

SPORT CONSUMPTION PATTERNS IN THE EASTERN CAPE: CRICKET SPECTATORS AS SPORTING UNIVORES OR OMNIVORES

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Abstract

Since its inception, consumption behaviour theory has developed to account for the important social aspect that underpins or at least to some extent can be used to explain consumer behaviour. Modern consumption behaviour theory is anthropocentric in nature, with people and societal influence at the forefront of the theory. To date, empirical studies on consumption behaviour of cultural activities (for example, music and arts), entertainment and sport have used Bourdieu's (1984) omnivore/univore theory to suggest that consumption of leisure activities is bound up in social ties. To date, no such investigation has been conducted in the context of sport in South Africa. The aim of the study therefore is to investigate whether South African cricket spectators are sporting omnivores or univores, thus, essentially investigating whether sports consumption behaviour in South Africa is bound up in social ties. A number of positive economic and social effects could result from gaining a holistic understanding of sports consumption behaviour in South Africa. Given these ramifications, the secondary goal of the research is to identify motives for consumers making specific sport consumption decisions, and determining whether certain characteristics can be attributed to these consumption decisions. Recommendations based on the findings of the research could help various stakeholders understand sports consumption patterns in South Africa, which could in turn lead to the realization of positive economic and social benefits. The study made use of a questionnaire, administered to cricket spectators in the Eastern Cape at four different limited overs cricket matches in the 2012/13 cricket season. Using individual binary probit models and post estimation F-tests, the results indicate that consumption behaviour of sport within South Africa predominantly differs on the grounds of education and race. This suggests that there are aspects of social connotations underpinning sports consumption behaviour within South Africa.

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1. Introduction

Consumption behaviour is an aspect of modern economic theory that has developed and grown in importance, and is of particular interest to producers, manufacturers, and marketers. Traditional consumption behaviour theory generally considered the impact of changes in income and prices on consumption decisions. Successive consumption behaviour theory builds on this theory and considers other factors that may influence consumer behaviour (Lancaster, 1966). Traditionally, consumption behaviour focuses largely on consumer decisions of tangible commodities; however, because consumption behaviour of intangible commodities also contributes significantly to a country's Gross Domestic Product, examination of such behaviour is also needed (Rao, 2012). Although not a traditional perspective, art (Snowball *et al.*, 2009) and sport (Glencoe, 2013) are seen as commodities, specifically classified as intangible commodities. Much like the consumption of economic goods and services, watching sport, whether in physical attendance or on television, is a form of consumption, where sport is the consumable intangible commodity (Glencoe, 2013). In the market for economic goods and services, many motives and factors (such as economic determinants, human characteristics, and of particular relevance to this research, social influences) have been identified that underpin the purchasing decisions made by consumers (Shah, 2010). For producers and marketers to make effective business decisions it is vital that they base their decisions on the consumers' motives for particular consumption behaviour (Laesso *et al.*, 2013). In researching consumers' decision-making motives, it becomes possible to identify consumption behaviour that is associated with a specific type of consumer. In this way, producers and marketers are able to identify and target a particular market in order to maximise their revenue. Over and above identifying motivating factors for positive consumption behaviour, empirical studies in the arts for example (which include amongst others, Snowball *et al.*, 2009, Peterson, 1992 and Peterson, 2005) have noted the usefulness of stratifying consumers according to their consumption behaviour patterns, classifying them as either univorous or omnivorous consumers. Such classifications have been used to determine the extent to which consumption is bound up in social ties.

Consumption behaviour studies undertaken in the South African context specifically focused on the consumption patterns of the arts where the main objective of the studies was to identify the determining indicators that differentiate univorous from omnivorous cultural consumers. To date, however, consumption behaviour studies are notably limited in the context of South African sport (Gerber and Terblanche, 2012). More specifically, there appears to be no empirical research on the classification of consumers as univores or omnivores in the context of sports consumption in South Africa. Snowball *et al.* (2009) argued that studies considering omnivore/univore status are particularly valuable in the case of South Africa given the potential social tolerance ramifications that could stem from such a classification (as was highlighted by Bryson (1996), Coulangeon (2005), Tampubolon (2008) and Van Eijck and Leivens (2008)). This therefore highlights the need for research on an omnivore/univore classification of sports consumption patterns in South Africa.

2. The omnivore/univore theory

Empirical work on consumption behaviour of different forms of culture has established a definite link between cultural consumption patterns and social stratification (Widdop, 2010). According to Chan and Goldthorpe (2007), the idea of linking cultural consumption to lifestyles dates back to 1964, where empirical research by Wilensky (1964) suggested that individuals from a high educational background rarely had a strong aversion to culture that was associated with the masses. Wilensky (1964) further noted that highly educated individual often enjoyed 'mass' culture in at least some of its forms. This relationship, which in essence looked at the prevalence of an omnivore/univore classification in arts, was originally theorized in 1984 when Bourdieu (1984) proposed that social status could be used to understand the cultural consumption preferences. According to Peterson (2005), the theory suggested by Bourdieu (1984) was the first of its kind in that it proposed a theoretically grounded means of conceptualizing the relationship between consumers' tastes, status and social class. Bourdieu (1984) suggested that cultural consumption preferences could be classified according to 'high' and 'low' cultural forms. In order to appreciate 'high' cultural forms, he argued that it required one to have high cultural capital, which, *inter alia*, stems from an individual's upbringing, education and socio-economic background. Bourdieu (1984)

noted that these 'high' cultural forms were more likely to be consumed by individuals from high income and high education backgrounds, who were considered to be of a high social class. At the opposite end of the spectrum, 'low' cultural forms, which were referred to as mass or popular culture, were cultural forms that were more likely to be consumed by individuals from lower income and lower education backgrounds and were thus perceived as being of a lower social class. As such, Bourdieu (1984) argued that the appreciation of cultural forms was an indicator of social class and owing to the fact that appreciation of 'high' cultural forms required an individual to have high cultural capital; the "masses" who failed to possess such high cultural capital were essentially excluded from the consumption thereof. Finally, Bourdieu (1984) noted that cultural appreciation, which was essentially indicative of cultural capital, provided a means of judgment of social superiority.

Peterson (1992) contested Bourdieu's (1984) hypothesis that individuals from high income and educational backgrounds would more likely consume 'high' culture forms and individuals from lower income and educational backgrounds would more likely consume 'low' cultural forms. Peterson (1992) investigated patterns of musical preferences and social status in the U.S. The investigation revealed that while elements of Bourdieu's (1984) argument did hold true, his hypothesis did not hold in its entirety. Peterson (1992) argued that while 'high' cultural forms (which in the case of music were classified as the classical and opera genres) were more likely to be preferred by individuals from high income and high education groups, such patrons had also highlighted a preference for a wide range of popular/non-elite musical forms (for example, folk, jazz and rock genres). Peterson's (1992) thinking in this regard was therefore in line with what Wilensky (1964) had originally suggested. Furthermore, Peterson (1992) noted that individuals from lower education and lower income groups were conversely generally found to appreciate only one genre of music (which was indicative of narrower cultural preferences). As a concluding remark, Peterson (1992) suggested that the notion of social superiority or the existence of the taste-exclusive stratification was no longer applicable in explaining cultural consumption and social status. Instead, he proposed that the classification of patrons' tastes in terms of omnivorousness was a more suitable indicator of social status. This finding was in line with the findings of Lamont (1992).

Consistent with Peterson (1992), Lamont (1992) also contested Bourdieu's (1984) hypothesis. Lamont (1992) considered whether the relationship between social status and tastes was the same across geographical boundaries; essentially questioning Bourdieu's (1984) claim that high-brow patterns of taste were directly attributed to social class and therefore should be the same in all advanced capitalist societies. Lamont (1992) focused on Paris (the same focus area as Bourdieu (1984) originally considered), New York, as well as regional cities in France and the U.S respectively. Lamont (1992) found that high-brow snobbery was evident in all four of the cities but was only found to be a predominant pattern in Paris. This therefore brought to light the fact that high-brow tastes were not the same in all advanced capitalist societies as Bourdieu (1984) had suggested.

The contested hypothesis and differences in empirical findings suggested that there is a need for further empirical investigations. This was supported by Scheetz *et al.* (2014:5) who noted that "while many economists have highlighted the role of social comparison in consumer behavior, little work has been done to empirically test this idea."

3. Context and goals of the Research

According to Brember (2009), sport is highly regarded among South Africans, both in terms of active participation and in a passive role as a spectator. More specifically, South Africans place a great deal of recognition on cricket as both an amateur and professional sport (Louw, 2010). This study will therefore focus on the application of consumption behaviour theory in cricket. With South African cricket forming a significant aspect of international cricket heritage (Morgan, 2013), it becomes important to examine factors that would increase the likelihood of the long-term survival of the game. This could be achieved by investigating the extent to which sporting consumption patterns in South Africa are bound up in social hierarchies by classifying consumers as either sporting univores or omnivores, in conjunction with considering other possible motives for attendance.

The study attempts to highlight the importance of classifying a market to facilitate effective marketing, such that the correct target market is identified and marketers are better equipped to direct marketing at the factors that motivate specific consumption behaviour. Sport has also been recognised as an important source of revenue and economic benefit, not only for the individual participants, sporting venues and associations but also for cities, regions and a country as a whole (Hall *et al.*, 2009). More specifically, Hall *et al.* (2009) noted that, owing to a positive correlation between match attendance and revenue, it becomes necessary to determine the internal and external factors that affect attendance with the aim of improving aspects of the sport to increase match attendance and subsequently revenue too. With revenue having such significant and widespread economic importance, such a study will facilitate effective customised marketing to encourage attendance and in so doing facilitate the long-term viability of cricket in South Africa and sustainable sports related revenue for the country. Furthermore, Hall *et al.* (2009) found that high attendance at sports fixtures in the past were positively correlated to an increase in sponsor revenue. It is therefore important to identify factors associated with positive consumption behaviour that could be used to encourage match attendance.

According to empirical results found by Szymanski and Kuypers (1999) and Gilmore *et al.* (2011), sport forms part of an important industry that significantly affects GDP and, as a result, it is important to ensure that the sports industry be nurtured and maintained. In the case of South Africa, the sports industry has been noted as a “multibillion rand industry” and contributed to 2 percent of the country’s GDP (South African Web, 2013). Statistics South Africa (2012) also highlights the importance of the South African sports industry in generating significant tourism revenue. Thus, aiding the growth of South Africa’s Gross National Sports Product (GNSP) (through the positive identification of factors that are correlated to match attendance) would likely facilitate South African GDP growth. Identifying what motivating factors are attributed to positive match attendance would aid in determining whether spectator consumption behaviour can be specifically classified to enhance marketing strategies and encourage specific consumption behaviour. A final argument grounding the need to increase or sustain a country’s GNSP is that generally the global sports industry has a large number of existing employees and has annually been accountable for the creation of a significant number of jobs (Eschenfelder and Li, 2007).

Further importance of this study pertains to one of the goals outlined by the Department of Sport and Recreation and the limited funds at their disposal. The Department aims to “maximise access, development and excellence at all levels of participation in sport and recreation in order to improve social cohesion, nation building and the quality of life of all South Africans” (SRSA, 2012:1). Because the Department is subject to limited funds (SRSA, 2012), the information generated from this study could assist in providing guidance as to where the limited funds would most optimally be utilised.

The goals of the study are:

- (1) To investigate whether South African cricket spectators are sporting omnivores or univores.
- (2) To identify motives for consumers making specific sport consumption decisions, and whether certain characteristics can be attributed to these consumption decisions.

4. Classification of sporting omnivores and univores

As noted by Widdop (2010), consumption studies to date have considered the classification of consumers on the ground of their social hierarchies. Bourdieu (1984) highlighted that sport is an object of struggles between social classes. This study investigates the classification of consumers’ behaviour in terms of social hierarchy in accordance with what was proposed by Widdop (2010:3) where he states that:

“Certain types of sporting activities such as the golf, racket sports, water and winter sports (classified as highbrow or legitimate culture) would be consecrated among those in the higher classes, whilst others, such as football, tenpin bowling and weightlifting would be avoided through the association with the masses”.

This is used in conjunction with Warde (2006), where exclusive sports included racket sports, water sports and adventure sports in the adaptation of the conventional definition in this context. To account for the

two dominant forms of sports consumption, two separate conventional definitions were derived. According to Widdop and Cutts (2013), it is important to look at reported tastes as well as actual spectatorship behaviour in order to get a comprehensive overview of the cultural genre (or in this case sporting code). Definitions were derived for consumption in the form of attendance and consumption in the form of television viewing respectively. In order to investigate the consumption of sport in relation to social hierarchies, a suitable definition¹ of omnivore and univore was developed, drawing from the work of both Widdop (2010) and Warde (2006).

The first of these conventional definitions focused on consumption of sport in terms of watching the sport in attendance. For this definition², consumers were classified as univores if they had exclusive sports consumption patterns. The classification of exclusivity in consumption was twofold. Firstly, consumers were assumed to have exclusive consumption behaviour if they attended high-brow/legitimate culture sports (otherwise referred to as elitist or exclusive sports) to the exclusion of other sports that were associated with the masses. Secondly, those consumers who chose to consume only sports that were associated with the masses (to the exclusion of the high-brow/legitimate sports) were also classified as having exclusive tastes (and therefore deemed univores). Conversely, consumers were classified as omnivores if they were found to straddle both consumption classifications. In other words, consumers were classified as omnivores if they displayed a wide array of consumption behaviour, or if they attended both high-brow/legitimate sports and sports that are associated with the masses (otherwise referred to as non-elitist sports). This definition was largely underpinned by Bourdieu's (1984) theory of the appreciation of high and low cultural forms; where high cultural forms were more likely to be appreciated by individuals from high income and high education groups, while low cultural forms (or those that were associated with the masses) were likely to be appreciated by individuals from lower education and income backgrounds. Drawing from both Widdop (2010) and Warde (2006) and by taking careful consideration of the extent to which consumers would have access to consumption (e.g. the extent to which the sport is broadcast on television or the extent to which the venues are able to accommodate large numbers of spectators); the following sports³ were classified as high-brow/legitimate culture sports: golf, tennis, equestrianism, swimming, motor-sport, rowing, cycling, water polo, and squash. With the exception of equestrianism and golf, each of these sports fell under either a water, racket or adventure sport. Golf was specifically classified by Widdop (2010) as a high-brow/legitimate sport and was therefore classified as such in the derivation of this definition. For this study, equestrianism was classified as a high-brow/legitimate culture sport. This classification is supported by The Economist (2014:1), in that "equestrianism is considered one of the more elitist sports".

Furthermore, because other sports have not been empirically classified as highbrow/lowbrow, a common ground of classification was needed for the derivation of these classifications. This study made use of structural constraints as a common ground of classification. According to Kim and Trail (2010:192), structural constraints are "factors that interfered between leisure preferences and participation, that is, physical or environmental factors that prevented an individual from leisure participation". For the purpose of this study, if the venue at which the sport event is generally hosted did not allow for/accommodate large amounts of spectators then the sport was said to exclude the masses and subsequently classified as elitist in nature⁴. Following this line of argument, the remainder of the spectator sports that were identified were classified as lowbrow/associated with the masses, and these included: soccer, rugby, hockey, and netball.

The second conventional definition⁵ was derived using the same principles as the first conventional definition (i.e. informed by empirical classifications, and where none are evident the remainder of the sports were classified on common grounds). This definition differed from the first definition in that it looked only at consumption in the form of watching television. As with the previous definition, this definition was derived by classifying the various sports (that spectators had identified as the ones that they watch on television) into high-brow/legitimate sports and sports associated with the masses respectively.

¹ Hereafter referred to as the conventional definition

² Hereafter referred to as 'Conventional definition-live'

³ Of the sports that the spectators identified as the sports that they choose to watch in attendance

⁴ For example, a sport such as soccer is generally hosted at large stadia (therefore having the capacity to accommodate masses of spectators), whereas a sport like shooting is generally hosted at relatively smaller facilities where the capacity/structural constraint of the venue would not allow for masses to attend.

⁵ Hereafter referred to as 'Conventional definition-TV'.

In this case, the following sports were classified as high-brow/legitimate culture sports: golf, tennis, equestrianism, swimming, multi-sport events (particularly The Winter Olympic Games), extreme sport, cycling, motorsport, badminton, squash, shooting, and fishing/surfing. The same argument as applied in the Conventional definition-live was used to support the classification of golf and equestrianism as high-brow/legitimate culture sports. Similarly, tennis, badminton and squash were considered high-brow/legitimate culture sports owing to their previous empirical classification as racket sports (Widdop, 2010). Extreme sport and motor sport were classified as what Warde (2006) refers to as 'adventure sports', while swimming, fishing and surfing were classified as watersports. The multi-sport event (in this study particularly referring to The Winter Olympic Games) is comprised of an array of different winter sports (Olympic.org, 2013), and as such, watching multi-sport events was classified as a high-brow/legitimate culture sport in accordance with the classification as identified by Widdop (2010). In terms of cycling, Beckett (2014:1) argued that "TV coverage is weak, sporadic and uneven in its global reach". Based on this, and in conjunction with Kim and Trail's (2010) structural constraints argument, cycling was classified as a highbrow/legitimate sport.

In order to classify the sports that have not been previously empirically classified, structural constraints (Kim and Trail, 2010) were again used as the basis of classification. In this case, sports were classified based on the extent to which they are broadcast on television in South Africa. Based on the broadcasting schedules available to television viewers in South Africa (Supersport, 2014; SABC Sport, 2014; ETV, 2014) the following sports (excluding sports that have been previously empirically classified) are broadcast: rugby, cricket, soccer, basketball, volleyball, netball, athletics, hockey and wrestling/boxing/mixed martial arts. These sports were therefore classified as sports associated with the masses, as they were available to television viewers. The remaining sports were classified as highbrow/legitimate sports on the grounds of structural constraints.

Similarly, under this definition, consumers were classified as univores if they had exclusive television consumption patterns. In other words, consumers received a univore classification if they watched only high-brow/legitimate culture sports on television (otherwise referred to as elitist or exclusive sports) to the exclusion of the sports that were associated with the masses, or if they watched only sport that was associated with the masses to the exclusion of the high-brow/legitimate culture sports. Conversely, consumers were classified as omnivores if they watched sport on television that was associated with the masses and high-brow/legitimate culture sports (i.e. if they were found to be straddling both consumption classifications).

Sports consumption, particularly in relation to empirical quantitative research, remains a largely underdeveloped field of research (Widdop, 2010). As such, there is need for researchers to explore aspects of research beyond the existing empirical work. As highlighted by empirical research to date (for example, Alderson *et al.*, 2007; Chan and Goldthorpe, 2007; Snowball *et al.*, 2009; Antrobus and Snowball, 2010) there is a need for research to explore new/sub classifications of the omnivore/univore classification, to provide a representational account for variations in consumption behaviour. Thus, in addition to the conventional definitions (as discussed above), this study considers other possible definitions/classifications of omnivore/univore that can be derived for the sporting context.

This study proposes four possible alternative indicators of sporting omnivores/univores. The first of these alternate definitions⁶ pertains to the level at which the sport is played. The development of this definition is largely informed by Montgomery and Robinson (2008) where they noted the importance of differentiating between professional and amateur sport in examining consumption behaviour of art and non-art events. For this definition, spectators are classified as omnivores if they watch both professional and amateur cricket. However, if they only watch professional cricket, such spectators would be classified as univores.

The second alternate definition of omnivore and univore⁷ considers whether spectators watch only cricket live (i.e. in attendance) or choose to watch cricket and other sports live. This definition was based on Peterson's (1992) definition of omnivores and univores, where participants' consumption was classified in accordance to the number of forms of art they consumed. The derivation of this definition was also

⁶ Hereafter referred to as Definition 1.

⁷ Hereafter referred to as Definition 2.

largely informed by the work of Snowball *et al.* (2009)⁸, who defined omnivores and univores in the South African arts context. In addition to this insight, and particularly in the sporting context, the second definition was further informed by Lefevre and Ohl (2011:49)⁹, who considered omnivory based on the principle of multi-activity in sports participation, but adapted their understanding in accordance with the consumption form. Therefore, the definition derived for this sporting context defined univores as spectators who choose to only watch cricket live to the exclusion of other sport (in other words, these individuals were characterised as having a very narrow consumption demand for sport), while omnivores were those who choose to attend a wide range of sporting events (or those individuals that were considered to be general sports followers).

The third alternate classification of omnivores and univores¹⁰ is very similarly to Definition 2, but considers the consumption of sport in the form of watching television as opposed to live/in attendance. The derivation of this definition was similarly based on the notion of narrow/exclusive and wider/inclusive tastes as used by Peterson (1992) and Snowball *et al.* (2009). For this definition, participants were classified as univores if cricket was the only sport that they watched on television, to the exclusion of other sports. Furthermore, participants who chose to consume only other sports (to the exclusion of cricket) were classified as univores owing to the exclusivity of their taste spectrum. Omnivores, on the other hand, were those participants that chose to watch a wide range of sport on television (indicating that they are general sports fans or had a wide taste spectrum).

The final proposed classification of omnivore and univore¹¹ was again based on the spectrum of spectators' tastes, but considered whether the spectators classified themselves as general sports fans (displaying a relatively wide taste spectrum) or only cricket fans (displaying a relatively narrow taste spectrum). This definition encompassed all forms of sports consumption.

5. Data Collection and Method

5.1 Data Collection and questionnaire development

The data collected for this research was collected by means of a questionnaire. As noted by Lefevre and Ohl (2011:46), "(a) questionnaire survey provides a convenient tool for studying the social distribution of sports practices". The questionnaire was used to obtain a range of responses reflecting specific types of consumption behaviour as well as motives for consumption decisions of cricket spectators in the Eastern Cape. The questionnaire was comprised of 25 closed-ended questions with a Likert scale response format. Response options for these questions ranged from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. The questionnaire was further comprised of five open-ended questions that were designed to generate qualitative data pertaining to spectators' perceptions of their consumption behaviour. Finally, five demographic questions were designed and included in the questionnaire, providing a basis upon which consumers could be classified.

The questionnaire was developed to elicit responses pertaining to the two elements of the study. To elicit responses regarding motives for specific consumption decisions, questions were developed that were largely informed by the work of Trail and James (2001) and the Centre for Sport Consumer Research based in the U.S. This aspect of the study was also largely underpinned by the work done by Snowball *et al.* (2009) on motivation for attendance. To generate data pertaining to this aspect of the study, a combination of both closed and open-ended questions were developed. Referring to the questionnaire in Appendix A, questions 1, 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, 11, 13, 14, 16, 18, 19, 21, 22 and 23 as well as the open-ended

⁸ Snowball *et al.* (2009) defined univores as patrons with narrower cultural tastes (attending only one modern genre or two traditional genres of art) while omnivorous patrons were those that consumed a wider array (four or more types of art genres) of both popular and high cultural goods.

⁹ Lefevre and Ohl (2011) classified individuals according to number of sporting activities that they participated in; where participation in two or three activities was indicative of low omnivory, whereas participation in four or more activities was indicative of high omnivory.

¹⁰ Hereafter referred to as Definition 3.

¹¹ Hereafter referred to as Definition 4

question referring to the influencing factors of watching a cricket match live or on television were developed to determine the factors underpinning certain consumption behaviour decisions (or motives for attendance) that cricket spectators make.

To generate data pertaining to the classification of cricket spectators as sporting omnivores or univores, the questionnaire included questions that were positively and directly associated with consumption behaviour that would typically be characteristic of either a sporting omnivore or univore respectively. For the two conventional definitions, questions marked (d) and (e) of Appendix A were used to obtain data pertaining to the types of sport that consumers chose to consume live and on television respectively. Questions marked (g), (h), (i) and (j) of Appendix A were incorporated in order to obtain demographic data, to be able to make inferences about the type of consumer that would typically be associated with particular consumption behaviour.

The development of the alternate definitions was largely informed by the empirical study by Snowball *et al.* (2009), which similarly needed to construct relevant definitions/sub-classifications of omnivore and univore for their given research context. Referring to the questionnaire, questions 2, 6, 9, 15, 24, and 25 of the closed-ended questions, as well as the question asking whether spectators watch cricket on television or not, were all structured to elicit responses pertaining to the alternative omnivore/univore classifications.

5.2 Sampling and administration

Data collection took place by means of a cross-sectional survey. The questionnaire was administered at four different first class limited-over cricket matches played by the Chevrolet Warriors at *Access DSL St Georges* in Port Elizabeth during the 2012/2013 cricket season¹².

Purposive sampling was chosen as the sampling strategy to select participants for this study. As highlighted by Battaglia (2008), purposive sampling is a means of obtaining a sample, which is logically assumed to be representative of an entire population. In this instance, the selected sample was logically assumed to be representative of the cricket spectators in the Eastern Cape that watch the limited-overs format of the game¹³. The motive for the choice of the sampling technique was underpinned by the Laerd dissertation (2013) where it was noted that purposive sampling is an efficient means of sample selection when the population size is relatively small and the intention of the study is to make accurate statistical inferences from a sample to a population of interest. Within purposive sampling, the study made use of a combination of maximum variation/heterogeneous sampling and critical case sampling techniques. The maximum variation/heterogeneous sampling technique is a manner in which a sample is selected, where the aim is to capture a diverse range of perspectives pertaining to the topic of interest (Laerd, 2013). This technique has been argued to exhibit a wide range of participant attributes, behaviours and experiences and was deemed appropriate for this study. Elements of critical case sampling techniques were also used to inform the sample selection. This technique was deemed appropriate for this study in that it has been noted to be particularly useful in research where the number of cases studied is relatively small (in this study four cases/matches were considered). It has further been noted that critical case sampling is beneficial in that, decisive explanations of phenomena and logical generalisations can be made from the chosen sample (Laerd, 2013) and thus proved a valuable and appropriate technique to use in this study.

The data collected from the four matches were then pooled to obtain the final data set, with a final sample size (excluding any interviews where data was deemed unreliable) of 438 respondents.

¹² The matches were played on 7 November 2012, 18 November 2012, 23 November 2012 and 22 February 2013.

¹³ This specification was made owing to Date's (2012) comment that limited overs and test matches differ so significantly that they should essentially be viewed as separate sporting codes.

5.3 Model specification and variable description

Since the dependent variables are all in binary form, binary probit models were estimated for the conventional definitions as well as for all four alternate omnivore/univore classifications. This was done to determine the probability of someone being an omnivore or univore, given specific individual characteristics.

For each definition i , it is assumed that individuals are either classified as univores ($definition_i=1$) or omnivores ($definition_i=0$). The model is specified as follows:

$$\Pr(definition_i = 1 \mid X_i) = \Phi(X_i'\beta)$$

where Φ is the cumulative normal distribution function, β is a vector of parameters, and the probability of being classified as a univore depends on a vector of explanatory variables X .

The general model that is estimated takes the form:

$$\Pr(definition_i = 1 \mid X_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 race_i + \beta_2 gender_i + \beta_3 age_i + \beta_4 education_i + \beta_5 income_i + u_i$$

Where u_i is the error term, and all other variables are discussed in the following section. All regressions were estimated using White heteroscedasticity-robust standard errors.

Based on existing literature (for example, Snowball *et al.*, 2009; Antrobus and Snowball, 2010; Chan and Goldthorpe, 2007; Widdop and Cutts, 2013) the variables included in the study were age, gender, race, highest level of education and personal monthly net income. The variable 'age' was measured in years, which consisted of the categories of 11-20, 21-30, 31-40, 41-50, and 51 and above. The gender variable was coded as 1 if a spectator was male and 0 for a female spectator. The race variable included 'Black', 'White', 'Coloured'¹⁴ and 'Indian'. The education variable denotes the highest level of education obtained and consisted of 'primary education', 'secondary education (but no matric)', 'matric', and 'post-secondary education'. Finally, personal monthly net income was measured in South African Rands and represented the spectators' personal monthly income after tax and other statutory deductions. The categories for personal monthly net income were R0 – R20 000, R20 001 - R40 000, and R40 001+.

¹⁴ The term 'Coloured' in South Africa pertains to people of mixed race origin (SAHO, 2014).

6. Results, discussion and recommendations

Table 6.1 indicates the proportion of the sample classified as univores and omnivores respectively for the different definitions.

Table 6.1: Omnivore/univore classifications

	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
<u>Conventional definition- Live</u>		
Univore	30	6.85
Omnivore	408	93.15
<u>Conventional definition-TV</u>		
Univore	12	2.74
Omnivore	426	97.26
<u>Definition 1</u>		
Univore	98	22.37
Omnivore	340	77.63
<u>Definition 2</u>		
Univore	85	19.41
Omnivore	353	80.59
<u>Definition 3</u>		
Univore	37	8.45
Omnivore	401	91.55
<u>Definition 4</u>		
Univore	39	8.90
Omnivore	199	91.10

From the omnivore/univore classification results, it appears that spectators were far more likely to be classified as omnivores than univores for all definitions. In terms of the overall results of the specific definitions, the vast majority of the sample was omnivores when spectators were classified according to the two conventional definitions. This finding suggests that for both forms of sports consumption (television and live), the majority of the spectators are more likely to have an inclusive sport taste spectrum as opposed to an exclusive taste spectrum. That is, spectators are more likely to consume sport across classifications (elitist sports and sport associated with the masses), as opposed to consuming sport from only one classification. In order to comment on whether or not sports consumption is tied up in social hierarchies, it is necessary to disaggregate the probability of a univore classification by all the explanatory variables that are employed in the study. These results are presented and discussed in Section 6.2.

The results that pertained to the alternate four definitions similarly revealed that the majority of the sample was omnivores as opposed to univores. A relatively greater proportion of the sample was classified as omnivores under the two conventional definitions than the four alternative definitions. Similarly, a much smaller proportion of the sample was classified as univores under the conventional definitions than under the alternative definitions. This suggests that spectators are more likely to be classified as a univore under any of the alternate definitions than under the conventional definitions. These results suggest that generally it appears easier to classify omnivores and univores in terms of their taste spectrum as opposed to classifying them according to the 'eliteness/exclusivity' of the sports consumed.

6.2 Probit results predicting the probability of a univore classification

In order to make inferences about the types of people that were classified as omnivores and univores under the respective definitions, regressions were estimated to determine what characteristics were more likely associated with each classification for the six different definitions. The probit regression results for the overall sample, for both the conventional and the alternative definitions are presented in Tables 6.2 and 6.3 respectively.

Table 6.2: Probit results predicting the probability of a univore classification under the conventional definitions

Variable	Conventional Definition - Live		Conventional Definition- TV	
	Coefficient	Marginal Effects	Coefficient	Marginal effects
Race				
White	.2063 (.2608)	.0166	-.1791 (.4396)	-.0067
Coloured	.1301 (.3169)	.0097	-.5909 (.4272)	-.0313
Indian	-.0459 (.4689)	-.0038	-.6477 (.5941)	-.0486
Male	.9562*** (.2372)	.1128	.1033 (.2994)	.0040
Age				
21-30	.0725 (.3459)	.0056	-.6617 (.4525)	-.0312
31-40	-.3945 (.3918)	-.0405	-.7577 (.4695)	-.0530
41-50	-.3222 (.3214)	-.0313	-.4823 (.5067)	-.0270
51+	-.3056 (.3361)	-.0296	-.3327 (.5877)	-.0164
Education				
Secondary education (no matric)	-3.9051*** (.2496)	-.9889	-3.7960*** (.5619)	-.9438
Matric	-2.9673*** (.3169)	-.8193	-3.1523*** (.4407)	-.6432
Post-secondary	-3.0876*** (.3419)	-.6792	-3.4970*** (.3916)	-.6765
Income				
R20 0001-R40 000	.1006 (.3382)	.0075		
R40 001+	-.1374 (.4317)	-.0122		
Constant	4.1642*** (.4047)		6.0867*** (.8063)	
N	396		313	
Wald χ^2	816.23***		346.88***	
Pseudo R ²	0.1378		0.0796	
% Correctly predicted	93.18		97.12	

Note: Values in brackets denote the robust standard errors. The omitted group for race is "Black", for gender is "female", for age is "11-20", for education is "primary education" and for income is "R0-R20 000"

P<0.01***, p<0.05**, p<0.10*. Worth noting is that 'Income' could not be included in the regression for the Conventional definition-TV. This is because only 12 individuals were classified as univores, and after a cross-tabulation, it became evident that of these 12 individuals, none fell into the top two income categories; hence, no comparison groups were available for the omnivore status.

6.3.1 Probit results for the conventional definitions

The Pseudo R² ranged between roughly 7.9% and 13.8% (Table 6.2). The Wald χ^2 statistics show that for both conventional definitions, the explanatory variables jointly explain the variation in the probability of being classified as a univore (with both P<0.01).

a) *Conventional definition - live*

Looking at the full model (Table 6.2) and post-estimation F-tests (Appendix B), statistically significant differences in univore status were found between males and females, and univore status differed significantly across different levels of education. No significant differences were found in univore status across racial, age and income groups. The gender bias suggested that males were 11.28% more likely to be univores when compared to females. Stated in terms of their consumption behaviour, males are more likely to display exclusivity in their choice of live sports consumption. Although this finding is in contrast to existing research in the sport context (for example, James and Ridinger, 2002; Warde, 2006; Lefevre and Ohl, 2011), it is in line with previous empirical evidence in the South African context (for example, Snowball *et al.*, 2009; Antrobus and Snowball, 2010). The gender bias similarities between this study and the existing South African research on consumption behaviour is not surprising, given Bourdieu's (1984) argument that tastes of consumers in societies of similar nature were likely to display great similarities.

In terms of education, a strong significant relationship with univore/omnivore status was evident. Individuals in all the education categories were significantly less likely to be classified as univores when compared to individuals with primary education, although the results indicate that the probability of being classified as a univore decreases as education increases. Univores (or spectators who displayed exclusivity in terms of the types of sporting codes they consumed) therefore seem to be more likely to come from the lowest education level (in this case primary education) as opposed to any other education group. This result opposes what Bourdieu (1984) originally proposed for cultural consumption (in that 'high' cultural forms are more likely to be consumed by individuals from high educational backgrounds). The decreasing probability of being a univore does, however, suggest support for Bourdieu's (1984) proposition. It is similarly in line with other existing empirical studies (which include amongst others, Sullivan and Katz-Gerro, 2007; van Eijck and Leivens, 2008; Antrobus and Snowball, 2010) that argue that education promotes or at least to some extent facilitates the movement away from univorous consumption behaviour towards omnivory. The results pertaining to education for this definition seem to present an anomaly. That is, it appears that the extremes on the spectrum of education level are both more likely than the middle education groups to be classified as a univore. A possible explanation for this could lie within the way in which the sports have been classified into elitist sports and sports associated with the masses. Furthermore, it may be attributed to the fact that the individuals from the two extremes engage in different types of univorous consumption (for example, one group may consume only elite sports and the other only sports that are associated with the masses – yet both are classified as univores owing to the exclusivity in their taste spectrum). Further research could empirically explain this anomaly.

b) *Conventional definition - TV*

The results for the Conventional definition-TV are presented in Table 6.2. Similar to the Conventional definition-live case, education was found to be a statistically significant variable in explaining univore status. Across all the education categories, a significant negative relationship was evident which means that, individuals in all the education categories were found to be significantly less likely to be classified as univores than individuals with a primary education. Interestingly, unlike live sports consumption, the television consumption behaviour results for this definition showed no gender bias. This could potentially be explained in that men may be relatively more likely to watch sport live when compared to women, whereas no such gender differences in the viewing of sport on television are evident. This explanation is supported by previous empirical studies (for example, Mallon, 2012; James and Ridinger, 2002) where it was noted that relatively more men watch live sporting events when compared to women yet the difference is not as distinct in terms of watching sport on television (Muller, 2014; McGinnis *et al.*, 2003).

For both the conventional definitions, the results for age were not found to be statistically significant. This finding is somewhat surprising, given the existing empirical stance that the most distinct differences in terms of sports consumption appear to be in terms age and gender (Lefvre and Ohl, 2011; Warde, 2006). Similarly, for both conventional definitions, income was not found to be statistically significant in explaining omnivore/univore status. With previous empirical research (for example, Lefvre and Ohl, 2011; Peterson, 1992) generally referring to education and income combined as a proxy for social class, this finding does not support any of the empirical research findings in their entirety.

As a general overview, from the conventional definitions it appears that the results do not conclusively support a single stance taken in previous empirical studies with regards to socio-demographic variables. This lack of support is warranted by Warde (2006) where he noted that, while some sports carry connotations of social position, this is limited in relation to sports spectating. It could possibly further be explained by the proposition by Lefvre and Ohl (2011:48) who noted that “homology is not the dominant characteristic of the relation between the sporting field and social positions”. This general finding again emphasizes the importance of taking into account the results from alternative classifications of univores and omnivores to be able to gauge whether sports consumption is to any extent held up in social ties. As such, the next subsection considers the results from the four alternative definitions of omnivores and univores.

Table 6.3: Probit results predicting the probability of a univore classification under the alternate definitions

Variable	Definition 1 ¹⁵		Definition 2 ¹⁶		Definition 3 ¹⁷		Definition 4 ¹⁸	
	Coefficient	Marginal Effects						
Race								
White	.7118*** (.2125)	.2053	-.5731** (.1881)	-.1474	-.0876 (.2256)	-.0113	-1.1523*** (.2494)	-.1128
Coloured	.4629** (.2579)	.1488	-.1951 (.2270)	-.0470	.0056 (.2844)	.0007	-.4972* (.2636)	-.0333
Indian	-.2763 (.4065)	-.0733	-.1566 (.3234)	-.0371	.4456 (.4250)	.0763	.0137 (.3660)	.0012
Male	-.3357 (.1639)	-.1040	-.5539*** (.1688)	-.1555	.0461 (.2100)	.0058	-.6298** (.2139)	-.0681
Age								
21-30	-.0446 (.2289)	-.0130	-.0173 (.2747)	-.0044	.4018 (.3632)	.0576	.0564 (.2873)	.0048
31-40	-.0615 (.2786)	-.0178	-.1535 (.3245)	-.0370	.2791 (.4306)	.0416	-.1725 (.3686)	-.0130
41-50	-.3318 (.2809)	-.0888	.0370 (.2858)	.0095	.3523 (.4207)	.0542	-.3911 (.3360)	-.0262
51+	-.3519 (.2646)	-.0938	-.1817 (.3038)	-.0435	.5973 (.3762)	.1030	-.6875* (.3831)	-.0396
Education								
Secondary education (no matric)	.4226 (.5820)	.1374	.2347 (.4635)	.0641	-.1013 (.5563)	-.0124	4.5012*** (.3169)	.9942
Matric	.5260 (.5717)	.1636	-.3834 (.4815)	-.0920	-.1230 (.5830)	-.0154	4.0846*** (.3316)	.9467
Post-secondary	.6920 (.5780)	.2055	-.1998 (.4971)	-.0505	.0150 (.5789)	.0019	3.5956*** (.3701)	.7633
Income								
R20 001-R40 000	.3363 (.2160)	.1076	-.0874 (.2465)	-.0216	-.9700* (.4037)	-.0770	.3068 (.2982)	.0312
R40 001+	.0650 (.3163)	.0196	.0368 (.3317)	0.009	-.5105 (.4920)	-.0466	.7800 (.4851)	.1161
Constant	-1.4975** (.5923)		.0471 (.4871)		-1.612** (.5652)		-5.377*** (.3010)	
N	396	396			396		396	
Wald χ^2	25.73**		30.35**		13.41**		386.66***	
Pseudo R ²	0.0633		0.0753		0.0541		0.2156	
% Correctly predicted	76.52		81.82		92.17		91.16	

Note: Values in brackets denote the robust standard errors. The omitted group for race is “Black”, for gender is “female”, for age is “11-20”, for education is “primary education” and for income is “R0-R20 000”. P<0.01***, p<0.05**, p<0.10*.

¹⁵ Participants were classified as univores if they watched only professional cricket, or omnivores if they watched professional and amateur cricket.

¹⁶ Participants were classified as univores if they watched only cricket live, or omnivores if they watched cricket and other sport live.

¹⁷ Participants were classified as univores if they watched only cricket, or only other sports (excluding cricket) on television, or omnivores if they watched cricket and other sport on television.

¹⁸ Participants were classified as univores if they considered themselves to be only cricket fans, or omnivores if they considered themselves general sports fans.

6.3.2 Probit results for the alternative definitions 1 to 4

The Pseudo R² ranged between roughly 5.3% and 25.4% (Table 6.3). The Wald χ^2 statistics show that for all four alternative definitions, the explanatory variables jointly explain the variation in the probability of being classified as a univore (with all four statistics being significant at the 5% level).

a) Definition 1

Definition 1 pertained to the consumption of varying levels of cricket played. For this definition, race was found to be statistically significant predictor. Apart from race, none of the other explanatory variables significantly explain univore status (although education appears to be a relatively important explanatory variable, it was not statistically significant). The results show that White participants are on average 20.53% more likely to be classified as univores when compared to Black participants. Coloured participants were on average also more likely to be classified as univores than Black participants.

While previous empirical studies have made no comment on the likelihood of a univore/omnivore classification with regards to race specifically, given South Africa's history of racial divisions and the social tolerance implications that are associated with univore status (Bryson, 1996), it is valuable to consider the possible reasons underpinning differences in consumption behaviour with regards to race. The origin of the omnivore/univore theory in conjunction with considering South Africa's past of racial segregation could offer an explanation for these findings. In Bourdieu's (1984) study of cultural consumption, he noted that consumption behaviour essentially stems from, *inter alia*, one's upbringing, education and socio-economic background. More specifically, he noted that univores (or consumers with high cultural capital) were likely to be from higher income and higher education *backgrounds*, while omnivores (consumers with low cultural capital) were more likely to be from lower income and lower education *backgrounds*. Given the nature of the Apartheid regime, it could be argued that the large majority of the Black South African population may be from lower income and lower educational backgrounds (even if on average their income and education status has since progressed to higher levels respectively), which, if considered in conjunction with Bourdieu's (1984) proposition, could explain why Black participants were more likely to display omnivorous sports consumption relative to White participants. Another possible reason for this finding may similarly be attributed to South Africa's history. As noted by Nixon (1992:70), during the Apartheid years the "South African 'national' (sports) teams were racially exclusive" and non-White sportsmen were banned from professional sport participation. To redress the inequalities of the past, "sporting authorities have reintroduced racial quotas for SA's teams in a bid to encourage more Black sportspeople to emerge through the ranks" (Njanji, 2013:1). If one takes into account the empirical findings of Miles and Sullivan (2010)¹⁹, it could be suggested that Black parents (who were previously excluded from sports participation in the Apartheid era) may now be encouraging and supporting/spectating their children (who are not sanctioned by the exclusions of Apartheid) to get involved in a number of sports. This could explain why Black participants were on average less likely to be classified as univores. Furthermore, Brand South Africa (2012) argued that, "it is football – or soccer, as it is universally called here – that has won the hearts of South Africa's black majority". With South Africa's Black majority consuming more soccer (irrespective of the level at which it is played) it could explain why Black participants were found to be relatively more omnivorously inclined.

Bourdieu (1984) and Jensen (2009) underpin a further argument that could support the racial differences found in consumption behaviour. Bourdieu (1984) noted that cultural appreciation provided a means of judgment of social superiority – suggesting that univores were likely to have relatively higher grounds of social superiority when compared to omnivores. While this would have been the case of White consumers under the Apartheid regime, it is somewhat concerning that such consumption behaviour divisions still prevail a decade after the end of Apartheid. Jensen (2009:1), however, argues that "the brutality of apartheid ended in 1994 with free elections, but the white-supremacist ideas that had animated apartheid and the racialized distribution of wealth it was designed to justify didn't magically evaporate". This could further imply that, although South Africa is in many ways trying to redress the effects of apartheid, there

¹⁹ A positive relationship between consumption behaviour and adult encouragement was found

are still characteristics of apartheid that prevail. Such prevailing characteristics could therefore suggest why consumption behaviour of sport is still to some extent reflective of racial and supremacy divisions. This is concerning if Bryson's (1996) and Tampubolon's (2008) findings are taken into account. According to Bryson (1996), omnivorousness was found to be positively related to social tolerance. Similarly, Tampubolon (2008) noted that univores had tendencies to exclude other social groups. With South Africa being in a phase of rectifying and reconciling racial divisions of the Apartheid era, it is concerning that consumption behaviour was found to differ significantly along racial lines under this definition. In light of this finding, it would therefore be suggested that it is necessary to encourage the consumption of amateur sport, particularly among White and Coloured South Africans. An increase in the consumption of amateur sport could result in a movement away from univorousness and towards omnivorousness, which could in turn suggest a movement towards higher degrees of social tolerance (Bryson, 1996).

b) Definition 2

Definition 2 pertained to whether participants chose to watch only cricket live, or chose to watch other sport live too. For this definition, the emphasis of the consumption classification was again on the breadth of the participants' consumption. For this definition, results for race and gender were found to be statistically significant. White participants were on average 14.74% less likely than Black participants to be classified as univores under this definition. This means that Black participants were on average more likely to watch only cricket live, whereas White participants were on average more likely to attend a range of different sports live. Stated in terms of their univore status, it was found that Black participants were on average relatively more likely to be classified as a univore than any other race group. A possible explanation for this finding could relate to the racial notion of the 'Black Diamond'. According to Chevalier (2014:4), the racial term 'Black Diamonds' refers to "members of the new Black middle class - well-educated, professional and affluent". Such individuals' consumption behaviour has been described as "conspicuous consumption" (Sentleste, 2010:1) and has been argued to be a response to "historical deprivation by groups who wish to affirm their new social standing" (Chevalier, 2014:6). With this in mind, it could explain why Black South Africans are likely to be more univorous and in a sense display 'exclusive tastes' by choosing to consume only cricket live as a means of affirming their post-apartheid social standing. The post-estimation F-test results (Appendix B) also revealed a similar finding between White and Coloured participants. A statistically significant difference was found, which suggested that Coloured participants were more likely to be classified as univores when compared to White participants. A plausible explanation for this may similarly be that (although to a lesser extent than Black participants), Coloured participants display exclusive tastes as a means of affirming their post-apartheid social standing. In light of these findings and, given the social tolerance implications that are attributed to univore status, this finding is somewhat concerning given that South Africa is aiming to redress the inequalities and racial divisions of the Apartheid era and encourage social tolerance (National Development Plan, 2014). Therefore, it is necessary to promote the live consumption of a wide range of sports, particularly amongst Black and Coloured participants. A possible way in which this can be done, is through issuing complimentary tickets for a variety of sporting codes for instance (perhaps specifically targeting previously disadvantaged individuals). This could promote a wide range of sports consumption and in turn encourage omnivory. This may also allow individuals who were previously subject to narrow consumption options (as a result of the Apartheid regime constraints) the option to consume a wider variety of sports codes. Encouraging a breadth of sports consumption could in turn result in an increase in social tolerance in South Africa.

Gender differences were found in the classifications of univores under this definition. Men were on average 15.55% less likely to be classified as univores under Definition 2 when compared to women. In terms of exclusivity of tastes, this finding is consistent with previous empirical research in the sporting context (Peterson, 1992; Lefevre and Ohl, 2011; Warde, 2006; James and Ridinger, 2002); however, inconsistent with what was shown for the Conventional definition-live. The gender difference that was found is, however, surprisingly, inconsistent with previous empirical research conducted in South Africa (Snowball *et al.*, 2009; Antrobus and Snowball, 2010). The inconsistency of empirical results of the South African studies (all of which were conducted within the same geographical context, i.e. Eastern Cape, South Africa) is in contrast to previous empirical propositions. Bourdieu (1984), for instance, noted that tastes of consumers in societies of similar nature were likely to display great similarities. The results, however, suggest that sport and cultural tastes of the same geographical context did not display such similarities. A likely explanation for why sports consumption taste-patterns do not closely resemble those

of the cultural context within the same society, could be attributed to a change in tastes over time. As noted by Simmons (2006), shifts in consumption behaviour can be attributed to a change in tastes towards sport, which could possibly explain the differences in tastes between cultural and sports consumers in the Eastern Cape.

c) *Definition 3*

Definition 3 considered the breadth of consumption with regards to watching sport on television. Owing to the similarity of the definitions, and with the only differentiating factor between the definitions being the nature of consumption, the *a priori* expectation (underpinned by the argument of Karg and McDonald, (2011)²⁰) was that the findings for Definition 3 would be largely in line with Definition 2. In other words, it was expected that consumption behaviour would be similar regardless of the nature of the consumption (watching in attendance as opposed to on television). Interestingly, the results for the different forms of consumption were found to be vastly different. As shown in Table 6.1, relatively less people were classified as univores under Definition 3 when compared to Definition 2. This is surprising given that Miles and Sullivan (2010) noted that television viewing should in fact provide consumers with a means of accessing legitimate culture (which could in turn suggest that television encourages univorous consumption behaviour). Miles and Sullivan's (2010) argument could, however, be used to explain why relatively more participants were omnivores under Definition 3 than Definition 2. In line with their argument, television can allow consumers access to sports consumption that they may not necessarily have had access to in terms of live consumption. Individuals may, for instance, not be able to afford admission tickets, or may be subjected to geographical restrictions that prevent them from having access to watch live sport; but television would allow such restrictions to be overcome. Television can therefore afford consumers the opportunity to consume a wider range of sport than what is accessible to them in terms of watching sport in attendance. The access to a wider array of sporting codes could in turn suggest support for the relatively greater amount of participants classified as omnivores under Definition 3 as opposed to Definition 2.

The probit regression results for Definition 3 show that, unlike what was found for live sports consumption under Definition 2, gender and race were not significant predictors of univore status. The post-estimation F-tests²¹ indicate that no significant difference was found between any of the other explanatory variables, except between individuals in the R0 – R20 000 and R20 001 – R40000 income categories ($P < 0.10$). This finding suggests that the likelihood of middle income (R20 001 - R40 000) earners being classified as a univore is 7.70% less than it is for lower income (R0 – R20 000) earners. This finding is inconsistent with Bourdieu's (1984) proposition, yet consistent with more recent empirical research (for example, Peterson, 1992; Snowball *et al.*, 2009; Chan and Goldthorpe, 2005). A plausible explanation for the relatively greater probability of being a univore among lower income earners could be attributed to the availability of leisure time. According to Devine *et al.* (2006) and VW Staff (2012), low-income earners spend a larger portion of their time working (often having to work more than one job to support their families – particularly prevalent in a third world country like South Africa). With relatively less leisure time at their disposal, low-income earners may not spend as much time watching television²² in comparison to relatively higher income earners. Given this, it is probable that higher income groups are likely to consume a relatively greater range of sporting codes on television, which could in turn suggest why they are likely to be more omnivorous when compared to lower income earners. To overcome the restriction of limited time at the disposal of many lower-income earners, a possible recommendation would be to make televised sport accessible at areas of employment. Employers may, for example, provide a communal work television that employees may have access to during their mandatory work breaks (such as scheduled lunch and tea breaks). This would afford employees the opportunity to watch televised sport. This opportunity could encourage the consumption of a wider range of televised sport that would have otherwise not been possible.

²⁰ It was argued that complements/similarities in consumption exist across different forms of sports consumptions

²¹ The post estimation F-test results that test for significant differences between the explanatory variables (other than the assigned base groups) are found in Table B1 in Appendix B.

²² Worth noting is that, although it is an encompassing generalisation, according to Frey and Benesch (2008) television consumption is regarded as a dominant leisure activity in most individuals' lives.

Another argument that could explain the differences in univore status among different income earners is highlighted by Reid (2012). According to Reid (2012), many South Africans cannot afford television subscriptions to broadcasting networks such as DStv and TopTV. Given that DStv, for instance, prides itself as having “an unbelievable range of [...] sport” (DSTV, 2014:1), individuals who are able to afford such networks are more likely to have access to a wider range of sport, relative to those who cannot afford such networks. This could therefore suggest why lower income earners were on average found more likely to be univores than relatively higher income earners. In the interest of promoting social tolerance, through the promotion of omnivory (Bryson, 1996), there is a need to promote a wide range of sports television consumption particularly amongst lower income earners. A possible recommendation to promote this would be to establish events where a range of sport is broadcast to the public at an open access venue. This would allow consumers who cannot afford to own a television, access to watch a range of sporting activities. As argued by Banks (2013), sport, particularly in conjunction with technology, has been recognized as having unifying properties amongst citizens, even in trying circumstances. Furthermore, Banks (2013:1) noted that sport, through the development of a universal language, promotes better communication amongst a country’s citizens and allows communities to “face up to, and solve, many of the challenges where they (we) live”. This supports the need for creating ways of allowing greater public access to televised sport, and in so doing, promoting omnivory through access to a broader range of televised sport.

d) Definition 4

The final definition looked at whether sports consumers considered themselves to be general sports fans or solely cricket fans. The results showed statistically significant differences within race, gender, age, and education in determining the consumption classification. The *a priori* expectation for the findings under this definition was that they should be largely similar to the findings of Definition 2 and 3. This *a priori* expectation is grounded in the reasoning that, if an individual considers himself/herself to be a fan of cricket only, he or she is likely to choose to consume only cricket live; whereas a general sports fan would be more likely to choose to consume a range of sporting codes.

In contrast to Definition 1, White and Coloured participants were on average found less likely to be classified as a univore than Black participants. This meant that White and Coloured participants were more likely to be general sports fans as opposed to only cricket fans, while the opposite was found to be true for Black participants. A possible explanation for this may again be attributed to the notion of the ‘Black Diamond’. It is therefore recommended that there is a need to promote a broader sports consumption taste spectrum, particularly amongst Black South Africans, in order to promote social tolerance. This finding is largely similar to what was found under Definition 2 and therefore confirms (in part) the *a priori* expectations. The finding could suggest that, when compared to Black participants, White and Coloured participants generally engage in similar consumption behaviour trends across different forms of consumption. Furthermore, the similarities that were found between Definition 2 and Definition 4 could suggest that trends of live sports consumption could be an indication of the likelihood of a participant classifying themselves as a fan of cricket only or a general sports fan²³. In contrast to the *a priori* expectation, the results for Definition 4 appeared vastly different to Definition 3. This could suggest that there is a stronger relationship between live consumption of sport and fan classification than there is between television consumption of sport and the same classification.

Similar to Definition 2, the results showed that there was a slight gender bias for Definition 4. Men were on average found to be 6.81% less likely to be classified as univores than women. As was the case for Definition 2, this finding was consistent with previous empirical research in the sports context, but inconsistent with consumption behaviour studies that were conducted within the same society. In terms of age, only very marginal differences were found, with the only statistically significant difference being found between the youngest and oldest age categories. Individuals from the oldest age bracket (51+) were 3.96% less likely to be classified as a univore when compared to individuals in the 11-20 years age bracket. Although not statistically significant, worth noting is that the size of the coefficients do suggest that older

²³ This differentiation is hereafter referred to as ‘fan classification’.

participants were on average less likely to be classified as univores than relatively younger cohorts. This suggests that on average, younger cohorts are more likely to be classified as cricket fans only, as opposed to general sports fans. The finding that younger cohorts are on average relatively more likely to display univorous characteristics than older cohorts is consistent with existing research (Collins, 1992; Antrobus and Snowball, 2010). The finding is, however, inconsistent with other empirical studies (Peterson and Kern, 1996; Rossman and Peterson, 2005; Warde, 2006; Tampubolon, 2008; Snowball *et al.*, 2009; Widdop and Cutts, 2013). A plausible explanation for the exclusivity of younger cohorts' consumption may be underpinned by a characteristic of their life stage. According to Roberts (2012), it is during the younger/childhood ages when people gain their basic leisure tastes. This suggests that leisure tastes start off as basic and as individuals get older, their leisure tastes may develop. This could in turn possibly explain why younger cohorts were found more likely to be only cricket fans (as this was in their early stages of leisure taste attrition), while older cohorts were more likely to be general sports fans (given that their leisure tastes have developed with age). Another explanation for the difference found between the oldest and youngest age groups could be attributed to the time that is at their disposal to allocate to leisure consumption. As highlighted in The World Youth Report (2003:213), "the quality and quantity of young people's discretionary hours are often diminished by strict curfews. When test scores drop or family incomes dip, opportunities to participate in voluntary activities are often restricted, as the hours required for work or study are increased". Thus, with less time at their discretion, this could explain why younger cohorts were relatively more likely to be associated with univorous consumption behaviour. Furthermore, it is plausible that individuals who fell under the oldest age category may be individuals that are no longer part of the workforce and therefore could have more time at their disposal to allocate to the consumption of leisure activities. This could therefore explain why individuals in the oldest age category were found to be significantly more likely than the youngest ($P < 0.10$) and second youngest ($P < 0.05$ as evident in the post-estimation F-test) age categories to be general sports fans.

Given the social tolerance implications that are attributed to univorous consumption behaviour, it would therefore be recommended that the Department of Sport and Recreation in South Africa consider trying to encourage young South Africans to become fans of a wider array of sporting codes. In line with the arguments of White and Wilson (1999), Wilson (2002), Thrane (2001) and Mehus (2005)²⁴, this could be done by encouraging young people to participate in sport. The Department could, for example, invest in development programs of a range of sports (other than mainly cricket, rugby and soccer) for young people to partake in. Based on the argument that sports participation is positively related to other forms of sports consumption, this may encourage young people to become general sports fans and therefore a movement away from univory. Another manner in which omnivorous consumption behaviour can be encouraged amongst young and older (in this case 51+) individuals, is for sports franchises/stadia to provide some sort of incentive for attendance for these age groups. For example, all sports events could give scholars and pensioners discounted rates of admission which could in turn encourage consumption.

Unlike the findings of both conventional definitions, under Definition 4, participants with either secondary education (with no matric), matric, or post-secondary levels of education were all on average found a lot *more* likely to be classified as univores than participants with primary education. This could otherwise be interpreted as; compared to individuals with primary education, individuals from relatively higher levels of education were on average more likely to be general sports fans as opposed to only cricket fans. Furthermore, the probability of being a univore under this definition decreases as the level of education increase. Thus, this finding presents a similar anomaly to that found for education under the Conventional definition-live. That is, that compared to all the other education groups, individuals with primary education are least likely to be univores. Underpinned by Bourdieu's (1984) line of argument, a possible explanation for this finding could be that individuals from the lowest level of education are associated with the least amounts of social capital (in this case specifically sporting knowledge) which is needed to appreciate the technical aspects of a sport. Thus, individuals with primary education generally do not possess high degrees of social capital and are thus not likely to get more involved (i.e. a deeper approach/appreciation) in one sport but rather be involved with a relatively more surface approach in a range of sports. Although this may explain part of the finding, the same line of argument does not hold for higher levels of education. The results indicate that the probability of being a univore decreases as education increases, which essentially supports Peterson's (1992) hypothesis. Peterson (1992) argued that individuals from higher education groups are likely to prefer a wider range of consumption. This could be

²⁴ These researchers noted that sports participation is positively related to other forms of sports consumption.

used to explain why the probability of being classified as an omnivore (or being classified as a general sports fan and therefore having a wide sports consumption) increased as education levels increased. The anomaly in this instance exists in that this argument would not hold true for the lowest level of education. Why the anomaly exists is not clear. In this instance the prevalence of the anomaly cannot be attributed to the way in which the sports were classified (as was proposed for the Conventional definition-live) as this definition did not account for the nature/eliteness of sporting codes. Thus, as was suggested for the Conventional definition-live, the explanation for the existence of the anomaly calls for further research.

6.4 Motivation for attendance: A comparison between classifications

According to Crompton and McKay (1997), understanding motives for attendance of an event is vital for the provision of better service, in that motives are fundamental in the consumption decision-making process, and subsequently, understanding motives could lead to better attendance. Snowball *et al.* (2009) argued that motives for attendance might be productively linked to omnivore/univore status and therefore an analysis of how motivation differs across univore status is valuable in understanding sports consumption behaviour.

Table 6.4 presents the findings generated from the bivariate cross-tabulations, showing differences in motivation for attendance between omnivores and univores across the conventional and alternative definitions.

Table 6.4: Motivation for attendance results: A comparison between classifications

Question	Definition 1		Definition 2		Definition 3		Definition 4		Conventional definition-live		Conventional definition-TV	
	Univore	Omnivore	Univore	Omnivore	Univore	Omnivore	Univore	Omnivore	Univore	Omnivore	Univore	Omnivore
1 ²⁵	20.67	79.33	19.95	80.05***	8.41	91.59	8.17	91.83*	93.27	6.73*	97.36	2.64
3 ²⁶	19.06	80.94	18.71	81.29**	8.99	91.01	7.55	92.45**	94.96	5.04	97.48	2.52
4 ²⁷	22.22	77.78	18.60	81.40*	8.27	91.73	7.75	92.25	94.32	5.68	97.16	2.84*
5 ²⁸	22.92	77.08	18.23	81.77	11.46	88.54	9.38	90.63	91.67	8.33	97.40	2.60
8 ²⁹	21.80	78.20**	19.19	80.81**	8.72	91.28	9.59	90.41	94.48	5.52	97.09	2.91
10 ³⁰	18.35	81.65	19.27	80.73	10.09	89.91	9.17	90.83	94.50	5.50	99.08	0.92
11 ³¹	20.35	79.65	16.88	83.12**	10.39	89.61	8.23	91.77	96.97	3.03	97.84	2.16
13 ³²	23.32	76.68	19.17	80.83**	8.29	91.71	8.81	91.19*	93.01	6.99	97.15	2.85
14 ³³	15.66	84.34**	20.71	79.29**	11.11	88.89	9.60	90.40	91.92	8.08	97.47	2.53
16 ³⁴	13.31	86.69	27.42	72.58	12.10	87.90	11.29	88.71	89.92	10.08	96.77	3.23
18 ³⁵	18.13	81.87*	19.55	80.45	8.50	91.50	8.78	91.22	92.92	7.08	97.73	2.27
19 ³⁶	20.05	79.95	20.30	79.70***	8.27	91.73	9.02	90.98	92.98	7.02	97.74	2.26
21 ³⁷	20.45	79.55*	20.20	79.80**	8.33	91.67**	7.32	92.68**	93.43	6.57	97.47	2.53
22 ³⁸	25.45	74.55	20.00	80.00	10.91	89.09	9.09	90.91	94.55	5.45	96.36	3.64
23 ³⁹	15.56	84.44	18.29	81.71**	8.95	91.05	8.17	91.83	93.77	6.23	98.05	1.95

Note: Figure shows the proportion of the spectators who indicated either 'strongly agree' or 'agree' for the respective questions. P<0.01***, p<0.05**, p<0.10* (indicating significant differences in motivation to attend between omnivores and univores).

²⁵ Question 1: "I consider myself a fan of South African cricket"

²⁶ Question 3: "I play/have played cricket competitively before (At school/provincially/internationally)"

²⁷ Question 4: "I consider myself a fan of cricket as a whole and not just of a particular team"

²⁸ Question 5: "I attend cricket matches mainly because my friends or family are attending"

²⁹ Question 8: "The social experience (e.g. socialising at the game, dancing, beer tent, competitions, etc.) is just as important as the cricket match"

³⁰ Question 10: "I attend cricket matches because I am specifically a fan of one/some of the players"

³¹ Question 11: "I enjoy attending the before and after game entertainment"

³² Question 13: "I prefer close competition games where the outcome is uncertain"

³³ Question 14: "I attend the cricket matches a way of meeting new people"

³⁴ Question 16: "Cricket is my favourite sport to watch live"

³⁵ Question 18: "Watching cricket allows me to feel part of the community"

³⁶ Question 19: "Watching South African cricket makes me feel proudly South African"

³⁷ Question 21: "I believe playing sport at school developed my love for sport"

³⁸ Question 22: "If a certain player/some players was/were not playing I would not attend"

³⁹ Question 23: "Some of my family members play/have played cricket competitively"

In terms of the conventional definitions, it appears that motivation for attendance was largely the same between omnivores and univores, with the exception of one motive for each conventional definition respectively. Statistically significant differences in the motivation for attendance under the Conventional definition-live pertained to whether individuals considered themselves fans of South African cricket. For this question, 93.27% of the individuals who considered themselves fans of South African cricket were univores, whereas 6.73% were omnivores. This could suggest that considering oneself as a fan of a specific sport may be indicative of an exclusive taste spectrum. As argued by Simmons (2011), if you are a fan of a specific sport (in this case South African cricket) it requires one to devote time, energy and financial resources into that particular sport. Given that the resources devoted to such activities may not simultaneously be used to engage in other sports/luxury activities (Goode, 1960), it may mean that individuals are choosing to be devoted fans of a specific sport, to the exclusion of others. To encourage omnivorous behaviour within South African sport, it could therefore be recommended that stakeholders (for example, the Department of Sport and Recreation) refrain from focusing on the promotion/marketing of a single sport and rather encourage consumption of a range of sport. Possible ways in which this could be done could be to distribute complementary tickets or fan apparel to individuals in hope of igniting an interest in consuming a wider range of sport than what they would ordinarily choose to consume. This could encourage individuals to navigate away from univorous fandom to omnivory, which could in turn have positive implications on social tolerance.

Under the Conventional Definition-TV, the only significant difference in motivation between omnivores and univores pertained to the nature of their cricket consumption preferences. About 97.16% of those who considered themselves to be fans of cricket as a whole as opposed to being a fan of a particular team were univores. This could suggest that individuals who display inclusive taste spectrums in terms of television consumption are generally more concerned about the sport that is screened as opposed to the teams that are playing. A possible explanation for this could be attributed to the nature of sports television broadcasting in South Africa. According to Borland (2013:1), cricket broadcast in South Africa receives “limited coverage”. Therefore, given the limited coverage of cricket on television, fans may not have the opportunity to watch one specific team throughout a series, and as a result thereof may be more inclined to appreciate the sport as a whole rather than a particular team. Conversely, given that omnivores watch a wide array of sport on television, their consumption behaviour could be as a result of them choosing to only watch cricket mainly when a specific team is playing (otherwise they substitute their television consumption for other televised sport).

As a general observation, when individuals are classified as under the conventional definitions, the biggest proportion of individuals who agreed to the different questions were univores; whereas the opposite was true in the case of Definitions 1 to 4. This finding suggests that a significant difference lies within motivation for attendance and classifications. More specifically this suggests that, when individuals are classified in terms of the exclusivity of their taste spectrum on the basis of the nature/eliteness of their consumption choices, there are significant differences in their motivation to attend as opposed to when the breadth of consumption is used as the basis of the classification. A possible reason for such differences could stem from the way in which sports were classified as elite/non-elite. It is, however, not apparent why motivation would be vastly different under the conventional definitions as opposed to other understandings of consumption behaviour. This would be a fruitful area of future research in order to ascertain why such significant differences exist. Nonetheless, it highlights the importance of considering more than just the conventional definitions in order to gain a holistic understanding of motivation for attendance.

Under Definition 1, statistically significant differences in motivation between omnivores and univores pertained to the social experience of the game. More specifically, under Definition 1, a strong social motive for attendance is evident amongst omnivores. That is, the majority of the individuals who said yes to Question 8, 14 and 18 (all of which are underpinned by a social motive) were omnivores. In order to encourage omnivorous consumption behaviour (which could in turn be interpreted as encouraging social tolerance) it could therefore be recommended that hosts of sports events invest in social elements of the experience (for example, providing complementary entertainment at the grounds throughout the event).

Across all four alternative definitions, significant differences in response to Question 21 were found. The majority of the omnivores under Definition 1 to 4 agreed that playing sport at school developed their love for sport. This could signal to stakeholders that, in order to encourage omnivorous behaviour, it is important to encourage school-goers to participate in sport. Therefore, it may be worthwhile to invest in school sport and developmental sports programs that have the potential to develop a love for sport at a young age. In line with the arguments by White and Wilson (1999), Wilson (2002), Thrane (2001) and Mehus (2005), encouraging participation of sport at school could imply that there be positive developmental implications for other forms of sports consumption too (e.g. in turn encouraging omnivorous television and live sports consumption). This recommendation could in turn essentially assist South Africa's Department of Sport and Recreation (2014) in achieving its mission⁴⁰.

Finally, from the lack of significant differences across univores and omnivores for Questions 10 and 22 across all definitions, it could be suggested that consumption of sport in South Africa is not significantly dependent on the presence of certain players. That is, motives for consumption do not seem to be underpinned by the presence of specific players. This could in turn imply that marketers of cricket events should not focus on using specific players to market the event but structure the marketing focus around the sport as a whole.

7. Conclusion

From an overall analysis of the findings on univore status under all the definitions, it is concluded that consumption behaviour of sport displays elements of social connotations. It is concluded that sports consumption behaviour is linked to educational hierarchies, but not significantly to levels of income. Given that education and income have generally been used as a proxy for social position, the findings of this study therefore do not support any previous empirical studies in its entirety. From an overall analysis of the findings, it is also showed that there are elements of racial differences in sports consumption behaviour in South Africa, suggesting that race plays a role in underpinning sports consumption behaviour. This finding is particularly pertinent given South Africa's history of racial divides. Considering the social tolerance implications that could stem from univorous consumption behaviour, it is suggested that stakeholders consider strategies to eradicate or minimise racial differences in consumption behaviour of sport. Suggestions of such strategies are, to ensure that marketing is targeted at all racial groups (for example, using professional players of different races in marketing media or advertising of sport events in different South African languages). Based on the arguments of Bryson (1996) and Van Eijck and Leivens (2008), such strategies could encourage relatively more inclusive taste spectrums and in turn lead to higher levels of social tolerance levels in South Africa, particularly amongst racial groups.

It appears that sports consumption behaviour of Eastern Cape cricket spectators is particularly unique when compared to consumption behaviour of cultural consumers in South Africa and consumption behaviour of sport internationally. The findings of the study differ from both the finding on sports consumption behaviour in other countries and from the findings of other forms of luxury activities consumption behaviour within South Africa.

Finally, in terms of motivation for attendance, it is concluded that there are differences in motivation for attendance between omnivores and univores. Considering the differences in motivation between omnivores and univores, proved useful in putting forward practical recommendations to stakeholders in order to promote specific consumption behaviour that could in turn have positive social tolerance ramifications.

⁴⁰ As per their mission statement the Department of Sport and Recreation's (2014:1) mission is "to transform the delivery of sport and recreation by ensuring equitable access, development and excellence at all levels of participation and to harness the socio-economic contributions that can create a better life for all South Africans".

8. Limitations of study and suggestions for future research

The first limitation of the study pertains to the cross-sectional nature of the research design. Given that consumption behaviour is dynamic as opposed to static in nature, making definite causal inferences from cross-sectional data should only be attempted with caution. It is suggested that future research should consider the use of longitudinal data in order to make accurate causal inferences and to account for the dynamic nature of sports consumption.

The second possible limitation is that even though the results may be representative of cricket spectators in the Eastern Cape, generalization of the findings to consumers of the wider context is limited. The results of the study only pertain to cricket spectators and therefore one cannot infer the findings to all sports spectators. The generalization of the results is further limited in that data collection was conducted at the same ground and same catchment area. Furthermore, and related to this, is the limitation of the relatively small sample size of the study. Thus, it is suggested that, in order to attain results that can be generalized to South African sports consumers, future research should be conducted at a range of sporting events, hosted at a range of stadia throughout the country.

The final shortcoming of the study could be the presence of common-method variance. Given that data collection is performed by means of a questionnaire only, there may be spurious correlation between the variables in the study, which may have in turn caused the relationships between variables to be under- or over-stated. Thus, it is suggested that future research in this area collect data by means of triangulation.

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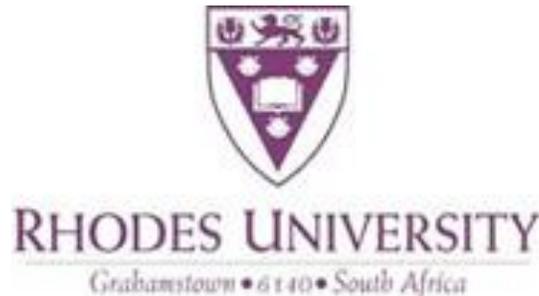
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APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix A is a copy of the questionnaire that was developed and administered to ascertain motives for consumption behaviour and possible responses revealing tendencies of sporting omnivores and univores for various definitions (referred to throughout Chapter Three). The first page was given to each participant to read prior to the commencement of their interview. The subsequent pages of this appendix are the questionnaire itself. The text stated in square brackets are instructions to the interviewers, prompting them to either do or say specific things at different stages of the interview.



Dear Participant

The purpose of this research is to investigate consumption behaviour of cricket in South Africa. The research aims to identify the motives for match attendance with the ultimate goal of adding value to the game from a developmental and informed marketing perspective. The research is commissioned by both Rhodes University and the Chevrolet Warriors, represented by Dave Emslie and Leigh Deyzel.

I kindly request that you share your motives for match attendance by completing the questionnaire. The questionnaire will take approximately 10 minutes to complete. There are no correct or incorrect answers and your opinion is highly valued. You may withdraw from completing the survey at any time.

Please note that your participation in this survey is voluntary and anonymous. All information provided will be used for research purposes only. Privacy and confidentiality will be respected. The data obtained will be housed in private storage upon completion of the analysis. The research study has been approved by the Departmental Research Ethics Committee as well as by the Faculty of Commerce Higher Degrees Committee.

Thank you for taking the time to complete the survey and help us ensure that the legacy of the game be maintained and developed.

Ms Kelcey Brock and Prof GCG Fraser
Department of Economics and Economic History
Rhodes University
Grahamstown

[The first part of the survey is to find out what your opinions are on watching cricket and other sport. I will read out a statement, and you will then please tell me if you strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree with it. OK? If you would like me to repeat a statement, or remind you of the categories as we go along, just let me know.]

STRONGLY AGREE (SA), AGREE (A), DISAGREE (D), STRONGLY DISAGREE (SD)	SA	A	D	SD
1. I consider myself a fan of South African cricket				
2. Cricket is the <u>only</u> sport I choose to watch live (in attendance)				
3. I play/ have played cricket competitively before (At school/provincially/internationally)				
4. I consider myself a fan of cricket as a whole and not just of a particular team				
5. I attend cricket matches mainly because my friends or family are attending				
6. From time to time I go to other professional sports matches				
7. I prefer watching sport live as opposed to on TV.				
8. The social experience (e.g. socialising at the game, dancing, beer tent, competitions etc) is just as important as the cricket match				
9. I would consider myself as a sports fan rather than just a cricket fan				
10. I attend cricket matches because I am specifically a fan of one/some of the players				
11. I enjoy attending the before and after game entertainment				
12. I would like to attend more live cricket matches				
13. I prefer close competition games where the outcome is uncertain				
14. I attend the cricket matches as a way of meeting new people				
15. I watch sports channels on TV				
16. Cricket is my favourite sport to watch live				
17. I feel the matches are advertised well				
18. Watching cricket allows me to feel part of the community				
19. Watching South African cricket makes me feel proudly South African				
20. I believe that the ticket price is worth the experience				
21. I believe playing sport at school developed my love for sport				

22. If a certain player/some players was/were not playing I would not attend				
23. Some of my family members play/have played cricket competitively				
24. I watch both professional and amateur cricket				
25. Cricket is the only sport I choose to watch on TV				

[Please ask the participants the following open-ended questions]

a) Approximately how many live cricket matches do you watch in a 12 month period?

.....

b) Do you watch cricket on TV?

 YES

 NO

c) During the cricket season, about how many games would you say you watch on TV per month?

.....

d) What other sports do you go and watch live?

Golf	
Tennis	
Soccer	
Rugby	
Horse Racing	

Other (Please specify).....

e) What sport do you watch on TV?

Golf	
Tennis	
Soccer	
Rugby	
Horse Racing	

Other (Please Specify).....

f) What influences whether you watch a cricket match live or on TV?

.....

.....

.....

.....

[Thanks very much for your help so far. The last part of the questionnaire is about you. While we support non-discrimination, this information will be useful in analysing the results. Your name will not be attached to the questionnaire at all, and you can refuse to answer a particular question if you like. OK?]

g) How old are you?

h) Please record this information but DO NOT ask the participants
Race:
Gender:

[Provide participants with the table and ask them to please state what their highest level of education is – record their response on the table below]

i) Highest level of education:

Primary education	Secondary education but no matric	Matric	Tertiary education	Other (please specify)

j) Personal Monthly Net (after tax) Income Bracket

[Provide interviewee with income bracket table and ask them to please state which bracket best describes their personal monthly income after tax – record their response on the table below]

R0 – R10 000	R10 000 – R20 000	R20 000 – R30 000	R30 000 – R40 000	R 50 000 – R60 000	R60 000 – R70 000	R70 000 +

[Thank you for taking the time to complete the questionnaire.]

Interviewer's initials:

Interviewer, please state whether you believe that the data collected is reliable (e.g. the participant understood all questions asked, the participant was not under the influence of alcohol or not affected by any other factors that may skew their responses): **Y/N**

APPENDIX B:

POST-ESTIMATION F-TEST RESULTS OF SIGNIFICANCE BETWEEN EXPLANATORY VARIABLES (OTHER THAN BETWEEN THE SPECIFIED BASE GROUPS AS TESTED FOR IN THE INDIVIDUAL PROBIT MODELS).

Table B1: Post-estimation F-test results showing significance between explanatory variables

Test for significant difference between:	Definition 1 ⁴¹		Definition 2 ⁴²		Definition 3 ⁴³		Definition 4 ⁴⁴		Conventional Live		Conventional TV	
	χ^2	P> χ^2	χ^2	P> χ^2	χ^2	P> χ^2						
Race:												
White and Coloured	1.78	0.1823	3.58	0.0585	0.19	0.6669	5.81	0.0159	0.07	0.7970	1.35	0.2459
White and Indian	6.80	0.0091	1.81	0.1783	1.85	0.1738	9.69	0.0019	0.32	0.5739	0.90	0.3429
Coloured and Indian	3.47	0.0624	0.01	0.9080	1.21	0.2722	1.74	0.1871	0.14	0.7120	0.02	0.8800
Age:												
21-30 and 31-40	0.01	0.9414	0.28	0.5969	0.17	0.6825	0.53	0.4665	1.70	0.1927	0.06	0.8040
21-30 and 41-50	1.41	0.2349	0.06	0.8139	0.03	0.8673	2.00	0.1572	1.47	0.2258	0.11	0.7426
21-30 and 51+	1.85	0.1733	0.39	0.5332	0.47	0.4911	3.99	0.0457	1.28	0.2572	0.86	0.3536
31-40 and 41-50	0.93	0.3339	0.45	0.5002	0.04	0.8396	0.31	0.5764	0.05	0.8273	0.26	0.6084
31-40 and 51+	1.22	0.2688	0.01	0.9261	0.77	0.3801	1.48	0.2240	0.07	0.7970	1.06	0.3041
41-50 and 51+	0.01	0.9385	0.63	0.4291	0.50	0.4797	0.48	0.4893	0.00	0.9662	0.07	0.7966
Education:												
Secondary (no matric) and matric	0.18	0.6738	5.41	0.0200	0.00	0.9531	2.40	0.1216	8.66	0.0032	2.49	0.1147
Secondary (no matric) and post-secondary	1.09	0.2967	2.21	0.1372	0.10	0.7525	8.19	0.0042	5.39	0.0203	0.53	0.4657
Matric and post-secondary	1.00	0.3173	0.97	0.3236	0.41	0.5236	4.16	0.0318	0.24	0.6262	0.85	0.3559
Income:												
R20001- R40 001	0.65	0.4210	0.11	0.7357	0.62	0.4311	0.83	0.3636	0.25	0.6148		

Worth noting is that 'Income' could not be included in the regression for the Conventional Definition-TV. This is because only 12 individuals were classified as univores, and after a cross-tabulation, it became evident that of these 12 individuals, none fell into the top two income categories; hence, no comparison groups were available for the omnivore status.

⁴¹ For Definition 1 participants were classified as univores if they watched only professional cricket; or omnivores if they watched professional and amateur cricket.

⁴² For Definition 2 participants were classified as univores if they watched only cricket live; or omnivores if they watched cricket and other sport live.

⁴³ For Definition 3 participants were classified as univores if they watched only cricket on television; or omnivores if they watched cricket and other sport on television.

⁴⁴ For Definition 4 participants were classified as univores if they considered themselves to be only cricket fans; or omnivores if they considered themselves general sports fans.