvement	212	4	1	5	3.23	.070	1.016	1.032
A sense of community	212	4	1	5	3.47	.062	.900	.810
Anxious	212	4	1	5	1.92	.066	.966	.933
Enraged	212	3	1	4	1.48	.051	.738	.545
Scornful	212	4	1	5	1.40	.051	.744	.553
Discouraged	212	3	1	4	1.50	.052	.764	.583
Unpleasant	212	2	1	3	1.22	.031	.449	.202
Delighted	212	4	1	5	3.53	.047	.691	.478
It's a social activity	212	4	1	5	3.95	.056	.813	.661

Frustrated	212	3	1	4	2.18	.062	.901	.811
Gloomy	212	4	1	5	1.70	.058	.850	.722
Calm	212	4	1	5	3.83	.061	.885	.783
Unsafe	212	3	1	4	1.17	.032	.463	.214
Uncertain	212	4	1	5	1.58	.055	.808	.652
Serene	212	4	1	5	3.40	.067	.976	.952
I know what one day cricket is about	212	4	1	5	4.57	.053	.767	.588
Part of the social atmosphere	212	4	1	5	3.80	.061	.882	.779
Intimidated	212	3	1	4	1.25	.039	.575	.331
A sense of approval	212	4	1	5	3.27	.072	1.044	1.091
That my day is spoilt	212	3	1	4	1.46	.046	.670	.448
Downhearted	212	4	1	5	1.70	.056	.811	.657
Sad	212	2	1	3	1.42	.044	.645	.416
Contemptuous	212	3	1	4	1.37	.049	.707	.500
Worried	212	4	1	5	1.45	.050	.730	.533
Disdainful	212	3	1	4	1.29	.042	.607	.369
Threatened	212	2	1	3	1.15	.029	.427	.182
I know what to expect	212	4	1	5	3.75	.077	1.117	1.248
Revulsion	212	3	1	4	1.19	.037	.535	.287
Pleased	212	4	1	5	3.85	.052	.752	.565
Depressed	212	3	1	4	1.37	.045	.659	.434
Miserable	212	3	1	4	1.32	.042	.609	.371
Disgusted	212	3	1	4	1.22	.038	.553	.306
Hesitant	212	3	1	4	1.39	.044	.648	.419
Sorrowful	212	3	1	4	1.30	.042	.617	.380

I can have a good laugh with the other spectators	212	4	1	5	3.75	.061	.890	.793
Unsure	212	4	1	5	1.48	.051	.738	.544
Happy	212	4	1	5	4.01	.054	.782	.611
Doubtful	212	4	1	5	1.62	.053	.766	.587
Joyful	212	4	1	5	3.70	.058	.851	.724
Tense	212	4	1	5	2.50	.076	1.099	1.209
Disapproval	212	4	1	5	1.49	.051	.745	.554
A sense of reservation	212	3	1	4	1.67	.056	.817	.668
At risk	212	4	1	5	1.23	.043	.628	.394
I will attend one day cricket games in the future	212	3	2	5	4.77	.035	.514	.264
My experiences when attending a cricket game is usually positive	212	2	3	5	4.53	.040	.579	.336
Its highly likely that I would attend one day cricket games in the future	212	4	1	5	4.62	.058	.838	.702
My overall experience of attending one day cricket is positive	212	4	1	5	4.58	.042	.614	.377
I feel I have had a positive experience when I have attended one day cricket	212	2	3	5	4.56	.039	.569	.324
Attending another one day cricket game is a possibility	212	4	1	5	4.71	.046	.673	.452

At the end of my day at one day cricket, I often feel that I have had a good experience	212	2	3	5	4.55	.040	.578	.334
I would attend one day cricket games during the next season	212	2	3	5	4.74	.035	.509	.259

Looking at the standard deviation for each of the items on this scale, it shows that with the exception of a few items, the remaining items did not deviate too widely from the mean (< 1). This, combined with the small levels of standard error for this scale, indicates that the ratings obtained for the items overall are representative of the population indicating that the results obtained from this survey can be seen as representative of the domestic one-day cricket population (Field, 2009).

The mean values for the emotion items indicate that the emotions that are generally associated with positive feelings are experienced by the sample more frequently. For example items such as Excited, Content, and Cheerful have mean values above 3 indicating that spectators experience these emotions often while they are at the game. Mean values of negative emotion items such as Miserable, Disgusted, and Sorrowful indicate that these emotions are hardly ever experienced by the cricket spectators (mean < 2). Inferring from these mean values of the emotions, it can be concluded that the general emotional experience of cricket experiences while attending a game is positive.

The mean values for Game Experience and Return Intentions are very high indicating that spectators generally tend to have a positive game experience when they are at a domestic one-day cricket game and that they are also very likely to return to watch the game.

## 8.2. Factor Analysis

The purpose of this stage of the research is to empirically assess the ten emotions identified in the repertory grid stage of this research. In order to achieve this purpose, multivariate statistical tests will be needed. Hair et al (1998: 6) explain multivariate analysis as referring to

“all statistical methods that simultaneously analyse multiple measurements on each individual or object under investigation. Any simultaneous analysis of more than two variables can be loosely considered multivariate analysis.”

To analyse multiple measurements relating to the ten emotions, the multivariate analysis technique factor analysis will be used in this research.

“Factor analysis is a generic name given to a class of multivariate statistical methods whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure in a data matrix.” (Hair et al, 1998: 90)

By carrying out factor analysis, the researcher would be able to ascertain whether the items underlie certain overriding factors. In this case the factors would be the distinctive emotions. When designing measurement scales, researchers use many items to measure latent variables. Latent variables are the underlying phenomenon or constructs (in this case the ten emotions, game experience, and return intentions) that cannot be observed or quantified directly (DeVellis, 1991). As was the case with this research, researchers use multiple items to measure the phenomenon under investigation and performing a factor analysis would help the researcher to “determine empirically how many constructs, or latent variables, or factors underlie a set of items” (DeVellis, 1991:92).

There are three main uses of factor analysis (Field, 2009);

- 1) To understand the structure of a set of variables.
- 2) To construct a questionnaire to measure underlying variables.
- 3) To reduce a set of data to a more manageable size while retaining as much of the original information as possible.

The current research would require all of the above uses of factor analysis in order to identify empirically significant set of emotions. Firstly, factor analysis understands the

structure of the variables by identifying the set of variables that correlate significantly and thus form a distinct factor or construct. As such this would help identify the set of distinct emotions that are found to be significant in the study. Secondly, by identifying the distinct emotions and the items that underpin each of these emotions, the analysis will result in a scale that can be used in future research measuring emotions experienced by domestic one-day cricket spectators. Finally, the questionnaire included 69 emotion items. It was decided to include multi items in order to improve scale reliability. However, a questionnaire that is too long may not be practical for regular use in the research context (Blumberg et al, 2008). Additionally, not all items included in the questionnaire may be significant in measuring the emotions. As such, factor analysis would help eliminate items that are not relevant and result in a set of items that are significantly relevant in measuring the emotions whilst reducing the length of the questionnaire. The items for Game Experience and Return Intentions will not be factor analysed as the purpose of factor analysis is not relevant to these concepts. However, they will be included in the reliability analysis to ascertain whether the scales used to measure these concepts are reliable.

There are two types of factor analysis – exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis is carried out most often when researchers have an expected structure for the data and they need to test whether this structure exists (Hair et al, 1998). As such, confirmatory factor analysis is more in the nature of hypothesis testing and is also usually carried out as part of structural equation modelling (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Exploratory factor analysis, on the other hand, explores the data to identify the structure and the resulting factors and hence it does not test any existing hypotheses. Rather, as Hair et al (1998) mention, it takes what the data gives and for a majority of research applications, exploratory factor analysis is appropriate (Hair et al, 1998). Due to the purpose of the current analysis being to explore the set of variables to identify overriding factors (i.e. emotions), exploratory factor analysis is chosen as an appropriate method.

When carrying out exploratory factor analysis, there are two approaches that can be used to identify the underlying dimensions of the data. These are Principal Component Analysis and Common Factor Analysis. As Field (2009: 638) explains,

“Factor analysis derives a mathematical model from which factors are estimated, whereas principal component analysis merely decomposes the original data into a set of linear variates.”

Common factor analysis has inherent problems as explained by Hair et al (1998). Firstly, as common factor analysis can calculate different factor scores for any individual respondents, there is no single unique solution. Secondly, due to the nature of calculating communalities, the computations can take substantial computer time as well as resources. Finally, the way in which communalities are calculated for common factor analyses means that the communalities are not always valid. These complications of common factor analysis has prompted wide spread use of principal factor analysis by many researchers (Hair et al, 1998; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The current study uses principal component analysis in order to identify the underlying factors or components of the data as it is a psychometrically sound procedure which is less complex than the factor analysis procedure.

Once the researcher has chosen the method to be used in extracting factors the next question that needs answering is how many factors to retain. Although SPSS provides the option of extracting a pre-specified number of factors, this would not be appropriate for the current study. This is because the exploratory nature of this study aims to discover the factors (emotions) that the data reveals rather than test preconceived notions of how many factors are represented by the data. This then raises the question of how many factors the researcher should retain as a result of the factor analysis. There are several criteria which can be used to decide how many factors to retain. The most common of these is of retaining factors with eigenvalues of greater than 1 (Field, 2009). This is also known as the latent root criterion which assumes that any individual factor should account for the variance of at least one variable. Thus only the factors with eigenvalues of 1 or above are retained (Hair et al, 1998). A second criterion that can be used is the percentage of variance criterion. Using this criterion the researcher ensures practical significance of the data by ensuring that the factors extracted explain the total variance of a phenomenon. As Hair et al (1998) explain there is no established threshold to guide the researcher on the level of variance that needs to be explained by the factors as this can vary based on the nature and purpose of study. However, in the social sciences, a factor solution that accounts for 60% of the total variance is considered to be appropriate (Hair et al, 1998). There is also the scree test criterion whereby a graph is



plotted using each eigenvalue against the associated factor (Field, 2009). As such, this graph would help determine whether the eigenvalues associated with a factor is significant enough for the factor to be retained. This is inferred by looking at the point at which the curve first begins to straighten out and this point of inflexion denotes where the significance of each factor eigenvalues start to deteriorate (Hair et al, 1998; Field, 2009). Hair et al (1998) explain that researchers seldom use one single criterion to determine how many factors to extract. They often use the latent root criterion (Eigenvalues above 1) and also use criteria such as the scree plot and percentage of variance criterion to assess the factors extracted. As such, the current research would use the latent root criterion to determine the number of factors to extract and would examine the scree plot as well the percentage of variance explained to ensure that the factor solution is practically significant.

Once the factor extraction technique is decided and the researcher is clear on how many factors to retain, the next stage is to interpret the factor solution produced. When the factor extraction is presented with high and low factor loadings, it becomes difficult for the researcher to interpret this information and identify which variables load onto which factors. In order to make this interpretation clearer, rotation techniques are used (Field, 2009). There are two techniques which can be used to rotate factors – orthogonal and oblique rotation. Orthogonal rotation techniques ensure that the factors remain independent or uncorrelated with the remaining factors and thus ensuring a clearer structure. Oblique rotation techniques on the other hand, allow the factors to correlate with each other. Comparing the two rotation techniques, Hair et al (1998: 109) explain;

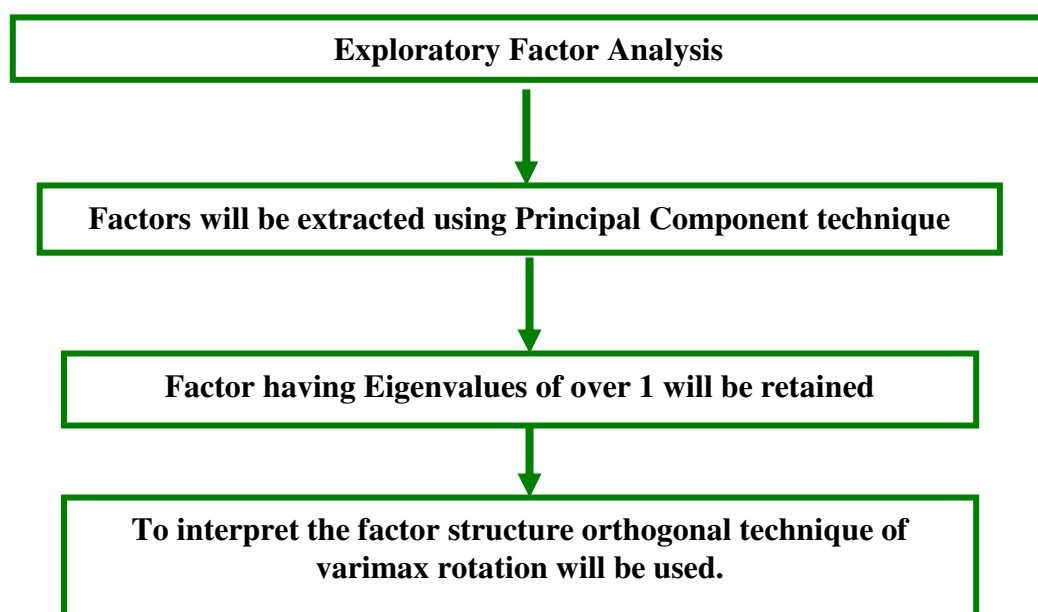
“Orthogonal rotational approaches are more widely used because all computer packages with factor analysis containing orthogonal rotation options, whereas the oblique methods are not as widespread. Orthogonal rotations are also utilised more frequently because the analytical procedures for performing oblique rotations are not as well developed and are still subject to considerable controversy.”

As such, for this research, orthogonal rotation would be used. There are many ways in which orthogonal rotations can be performed. These are quartimax, varimax, and equimax. As Field (2009) reports, quartimax rotation maximises the factor loadings across all factors which can result in too many variables loading on a single factor. Varimax rotation maximises loading of variables within each factor and hence loads a

smaller number of variables highly onto each factor resulting in highly interpretable clusters of variables. Equimax is a combination of these two techniques and tends to provide erratic results and hence is not in common usage (Hair et al, 1998; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The current study would utilise a varimax rotation as this provides the simplest factor structure which is highly interpretable and is also the most common orthogonal rotation technique used by researchers (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007; Field, 2009). The decisions and choices of techniques made for conducting factor analysis in this research are outlined in Figure 8.6 below.

### **8.2.1. Assumptions of Factor Analysis**

Prior to conducting factor analysis, the data needs to meet certain assumptions (Field, 2009; Hair et al, 1998; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). These are; normality, homoscedasticity, and linearity. However, Hair et al (1998) warn that for exploratory factor analysis the critical assumptions are not statistical. Rather, the conceptual assumption that the variables have a theoretical basis for being part of overriding factors is more critical. As the conceptual basis for these emotions items being part of distinct emotions was based both on existing literature as well as the results from the repertory grid interviews, the critical conceptual assumption has been met in this study. As such, the result of the factor analysis is expected to provide a factor solution with a set of distinct emotion factors.



**Figure 8.6 – Plan for Factor Analysis**

In order to ensure that the data are normally distributed for each variable, the statistical tests of Skewness and Kurtosis were measured. Skewness assesses the symmetry or lack of it in the data and the closer to 0 the skewness value is the more normal the data is likely to be. Kurtosis measures the degree to which scores for a variable cluster at the ends of the distributions (Field, 2009). Although normality of distribution is an assumption of all parametric tests (such as factor analysis), in reality it is very rare for the researchers to achieve perfectly normally distributed data sets (Field, 2009). With regards to psychological measures such as emotions, it is often accepted that the data would not be normal due to the nature of the constructs being measured (Howitt, 2008). Although some researchers argue that principal components analysis does not require any assumptions of normality as it does not aim to test hypothesis, it is still advisable to examine the normality of data (Fabrigar et al, 1999). There are no set guidelines to help the researcher assess the acceptable levels of skewness or kurtosis. Fabrigar et al (1999) suggest that severe problems related to non-normal data arise only when skew is greater than 2 and kurtosis is greater than 7. In line with these guidelines, the normality of the data in the current study was examined (Table 8.2 provides the skew and kurtosis for each item) and any items with skew greater than 2 and kurtosis greater than 7 were removed from further analysis. The items that were removed are shown in red in the table below.

**Table 8.2: Skewness and Kurtosis Values**

<i>Items</i>	<i>Skew</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>
Unsettled	2.298	6.849
Lost	4.073	17.802
Satisfied	-1.215	3.199
Angry	.712	-.506
Peaceful	-1.025	1.940
At rest	-1.111	2.163
Relaxed	-.994	2.009
A sense of surprise	-.470	-.017
Attentive	-.824	1.515

Astonished	.114	-.192
Uneasy	1.641	2.548
Alert	-.777	.956
Excited	-.412	.751
Content	-.201	-.329
Agitated	.477	-.727
It's a chance to break out of the daily routine	-.836	.472
Fulfilled	-.469	.878
Cheerful	-.946	2.835
Nervous	.743	-.385
Irritated	.526	-.516
Amazed	-.257	-.292
Distaste	1.490	1.456
Worried	1.258	.665
Annoyed	.965	.272
I don't know what to expect	.479	-.716
Mad	1.800	2.075
A sense of involvement	-.587	-.013
A sense of community	-.525	.248
Anxious	.662	-.549
Enraged	1.530	1.850
Scornful	1.931	3.452
Discouraged	1.451	1.380
Unpleasant	1.814	2.399
Delighted	-.293	.362
It's a social activity	-.500	.118
Frustrated	-.008	-1.164
Gloomy	1.173	1.257
Calm	-1.203	2.243

Unsafe	3.166	10.979
Uncertain	1.290	1.190
Serene	-.723	.489
I know what one day cricket is about	-2.007	4.402
Part of the social atmosphere	-.677	1.053
Intimidated	2.653	7.605
A sense of approval	-.644	.044
That my day is spoilt	1.256	.706
Downhearted	.875	.141
Sad	1.247	.375
Contemptuous	1.920	3.021
Worried	1.578	2.014
Disdainful	2.185	4.501
Threatened	3.040	8.846
I know what to expect	-.780	.131
Revulsion	3.131	9.970
Pleased	-1.097	3.207
Depressed	1.735	2.397
Miserable	1.989	3.817
Disgusted	2.931	9.421
Hesitant	1.520	1.486
Sorrowful	2.036	3.293
I can have a good laugh with the other spectators	-.189	-.377
Unsure	1.690	3.096
Happy	-.806	1.675
Doubtful	1.209	1.536
Joyful	-.730	1.067
Tense	-.020	-.993
Disapproval	1.718	3.265

A sense of reservation	.993	.137
At risk	3.619	15.253

As the table above shows, 11 variables were deleted due to significant problems with non-normality and the remaining 58 items were used to carry out the factor analysis. The tests of homoscedasticity and linearity will be discussed as part of the factor analysis and group differences which will be discussed later. Furthermore, other assumptions such as presence of overall correlations as well sample adequacy for the factor analysis will be reported along with the factor analysis results.

### 8.2.2. Factor Analysis Output

The factor analysis was carried out with SPSS using the above discussed choices. Unlike some statistical techniques such as the t-test or ANOVA, factor analysis is a procedure which involves various stages as part of a preliminary analysis.

“This generally begins with some predetermined criterion, such as the percentage of variance or latent root criterion, to arrive at a specific number of factors to extract. After the initial solution has been derived, the researcher computes several additional trial solutions – usually one less factor than the initial number and two or three more factors than initially derived. Then based on the information obtained from the trial analysis, the factor matrices are examined, and the best representation of the data is used to assist in determining the number of factors to extract” (Hair et al, 1998: 103).

As Hair et al (1998) explain above, it is important for the researcher to examine the data in various trials prior to determining the optimal solution. Field (2009) terms this as the preliminary analysis and advises that the researcher starts examining the correlation matrix (the correlation between each variable) first. This is because some correlation between variables is required for factors to be formed. However, they should not be too highly correlated as this would imply problems of multicollinearity. As such, Field (2009) advises scanning the correlation matrix for variables that do not correlate well with each other (less than .30) as well as variables that correlate too highly with other variables (greater than .90). If there are any variables that do not correlate well or too highly with other variables, these should be deleted and the factor analysis performed again to check the factor solution and re-examine the correlations. In this way the researcher deletes the variables that are not significantly relevant to the factor solution and hence reduces the number of items in the scale.

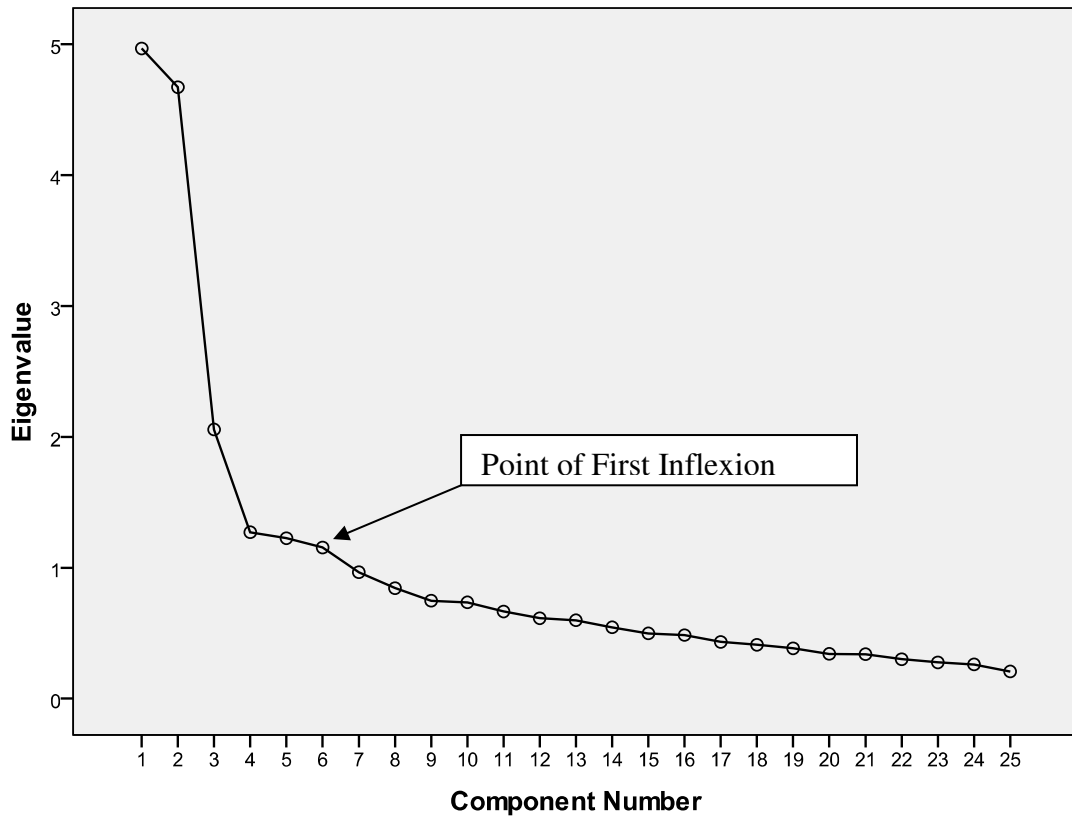
As a result of examining the correlation matrix, 34 variables out of the 58 entered into the initial factor analysis, were deleted due to the variables having correlations below .30. None of the variables correlated too highly with the other variables. These items were deleted one at a time to examine the impact it would have on the correlations and factor solutions and hence, 34 factor analysis procedures were run before the final solution was decided upon.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test of sampling adequacy is carried out to evaluate the appropriateness of carrying out factor analysis in relation to the samples sizes used (Hair et al, 1998). Factor analysis is appropriate for the given sample when the sampling adequacy statistic is above .50. However, .50 is the bare minimum required and values between .70 and above are considered to be good (Field, 2009; Hair et al, 1998). As well as the overall sampling adequacy statistic, the researcher also needs to examine the sampling adequacy for each individual variable to ensure that the variables used in the factor analysis are appropriate in their own right. The KMO measure for the current study verified the sampling adequacy at .823. The KMO measures for individual items also confirmed this with all individual measures above .70. In order for a factor analysis to be effective, the variables included in the analysis needs to have some degree of relationship between them. Bartlett's test of sphericity helps assess whether, overall, the variables are sufficiently correlated to warrant a factor analysis. Bartlett's test for this study  $X^2(300) = 2025.338, p < .001$ , confirmed that the correlations between variables were significant to carry out a factor analysis. Further to the KMO and Bartlett's tests, the residual correlation matrix also provides insights into the acceptability of the factor analysis. Residual correlation matrix is the difference between the observed correlation matrix (correlations observed from the data) and the reproduced correlation matrix (correlations that are derived based on factor analysis model) (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007; Field, 2009). In a good factor analysis the correlations in the residual matrix are small which indicates a close fit between the observed and reproduced correlations (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The residual correlation matrix should not contain more than 50% of values that are greater than .50 (Field, 2009). SPSS calculates how many residuals have a value of greater than .50 and for this study this is 81 (27%). As this is well below the 50% limit, the factor analysis model provides a good fit for the data.

The factor analysis resulted in six factors having eigenvalues of greater than 1. The scree plot also showed an inflexion at six factors (see Figure 8.7 below). The six factors also explained 61.39% of the total variance which is above the 60% threshold suggested by Hair et al (1998) for research in the social sciences. Hence, six factors were retained in this study as all three criteria for retaining the number of factors (eigenvalues greater than 1, scree plot, and percentage of variance) support the retention of six factors. The Eigenvalues for each factor and the percentage of variance explained by each factor are shown in table 8.3 below.

The six factors extracted and their factor loadings are shown in table 8.3 below. Factor loadings indicate the degree of relationship between variables and the associated factor (Field, 2009; Hair et al, 1998). Factor loadings are considered to be significant if they are above .40 (Field, 2009; Hair et al, 1998). However, Hair et al (1998) point out that although loadings of .40 are considered to be important, to be practically significant, the loadings need to be greater than .50. As table 8.3 shows, all the factor loadings in this study are greater than .50 and in most cases well above this threshold. In order to ensure ease of interpretation, only factor loadings greater than .10 are reported in the table. As such, the missing factor loadings from the table were all less than .10 and hence very insignificant (Field, 2009).





**Figure 8.7 – Scree Plot for Factor Extraction**

The six factors extracted using the factor analysis reflect six distinct emotions. Satisfaction, Startle, and Content include three items each. Happiness includes six items and contains one item originally included in the questionnaire as Content item. However, this particular item fits into the Happiness emotion rather than Content. The emotions for Doubt and Anxiety have six items each and include some items from Disgust and Anger respectively. This will be discussed further in the next chapter when the triangulated findings are discussed. The factor analysis has resulted in extracting six emotions that are statistically significant to the domestic one-day cricket spectators. It has also helped develop an instrument consisting of 25 items to measure these emotions. The next step now is to assess the reliability of these scales.

**Table 8.3: Factor Loadings**

	<b>Component</b>					
	<b>Happiness</b>	<b>Anxiety</b>	<b>Doubt</b>	<b>Content</b>	<b>Startle</b>	<b>Satisfaction</b>
Fulfilled	<b>.744</b>					
Joyful	<b>.682</b>			.100	.160	.178
Delighted	<b>.679</b>	.162	-.119		.178	
Pleased	<b>.677</b>			.189	.141	.155
Happy	<b>.675</b>	-.117		.192		.211
Cheerful	<b>.666</b>	-.104				.173
Anxious		<b>.793</b>	.231			
Nervous	.111	<b>.773</b>			.173	
Worried		<b>.733</b>	.311			
Irritated	-.201	<b>.662</b>	.153		.184	.101
Frustrated		<b>.631</b>	.290		.106	
Unsure		.259	<b>.797</b>			
Doubtful	-.109	.281	<b>.722</b>		.110	
Uncertain	.144	.371	<b>.661</b>		-.188	
Disapproval	-.149	.144	<b>.629</b>	.144	.243	-.113
Contemptuous		.129	<b>.585</b>		.343	
Peaceful	.231			<b>.855</b>		
At rest	.198	.137		<b>.854</b>		.121
Relaxed	.112	-.150		<b>.803</b>		.101
Astonished	.195	.167			<b>.802</b>	
A sense of surprise	.140	.102	.117		<b>.699</b>	.174
Amazed	.368	.252	.133		<b>.608</b>	.116
Part of the social atmosphere	.163				.153	<b>.789</b>
It's a social activity	.330		-.115			<b>.718</b>
I can have a good laugh with the other spectators	.186				.108	<b>.690</b>
<b>Eigenvalues</b>	<b>3.424</b>	<b>3.126</b>	<b>2.686</b>	<b>2.293</b>	<b>1.944</b>	<b>1.875</b>
<b>% of Variance</b>	<b>13.696</b>	<b>12.503</b>	<b>10.744</b>	<b>9.172</b>	<b>7.778</b>	<b>7.501</b>

### 8.2.3. Reliability

To assess the reliability of the scales, the Cronbach's Alpha values were calculated using SPSS and are shown in table 8.4 below.

**Table 8.4: Reliability Analysis of Construct Scales**

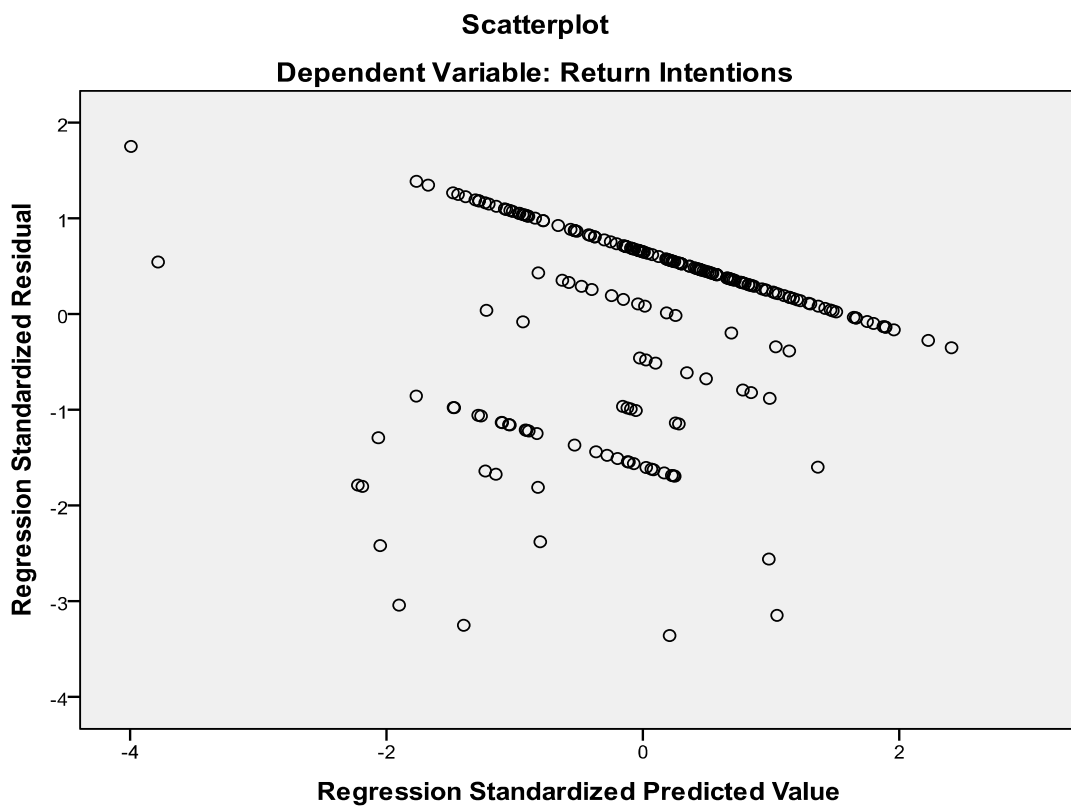
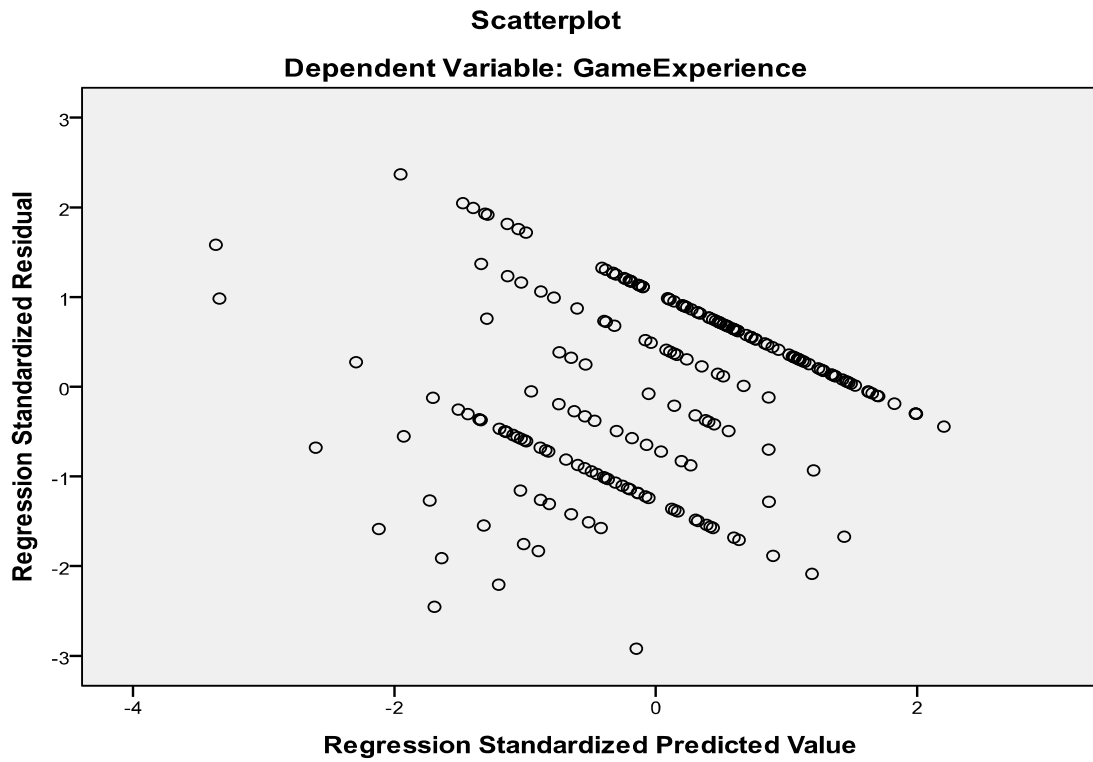
<i>Scale/Construct</i>	<i>Number of Items</i>	<i>Alpha Value</i>
Happiness	6	.819
Anxiety	5	.821
Doubt	5	.784
Content	3	.837
Startle	3	.742
Satisfaction	3	.691
Game Experience	5	.912
Return Intentions	4	.719

The general rule with regards to reliability analysis using Cronbach's Alpha is that an alpha value of below .60 is unacceptable (Nunnally, 1978; DeVellis, 1991; Hair et al, 1998). Hair et al (1998) point out that for exploratory research, an alpha value of .60 or above would provide sufficient reliability. All scales used in this study are above .60 and therefore demonstrate good reliability. However, it is also important to check for the reliability of the scale if a particular item is deleted. This is important because, if the scale is reliable, then any one item should not greatly affect the overall reliability (Field, 2009). As such, as well as the alpha values, alpha values if items deleted were also examined. These analyses are provided in Appendix 10. Any item providing a greater alpha value than the overall value if it is deleted should be removed due to the item having too great an impact on the overall reliability of the scale (Field, 2009). In considering the alpha values when item deleted, no items needed to be deleted. A scale that is reliable increases the statistical power for a given sample size (DeVellis, 1991) and therefore, any further analysis carried out using the items forming the scales in this study would have sufficient statistical power.

### **8.3. Relationship between Emotions, Game Experience, and Return Intentions**

The primary purpose of the research was to identify the set of emotions that are relevant to domestic one-day cricket spectators. However, the repertory grid interviews provided some tentative insights into the relationship between these emotions and the concepts of overall game experience as well as return intentions. In order to test this relationship using multivariate techniques, regression analysis would need to be conducted. However, a primary assumption of regression analysis is that of homogeneity of variance (Hair et al, 1998; Field, 2009). Homogeneity of variance in a regression analysis is evaluated using graphs (Field, 2009). For this study the graph of standardised residuals (ZRESID) against the standardised predicted values (ZPRED) for both Game Experience and Return Intentions (dependent variables) showed that there is no homogeneity of variance present and thus the assumption is violated (see Figure 8.8). As such, Regression analysis would not be appropriate for this study.

There are two options available which can be used to deal with the issue of not being able to perform the Regression analysis – transforming the data or using an alternative test. Transforming the data is a way in which every score on every variable is transformed using various techniques so that the transformed data can overcome the problems of either non-normality or non-homogeneity of variance. This option is often not preferred by most researchers (Field, 2009) because, by transforming the data, the way in which the constructs are measured is changed. Therefore the research in effect addresses a different construct than the one originally measured. Hence this can cause problems with interpreting the results obtained from analysis using transformed data (Hair et al, 1998; Field, 2009). As such, this option was not chosen for this study.



*Figure 8.8 – Homogeneity of Variance in Regression*

The second option is to use an alternative test to assess the relationship between emotions, game experience, and return intentions. This can be achieved through calculating the correlations between each emotion with game experience and return intentions. Correlation coefficient is a measure to assess the strength of relationship between two variables (Field, 2009). As the current study is exploratory in nature, it does not have any hypotheses relating to the causal relationship between emotions and the constructs of game experience and return intentions. However, as the repertory grid interviews indicated that there is a relationship between these constructs, measuring the correlation coefficient would indicate whether these relationships exist in the survey data obtained. Hence, correlation coefficient measures using Pearson's Product Moment Correlation will be used in this study to assess the strength of relationship between the emotions and the constructs of game experience and return intentions.

Pearson's product moment correlation is a standardised measure of the strength of relationship between two continuous variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The standardised correlation in this measure can range from -1 to +1 and the relationship between the variables measured is such that when one variable changes, the other changes by the same amount (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005). To be able to perform Pearson's product moment correlation, two assumptions need to be met – the constructs need to be measured on an interval scale and the data should be normally distributed (Field, 2009). All the scales for emotion, game experience and return intentions were measured using an interval scale. Also, the normality of data was dealt with prior to conducting the factor analysis. As such, in this study, both these assumptions are met and hence Pearson's product moment correlation is an appropriate measure to use in this study. The Pearson product moment correlation measures are provided in Table 8.5 below. The significance of the correlations is tested using a one-tailed significant test which is used to test directional relationships (Field, 2009). This is because, based on the repertory grid findings, it is expected that the relationship between the emotions and game experience or return intentions is directional. For instance, as spectators experience more happiness, they are more likely to have a positive game experience. The items corresponding to each scale were summated into one factor representing each of the six emotions, game

experience and return intentions (Hair et al, 1998). These summated scales were used to assess the relationship between the constructs.

**Table 8.5: Pearson Product Moment Correlation Measures**

<i>Emotion</i>	<i>Game Experience</i>			<i>Return Intentions</i>		
	<i>Correlation</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>R<sup>2</sup></i>	<i>Correlation</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>R<sup>2</sup></i>
Happiness	.535**	.000	.286	.362**	.000	.131
Anxiety	-.094	.085	.009	.087	.104	.007
Doubt	-.147*	.016	.022	-.030	.330	.001
Content	.291**	.000	.085	.182**	.004	.033
Startle	.236**	.000	.056	.153*	.013	.023
Satisfaction	.320**	.000	.102	.210**	.001	.044

\*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed)

The standard criterion for assessing significance of a test is that the level of significance is less than .05. However, if the significance value is less than .01 then the strength of the effect measured is greater (Field, 2009). In this case, most significant values are less than .01 indicating a greater strength of relationship between the variables. The results of the Pearson's product moment correlation shows that Happiness [ $r = .53, p$  (one-tailed)  $<.01$ ], Content [ $r = .29, p$  (one-tailed)  $<.01$ ], Startle [ $r = .24, p$  (one-tailed)  $<.01$ ], and Satisfaction [ $r = .32, p$  (one-tailed)  $<.01$ ] all have significantly positive relationships with Game Experience. This indicates that as these emotions are experienced more by the spectators, their Game Experience will also increase. Doubt [ $r = -.15, p$  (one-tailed)  $<.05$ ] has a negative relationship with Game Experience indicating that as spectators experience less Doubt their Game Experience would increase. Anxiety [ $r = -.09, p$  (one-tailed)  $>.05$ ] did not have any relationship with Game Experience.

With regards to Return Intentions, Happiness [ $r = .36, p$  (one-tailed)  $<.01$ ], Content [ $r = .18, p$  (one-tailed)  $<.01$ ], Startle [ $r = .15, p$  (one-tailed)  $<.05$ ], and Satisfaction [ $r = .21, p$  (one-tailed)  $<.01$ ] all had a positive relationship with Return Intentions. This indicates that as spectators experience more of these emotions, they are more likely to return to the game. Anxiety [ $r = .09, p$  (one-tailed)  $>.05$ ] and Doubt [ $r = -.03, p$  (one-tailed)  $>.05$ ] did

not have any relationship with game experience. It is important to note that many negative emotional items including that of Anxiety and Doubt were removed from the final analysis due to non-normal distribution of data. Hence, the findings here may not reflect the complete nature of negative emotions on both Game Experience and Return Intentions. Further investigation into negative emotions is required in order to establish the role played by negative emotions in spectator experiences.

The correlation scores on Table 8.5 show that each emotion differs in its strength with both Game Experience and Return Intentions. For instance, with regards to Game Experience, Happiness had the highest correlation (.535) with Anxiety having the lowest value (-.094). This could indicate that the strength of relationship between each of these emotions and Game Experience as well as Return Intentions varies. In order to test whether these variances in correlation values are statistically significant, the correlation values were compared using the formula propagated by Dunn and Clark (1969). This formula converts the  $r$  value of the correlation into a normally distributed  $z$  score and thereby ensures that various correlations can be compared against each other. This technique is widely used and is established as an effective measure to compare correlations (Meng et al, 1992; Silver et al, 2006). The test showed that the correlations relating to Game Experience is significantly different between the six emotions [ $X^2 = 82.398, p$  (one-tailed)  $< .01$ ]. The six different emotions also significantly differed in their correlation values with regards to Return Intentions [ $X^2 = 19.385, p$  (one-tailed)  $< .01$ ]. These results confirm that Happiness with the highest correlation value has the greatest influence on Game Experience as well as Return Intentions in comparison to the other emotions.

As well as the correlations themselves, the  $r$  value in the Pearson's measure can be converted into  $R^2$  in order to understand the variance explained (Field, 2009) by each construct in explaining the increase or decrease in Game Experience and Return Intentions. This is done by simply squaring the correlation for each construct. In this case the five significant emotions (Happiness 28.6%, Doubt 2.2%, Content 8.5%, Startle 5.6%, and Satisfaction 10.2%) explain 55% of the variance with regards to Game Experience. With regards to Return Intentions, the four significant emotions (Happiness 13.1%, Content 3.3%, Startle 2.3%, and Satisfaction 4.4%) explained 23% of the variance.



## 8.4. Group Differences in Emotions

As a last step of data analysis, the categorical data gathered during the survey (age, gender, membership status, attendance levels) was used to assess whether the experience of emotions differed based on spectators' gender, age and so on. In order to do this independent sample t-tests and ANOVAs are used.

Independent sample t-test is a parametric test that can be used to assess whether the mean scores of two independent groups differ (Field, 2009). In the current analysis, a difference in mean scores of men and women, for instance, would mean that they experience a given emotion differently. If there are no significant differences in mean scores then the emotions are equally important to all groups. T-tests are used to test the difference between two groups (Bryman and Cramer, 2009) and hence will be used to test the differences of gender and membership groups of cricket spectators. As with all parametric tests, t-tests also need to meet certain assumptions. These are; normality of distribution, interval or ratio scale to measure the variables, homogeneity of variance, and independent scores. The normality of data in this analysis has already been dealt with (see section 8.2 above) and hence the data to be used in the t-test is normal. The emotions were measured using an interval scale for this study. Also, the scores of groups (male, female, members, non-members) are independent as they completed the questionnaire separately. As such, these assumptions for the t-test are met. With regards to homogeneity of variance, Levene's test was used to assess homogeneity of variance and this assumption was also met. The results of the Levene's test are reported together with the t-test results in tables 8.6 and 8.7 below. It should also be noted that, in section 8.2, it was mentioned that the homogeneity of variance as an assumption for Factor analysis will be discussed later. The results of the Levene's test show that there is homogeneity of variance in the data and hence this assumption was also met for the factor analysis.

**Table 8.6: T-test Results for Gender**

<i>Emotion</i>	<i>Levene's test</i>	<i>Gender Means (Standard error)</i>		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>
		<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>			
Happiness	.110	3.81 (.041)	3.71 (.088)	.794	210	.428
Anxiety	.650	1.89 (.050)	1.90 (.142)	-.033	210	.974
Doubt	.338	1.50 (.536)	1.52 (.694)	-.142	210	.887
Content	.248	4.01 (.725)	3.89 (.509)	.747	210	.456
Startle	.702	2.66 (.055)	2.63 (.162)	.152	210	.879
Satisfaction	.257	3.84 (.680)	3.78 (.669)	.406	210	.685

Levene's test addresses the null hypotheses that there is a significant amount of variance in the data (Field, 2009). Hence if the hypothesis is rejected ( $p < .05$ ) it indicates that there is no significant variance in the data. As such, the assumption of homogeneity of variance is met. Table 8.6 shows that for all the emotions, the Levene's test significance levels are above .50 and this ensures that the assumption of homogeneity of variance has been met in this study.

As Table 8.6 shows, the mean values for each of the emotions are very similar in both genders. The levels of significance for all emotions are greater than .50 which indicates that there is no difference in how men and women experience these emotions.

Table 8.7 provides the results for the t-test for differences between members and non-members.

**Table 8.7: T-test Results for Membership Status**

<i>Emotion</i>	<i>Levene's test</i>	<i>Mean (Standard error)</i>		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>
		<i>Member</i>	<i>Non-Member</i>			
Happiness	.169	3.84 (.047)	3.76 (.061)	1.11	210	.267
Anxiety	.123	2.02 (.069)	1.76 (.061)	2.79	210	.006*
Doubt	.114	1.53 (.057)	1.48 (.048)	.581	210	.562
Content	.043	4.00 (.055)	3.99 (.084)	.097	168.67	.922
Startle	.423	2.65 (.072)	2.67 (.074)	-.138	210	.891
Satisfaction	.988	3.87 (.063)	3.79 (.069)	.912	210	.363

\*Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 8.7 shows that Happiness, Anxiety, Doubt, Startle, and Satisfaction all met the assumption of homogeneity of variance ( $p > .05$ ). For Content, this assumption was not met. However, SPSS calculates the t-test using adjustments to the data which the researcher needs to look at if the assumption is not met (Field, 2009; Bryman and Cramer, 2009). In this case, the  $t$  statistic, degrees of freedom, and significance levels provided for Content are based on the assumptions not being met. The results of the t-test based on membership status shows that Happiness, Doubt, Content, Startle, and Satisfaction have very similar mean values and they are not significantly different. As such, all these emotions are experienced equally by both the members and the non-members. With regards to Anxiety, there was a significant difference ( $p < .05$ ) with members ( $M = 2.02$ ,  $SE = .069$ ) experiencing more Anxiety than non-members.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is similar to the t-test in that it compares means. However, t-tests are used to compare means of two groups whereas ANOVA is used when there are more than two groups that need to be compared (Tabachnick and Fidell,

2007). As such it is suitable for comparing differences between spectators of various ages and attendance levels. The assumptions for ANOVA are the same as for the t-tests (Field, 2009) and as discussed before, these assumptions have already been met.

Levene's test will be calculated based on the groups of age and attendance levels to assess the homogeneity of variance based on these spectator groups. The results of the ANOVA and Levene's tests are provided in tables 8.8 and 8.9 below.

As table 8.8 shows, the Levene's test for each emotion showed that the assumption of homogeneity of variance is met for this data ( $p > .05$ ). Looking at the significance levels of the ANOVA results, there were no significant differences between the age groups. As such, emotions are experienced in the same way by spectators of all ages.

**Table 8.8: ANOVA Results for Different Age Groups**

<i>Test results</i>		<i>Happiness</i>	<i>Anxiety</i>	<i>Doubt</i>	<i>Content</i>	<i>Startle</i>	<i>Satisfaction</i>
Levene's Test		.987	.152	.356	.791	.387	.137
Mean (Standard Error)	> 25	3.64 (.199)	1.92 (.178)	1.63 (.156)	4.08 (.233)	2.74 (.182)	3.77 (.162)
	25-34	3.89 (.097)	1.78 (.073)	1.36 (.058)	4.04 (.133)	2.75 (.126)	4.01 (.105)
	35-44	3.77 (.079)	1.85 (.109)	1.41 (.082)	4.08 (.087)	2.63 (.116)	3.89 (.095)
	45-54	3.88 (.078)	2.07 (.110)	1.63 (.087)	3.88 (.091)	2.71 (.113)	3.84 (.119)
	55-64	3.73 (.079)	1.97 (.115)	1.56 (.087)	3.95 (.123)	2.70 (.101)	3.75 (.102)
	65-74	3.79 (.110)	1.72 (.124)	1.55 (.126)	4.13 (.140)	2.33 (.164)	3.69 (.129)
	75+	4.06 (.242)	1.67 (.267)	1.47 (.467)	3.44 (.294)	2.78 (.729)	3.67 (.385)
<i>F</i>		.760	1.09	1.28	.823	.918	.740
<i>Sig.</i>		.602	.370	.267	.554	.483	.618

Prior to performing ANOVA based on attendance levels of spectators, the various attendance levels were further classified into three groups. As with previous studies (Kuenzel and Yassim, 2010; Arnett and Laverie, 2000) this was done so that the attendance levels are more meaningfully categorised as infrequent, moderately frequent, and frequent attendees. Spectators attending no games or at least one game in the previous season was categorised as infrequent attendees. Those attending at least five games were moderate attendees and those attending ten games or more were frequent attendees (Kuenzel and Yassim, 2010; Arnett and Laverie, 2000).

**Table 8.9: ANOVA Results for Attendance Levels**

<i>Test results</i>		<i>Happiness</i>	<i>Anxiety</i>	<i>Doubt</i>	<i>Content</i>	<i>Startle</i>	<i>Satisfaction</i>
Levene's Test		.097	.315	.011	.556	.870	.931
Mean (Standard Error)	Infrequent (N = 75)	3.61 (.068)	1.71 (.068)	1.44 (.054)	3.92 (.093)	2.54 (.088)	3.68 (.076)
	Moderately Frequent (N=58)	3.83 (.063)	1.99 (.099)	1.63 (.091)	4.05 (.090)	2.73 (.100)	3.73 (.092)
	Frequent (N=78)	3.97 (.058)	2.00 (.079)	1.47 (.056)	4.03 (.070)	2.71 (.083)	4.05 (.073)
<i>F</i>		8.77	4.33	1.65	.721	1.47	6.76
<i>Sig.</i>		.000*	.014*	.197	.488	.232	.001*

*\*Significant at the level of 0.05*

Levene's test results in Table 8.9 indicate that homogeneity of variance is met with five groups of emotional data. For the data on Doubt, this assumption is violated ( $p < .50$ ). As with the t-test, when the assumption of homogeneity of variance is violated, the analysis can still be carried out using adjusted scores. Although SPSS produces this score automatically for the t-tests, when performing ANOVAs, the researcher can choose

between two techniques – Welch’s F or Brown-Forsythe F. Field (2009) recommends the use of Welch’s F if the mean values within the group are similar and there are no extreme mean values causing problems with the variance. Looking at the mean values in Table 8.9 for the emotions that have not met the homogeneity of variance assumption, it is clear that the mean values for each group are very similar. As such, Welch’s F is used in this study for these two emotions. Therefore, the F statistic and significance levels reported for Doubt are calculated based on Welch’s F technique.

Looking at the ANOVA results themselves, Doubt, Content, and Startle were experienced in a similar way by all spectators regardless of their level of attendance ( $p > .05$ ).

Spectators who attended different numbers of games (level of attendance) differed on how they experience Happiness [ $F(2, 208) = 8.77, p < .05$ ], Anxiety [ $F(2, 208) = 4.33, p < .05$ ], and Satisfaction [ $F(2, 208) = 6.76, p < .05$ ]. With the t-test, as only two groups are compared, the significance of the differences in mean exists between these two groups. However, with ANOVA more than two groups are compared. Hence, once the researcher identifies that there is a significant difference between the groups, then more analysis is needed to identify which specific groups (out of the 3 here) have a significant difference in the mean values. This is known as the post hoc test (Field, 2009; Bryman and Cramer, 2009). There are many post hoc tests that can be used and the choice of which one to use depends on the sample sizes and the equality of variance. For example, when sample size in each group is equal and the variances are equal then Tukey’s HSD can be used. If the sample sizes are slightly different then Gabriel’s procedure can be used. If there are any doubts on the equality of variance then the Games-Howell procedure can be used. If the sample sizes are very different then Hochberg’s GT2 can be used (Field, 2009). In the current analysis, the sample sizes of each group are very different (see Figure 8.5) and the homogeneity of variance assumption for the three emotions were met. As such, Hochberg’s procedure would be the appropriate choice. The full statistics of the post hoc tests are provided in Appendix 11. Examination of the post hoc test results shows that spectators who attend infrequently experienced Happiness and Anxiety differently to those attending frequently. Satisfaction was experienced differently by those attending frequently compared to infrequent and moderately frequent spectators.

## ***Conclusion***

This chapter discussed the various statistical techniques used to analyse the data and the results obtained from these analyses. The analysis procedure began by discussing the descriptive statistics of the data. The breakdown of the sample showed that the respondents of this survey are largely representative of the general domestic cricket spectatorship. The mean values of the items showed that, on average, emotional items associated with positive emotions are experienced more frequently by spectators compared to negative emotions. In order to identify the set of emotions that were significant to domestic one-day cricket spectators, factor analysis using the principal component technique was used. As well as identifying the significant emotions, factor analysis also helped minimise the original 58 items used in the analysis into a 25 item emotion scale that can be used in future research. The factor analysis resulted in six emotions (Happiness, Anxiety, Doubt, Content, Startle, and Satisfaction) which were all reliable at Cronbach's alpha value of greater than .60. Once the set of emotions were identified, Pearson's product-moment correlation was used to assess the relationship between the emotions and the constructs of game experience and return intentions. The results revealed that Happiness, Doubt, Content, Startle, and Satisfaction have a significant relationship with Game Experience. Happiness, Content, Startle, and Satisfaction also had a significant impact on Return Intentions. Finally, t-tests and ANOVAs were used to understand the experience of emotions by different spectator groups. The results of the t-tests showed that both male and female spectators experienced emotions in a similar way. T-test also showed that members experienced more Anxiety than non-members but these two groups experienced the remaining emotions in a similar way. ANOVA results showed that spectators of different age all experienced emotions in a similar way. When grouped, based on their level of attendance, spectators differed in the way they experienced Happiness, Anxiety, and Satisfaction.

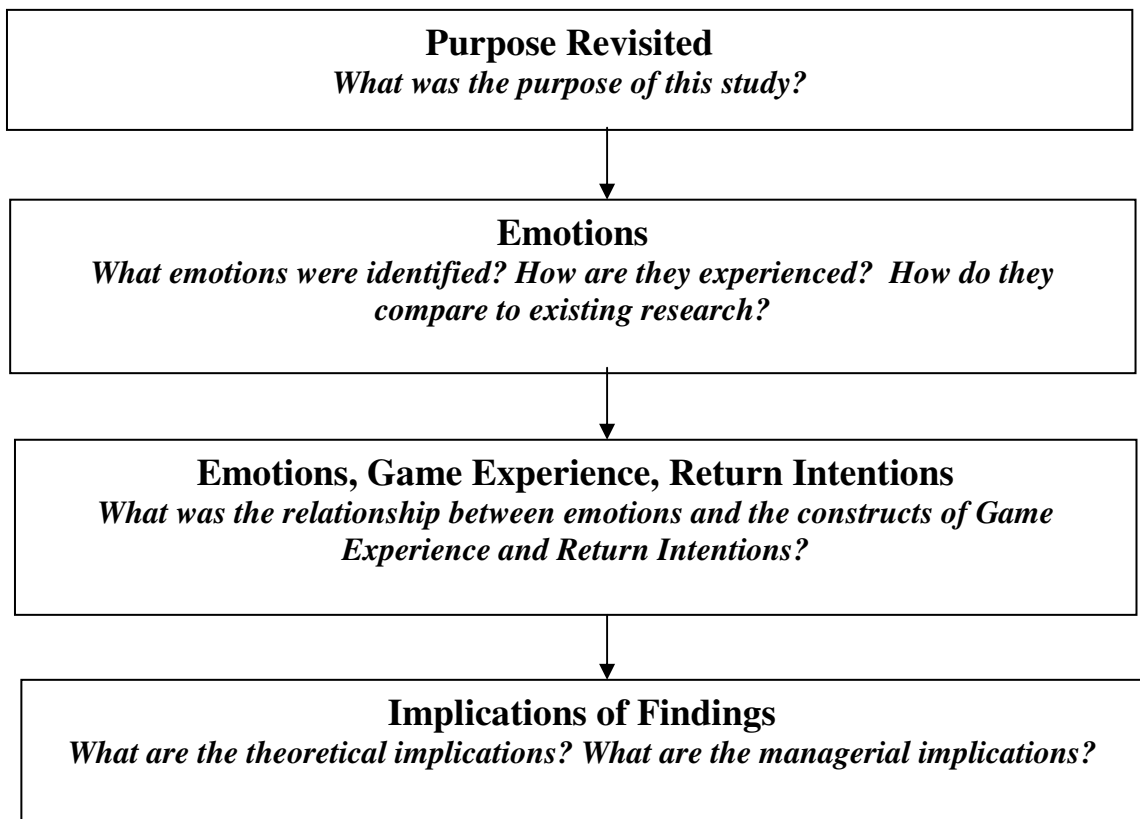
The next chapter discusses the results outlined here in relation to the findings of the repertory grid analysis as well as the implications of these findings to both theory and practice.

## *Chapter 9*

# DISCUSSION & IMPLICATIONS

### *Chapter Introduction*

The previous chapter discussed the analysis and results of the quantitative survey. This provides a discussion of the triangulated results from both the repertory grid interviews as well as the quantitative survey. It also discusses the implications of these findings. The chapter is structured as follows:



*Figure 9.1 - Structure of Chapter 9*

The chapter begins by revisiting the purpose of the research. Prior to discussing the findings from the research, the purpose of the study is briefly discussed to ensure that the subsequent discussion demonstrates how the purpose of the study was achieved.

The triangulated results revealed that six emotions were significant to the emotional experience of domestic one-day cricket spectators. These emotions are defined and discussed in detail. Furthermore, using the findings from the repertory grid interviews,



the way in which these emotions are experienced is also discussed. The emotions identified and measured here are also compared to the emotions from both sports marketing and consumption emotions literature.

Once the emotions are understood, the relationship between these emotions and Game Experience and Return Intentions are discussed. The findings from both the repertory grids and the quantitative survey are compared in terms of the relationships identified at these two stages. In addition, these relationships are also compared to any relevant literature that investigates similar constructs.

Finally, the implications of this study are discussed. Chapter 2 set out the issues prevalent in the consumption emotions literature and the theoretical implications of this study are drawn from how the findings here have helped deal with these issues. Also, the findings have practical implications for the cricket management. The ways in which these findings can be used by the cricket management to ensure spectators have a positive game experience as well as encourage spectators to return to the game are discussed.

## 9.1. Purpose Revisited

The primary aim of this study was to understand the emotional experience of domestic one-day cricket spectators using the personal construct theory perspective of emotions. The specific research aims and methods used to achieve this overall purpose are shown in Table 9.1 below.

**Table 9.1: Stages of research, Purpose, and Methods used in this study**

Stage	Purpose	Method
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>c. Explore the various emotions experienced by cricket spectators, with particular focus on identifying what emotions are experienced and why.</li> <li>d. Explore whether the emotions identified influence overall game experience and revisit.</li> </ul>	Spectator interviews using repertory grid technique.
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>c. Investigate the applicability of the emotions identified in stage 1 on a larger sample.</li> <li>d. Identify the core set of emotions that are experienced by cricket spectators.</li> </ul>	Face-to-face, quantitative survey of spectators.

As discussed in Chapter 4, in order to obtain a valid set of findings, triangulation was used. Thus the research used both repertory grid interviews as well as a quantitative survey. In order to identify and understand the emotions experienced by the cricket spectators, repertory grid interviews were used. Following on from this, a quantitative survey with multi-item emotion measures were used to test these emotions in a larger sample. Furthermore, the repertory grids also helped identify the relationship between emotions, game experience and return intentions. This relationship was again explored using the quantitative study. Finally, the repertory grids provided some insights into the aspects of the cricket game that were seen as important to cricket spectators and thereby helping to stimulate these emotions. The findings from these various stages of research

are discussed below. The t-test and ANOVA results are examined where appropriate in conjunction with the individual emotions. However, the results of these two tests showed that emotions were experienced in a similar way by different groups of spectators. This also agrees with Mudie et al's (2003) research on emotions in consumption of services, where emotional responses based on frequency of usage, age, and gender generally did not differ.

## **9.2. Emotions**

The repertory grid interview technique uses elements which are written down in individual cards and then compared three at a time in order to elicit constructs. In this research, as the researcher was also interested in understanding what stimulates these emotions, the spectators were asked to individually come up with aspects of the game that would make them feel good, bad, and neutral. These elements were then content analysed to identify the aspects of the game that are most important to the spectators. The result of the content analysis of elements was shown in Figure 6.3. The game aspects important to spectators included socialising, game related aspects (quality of performance, high scoring game, etc), weather, spectator behaviour, and time to oneself. Quality of game and socialising (sometimes referred to as social facilitation) were also aspects identified by Kuenzel and Yassim (2007) as being important aspects of cricket games. Although these aspects identified here provide insight into what causes the relevant emotions in spectators, these need to be subject to further research. This result was obtained from twelve interviews and further research on a larger sample can help confirm these aspects as being important to domestic one-day cricket spectators.

With specific relevance to emotions, the constructs elicited during the repertory grid interviews were emotional constructs based on the elements (game aspects). Content analysis of the constructs was carried out using the emotions defined by Kelly (1955) and McCoy (1977) as categories into which the constructs were allocated. Following the validation of the construct analysis by an independent assessor, ten emotions were identified as being relevant to domestic one-day cricket spectators. These were Contentment, Startle/Surprise, Happiness, Satisfaction, Anger, Sadness,

Contempt/Disgust, Anxiety, Threat, and Doubt. Following this, items were designed and developed to measure these emotions using a quantitative survey.

The survey data on emotions were factor analysed resulting in 6 factors and thereby 6 emotions that are of significant relevance to domestic one-day cricket spectators. Of these six emotions, four are generally classed as positive emotions whereas two were negative emotions (Laros and Steenkamp, 2005). The higher number of positive emotions identified here also agrees with the findings of Cerin and Barnett (2006) who found that positive emotions were experienced more frequently and with higher intensity than negative emotions by participants of sports. Furthermore, Richins (1997) also found that, with regards to consumption emotions, positive emotions were more dominant than negative emotions.

### ***9.2.1. Happiness***

Six emotion items had significantly high factor loadings on this construct. These items consisted of five Happiness items (items originally designed as Happiness items) and one item originally allocated to content (Fulfilled). This indicates that the item Fulfilled relates more to Happiness rather than Content. The identification of Happiness as a distinct emotion here agrees with previous research. For instance, Laros and Steenkamp (2005) identified Happiness as a distinct basic emotion in their hierarchical model of emotions. Furthermore, in their study of graduates' experiences of graduation ceremonies, Koenig-Lewis and Palmer (2008) found that Happiness was a significant emotion for graduates. Personal Construct Theory defines Happiness as, awareness of validation of a portion of one's core structure (McCoy, 1977). In this context, the core structure refers to the constructs that spectators have about the experience they gain from attending the game. When their experience at the game reaffirms these constructs, they feel Happiness. These core constructs would relate more to predictable aspects of cricket such as socialising and spectator behaviour. This is because these aspects relate to more controllable aspects whereby management can take measures to encourage socialising as well as managing spectator behaviour. Thus, spectators have core expectations about these aspects. With aspects that are game related on the other hand, as these are more unpredictable, spectators would not have core structures or constructs relating to them.

### **9.2.2. Anxiety**

Five emotion items had significant factor loadings on this factor. These consisted of three items that were originally designed as Anxiety (anxious, nervous, frustrated) items whereas two were originally Anger items (worried and irritated). Irritated was an item that was part of the item pool for Anger in the Differential Emotions Scale (Izard et al, 1994). Richins (1997) also included irritated as an Anger item and worried as a Worry item. However, the factor loadings in this study showed that both irritated and worried are items that are more closely related to Anxiety. As Anxiety was not included in either Izard et al's (1994) or Richin's (1997) scale, it was not possible to compare the nature of items used to measure this emotion. From the findings in this study, it can be concluded that, in the context of domestic one-day cricket spectating, Anxiety is a distinct emotion that incorporates feelings of irritation and worry. Anxiety was defined as (see Chapter 6) an awareness that the event being experienced by someone lies outside their range of convenience. In other words, they have not experienced these events before and their knowledge about the game does not lead them to have anticipations about these events. Hence, when these events do occur, spectators feel anxious as they struggle to make sense of them. These anxious feelings are more likely to relate to spectator behaviour as this was identified during the repertory grids as causing great feelings relating to anxiety (e.g. construct 'agitated/tensed – calmness'). The t-test and ANOVA results showed that members experience Anxiety more frequently than non-members. In line with this, the experience of Anxiety of spectators attending frequently differed to those attending infrequently. This indicates that those who are members and thus often attend more regularly tend to experience anxiety more. Domestic cricket in England has seen many changes over the years as a result of the England and Wales Cricket Board's attempts to increase attendance levels (Mintel, 2007). Those who are regulars and connoisseurs of domestic cricket know that the game is changing and hence they may feel unsure of what to expect at the game. Thus, the new experiences are out of their range of convenience making construing of the game experiences more difficult.

### **9.2.3. Doubt**

Doubt was made up of five emotion items. Three of these were originally developed as doubt items (unsure, uncertain, and doubtful) and two were included as Disgust items (disapproval, contemptuous). The factor analysis however, revealed that these five items load highly onto the same component. Doubt is defined as awareness of imminent

incidental change in a non-core structure (McCoy, 1977). Disgust (contempt) was defined as awareness that the core role of another is comprehensively different from one's own and is not socially acceptable (McCoy, 1977). It seems that domestic cricket spectators have viewed these two emotions as part of the same process in this context. That is, socially unacceptable behaviour by other spectators may cause them to feel disgust. Due to this experience of other's behaviour they would need to change their construing of spectator behaviour at cricket games. Hence, this bad behaviour of some spectators which made them feel Disgust has also made them question their constructs of what to expect at a game. This questioning of their constructs and awareness that they need to reconstrue their cricket experience leads them to feel Doubt. It was decided to name this mixture of doubt and disgust as Doubt. This is because the experiencing of Disgust in the context of cricket spectating is incidental in the spectators' experience of Doubt. Therefore, Doubt is the overarching emotion felt by the spectators indicating that Doubt represents this emotion more effectively than does Disgust.

#### ***9.2.4. Contentment***

Content or contentment was defined as the awareness that the events experienced by someone are within the range of convenience of their construct system (McCoy, 1977). Factor analysis identified this as a distinct emotion which included three items (peaceful, at rest, and relaxed). This agrees with the identification of Content as a distinct emotion in the hierarchical model of emotions developed by Laros and Steenkamp (2005). Richins (1997) identified Peacefulness and Contentment as two separate emotions but this distinction was based purely on how the items clustered statistically rather than conceptual definition of the emotions. The result of this study shows that peacefulness has both conceptual and statistical support for being an item of Contentment. In the context of cricket spectating as with most if not all consumption experiences, spectators attend the game with preconceived ideas of the nature of the experience. These preconceptions may have been due to prior experience, word of mouth, media reports and so on. When they are actually at the game, the experiences they have at the game fall within these preconceptions or constructions they hold about the game. As such, they feel content at the game. Similarly to that of happiness, Content is most likely to relate to predictable aspects of the game such as spectator behaviour, weather and socialising. As the spectators have formed their constructs about these aspects of the game based on their

previous experiences or through media and friends and family, they are prepared for what to expect and they can make sense of these experiences more easily.

#### **9.2.5. Startle**

Startle or Surprise was made of three items (astonished, a sense of surprise, and amazed). The result of Startle/Surprise as a distinct emotion agrees with the Differential Emotion Scale (Izard et al, 1994) and Consumption Emotions Scale (Richins, 1997). Furthermore, Richins (1997) and Koenig-Lewis and Palmer (2008) identified Surprise as a significant emotion in consumption experiences and this study affirms this significance in the cricket spectating context. Startle/Surprise was defined as the sudden awareness of a need to construe events (McCoy, 1977). In the context of this research, startle/surprise was conceptualised as a positive emotion. It is most likely to relate to game related aspects. That is, when spectators are experiencing a fast moving game (constant scoring or wickets creating unpredictability of final scores) then they would need to constantly reconstrue their expectations of the outcome of all or part of the game. This constant need to reconstrue their experiences and expectations at the game makes the game more exciting and hence they experience Startle/Surprise.

#### **9.2.6. Satisfaction**

Satisfaction was defined as the awareness of validation of one's non-core structure (McCoy, 1977) and consisted of three items (part of the social atmosphere, it's a social activity, and I can have a good laugh with the other spectators). As discussed in Chapter 2, satisfaction is often conceptualised in the consumption marketing literature as a post-purchase judgement that involves both cognitive and affective dimensions (Westbrook, 1980; Oliver, 1994; Söderlund and Öhman, 2003). When investigating consumption emotions, researchers regularly use satisfaction as a consequence of emotions (Dubé and Menon, 2000; Phillips and Baumgartner, 2002; Han et al, 2009) and therefore it is not treated as an emotion per se. Based on the Personal Construct Theory perspective of emotions, this research conceptualised satisfaction as a distinct emotion. The findings from both the repertory grid interviews as well as the factor analysis support this conceptualisation of satisfaction as a distinct emotion. Furthermore, looking at the items that were associated with this emotion, it is evident that satisfaction, for domestic one-day cricket spectators, is related to social atmosphere at the game. Socialising with friends and family as well as the camaraderie with other fellow spectators makes spectators feel

satisfied. Thus it can be concluded that, in the context of domestic one-day cricket spectating, satisfaction is an emotion experienced as a result of the social atmosphere at the game. The ANOVA results showed that frequent spectators differed in the way they experience satisfaction compared to infrequent and moderately frequent spectators. When spectators attend the game frequently, they are more likely to get to know other regular spectators at the game and thus create their own social network which means their social experience at the game is not limited to their immediate friends and family. Infrequent and moderately frequent spectators on the other hand may only be attending with their friends or family and thus attending the game is a way to spend time with friends and family. They are also more likely to be involved in camaraderie with fellow spectators without necessarily creating long lasting acquaintances or friendships.

### **9.3. Emotions, Game Experience, and Return Intentions**

Chapter 2 discussed the need for understanding the emotional experience of sport spectators in order to enable a better understanding of their overall game experience. Overall game experience, in the context of cricket spectators, is defined as the experience obtained from game related aspects as well as off-field aspects such as socialising, facilities, off-field entertainment and so on. In order to understand whether distinct emotions are related to Game Experience and Return Intentions, two constructs relating to these two concepts were included by the researcher at the end of the repertory grid interviews. The quantitative survey also included items to measure the concepts of Game Experience and Return Intentions.

#### ***9.3.1. Emotions and Game Experience***

The repertory grid interview findings indicated that each emotion had a varying degree of relationship with Game Experience. Hence, in agreement with researchers who propagate the use of distinct emotions (e.g. Söderlund and Rosengren, 2004; Leone et al, 2005; Madrigal and Bee, 2005; Watson and Spence, 2007; Han et al, 2009), it demonstrated the need to study each individual emotion and its impact individually rather than categorising them into positive and negative emotions. As Figure 6.4 showed, Contentment, Startle, Happiness, and Satisfaction were all very closely related to Game



Experience. These findings were confirmed by the survey results. Happiness, Contentment, Startle, and Satisfaction were all found to have a significantly positive relationship with Game Experience. Furthermore, the comparison of the various correlation values revealed that Happiness had the strongest impact on Game Experience followed by Satisfaction, Content, and Startle respectively. With regards to Doubt and Anxiety, the findings from the repertory grid partially agree with that of the survey. Repertory grid results showed that Anxiety and Doubt had a weak relationship with Game Experience. The correlation results confirmed that Anxiety was not significantly related to Game Experience. With Doubt however, the findings differed as repertory grid results showed that Doubt had a weak relationship whereas the correlations showed that there was a negative relationship between the constructs. The triangulated findings indicate that when spectators feel Happy, Startle, Contentment, and Satisfaction, they have a positive Game Experience. When they experience Doubt, on the other hand, their Game Experience becomes negative. As there was no previous research that assessed the relationship between emotions and game experience, these findings provide novel insight into the relationship between these constructs. In addition, it confirms Mudie et al's (2003) conclusion that emotions are a significant factor in the consumption of services. This research showed that emotional experiences significantly related to overall Game Experience.

### ***9.3.2. Emotions and Return Intentions***

The repertory grid interview results showed that Happiness, Startle, and Contentment have strong relationships with Return Intentions whereas Satisfaction had a significant relationship. The correlations resulting from the survey analysis agreed with these findings in that all these four emotions were shown to have a significant relationship with Return Intentions. The comparison of correlation values also showed that Happiness was most important emotion influencing Return Intentions followed by Satisfaction, Content, and Startle respectively. Therefore, as spectators experience more Happiness, Startle, Contentment, and Satisfaction at the game, the more they are likely to return to the game in the future.

Anxiety and Doubt did not have any relationship with Return Intentions in both repertory grid and correlation findings. These findings indicate that when considering returning to the game, spectators' decisions are based more on their positive emotional experiences

rather than the negative emotions. This maybe because, as the mean values of the items showed (See Table 8.2) spectators tend to experience positive emotions more frequently compared to negative emotions. As such, their overall experience when attending a cricket game is positive. Any negative experiences they may have are compensated for by the positive emotions. This is also supported by the t-test and ANOVA results whereby members and frequent attendees experience Anxiety more than non-members and less frequent attendees. Even though members and frequent attendees experience more Anxiety it does not deter them from attending games as the positive emotions they experience are much more frequent and results in them having an overall positive game experience. In psychology research, Tugade and Fredrickson (2004) found that, in general, people focus on positive emotions to overcome negative experiences. This may explain the results of the repertory grids and the correlation analysis of this study. Spectators seem to focus more on their positive experiences when evaluating their decision to return to the game in the future. However, as discussed in chapter 8, many negative emotional items had to be excluded from the final analysis due to non-normal distribution of data. It is possible that including all the items from the questionnaire could have shown a greater role played by negative emotions with regards to Return Intentions. More research needs to be carried out to further ascertain the role of negative emotions on spectators' intentions to return to the game.

The findings from this research agrees with Hall et al's (2010) findings that emotion constructs are strongly related to intention to attend the event with regards to sporting events. Furthermore, Bigné et al (2008) found that, with regards to theme parks and museum attendance, satisfaction was directly linked to loyalty behaviour such as repatronage. However, research investigating the link between satisfaction and loyalty (including return intentions, word-of mouth, willingness to pay more, etc) such as that of Bigné et al (2008) and Kuenzel and Yassim (2007) conceptualised satisfaction as a post purchase evaluation with affective aspects rather than an emotion itself. As such, direct comparisons between the relationship between satisfaction and return intentions from previous research is not possible here. The research findings from this study, nevertheless agrees with that of Koenig-Lewis and Palmer (2008) who found that emotions are better predictors of future behavioural intentions than the conventional cognitive based measures of satisfaction.

## **9.4. Implications of Findings**

The findings of this research discussed above have theoretical implications as well as implications for the cricket management. These are discussed below.

### ***9.4.1. Theoretical Implications***

In discussing the consumption emotion literature in Chapter 2, three major problems prevalent within the consumption emotion literature were identified; the problem of rationality, the problem of the nature of emotions, and the problem of satisfaction. The findings of this research help clarify these problems.

This research adopted the view of Kelly (1955) and Lazarus (1991) in arguing that rationality and emotion are part of the same process. This conceptualisation was different to the one adopted by many researchers in marketing (e.g. Allen et al, 2005; Yoo and McInnis, 2005; Bigné et al, 2008). Nevertheless it was argued that conceptualising and measuring rationality and emotion as two separate processes inhibit the holistic understanding of the consumption experience. The repertory grid interviews help identify and understand the emotions experienced at the domestic one-day cricket game through the use of game aspects (elements). These elements were derived from the spectators' own view of various aspects at the game. Content analysis of the elements identified aspects of the game that were important to the spectators including socialising, weather, and spectator behaviour. In Kelly's (1955) terms, these were events that the spectators experience and can be equated to what is commonly known as rational aspects of the experience. This research showed that these elements then lead onto emotional experiences (constructs in the grid). Hence, the conceptualisation of rationality and emotion as being part of the same process (rational aspects of the game leading onto emotions) by Kelly (1955) and Lazarus (1991) was demonstrated here. Therefore, this research shows that treating rationality and emotion as part of the same process can help understand the consumption emotions of spectators better as it can provide insights into what emotions are experienced and why.

Emotions were often treated in the consumption emotion literature as categories or dimensions such as positive and negative emotions (e.g. Oliver, 1994; Liljander and

Stranvik, 1997; Phillips and Baumgartner, 2002). However, researchers have argued that treating emotions as distinct entities would provide a better understanding of how each emotion is experienced and its consequences (e.g. Söderlund and Rosengren, 2004; Watson and Spence, 2007; Han et al, 2009). As this research adopted the Personal Construct Theory of emotions, it also adopted the latter view of treating emotions as distinct entities. As the Personal Construct Theory definitions of the emotions discussed before show, each emotion is a result of some degree of change to the constructs held by an individual. Hence, each emotion needs to be studied and understood as distinct. The results of the findings here also demonstrated this by showing that each emotion has a different relationship with Game Experience and Return Intentions. For instance, Doubt and Anxiety are both commonly considered as negative emotions but the findings showed that Anxiety is not related to Game Experience whereas Doubt is. Therefore, emotions need to be investigated as distinct entities in order to understand the individual impact on consumption experiences, thereby achieving a better understanding of consumption emotions.

The concept of satisfaction has evolved over the years in marketing from being viewed as a post-purchase cognitive judgement (Hunt 1977; Day 1984) to that of an evaluation comprising both cognitive and affective aspects (Westbrook, 1980; Oliver, 1994). Most researchers investigating consumption emotions often conceptualise satisfaction as a consequence of emotions rather than an emotion in itself (e.g. Dubé and Menon, 2000; Phillips and Baumgartner, 2002; Han et al, 2009). Bagozzi et al (2002) argued that there is no clear evidence to suggest that satisfaction is experienced differently to other positive emotions. In personal construct theory, satisfaction is conceptualised as a distinct emotion (Kelly, 1955; McCoy, 1977). This research adopted this conceptualisation of satisfaction as an emotion and the results agreed with this view. In the context of domestic one-day cricket spectating, satisfaction relates to socialising at the game. As such, it was not a post-consumption evaluation of the overall experience as suggested by researchers (e.g. Oliver, 1994; Phillips and Baumgartner, 2002) but an emotional response to the game aspect of socialising. This result provides support to Bagozzi et al's (2002) argument and shows that satisfaction can be conceptualised as an emotion. Thereby it helps bridge the two views of satisfaction as being a combination of cognition and emotion and it being an emotion in itself. Whereas previous research viewed satisfaction as comprising two dimensions of rationality and affect (Westbrook, 1980;

Oliver, 1994), this research has shown that it is a process comprising rationality and affect. Thus, conceptualising satisfaction as a process consisting of rationality leading onto the emotion of satisfaction provides a clearer understanding of the concept.

As the discussion above shows, the three problems identified in the consumption emotions literature were dealt with in this study through the use of personal construct theory. Kelly (1955) argued that personal construct theory is a comprehensive way of looking at and understanding a person. This comprehensive view of emotions was shown in this study to help overcome conceptual issue prevalent in consumption emotions and thereby providing an alternative approach to understanding consumption emotions to that of the dominant positivistic, cognitive approaches. Furthermore, the research tool developed by Kelly (1955) to understand a person's construct, the repertory grids, proved an effective tool to understand the consumption emotions of spectators. The repertory grids enabled the researcher to understand the aspects of a domestic one-day cricket game that were important to spectators and then to identify the emotions that are experienced as a result of these aspects. Also, it helped provide insights into the relationship between the individual emotions, Game Experience, and Return Intentions. Hence, this research supports Rogers and Ryals' (2007) claim that the repertory grid provides a comprehensive research tool to unearth unarticulated constructs to help better understand people's experiences.

#### ***9.4.2. Managerial Implications***

The focus of marketing was once the purchase of a service or product and this has changed in recent years to viewing every purchase as a consumption experience (Duffy and Hooper, 2003; Carù and Cova, 2007). Emotions are inherent in every experience (Sherry et al, 2007) and thus if organisations are to provide a positive experience to the consumers then they need to pay specific attention to their emotional experience. The findings of this research help the cricket management understand the emotional experience of their domestic one-day cricket spectators.

The repertory grid interviews helped identify the aspects of the domestic one-day cricket game that were relevant to spectators. Game related aspects, socialising, spectator behaviour, weather, and time to oneself are all aspects of the game that elicit significant emotions in spectators. These emotions (Happiness, Content, Startle, Doubt, and

Satisfaction) have a significant relationship with the overall Game Experience and Return Intentions of spectators. Hence, by managing the aspects relevant to spectators, the cricket management can ensure that the spectators have a positive experience and they also return to the game. As Kuenzel and Yassim (2007; 2010) explained, not all aspects of the game are controllable by the management. For instance, weather and team performance are elements that the management cannot control. However, they need to focus on controlling the aspects that can be managed such as spectator behaviour and socialising in order to ensure that the experiences of the spectators are positive. Dubé and Menon (2000) suggest that managers of extended service consumption situations need to be able to detect and deal with negative emotional stimuli during the consumption process. When attending one-day cricket, the spectators consume the experience over a day and hence this is an extended service consumption situation. Management need to put in place measures to monitor game aspects such as spectator behaviour, opportunities to socialise, and off-field entertainment to compensate for bad weather and take measures to deal with them during the experience whenever possible. For instance, stewards and security personnel need to be trained to detect any unrest or bad behaviour from groups of spectators that can have an impact on the experience of the others. Constant monitoring of spectators and resolving the situation by either removing the spectators from that specific area or providing them with a warning would help reassure other spectators that their experience when attending a cricket game will not be ruined by others. Furthermore, Chase and Dasu (2001) argued that experiences should be sequenced by the management in such a way that it ends on a positive note. Cricket management need to provide off-field entertainment such as virtual cricket games, socialising opportunities such as post-game barbecues and so on in order to ensure that the spectators and their day at the game end on positive emotions.

When the spectators end their day on a positive note and their experiences at the game are positive, the management need to utilise this opportunity to encourage spectators to return to the game. As the results here showed, positive emotions of Startle, Happiness, Satisfaction, and Contentment had a significant relationship with spectators' intention to return to the game. By ending spectators' experiences on a positive note, management can ensure that spectators leave the game with intentions to return in the future. Measures such as special membership packages aimed at different spectator groups such as families and moderately frequent attendees would help encourage spectators to attend

the game more regularly. In addition, spectators who are infrequent attendees and may not want to commit to a membership, special offers to certain games can be provided so that their intention to return to the game can be translated into action.

This research showed that emotions are relevant to all spectators regardless of their age, gender, and membership status. This is beneficial to cricket management when marketing the domestic one-day games as they can promote the game as being an experience filled with positive emotions to all spectators. However, when they are at the game itself, how these emotions are derived would vary. For instance, some spectators preferred to spend time on their own at the game whilst others would see it as an opportunity to spend time with friends and family. The repertory grid interviews indicated the possibility of segmenting spectators based on their experiences at the game. This needs to be further investigated on a larger sample, thereby providing management with information to segment spectators based on their emotional experiences as suggested by Bigné and Andreu (2004) rather than purely on gender or age differences. For instance, satisfaction as a result of socialising was experienced differently by frequent attendees compared to those who were infrequent and moderately frequent. Management need to provide opportunities to interact with fellow spectators and family areas for those who are infrequent or moderately frequent attendees. For those attending regularly, on the other hand, they need to provide more opportunities to spend time with their associates after the game or during the breaks. For families attending with young children, short cricket coaching sessions can be organised to get the children involved as well as keep them entertained. Furthermore, the management also need to focus on creating sheltered entertainment areas that can be utilised if the weather interrupts the game. For instance, virtual cricket games, children's entertainment such as bouncy castles, meeting with past players of the club and so on should be organised in sheltered areas so that in case of rain, the spectators still have an enjoyable day out with their friends and family and hence leave the game with a positive experience.

## ***Conclusion***

This chapter discussed the triangulated results of the repertory grids and the quantitative surveys. The findings showed that six emotions were significant to domestic one-day cricket spectators' experience at the game. These emotions were experienced as a result of various game aspects they encounter at the game (e.g. socialising, weather, and spectator behaviour). Furthermore, five emotions had a strong relationship with Game experience whilst four emotions related to intentions to return to the game. The purpose of this study of understanding the emotional experience of domestic one-day cricket spectators was achieved by providing the managers with insights into the significant emotions and how these emotions are experienced. In addition, this research demonstrated that personal construct theory perspective of emotions can help overcome the prevalent issues within consumption emotions literature. It also demonstrated the effectiveness of the repertory grids as a research tool in exploring complex constructs.

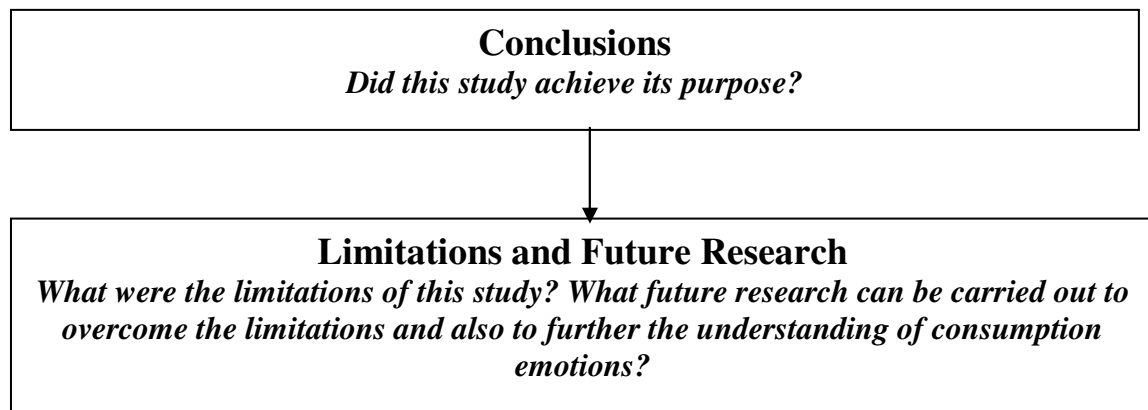


## Chapter 10

# CONCLUSIONS & FUTURE RESEARCH

### *Chapter Introduction*

The previous chapter discussed the triangulated results from both the repertory grid interviews and the quantitative survey. This chapter concludes the study and also discusses the limitations of this study and future research that can be carried out as a consequence to this study. The chapter is structured as follows:



*Figure 10.1 - Structure of Chapter 10*

This chapter begins by providing concluding thoughts on this study. In providing this conclusion, a brief discussion on the theoretical journey of this study is also presented. It also reiterates the contribution that personal construct theory can make to the understanding of consumption experiences.

Any study is restricted in what it can achieve due to practical implications such as time and cost and hence has limitations. The second half of this chapter discusses these limitations and also identifies how future research can overcome these limitations. Finally the chapter highlights the various researches that can be carried out following on from this study in order to enhance knowledge on cricket spectators, other sport spectators and consumers in general.

## 10.1. Conclusions

This research project started with the aim of understanding what aspects of the cricket game enable the spectators to have a satisfying experience. The conceptualisation of satisfaction was that of a post purchase evaluation that had an affective and a cognitive element (Oliver, 1994). However, the exploration into the world of affect changed the direction and also the purpose of the research. Understanding what emotion is and the various theories of emotions was one of the most challenging aspects of this project. The researcher was faced with a multitude of emotion theories from psychology literature. The consumption emotions literature did not provide much clarity as to the nature of emotions and how they are experienced within a consumption context. As discussed in Chapter 2, the literature that investigated emotions had major issues that lacked clarity and justification such as the way rationality and emotion was divided into two aspects, conceptualising and measuring satisfaction as a post-purchase evaluation, and classifying distinct emotions into broad categories of positive and negative emotions.

The discovery of personal construct theory changed the perspective of this research. Kelly (1955) saw emotion and cognition as a part of the same process. It is through the awareness (cognition) of the degree of change required to a person's constructions that emotions are experienced (Kelly, 1955; McCoy, 1977). In the same light, awareness of a non-core construct being validated or confirmed leads onto the experience of satisfaction. When compared to existing conceptualisation of satisfaction in the marketing literature, the PCT definition is not very different. For instance, a person expects a product or service to perform in a certain way and when they actually experience the product/service, these expectations are either confirmed or not confirmed. This then leads onto satisfaction. However, this satisfaction is regarded as something other than emotion by most researchers, with the exception of researchers such as Bagozzi et al (2002). Through the use of PCT, the current study was able to study rationality and emotions as part of the same process, explore the concept of satisfaction as an emotion, and to investigate the role of individual emotions as opposed to categorising emotions.

As well as providing an alternative theory to study emotional experience of consumers and thereby enhancing understanding of consumption emotions, PCT also provides a

research tool which can be used to achieve this understanding. The repertory grid technique proved effective in this study to unearth a difficult construct such as emotions. The triangulation of the repertory grids with the quantitative survey helped understand the distinct emotions experienced by the domestic one-day cricket spectators and also provided insights into what stimulates these emotions. The results also showed that these emotions have a strong relationship with Game Experience and Return Intentions. This indicated to the managers that ensuring spectators' experience of the relevant emotions can ensure that they have a positive game experience and also return to the games in the future. Thus the purpose of the study of understanding what emotions are experienced by domestic one-day cricket spectators and how they are experienced, was achieved in this study. As well as providing great insights into the emotional experience of domestic one-day cricket spectators, this research also demonstrated an alternative way to conceptualise and measure emotions and satisfaction in particular.

## **10.2. Limitations and Future Research**

As Moustakas (1994: 65) claimed, 'no scientific discovery is ever complete. No experience is ever finished or exhausted.' In agreement with this view, the current research also has several limitations as well as future research that can be carried out.

One of the limitations of this study is that it utilised the repertory grid in a limited way. This research used words as elements but other researchers have used pictures as elements to elicit constructs (Botterill and Crompton, 1996). Asking participants to take pictures of the aspects they think are relevant to a domestic one-day cricket game and then using these pictures as elements to elicit emotional constructs may have provided a wider array of emotions. This would also have ensured that aspects of the game that cannot be verbalised by the spectators are explored resulting in more depth to the elicitation of emotional constructs. It was decided not to use this approach in this research because of the time and cost implications. For instance, asking spectators to take pictures at the game would have involved providing them with cameras and then either printing out pictures on the day (if it is a digital camera) and carrying out the interview during the game or arranging to meet the spectators at an alternative place and day. This

would have reduced the response rate greatly and in order to ensure sufficient numbers of spectators are interviewed, this phase of the research would have been greatly extended. In order to avoid these problems of time and cost, it was decided to use words as elements here. Future research can combine the approaches of using words as well as pictures as elements in order to assess whether the responses obtained from these two approaches vary.

A further limitation of this study relates to the sample size of the quantitative survey. Although the final sample of 212 was appropriate for the statistical techniques used here, due to non-normal distributions, some emotion items had to be removed. Field (2009) suggested that having a large sample would ensure that the data are normally distributed. As such, having a larger sample could have ensured that most of the items were retained, hence ensuring that most of the emotional items are included in the analysis. Future research would benefit from obtaining a larger sample to enable normality of data distribution resulting from the use of all emotional items. This may help identify other significant emotions in addition to the six identified in this study. Additionally, it would also enable all the negative emotions to be included in the final analysis in order to understand the role played by these emotions in spectator Game Experience as well as Return Intentions.

Although this research explored whether there are differences in emotional experience of different groups of spectators, the spectator groups were limited to age, gender, membership status, and frequency of attendance. However, factors such as psychological involvement with the sport and team loyalty may condition the ways that the immediate game experience is interpreted or construed and the manner of its impact on future game attendance (Hill and Green, 2000). Therefore future research on emotions needs to include factors such as team loyalty and psychological involvement to the sport to assess whether the emotional experience differs based on these factors. Team loyalty and psychological involvement were not included in this research as the focus was on understanding the various emotions experienced by domestic cricket spectators. As such, including more factors would have meant that sufficient time and effort is not dedicated to the primary aim of the study. Hence, these factors were seen as more appropriate for a future study.

Due to the exploratory nature of this research, it was decided only to consider the emotional experience relating to domestic one-day games. Future research can compare the emotional experience of various formats of the cricket game including championship games, Twenty20 as well as the international games. The 25 item emotions measurement scale resulting from this study can be used at these various formats of the game to assess whether the emotional experience of cricket spectators differ in different formats of the game. Furthermore, this study also needs to be replicated across other sports such as tennis and football in order to assess whether the emotions identified here are context specific or applicable to all sporting contexts. For instance, tennis is usually an individual contest compared to the team contests of football and cricket. Hence, the aspects of the game would differ. Also, football is the most popular game in the UK (Intel, 2007) and also the teams have a passionate following compared to cricket teams. As such, team performance may play a key role in spectators' emotional experience. These differences in sports contexts would provide great insights into the emotions experienced by spectators at these various sports.

A major theoretical implication of this study was the conceptualisation of satisfaction as an emotion. Future research on emotions needs to use this conceptualisation to verify whether satisfaction is an emotion in multiple contexts such as service and product consumption. This would enhance and clarify researchers' as well as the practitioners' understanding of satisfaction and how it can be achieved. Furthermore, as shown in this research, personal construct theory provides an alternative way in which to understand the consumption experiences of consumers. More consumer research needs to utilise this approach to enhance both theoretical as well as practical understanding of consumption experiences.

## ***Conclusion***

This final chapter provided concluding thoughts on the study. This study aimed to understand what emotions are experienced by domestic one-day cricket spectators and this aim was achieved through the use of both repertory grids and a quantitative study. The results obtained from this study have both theoretical and practical implications. Most importantly, this study demonstrated the use of personal construct theory as an alternative way in which to study emotions as well as wider consumption experiences. It also highlighted the need to conceptualise and study satisfaction as an emotion in order to gain a better understanding of this concept. The study also had some limitations which included the limited use of repertory grids and use of a relatively small sample for the quantitative study. Future research can overcome these limitations in order to advance the understanding of emotions obtained here. Future research can also be carried out to further understanding of emotions both within the cricket context, other sports context, and the wider consumption contexts.

This research was a first step in trying to understand the emotional experience of cricket spectators. It was also a first exploration into the use of personal construct theory perspective of emotions in trying to overcome the prevalent issues in the consumption emotions literature. The resulting study has shed great insight into what emotions are experienced by domestic one-day cricket spectators and how these emotions relate to game experience and return intentions. Finally, it has also demonstrated that, through the use of alternative theories, the concept of emotion can be understood by researchers and practitioners with more clarity.

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## APPENDICES

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## Research Information Sheet

**Researcher:** Fathima Mazia Seyed Yassim

**Address:** University of Greenwich Business School,  
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London SE10 9LS.

**Email:** sf23@gre.ac.uk

**Working Title of Research:** Role of Emotions in Spectator Game Experience

**About the Research:** This research is part of a PhD project of the researcher. The aim is to understand the role of emotions experienced by cricket spectators watching a live limited-overs game in England. The information gathered from the research will help to:

- Identify what emotions are experienced by the spectators and why.
- Assist management in improving the game experience of spectators.

### **The Interview:**

- The interview is expected to last between 30 minutes to an hour approximately.
- The participant will be interviewed by the researcher (named above).
- You are free to decline answering any questions and to terminate the interview at any point in time.
- The information you provide will be fully confidential.
- Any personal information you provide will be held and used only by the researcher and will not be passed onto anyone.

### **Outcome of the Interview:**

- The interview findings will form part of the PhD thesis of the researcher.
- The findings may also be used to write and publish academic articles in the future.

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this study. Should you have any further questions regarding the study or your participation, please feel free to ask at any point during the interview or you can contact the researcher by email after the interview.

## Research Participant Consent Form

**Working Title:** The Role of Emotions in Spectator Game Experience

**Name of Researcher:** Fathima Mazia Seyed Yassim

- I confirm that I have received and understood the information sheet for the above study and have asked and received answers to any questions.
- I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason.
- I understand that the researcher will hold all information and data collected securely and in confidence.
- I understand that all information I provide will be fully confidential and all efforts will be made to ensure that I cannot be identified as a participant in the study.
- I wish to receive a transcript of my interview for my approval before it is included in the write up of the research.
- I agree to be interviewed for the above study.
- I agree for my interview to be audiotaped.

**Name of Participant:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Signature:** \_\_\_\_\_ **Date:** \_\_\_\_\_

(Optional Information)

**Email:** \_\_\_\_\_ **Tel:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Address:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Name of Researcher:** \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_



# WANTED

Cricket spectators willing to talk about their experience of watching first class one-day cricket\*

# REWARD

All participants will be entered into a prize draw to win one of the following prizes of their choice

- A Signed football shirt by Freddie Kanouté  
*(Seville FC, African Footballer of the Year 2007, former West Ham and Tottenham player)*
- A cricket bat signed by the England team of the 2007 Test Series v Sri Lanka
- A pair of Twenty20 tickets for any game of your choice in 2008/9\*\*

\* Participants need to be over the age of 18

\*\* Subject to availability.

# *Your chance to help the cause of One-day cricket!*

- Spectator interviews are being carried out as part of PhD/Doctoral research
- The interview is expected to last around an hour (approximate)
- Interview can be conducted at anytime during the game to suit your needs
- The interview will take place in the hospitality suite so you wouldn't have to miss any of the action on the field!
- Light refreshments will be provided for the participants

## **INTERESTED?**

Please contact Mazia on 0753 406 1415 for additional information or to arrange a time for the interview.



## **Field Notes from an Interview**

### **RBowl2005 – 1**

I arrived early to the game and had sufficient time to set up the interview room to before handing out the leaflets.

One of the staff members found someone willing to participate in the study and brought him to me. Participant was male in his late fifties. He was an academic and also a historian of Hampshire county cricket club. He was a very information rich participant. Unfortunately could not use all possible triadic combinations due to time constraints. But made sure every element was considered at least once. Didn't elicit too many constructs but felt that the few constructs elicited were quite core/super-ordinate. I felt that there was a lot of information embedded within the chat prior to the grid process. I enjoyed the interview and felt at ease. Once the interview was concluded, the participant sought me out later on to give me a copy of his book on the history of Hampshire cricket.

## Repertory Grid Interview Guide

1. Element elicitation – ‘If one day cricket games are composed of /made-up of events/activities that may fall into two categories a) on-field activities; and b) off-field activities, what would these events activities be?’ (participants would be asked to write whatever number of elements they like onto cards)
  - 1.1. Once the elements are written on cards, interviewer will review them and if required, convert them all into ‘-ing’ words/phrase in consultation with the participant.
  
2. Triadic Elicitation – ‘Can you tell me something that two of these have in common, that makes them different from the third in terms of how they make you feel?’
  - 2.1. If required laddering down questions will be asked to identify the emotion(s) that the participant is referring/alluding to – e.g. how do you feel in that situation? What does that make you feel? Etc.
  - 2.2. Once elicitation is finished two supplied constructs will be provided for the participants to rate. These are: ‘overall a positive game experience – overall a negative game experience’ and ‘would make me want to go to the game again – wouldn’t make me want to go to the game again’
  
3. Rating – constructs will be rated on a five point scale. The participant will be asked to rate each construct as they are elicited before proceeding with further elicitation.

## Repertory Grids

Lords405-1

		Exciting run chase	Watching one-sided game	Lots of sixes	Something unusual	Hot summers day	Cold miserable day	Sit near annoying people		C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8
	1								5								
C1	Exciting	√ 1 (5)	X 5 (1)	√ 2 (4)	2 (4)	3 (3)	4 (2)	3 (3)	Dull	-						6 57% I	6 57% H
C2	Annoying	3 (3)	3 (3)	3 (3)	3 (3)	X 5 (1)	√ 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	Relaxed							19	15
C3	Frustrating	5 (1)	1 (5)	5 (1)	4 (2)	X 5 (1)	√ 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	Glad to be alive							26	20
C4	Contentmnet	√ 3 (3)	5 (1)	3 (3)	3 (3)	√ 1 (5)	X 5 (1)	5 (1)	Frustration							5 64% I	11 21% L
C5	On-edge	√ 1 (5)	4 (2)	2 (4)	2 (4)	√ 3 (3)	X 3 (3)	3 (3)	Bored							8 43% L	6 57% H
C6	Memorable/Unusual	2 (4)	X 5 (1)	√ 2 (4)	√ 1 (5)	3 (3)	3 (3)	3 (3)	Predictable							7 50% I	7 50% H
C7	Overall positive game experience	1 (5)	5 (1)	2 (4)	1 (5)	1 (5)	5 (1)	5 (1)	Overall negative game experience	20	7 50% I	2 86% H	21	18	19	-	6
C8	Would encourage me to go to game	1	2	2	1	1	4	3	Would discourage me from going to game	14	9 36% I	8 43% I	15	12	13	20	-

Lords405-3

1	Watching a lot of people enjoying	Slow moving game	Being with friends	Eating and drinking	Being by yourself	Queing for food	Not being able to follow the game	Feeling the tradition	5	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8
Social/Relaxed/At ease	√ 1 (5)	2 (4)	1 (5)	√ 2 (4)	4 (2)	5 (1)	X 3 (3)	3 (3)	Hectic/Non-communal							3 81% H	4 75% I
Spirit of game/Knowing/Fun/Interesting	2 (4)	√ 1 (5)	√ 2 (4)	3 (3)	X 5 (1)	4 (2)	3 (3)	2 (4)	Lost/Not know whats going on							4 75% I	3 81% H
Lost/Not know whats going on/Excluded	4 (2)	4 (2)	5 (1)	3 (3)	1 (5)	2 (4)	√ 3 (3)	X 2 (4)	Inclusive							18	17
Well/Social mood/Leisure Activity/ Occasion	2 (4)	2 (4)	1 (5)	√ 3 (3)	5 (1)	4 (2)	X 4 (2)	3 (3)	Uncomfortable/Anxiety/Missing							4 75% I	5 69% L
Relaxed about self/ Socialising	√ 1 (5)	√ 2 (4)	1 (5)	X 3 (3)	5 (1)	3 (3)	3 (3)	3 (3)	Not communal/In a hurry							3 81% H	4 75% I
All day	√ 1 (5)	√ 2 (4)	1 (5)	X 4 (2)	5 (1)	4 (2)	3 (3)	3 (3)	Occasional							3 81% H	4 75% I
Overall positive game experience	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	3 (3)	5 (1)	5 (1)	3 (3)	3 (3)	Overall negative game experience	19	18	4 75% I	18	17	19	-	3
Would encourage me to go to game	1	1	1	2	5	4	3	2	Would discourage me from going to game	20	19	5 69% L	19	18	18	21	-

Oval 505-1

		Kent doing well	Good weather	Close match	Never sure who will win	Bad weather	Only a game		C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7
	1							5							
C1	Feeling settled	√ 2 (4)	√ 1 (5)	3 (3)	3 (3)	5 (1)	X 2 (4)	Dissapointed						3 75% H	4 67% I
C2	A little tense	3 (3)	3 (3)	√ 2 (4)	√ 2 (4)	X 3 (3)	X 3 (3)	Not too worried						5 58% L	4 67% I
C3	Not too emotionally involved	2 (4)	2 (4)	2 (4)	√ 2 (4)	X 3 (3)	√ 2 (4)	Too involved						4 67% I	5 58% L
C4	Makes the whole thing worthwhile	√ 3 (3)	X 1 (5)	√ 2 (4)	2 (4)	5 (1)	2 (4)	Wasting the day						2 83% H	3 75% H
C5	Escape	√ 3 (3)	X 1 (5)	√ 3 (3)	2 (4)	5 (1)	1 (5)	Not enjoying it						2 83% H	3 75% H
C6	Overall positive game experience	3 (3)	2 (4)	3 (3)	2 (4)	5 (1)	2 (4)	Overall negative game experience	11	7	10	12	12	-	1
C7	Would encourage me to go to game	3	3	3	2	5	2	Would discourage me from going to game	10	6	9	11	11	9	-

Oval505-2

	1	Quality of cricket	Weather	Bringing my food	Having good company	An event/Day out	Petty officiladom	Bad weather	Reluctance to restart	Rowdy crowd behaviour	5	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8
<b>C1</b>	Happy	X 1 (5)	√ 2 (4)	√ 3 (3)	1 1 (5)	2 2 (4)	5 5 (1)	5 5 (1)	4 4 (2)	4 4 (2)	Unhappy (not being able to go/being denied option)							4 78% H	3 83% H
<b>C2</b>	Sharing/Pleasantness	2 (4)	2 (4)	3 (3)	√ 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	X 4 (2)	3 (3)	4 (2)	5 (1)	Threatened							8 56% I	7 61% I
<b>C3</b>	Focus/Settledness	1 (5)	2 (4)	3 (3)	√ 2 (4)	√ 2 (4)	X 3 (3)	5 (1)	4 (2)	5 (1)	Unsettled							4 78% H	3 83% H
<b>C4</b>	Agitated/Tension	1 (5)	5 (1)	5 (1)	5 (1)	3 (3)	1 (5)	2 (4)	2 (4)	X 1 (5)	Calmness							20 33% L	21 39% L
<b>C5</b>	Happy to be alive	1 (5)	1 (5)	3 (3)	√ 1 (5)	2 (4)	4 (2)	4 (2)	3 (3)	X 4 (2)	Depressed/Despairing							4 78% H	3 83% H
<b>C6</b>	Idealic/Peace	1 (5)	1 (5)	3 (3)	√ 2 (4)	3 (3)	4 (2)	4 (2)	4 (2)	X 4 (2)	Awful/Low							5 72% H	2 89% H
<b>C7</b>	Overall positive game experience	1 (5)	2 (4)	2 (4)	2 (4)	2 (4)	4 (2)	5 (1)	3 (3)	4 (2)	Overall negative game experience	22	20	20	12 33% L	20	19	-	3
<b>C8</b>	Would encourage me to go to game	1	1	3	2	2	4	5	4	4	Would discourage me from going to game	23	21	21	11 39% L	21	20	21	-

Hove805-1

		Watching Sussex win	Having good weather	Comfortable seating	Chatting to good company	Watching sussex play badly	Having drunks around	Watching abusive behaviour towards players		C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8
	1								5								
<b>C1</b>	Day out	√ 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	2 (4)	2 (4)	X 4 (2)	5 (1)	5 (1)	Having to go to work/No play							1 93% H	3 79% I
<b>C2</b>	Comfort	1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	√ 2 (4)	X 2 (4)	3 (3)	5 (1)	5 (1)	Uncomfortable							2 86% I	2 86% H
<b>C3</b>	Relaxing	1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	X 2 (4)	2 (4)	5 (1)	5 (1)	Annoyed							4 71% I	2 86% H
<b>C4</b>	Happy	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	X 2 (4)	√ 4 (2)	√ 5 (1)	5 (1)	Miserable							2 86% I	4 71% I
<b>C5</b>	Annoying	5 (1)	5 (1)	4 (2)	4 (2)	3 (3)	1 (5)	1 (5)	Enjoying without spoiling it							20	20
<b>C6</b>	Spoils your day	5 (1)	5 (1)	4 (2)	4 (2)	X 2 (1)	√ 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	Behaviour not happening/enjoying							21	19
<b>C7</b>	Overall positive game experience	1 (5)	1 (5)	2 (4)	3 (3)	4 (2)	5 (1)	5 (1)	Overall negative game experience	21	20	20	22	2 86% I	4 71% I	-	2
<b>C8</b>	Would encourage me to go to game	1	1	2	3	2	5	5	Would discourage me from going to game	19	20	22	20	2 86% H	2 86% H	18	-



North1005-1

		Watching my team play well	Having a good crowd	Having a good PA/tannoy communication	Having people say nasty things about players	Watching umpired make bad decisions	Experiencing a general good day out		C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6
	1							5						
C1	Make me feel happy	√ 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	X 1 (5)	5 (1)	5 (1)	1 (5)	Miserable/Sad/Lost game					4 67% L	4 67% L
C2	Feeling good	√ 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	X 5 (1)	5 (1)	1 (5)	Cheesed off/Frustrated					4 67% L	4 67% L
C3	Not like	5 (1)	5 (1)	X 4 (2)	√ 1 (5)	√ 2 (4)	5 (1)	Liking it					18 83% I	18 92% H
C4	Don't miss it/Want to know	5 (1)	5 (1)	√ 3 (3)	1 (5)	X 2 (4)	√ 5 (1)	Making sure don't miss it					17 83% I	17 92% H
C5	Overall positive game experience	1 (5)	1 (5)	3 (3)	5 (1)	3 (3)	1 (5)	Overall negative game experience	20	20	2 83% I	1 92% H	-	0
C6	Would encourage me to go to game	1	1	3	5	3	1	Would discourage me from going to game	20	20	2 2 83%	1 1 92%	16	-

North1005-2

		Having time away	Experiencing good weather	Watching lots of scoring	Watching teams playing well	Experiencing cold weather	Experiencing a slow game		C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6
	1							5						
<b>C1</b>	Relaxed/Time on own	√ 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	X 2 (4)	2 (4)	4 (2)	3 (3)	Not worth it					4 67% L	3 75% I
<b>C2</b>	Adrenaline/Entertainment	3 (3)	3 (3)	√ 1 (5)	√ 2 (4)	X 4 (2)	4 (2)	No atmosphere/Quiet/Slow					2 83% H	3 75% I
<b>C3</b>	Something going on	3 (3)	3 (3)	1 (5)	X 2 (4)	√ 4 (2)	√ 4 (2)	Nothing happening					2 83% H	3 75% I
<b>C4</b>	Improved atmosphere	3 (3)	√ 3 (3)	2 (4)	√ 2 (4)	4 (2)	X 4 (2)	No atmosphere					3 75% I	2 83% H
<b>C5</b>	Overall positive game experience	2 (4)	2 (4)	1 (5)	2 (4)	4 (2)	4 (2)	Overall negative game experience	14	12	12	11	-	1
<b>C6</b>	Would encourage me to go to game	2	2	2	2	4	4	Would discourage me from going to game	13	11	11	10	13	-

Cntrbry1105-1

		Having good weather	Having local teams compete	Having a result	Being by myself	Having it rain		C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8
	1						5								
C1	Not wasting time	√ 5 (1)	X 4 (2)	√ 5 (1)	√ 3 (3)	√ 1 (5)	Having a good day							13	15
C2	Getting away/escape	√ 1 (5)	X 2 (4)	√ 2 (4)	√ 3 (3)	√ 1 (5)	Stuck in the middle/at work							6 40% L	6 40% L
C3	Can't control/out of control	√ 1 (5)	X 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	√ 3 (3)	√ 1 (5)	Something you can control							6 40% L	4 60% I
C4	Contrast to work	√ 3 (3)	X 3 (3)	√ 3 (3)	√ 3 (3)	√ 5 (1)	Stuck indoors with lost of people							4 60% I	6 40% L
C5	Hoping something would happen	√ 1 (5)	X 3 (3)	√ 1 (5)	√ 4 (2)	√ 1 (5)	Worry							5 50% I	7 30% L
C6	Different/variety	√ 5 (1)	X 3 (3)	√ 1 (5)	√ 3 (3)	√ 5 (1)	Routine/boring/mundane							4 60% I	6 40% L
C7	Overall positive game experience	√ 1 (5)	X 3 (3)	√ 1 (5)	√ 3 (3)	√ 5 (1)	Overall negative game experience	1 90% H	8	10	8	9	8	-	2
C8	Would encourage me to got to game	√ 1 (5)	X 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	√ 3 (5)	√ 5 (1)	Would discourage me from going to the game	1 90% H	10	12	10	11	10	14	-

Cntrbry1105-2

	1	Meeting friends/Cricket colleagues	Having good weather	Watching the technical aspect of players	Feeling of camaraderie and history of game	Having rain	Having bad behaviour by spectators	5	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7
<b>C1</b>	Satisfied	√ 1 (5)	X 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	1 (5)	5 (1)	5 (1)	Dissapointed						2 83% H	3 75% H
<b>C2</b>	Pleased/Pleasant	√ 1 (5)	X 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	1 (5)	5 (1)	5 (1)	Unhappy						2 83% H	3 75% H
<b>C3</b>	Proud	3 (3)	√ 3 (3)	X 3 (3)	√ 3 (3)	3 (3)	5 (1)	Indignant						8 33% L	7 42% L
<b>C4</b>	Wouldn't like/Low	X 5 (1)	5 (1)	5 (1)	X 5 (1)	√ 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	Feel good						22	21
<b>C5</b>	Unhappy	X 5 (1)	5 (1)	5 (1)	5 (1)	√ 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	Happy						22	21
<b>C6</b>	Overall positive game experience	2 (4)	1 (5)	1 (5)	2 (4)	5 (1)	5 (1)	Overall negative game experience	22	22	12	2 83% H	2 83% H	-	1
<b>C7</b>	Would encourage me to go to game	2	1	1	2	4	5	Would discourage me from going to game	21	21	11	3 75% H	3 75% H	19	-

Cntrbry1105-3

	Watching two good teams play	Watching high scoring games	Watching a close game	Having a day out with friends	Having cold weather	Having a few bad spectators		C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8
1							5								
Excitement	√ 2 (4)	√ 1 (5)	X 1 (5)	1 (5)	4 (2)	3 (3)	Sorry for the other team							2 83% H	2 83% H
Pumped up	X 1 (5)	1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	3 (3)	3 (3)	Demoralised							2 83% H	2 83% H
Could go either way	√ 5 (1)	1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	1 (5)	X 4 (2)	4 (2)	A tie							4 67% I	4 67% I
Spoiling the game	√ 5 (1)	5 (1)	4 (2)	X 1 (5)	5 (1)	√ 1 (5)	A good day out							15	15
Involvement	1 (5)	1 (5)	X 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	√ 4 (2)	4 (2)	Be on own							0 100% H	0 100% H
Good laugh	1 (5)	X 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	4 (2)	4 (2)	Not having a good laugh							0 100% H	0 100% H
Overall positive game experience	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	4 (2)	4 (2)	Overall negative game experience	18	18	16	9 25% L	20	20	-	0
Would encourage me to go to game	1	1	1	1	4	4	Would discourage me from going to game	18	18	16	9 25% L	20	20	20	-

Cntrbry1105-4

		Not near drinkers	Competitive game	Not near shouter	Having warm weather	Crowd enjoying cricket	Kent playing well	Individual batting well	Aggressive crowd behaviour	Kids playing in front	Beery loud behaviour		C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8	C9
	1											5									
C1	Irritated/Distracted	√ 5 (1)	X 4 (2)	√ 4 (2)	3 (3)	4 (2)	5 (1)	5 (1)	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	Relief								35	31
C2	Barmy in spirit/Put a smile on my face	√ 2 (4)	X 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	X 1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	2 (4)	5 (1)	5 (1)	5 (1)	Barricaded/Miserable/Tense								2 90% H	4 80% H
C3	Feel part of it/Social	X 3 (3)			√ 3 (3)	√ 1 (5)	1 (5)	3 (3)	4 (2)	4 (2)	5 (1)	Being isolated								10 50% L	6 70% I
C4	Not tense/Well being	1 (5)	3 (3)	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	3 (3)	5 (1)	4 (2)	5 (1)	Concentrated								5 75% I	5 75% H
C5	Threatened/Frightening	4 (2)	3 (3)	4 (2)	4 (2)	5 (1)	4 (2)	3 (3)	√ 1 (5)	X 2 (4)	√ 1 (5)	Safe/Supported								31	27
C6	Frustrating	5 (1)	3 (3)	5 (1)	4 (2)	5 (1)	5 (1)	4 (2)	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	Freedom								36	32
C7	Contentment	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	5 (1)	5 (1)	5 (1)	Dissapointment								0 100% H	4 80% H
C8	Overall positive game experience	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	5 (1)	5 (1)	5 (1)	Overall negative game experience	5 75% I	38	30	35	9 55% L	4 80% I	40	-	4
													5	34	26	31	7	4	36	36	-

<b>C9</b>	Would encourage me to go to game	1	1	1	3	1	1	2	5	4	5	Would discourage me from going to game	75%			65%	80%		
													H			L	H		

RBowl2005-1

		Hampshire doing well	Winning cup finals	Having good weather	Midweek games	Watching floodlit games	Full crowds	Outstanding performances	Raining/Bad weather	Travelling and game lost	One-sided game	Bad behaviour by players/spectators							
	1												5						
<b>C1</b>	Exuberance/Sense of community	√ 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	X 2 (4)	3 (3)	3 (3)	2 (4)	3 (3)	5 (1)	5 (1)	3 (3)	5 (1)	Isolation				5 77% L	9 59% L	
<b>C2</b>	Contended/A nice place to be	1 (5)	2 (4)	1 (5)	X 2 (4)	√ 2 (4)	√ 2 (4)	2 (4)	5 (1)	5 (1)	3 (3)	5 (1)	Uncomfortable/Dissapointed				2 91% H	6 73% H	
<b>C3</b>	Miserable	5 (1)	5 (1)	5 (1)	4 (2)	4 (2)	3 (3)	4 (2)	X 1 (5)	√ 1 (5)	3 (3)	1 (5)	Contentment					30	34
<b>C4</b>	Overall positive game experience	1 (5)	1 (5)	1 (5)	2 (4)	2 (4)	3 (3)	2 (4)	5 (1)	5 (1)	3 (3)	5 (1)	Overall negative game experience	27	30		0 100% H	-	4
<b>C5</b>	Would encourage me to go to game	1	1	1	1	2	4	1	5	5	4	5	Would discourage me from going to game	29	32		4 82% H	34	-

## Questionnaire Sent to Panel of Judges

Once you have read the description of each construct/category, please indicate how well each item/word fits into the respective category;

- 1 – Very good fit**
- 2 – Good fit**
- 3 – Neither good nor bad**
- 4 – Bad fit**
- 5 – Very bad fit**

		1	2	3	4	5
When I am at a one day cricket game, I feel;						
Contentment	content					
	fulfilled					
	calm					
	serene					
	peaceful					
	at rest					
	relaxed					
Startle/Surprise	a sense of surprise					
	amazed					
	astonished					
	attentive					
	alert					
	excited					
	It's a chance to break out of the daily routine					
Happiness	happy					
	joyful					
	I know what one day cricket is about					
	I know what to expect					
	pleased					
	delighted					
	cheerful					
Anxiety	nervous					
	worried					
	tense					
	I don't know what to expect					
	unsettled					
	lost					
	agitated					
	anxious					
	uneasy					
Anger	enraged					
	angry					



	mad								
	frustrated								
	irritated								
	annoyed								
Satisfaction	a sense of involvement								
	satisfied								
	Its a social activity								
	a sense of community								
	part of the social atmosphere								
	I can have a good laugh with the other spectators								
	a sense of approval								
Contempt/Disgust	distaste								
	disgusted								
	revulsion								
	contemptuous								
	scornful								
	disdainful								
	disapproval								
Sadness	downhearted								
	sad								
	discouraged								
	depressed								
	miserable								
	that my day is spoilt								
	gloomy								
sorrowful									
Threat	threatened								
	unsafe								
	unpleasant								
	intimidated								
	at risk								
Doubt	hesitant								
	uncertain								
	a sense of reservation								
	worried								
	doubtful								
	unsure								
Game Experience	I have a positive experience when I attend one day cricket games								
	My experiences when attending a cricket game is usually positive								
	At the end of my day at one day cricket, I often feel that I have had a good experience								
	My overall experience of attending one day cricket is positive								

**Any additional comments/Suggestions:**

## **Three Different Designs of Questionnaire**

# Cricket Spectator Survey

9a)

1. Below are some statements relating to your experience of watching domestic one-day cricket. Please circle ONE number for each statement and ensure you respond to all the statements.

When I am at a domestic, one-day cricket game, I feel;

	1 Never	2 Hardly ever	3 Sometimes	4 Often	5 Very often
Unsettled	1	2	3	4	5
Lost	1	2	3	4	5
Satisfied	1	2	3	4	5
Angry	1	2	3	4	5
Peaceful	1	2	3	4	5
At rest	1	2	3	4	5
Relaxed	1	2	3	4	5
A sense of surprise	1	2	3	4	5
Attentive	1	2	3	4	5
Astonished	1	2	3	4	5
Uneasy	1	2	3	4	5
Alert	1	2	3	4	5
Excited	1	2	3	4	5
Content	1	2	3	4	5
Agitated	1	2	3	4	5
It's a chance to break out of the daily routine	1	2	3	4	5
Fulfilled	1	2	3	4	5
Cheerful	1	2	3	4	5
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
Irritated	1	2	3	4	5
Amazed	1	2	3	4	5
Distaste	1	2	3	4	5
Worried	1	2	3	4	5
Annoyed	1	2	3	4	5
I don't know what to expect	1	2	3	4	5
Mad	1	2	3	4	5
A sense of involvement	1	2	3	4	5
A sense of community	1	2	3	4	5
Anxious	1	2	3	4	5
Enraged	1	2	3	4	5
Scornful	1	2	3	4	5

Discouraged	1	2	3	4	5
	1 Never	2 Hardly ever	3 Sometimes	4 Often	5 Very often
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5
Delighted	1	2	3	4	5
It's a social activity	1	2	3	4	5
Frustrated	1	2	3	4	5
Gloomy	1	2	3	4	5
Calm	1	2	3	4	5
Unsafe	1	2	3	4	5
Uncertain	1	2	3	4	5
Serene	1	2	3	4	5
I know what one day cricket is about	1	2	3	4	5
Part of the social atmosphere	1	2	3	4	5
Intimidated	1	2	3	4	5
A sense of approval	1	2	3	4	5
That my day is spoilt	1	2	3	4	5
Downhearted	1	2	3	4	5
Sad	1	2	3	4	5
Contemptuous	1	2	3	4	5
Worried	1	2	3	4	5
Disdainful	1	2	3	4	5
Threatened	1	2	3	4	5
I know what to expect	1	2	3	4	5
Revulsion	1	2	3	4	5
Pleased	1	2	3	4	5
Depressed	1	2	3	4	5
Miserable	1	2	3	4	5
Disgusted	1	2	3	4	5
Hesitant	1	2	3	4	5
Sorrowful	1	2	3	4	5
I can have a good laugh with the other spectators	1	2	3	4	5
Unsure	1	2	3	4	5
Happy	1	2	3	4	5
Doubtful	1	2	3	4	5
Joyful	1	2	3	4	5
Tense	1	2	3	4	5
Disapproval	1	2	3	4	5
A sense of reservation	1	2	3	4	5

At risk	1	2	3	4	5
---------	---	---	---	---	---

**2. Please read the statements below and circle ONE number for each statement that best describes your agreement or disagreement with the statements. Please complete all the statements.**

	1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree
I will attend one day cricket games in the future	1	2	3	4	5
My experiences when attending a cricket game is usually positive	1	2	3	4	5
Its highly likely that I would attend one day cricket games in the future	1	2	3	4	5
My overall experience of attending one day cricket is positive	1	2	3	4	5
I feel I have had a positive experience when I have attended one day cricket	1	2	3	4	5
Attending another one day cricket game is a possibility	1	2	3	4	5
At the end of my day at one day cricket, I often feel that I have had a good experience	1	2	3	4	5
I would attend one day cricket games during the next season	1	2	3	4	5
I have a positive experience when I attend one day cricket games	1	2	3	4	5

**3. I attended domestic one-day cricket matches.....(please tick one)**

- None last season......                      At least fifteen days last season.....
- At least one day last season..                      Almost every game last season.....
- At least five days last season.                      Every game last season.....
- At least ten days last season...

**4. My age is.....**

- Under 25.....                       45-54.....                      75+.....
- 25-34.....                       55-64.....
- 35-44.....                       65-74.....

**5. I am.....**

- Male.....                       F Female.....

**6. I am a member of a county cricket club.....**

- Yes.....                      No.....

**Thank you very much for your participation. Your assistant is very much appreciated.**

## Cricket Spectator Survey

9b)

Below are some statements relating to your experience of watching a domestic one-day cricket match. Please circle ONE number for each statement.

1. When I am at a domestic, one-day cricket game, I feel;

	1	Never	2	Hardly ever	3	Sometimes	4	Often	5	Very often
Unsettled										
Lost										
Satisfied										
Angry										
Peaceful										
At rest										
Relaxed										
A sense of surprise										
Attentive										
Astonished										
Uneasy										
Alert										
Excited										
Content										
Agitated										
It's a chance to break out of the daily routine										
Fulfilled										
Cheerful										
Nervous										
Irritated										
Amazed										
Distaste										
Worried										
Annoyed										
I don't know what to expect										
Mad										
A sense of involvement										
A sense of community										
Anxious										



Happy  
 Doubtful  
 Joyful  
 Tense

My experiences when attending a cricket game is positive  
 My overall experience of attending one day cricket is positive  
 I plan to attend one day cricket games in the future  
 At the end of my day at one day cricket, I often feel that I have had a good experience  
 I plan to attend one day cricket matches during the next season


**2. I attended domestic one-day cricket matches.....(please tick one)**

- None last season.....
- At least one day last season.....
- At least five days last season.....
- At least ten days last season.....
- At least fifteen days last season.....

**3. I am.....**

- Male.....
- Female.....

**4. My age is.....**

- Under 25.....
- 25-34.....
- 35-44.....
- 45-54.....
- 55-64.....
- 65+.....

**5. I am a member of a county cricket club.....**

- Yes.....
- No.....



# Cricket Spectator Survey

9c)

**1. Below are some statements relating to your experience of watching a domestic one-day cricket match. Please circle ONE number for each statement and ensure you respond to all the statements.**

When I am at a domestic, one-day cricket game, I feel;

	1	2	3	4	5
	Never	Hardly ever	Sometimes	Often	Very often
Unsettled .....	1	2	3	4	5
Lost.....	1	2	3	4	5
Satisfied.....	1	2	3	4	5
Angry.....	1	2	3	4	5
Peaceful.....	1	2	3	4	5
At rest.....	1	2	3	4	5
Relaxed.....	1	2	3	4	5
A sense of surprise.....	1	2	3	4	5
Attentive.....	1	2	3	4	5
Astonished.....	1	2	3	4	5
Uneasy.....	1	2	3	4	5
Alert.....	1	2	3	4	5
Excited.....	1	2	3	4	5
Content.....	1	2	3	4	5
Agitated.....	1	2	3	4	5
It's a chance to break out of the daily routine.....	1	2	3	4	5
Fulfilled.....	1	2	3	4	5
Cheerful.....	1	2	3	4	5
Nervous.....	1	2	3	4	5
Irritated.....	1	2	3	4	5
Amazed.....	1	2	3	4	5
Distaste.....	1	2	3	4	5
Worried.....	1	2	3	4	5
Annoyed.....	1	2	3	4	5
I don't know what to expect.....	1	2	3	4	5
Mad.....	1	2	3	4	5

	<b>1</b>	<b>Never</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>Hardly ever</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>Often</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>Very often</b>
A sense of community.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Anxious.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Discouraged.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Enraged.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Scornful.....	1	2	3	4	5					
It's a social activity.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Frustrated.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Gloomy.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Calm.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Unsafe.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Uncertain.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Serene.....	1	2	3	4	5					
I know what one day cricket is about.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Part of the social atmosphere.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Intimidated.....	1	2	3	4	5					
A sense of approval.....	1	2	3	4	5					
That my day is spoilt.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Downhearted.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Sad.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Contemptuous.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Worried.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Disdainful.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Threatened.....	1	2	3	4	5					
I know what to expect.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Revulsion.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Pleased.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Depressed.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Miserable.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Disgusted.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Hesitant.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Sorrowful.....	1	2	3	4	5					
I can have a good laugh with the other spectators.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Unsure.....	1	2	3	4	5					
Unpleasant.....	1	2	3	4	5					

	1	2	3	4	5
	Never	Hardly ever	Sometimes	Often	Very often
Delighted.....	1	2	3	4	5
At risk.....	1	2	3	4	5
I have a positive experience when I attend one day cricket games....	1	2	3	4	5
Disapproval.....	1	2	3	4	5
A sense of reservation.....	1	2	3	4	5
Happy.....	1	2	3	4	5
Doubtful.....	1	2	3	4	5
Joyful.....	1	2	3	4	5
Tense.....	1	2	3	4	5
My experiences when attending a cricket game is positive.....	1	2	3	4	5
My overall experience of attending one day cricket is positive.....	1	2	3	4	5
I plan to attend one day cricket games in the future.....	1	2	3	4	5
At the end of my day at one day cricket, I often feel that I have had a good experience.....	1	2	3	4	5
I plan to attend one day cricket matches during the next season.....	1	2	3	4	5

**2. I attended domestic one-day cricket matches.....(please tick one)**

- |                                                                     |                                                                        |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <i>None last season.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/>               | <i>At least fifteen days last season.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <i>At least one day last season.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/>   | <i>Almost every game last season.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/>     |
| <i>At least five days last season.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/> | <i>Every game last season.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/>            |
| <i>At least ten days last season.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/>  |                                                                        |

**3. I am.....**

- |                                           |                                             |
|-------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|
| <i>Male.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/> | <i>Female.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/> |
|-------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|

**4. My age is.....**

- |                                               |                                            |                                          |
|-----------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|
| <i>Under 25.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/> | <i>45-54.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/> | <i>75+.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <i>25-34.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/>    | <i>55-64.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/> |                                          |
| <i>35-44.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/>    | <i>65-74.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/> |                                          |

**5. I am a member of a county cricket club.....**

- |                                          |                                         |
|------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------|
| <i>Yes.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/> | <i>No.....</i> <input type="checkbox"/> |
|------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------|

## Reliability Analysis Statistics

### *Happiness*

**Inter-Item Correlation Matrix**

	Fulfilled	Joyful	Delighted	Pleased	Happy	Cheerful
Fulfilled	1.000	.429	.440	.437	.429	.459
Joyful	.429	1.000	.452	.447	.520	.383
Delighted	.440	.452	1.000	.411	.319	.342
Pleased	.437	.447	.411	1.000	.496	.464
Happy	.429	.520	.319	.496	1.000	.430
Cheerful	.459	.383	.342	.464	.430	1.000

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Fulfilled	19.17	7.766	.594	.362	.788
Joyful	19.13	7.404	.609	.393	.786
Delighted	19.30	8.362	.528	.307	.802
Pleased	18.98	7.801	.615	.386	.784
Happy	18.82	7.724	.601	.393	.787
Cheerful	18.75	8.207	.560	.330	.796

### *Anxiety*

**Inter-Item Correlation Matrix**

	Anxious	Nervous	Worried	Irritated	Frustrated
Anxious	1.000	.584	.421	.484	.618
Nervous	.584	1.000	.443	.444	.548
Worried	.421	.443	1.000	.478	.437
Irritated	.484	.444	.478	1.000	.390
Frustrated	.618	.548	.437	.390	1.000

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Anxious	7.58	7.440	.689	.503	.761
Nervous	7.98	8.568	.654	.436	.779
Worried	7.61	8.655	.557	.327	.801
Irritated	7.32	8.295	.559	.341	.801
Frustrated	7.51	7.180	.641	.454	.780

***Doubt*****Inter-Item Correlation Matrix**

	Unsure	Doubtful	Uncertain	Disapproval	Contemptuous
Unsure	1.000	.638	.568	.362	.376
Doubtful	.638	1.000	.470	.406	.348
Uncertain	.568	.470	1.000	.301	.234
Disapproval	.362	.406	.301	1.000	.501
Contemptuous	.376	.348	.234	.501	1.000

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Unsure	6.06	4.873	.672	.519	.706
Doubtful	5.92	4.874	.634	.456	.717
Uncertain	5.96	5.065	.519	.348	.758
Disapproval	6.05	5.301	.511	.321	.759
Contemptuous	6.17	5.541	.470	.297	.771

## *Content*

**Inter-Item Correlation Matrix**

	Peaceful	At rest	Relaxed
Peaceful	1.000	.704	.574
At rest	.704	1.000	.616
Relaxed	.574	.616	1.000

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Peaceful	8.12	2.067	.715	.527	.760
At rest	8.07	2.005	.746	.563	.727
Relaxed	7.81	2.413	.645	.419	.826

## *Startle*

**Inter-Item Correlation Matrix**

	Astonished	A sense of surprise	Amazed
Astonished	1.000	.511	.579
A sense of surprise	.511	1.000	.384
Amazed	.579	.384	1.000

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Astonished	5.49	2.393	.653	.433	.554
A sense of surprise	5.14	2.624	.505	.273	.733
Amazed	5.32	2.693	.552	.346	.676

## Satisfaction

**Inter-Item Correlation Matrix**

	Part of the Social Atmosphere	It's a Social Activity	I can have a good laugh with the other spectators
Part of the social atmosphere	1.000	.535	.401
It's a social activity	.535	1.000	.351
I can have a good laugh with the other spectators	.401	.351	1.000

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Part of the social atmosphere	7.71	1.961	.565	.338	.518
It's a social activity	7.55	2.201	.528	.308	.572
I can have a good laugh with the other spectators	7.75	2.207	.430	.187	.695

## Game Experience

**Inter-Item Correlation Matrix**

	1	2	3	4	5
My experience when attending a cricket game is usually positive	1.000	.626	.714	.647	.694
My overall experience of attending one day cricket is positive	.626	1.000	.807	.570	.563
I feel I have had a positive experience when I have attended one day cricket	.714	.807	1.000	.655	.701
At the end of my day at one day cricket, I often feel I have had a good experience	.647	.570	.655	1.000	.800
I have a positive experience when I attend one day cricket games	.694	.563	.701	.800	1.000

**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
My experience when attending a cricket game is usually positive	18.25	4.274	.768	.596	.895
My overall experience of attending one day cricket is positive	18.20	4.235	.726	.662	.904
I feel I have had a positive experience when I have attended one day cricket	18.22	4.173	.839	.758	.880
At the end of my day at one day cricket, I often feel I have had a good experience	18.23	4.283	.765	.667	.895
I have a positive experience when I attend one day cricket games	18.21	4.121	.793	.716	.890

***Return Intentions***

**Inter-Item Correlation Matrix**

	1	2	3	4
I will attend one day cricket games in the future	1.000	.543	.328	.694
Its highly likely that I would attend one day cricket games in the future	.543	1.000	.225	.422
Attending another cricket game is a possibility	.328	.225	1.000	.431
I would attend one day cricket games during the next season	.694	.422	.431	1.000



**Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I will attend one day cricket games in the future	14.07	2.322	.675	.557	.587
Its highly likely that I would attend one day cricket games in the future	14.22	1.861	.473	.300	.713
Attending another cricket game is a possibility	14.13	2.415	.371	.189	.739
I would attend one day cricket games during the next season	14.10	2.365	.650	.529	.601

## Post Hoc Tests for ANOVA

### *Happiness*

#### Multiple Comparisons

Happiness

Hochberg

(I) Attendance Recoded	(J) Attendance Recoded	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Infrequent	Moderately frequent	-.22222	.09326	.053	-.4467	.0022
	Frequent	-.35897*	.08626	.000	-.5665	-.1514
Moderately frequent	Infrequent	.22222	.09326	.053	-.0022	.4467
	Frequent	-.13675	.09248	.365	-.3593	.0858
Frequent	Infrequent	.35897*	.08626	.000	.1514	.5665
	Moderately frequent	.13675	.09248	.365	-.0858	.3593

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

### *Anxiety*

#### Multiple Comparisons

Anxiety

Hochberg

(I) Attendance Recoded	(J) Attendance Recoded	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Infrequent	Moderately frequent	-.28377	.11885	.053	-.5698	.0022
	Frequent	-.29067*	.10993	.026	-.5552	-.0261
Moderately frequent	Infrequent	.28377	.11885	.053	-.0022	.5698
	Frequent	-.00690	.11785	1.000	-.2905	.2767
Frequent	Infrequent	.29067*	.10993	.026	.0261	.5552
	Moderately frequent	.00690	.11785	1.000	-.2767	.2905

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

## Satisfaction

### Multiple Comparisons

Satisfaction

Hochberg

(I) Attendance Recoded	(J) Attendance Recoded	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Infrequent	Moderately frequent	-.05119	.11569	.960	-.3296	.2272
	Frequent	-.36684*	.10700	.002	-.6243	-.1094
Moderately frequent	Infrequent	.05119	.11569	.960	-.2272	.3296
	Frequent	-.31565*	.11471	.019	-.5917	-.0396
Frequent	Infrequent	.36684*	.10700	.002	.1094	.6243
	Moderately frequent	.31565*	.11471	.019	.0396	.5917

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.