‘On Your Marks, Get Set, Go!”

The Development of the Sport and Physical Activity Value (S&PAVAL) Model for use in the Leisure Industry.

PAULA KEARNS

A submission presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the University of South Wales/Prifysgol De Cymru for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration

May 2013
Abstract

Physical inactivity has been recognised as one of the 21st Century’s contemporary public health issues (WHO, 2009). Given the prevalence of inactivity among the adult population, it is anticipated that the greatest public health benefits will come from decreasing the number of individual living a sedentary lifestyle. The physical inactivity status quo is not therefore acceptable, as Henry Ford once said ‘if we keep on doing what we have always done, we will always get what we have always got’. It is therefore essential that new thinking, from a different perspective is needed to readdress the general participation apathy and inequalities that exist (Fahey et al., 2004; Sport England, 2009; Sport Scotland, 2006; Sports Council for Wales, 2005).

This research is central to this ‘new thinking’. This thesis represents the first examination of the value construct as it pertains to the consumption of sport and physical activity which contributes a more developed understanding of the consumption values that underpin an active adult’s participation. Whilst, the antecedents and determinants of an individual’s participation in sport and physical activity have been considered from a range of academic perspectives. A review and synthesis of theories and models from the fields of leisure studies, behavioural psychology and consumer behaviour identified a significant gap in the extant literature which related to expectancy-value process underpinning the concept of exchange and the importance of value of outcomes to the adoption of a healthy behaviour, such as physical activity.

Despite the emerging importance of value as an incentive for customers to perform desired behaviours, there is little research that considers value or value creation from a sport and physical activity context or indeed from the participant’s perspective. In exploring the consumer value construct, a social marketing perspective was adopted as its central tenet is to achieve a voluntary, not forced or coerced, behaviour change. In this regard participation in sport and physical activity was viewed as consumer behaviour, here physically active adults are consumers, and exercise is an offering in an already crowded market place, where value expectations influence an individual’s
health behaviour intentions.

The boundary of knowledge this thesis contributes to is a deeper and more meaningful understanding of customer value in a sport and physical activity setting. One of the key theoretical contributions is the creation of the original Sport & Physical Activity Value (S&PAVAL) Model, which is comprised of 8-consumption values: Physical Environment – ambiance (0.77), Physical Environment – surroundings (0.68), Altruistic Value, Benefits of Exercise (0.67), Quality of Service Experience (0.62), Cost of Exercise (0.60), Fun & Enjoyment Value (0.58) and Social Value (0.50), which informed by both theoretical and empirical considerations defines the dimensions of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting. The study makes a second original contribution by offering the first examination of gender, age and social status as it pertains to consumer value theory and reveals that active adults consumption values differ with gender, age and social class. Following Sheth & Uslay (2007, p.303) called for marketers to use the value creating paradigm to ‘reach beyond value in exchange and even value in use’ to think about other types of value, a third significant contribution is made as insights gained from the study questions the simplicity of value being conceived as an either (value-in-exchange) or (value-in-use) concept and proposes that the multi-dimensional nature of consumer value may be better conceptualised as a value continuum. The final theoretical contribution this thesis makes is the development of the S&PAVAL Consumption Process Model which through the consolidation and synthesis of the three distinct literature strands (leisure studies, behavioural psychology and consumer behaviour) represents the re-conceptualisation of the consumption process through the common perspective of the 8-consumption values as ‘facilitators’ to participation, as ‘triggers’ for behaviour change and finally as ‘sources of value’.

The boundary of management practise this thesis contributes too is the skilful application of the S&PAVAL consumption values to the design of products, services and offerings that entice and motivate individuals to become more physically active. The S&PAVAL Model is a significant contribution towards understanding what ‘it’ is that adult’s value from being physically active, it also allows policy-makers and
leisure providers to present physical activity opportunities to both new and existing audiences that add value and make sense in individual everyday life (Holt, 2003; Zainuddin et al., 2011; Andreasen, 2012). Value creation is a central marketing concept which has been under investigated in general (Hunt, 1999) and not at all within a sport and physical activity setting. In this regard, the S&PAVAL Value Creation Framework and S&PAVAL Consumption Process Model both represent significant and ground breaking advancements regarding understanding how, through a service providers interaction with its customers, value can be co-created at various stage of the consumption experience (Russell-Bennett et al., 2009; Zainuddin et al., 2008; 2011) by translating the mindset of value creation and co-creation of value into the sport and physical activity setting for the first time. The final practitioner contribution is in terms of customer insight, by fully comprehending how gender, age and social status modify the S&PAVAL consumption values this extends practitioners understanding of sporting behaviours and attitudes, which in turn can be used to develop more effective targeted communications through an understanding of what messages adults will identify with in order to embrace encourage, and maintain a physically active lifestyle.
Declaration

This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.

Signed …………………………………………………………………………… (Candidate)
Date …………………………………………………………………………………

Statement 1
This thesis is the result of my own investigations, except where otherwise stated. Other sources are acknowledged by references. A bibliography is appended.

Signed …………………………………………………………………………… (Candidate)
Date …………………………………………………………………………………

Statement 2
I hereby give consent for my thesis, if accepted, to be available for photocopying and inter-library loan, and for the title and summary to be made available to outside organisations.

Signed …………………………………………………………………………… (Candidate)
Date …………………………………………………………………………………
Acknowledgements

The following thesis, whilst an individual piece of work, would not have been possible without the insights, support and direction of several people.

Firstly, I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisors Dr. Heather Skinner and Dr Eoin Plant from the University of South Wales Business School. Their expertise, time, patience and of course sense of humour have been sorely tested and sincerely appreciated. Thank you Heather for encouraging me to publish and present at conferences outside my comfort zone.

Secondly, I would like to take the opportunity to thank Mr Andrew Thomas from Bridgend County Borough Council’s Sport and Physical Activity Service for allowing me access to their ‘active adults’, as without them and Andrews support this thesis would not have been possible.

Thirdly, I would like to acknowledge the Doctorate of Business Administration (DBA) Programme at the University of South Wales, for providing such a supportive environment within which to learn and develop.

Finally, I would like to thank my family and friendly who have supported me through what has been the most challenging task I have undertaken in my life so far. Hopefully, they will all be seeing a bit more of me now the end is near – so watch out!
Publications

1. Peer reviewed publications:

2. Conference abstracts:
   
   
   
   
# Table of Content

*Abstract* ................................................................................................................................. ii

*Declaration* ............................................................................................................................... v

*Acknowledgements* .................................................................................................................. vi

*Publications* .............................................................................................................................. vii

*Table of Content* ....................................................................................................................... viii

*List of Tables* ............................................................................................................................ xvii

*List of Figures* ........................................................................................................................... xx

**Chapter 1: Introduction** .......................................................................................................... 2

1.1 Introduction .............................................................................................................................. 2

1.2 Research Rationale and Justification ...................................................................................... 2

1.3 Research Problem, Aim and Questions ................................................................................... 8

1.4 Methodology ............................................................................................................................ 9

1.4.1 Quantitative strand .............................................................................................................. 9

1.4.2 Qualitative strand ............................................................................................................... 11

1.5 Summary of Findings and Main Contributions .................................................................... 12

1.5.1 Dimension of Consumer Value in a Sport and Physical Activity Setting ...................... 12

1.5.2 The Role of Social-demographic Modifying Factors ....................................................... 12

1.5.3 Towards a ‘Continuum of Value’ ..................................................................................... 12

1.5.4 S&PAVAL Consumption Process .................................................................................. 13

1.5.5 Mixed Methodology ......................................................................................................... 13

1.5.6 Sport and Physical Activity Offering .............................................................................. 13

1.5.7 Value Creation ................................................................................................................... 13

1.5.8 Value-based Market Segmentation .................................................................................. 14

1.6 Research Scope ....................................................................................................................... 14

1.6.1 Sport and Physical Activity Sector .................................................................................. 14

1.6.2 Sport and Physical Activity Phenomenon ....................................................................... 16

1.7 Thesis Outline ......................................................................................................................... 17

1.8 Summary ............................................................................................................................... 19

**Chapter 2: Review of Literature** .......................................................................................... 22

2.1 Introduction ............................................................................................................................ 22

2.2 The Marketing of Brotherhood: From Soap to Sport & Physical Activity ......................... 24

2.2.1 The Carrot, the Stick and the Promise ......................................................................... 25

2.2.2 The Ever Broadening Concept of Marketing ................................................................. 27

2.2.3 Social Marketing ............................................................................................................. 31
3.4.1 The development of the Preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework

3.4.1.1 Efficiency ................................................................. 102
3.4.1.2 Quality ................................................................. 103
3.4.1.3 Social value ............................................................ 104
3.4.1.4 Play................................................................. 105
3.4.1.5 Aesthetics ............................................................. 106
3.4.1.6 Altruistic value ..................................................... 107

3.4.2 The Preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework ........................................... 108

3.4.3 Evaluating the Preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework ................... 108

3.5 Summary ........................................................................... 112

Chapter 4: Methodology ......................................................................... 114

4.1 Introduction ...................................................................... 114
4.2 Philosophical Constructs .................................................. 114
4.3 Pragmatic Research Paradigm ........................................... 116
4.4 Mixed Methods Research Design ....................................... 119
  4.4.1 The Research Population ........................................... 123
  4.4.2 Sample Strategy ........................................................ 124
4.5 Quantitative Strand ........................................................... 127
  4.5.1 Sample Size ............................................................... 127
  4.5.2 Data Collection Methods ............................................. 129
    4.5.2.1 S&PAVAL Scale Development Process ................ 129
      4.5.2.1.1 The preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework .... 131
      4.5.2.1.2 Generating a Pool of Items (questions) ................. 133
      4.5.2.1.3 Administer items to an expert panel ..................... 140
      4.5.2.1.4 Finalising the ‘Active Adults’ Survey ................... 141
        4.5.2.1.4.1 Item Statements/Wording ............................ 141
        4.5.2.1.4.2 Avoiding Bias ............................................. 141
        4.5.2.1.4.3 Using a Likert Scale .................................... 142
        4.5.2.1.4.4 Active Adults Survey Structure ..................... 143
      4.5.2.1.5 Pilot the ‘Active Adults’ Survey ......................... 144
      4.5.2.1.6 Administer the ‘Active Adults’ Survey .................. 144
  4.5.3 Data Analysis ............................................................... 147
    4.5.3.1 Subscale Internal Consistency and Reliability Analysis .... 147
    4.5.3.2 Factor Analysis .................................................... 148
      4.5.3.2.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis ............................. 150
4.5.3.2.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis ......................................................... 150
4.5.4 Validity & Reliability .................................................................................. 153
  4.5.4.1 Construct Validity .................................................................................. 153
    4.5.4.1.1 Content Validity ............................................................................ 154
    4.5.4.1.2 Face Validity ................................................................................ 154
    4.5.4.1.3 Convergent Validity ...................................................................... 154
    4.5.4.1.4 Discriminant Validity ................................................................... 154
  4.5.4.2 Reliability ............................................................................................ 154
    4.5.4.2.1 S&PAVAL Scale Reliability .......................................................... 155
    4.5.4.2.2 Composite Reliability .................................................................. 155
4.6 Qualitative Strand ......................................................................................... 155
  4.6.1 Sample Size ............................................................................................ 155
  4.6.2 Data Collection Methods ......................................................................... 159
    4.6.2.1 S&PAVAL In-depth Interview Protocols .......................................... 159
  4.6.3 Data Analysis .......................................................................................... 161
    4.6.3.1 The Hermeneutic Spiral .................................................................. 162
  4.6.4 Validity & Reliability ................................................................................ 163
    4.6.4.1 Credibility ....................................................................................... 164
    4.6.4.2 Transferability ................................................................................ 164
    4.6.4.3 Dependability .................................................................................. 165
    4.6.4.4 Confirmability ................................................................................ 165
    4.6.4.5 Researcher Bias .............................................................................. 165
4.7 Ethical Considerations ................................................................................... 166
4.8 Summary ........................................................................................................ 168

Chapter 5a: Analysis of Findings - Quantitative Data ........................................ 171
5a.1 Introduction ................................................................................................ 171
5a.2 Exploring the data ..................................................................................... 172
  5a.2.1 Descriptive Statistics .......................................................................... 172
  5a.2.2 Missing Value Analysis ....................................................................... 173
  5a.2.3 Parametric Data – testing assumptions ............................................. 174
  5a.3 Scale Reliability ....................................................................................... 176
  5a.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) .......................................................... 183
    5a.4.1 Reliability Measurements .................................................................. 184
    5a.4.2 Correlation Matrix ......................................................................... 185
    5a.4.3 Factor Analysis Protocol ................................................................. 185
5b.2.4.2 Social Opportunities .............................................................. 245
5b.2.4.3 Positive Peer Review ............................................................ 245
5b.2.4.4 Favourable Impressions ......................................................... 246
5b.2.5 Quality Service Experience ...................................................... 246
  5b.2.5.1 Customer Experience ......................................................... 247
  5b.2.5.2 Relationships and Rapport .................................................. 248
5b.2.6 Altruistic Value ..................................................................... 248
  5b.2.6.1 Avoiding Ill-health .............................................................. 249
  5b.2.6.2 Prolonged Life Expectancy .................................................. 249
  5b.2.6.3 Independence in later life .................................................... 250
5b.2.7 Fun & Enjoyment .................................................................. 250
  5b.2.7.1 Friendliness, Friendship and Fun ........................................... 251
  5b.2.7.2 ‘Love-Hate’ ..................................................................... 252
5b.2.8 Notion of Value .................................................................... 253
  5b.2.8.1 Value-in-exchange ............................................................... 253
  5b.2.8.2 Value-in-use .................................................................... 254
  5b.2.8.3 Elemental Value ................................................................. 254
5b.3 Summary ................................................................................. 255

Chapter 6 Discussion ..................................................................... 257

6.1 Introduction .............................................................................. 257
6.2 What are the dimensions of Consumer Value in a Sport & Physical Activity Setting? ...................................................... 259
  6.2.1 Introduction ........................................................................ 259
6.2.2 Sport and Physical Activity (S&PAVAL) Model ......................... 259
  6.2.2.1 Physical Environment – ambiance ...................................... 261
  6.2.2.2 Physical Environment - surroundings .................................. 266
  6.2.2.3 Altruistic Value ................................................................. 270
  6.2.2.4 Benefits of Exercise ............................................................ 275
  6.2.2.5 Quality of Service Experience .......................................... 282
  6.2.2.6 Cost of Exercise ................................................................. 286
  6.2.2.7 Fun & Enjoyment ............................................................... 291
  6.2.2.8 Social Value ...................................................................... 295
  6.2.3 Summary ............................................................................ 299
6.3 The Role of Social-demographic Modifying Factors ...................... 299
  6.3.1 Introduction........................................................................ 299
  6.3.2 Gender ............................................................................... 300
7.2.1.1 Physical Environment – ambiance and surroundings .......... 356
7.2.1.2 Altruistic Value ......................................................... 357
7.2.1.3 Benefits of Exercise .................................................... 357
7.2.1.4 Quality of Service Experience ....................................... 358
7.2.1.5 Cost of Exercise ........................................................ 358
7.2.1.6 Fun & Enjoyment ....................................................... 359
7.2.1.7 Social Value ............................................................ 359
7.2.1.8 Summary ............................................................... 360
7.2.2 The Role of Social-demographic Modifying Factors ............... 363
7.2.3 Towards a ‘Continuum of Value’ ....................................... 366
7.2.4 Consumption of Consumer Value in a Sport and Physical Activity Setting ..................................................... 366
  7.2.4.1 Mental Pre-consumption Stage ...................................... 369
  7.2.4.2 Consumption Stage .................................................. 371
  7.2.4.3 Mental Post-consumption Stage ..................................... 373
  7.2.4.4 Summary ............................................................... 374
7.3 Methodological Contributions ............................................. 378
7.4 Contributions to Practise .................................................... 379
  7.4.1 Sport and Physical Activity Offering ................................. 379
  7.4.2 Value Creation .......................................................... 381
  7.4.3 Market Segmentation .................................................. 382
7.5 Limitations ......................................................................... 384
7.6 Future Research ............................................................... 386
7.7 Summary ........................................................................... 387

References ............................................................................. 389

Appendix 1 – Active Adults Questionnaire .................................. 433
Appendix 2 – Exemplar Active Adults Interview No.1 ..................... 437
Appendix 2 – Exemplar Active Adults Interview No.13 ................... 445
List of Tables

Table 2. 1 Marketing’s Dominant Logics .............................................................. 28
Table 2. 2 Anderasen’s Six Essential Benchmarks of Social Marketing .......... 34
Table 2. 3 Definition of Consumer Value.......................................................... 64
Table 2. 4 Sources of Customer Value.............................................................. 73
Table 2. 5 Theories and Models used in Health Behaviours and Physical Activity Research .................................................. 80

Table 4. 1 Taxonomy of Sampling Strategies...................................................... 125
Table 4. 2 Defining the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual model .......... 132
Table 4. 3 Sources of S&PAVAL Scale Items .................................................. 134
Table 4. 4 BridgeCard Membership Characteristic (July 2011) .............. 158
Table 4. 5 BridgeCard Membership Stratified Sample .................... 158
Table 4. 6 The preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework interview questions .......................................................... 160

Table 5a. 1 Active Adults Age ........................................................................ 172
Table 5a. 2 Active Adults Social Status ............................................................. 172
Table 5a. 3 Active Adults Membership Types ............................................... 173
Table 5a. 4 Skewness and Kurtosis Analysis .................................................. 175
Table 5a. 5 Quality & Service Excellence: Item–Total Statistics .......... 177
Table 5a. 6 Efficiency Benefit: Item –Total Statistics .................................. 178
Table 5a. 7 Efficiency - Costs: Item –Total Statistics .................................. 179
Table 5a. 8 Social Value: Item–Total Statistics ............................................. 179
Table 5a. 9 Fun & Enjoyment Item–Total Statistics ...................................... 180
Table 5a. 10 Aesthetic: Item –Total Statistics ................................................ 181
Table 5a. 11 Altruistic Value: Item–Total Statistics ........................................ 181
Table 5a. 12 S&PAVAL Scale: Retain/Reject Summary .......... 182
Table 5a. 13KMO and Bartlett’s Test ............................................................... 185
Table 5a. 14 Total Variance Explained ............................................................. 189
Table 5a. 15 S&PAVAL Exploratory Factor Analysis .................................. 192
Table 5a. 16 Model Fit Indicators Thresholds .............................................. 197
Table 5a. 17 Standardised Item Loadings ......................................................... 198
Table 5a. 18 Validity and Reliability Table ...................................................... 203
Table 5a. 19 Factor Correlation Matrix with Square Root of the AVE .... 204
Table 5a. 20 S&PAVAL Model: final scale and index reliability .......... 206
Table 5a. 21 Goodness of fit of Consumer Value as a second-order factor .. 207
Table 5a. 22 Gender: Benefits of Exercise Consumption Value ............... 210
Table 5a. 23 Gender: Physical Environment (surroundings) Consumption Value .. 211
Table 5a. 24 Gender: Physical Environment (ambiance) Consumption Value ......212
Table 5a. 25 Gender: Social Value Consumption Value ........................................212
Table 5a. 26 Gender: Quality of Service Experience Consumption Value .............213
Table 5a. 27 Gender: Altruistic Value Consumption Value ..................................................214
Table 5a. 28 SES: Costs of Exercise Consumption Value ........................................215
Table 5a. 29 SES: Physical Environment (surroundings) Consumption Value ......217
Table 5a. 30 Social Economic Difference – Physical Environment (ambiance)
Consumption Value ...........................................................................................219
Table 5a. 31 SES: Social Value Consumption Value ..............................................220
Table 5a. 32 SES: Quality of Service Experience Consumption Value ................221
Table 5a. 33 SES: Fun and Enjoyment Consumption Value ........................................223
Table 5a. 34 Age: Benefits of Exercise Consumption Value ........................................223
Table 5a. 35 Age: Cost of Exercise Consumption Value ........................................224
Table 5a. 36 Age: Physical Environment (surroundings) Consumption Value ....226
Table 5a. 37 Age: Physical Environment (ambiance) Consumption Value ..........227
Table 5a. 38 Age Difference – Social Value Consumption Value ..........................229
Table 5a. 39 Age: Fun and Enjoyment Consumption Value ........................................230

Table 6. 1 Physical Environment (ambiance) Value Dimension – summary of support, contradictions and contributions. ..................................................................................265
Table 6. 2 Physical Environment (surroundings) Value Dimension – summary of support, contradictions and contributions. ..................................................................................269
Table 6. 3 Altruistic Value Dimension – summary of support, contradictions and contributions..................................................................................................................274
Table 6. 4 Benefits-of-Exercise Value Dimension – summary of support, contradictions and contributions. ..................................................................................................................280
Table 6. 5 Quality of Service Experience Value Dimension – summary of support, contradictions and contributions. ..................................................................................................................285
Table 6. 6 Cost-of-Exercise Value Dimension – summary of support, contradictions and contributions. ..................................................................................................................290
Table 6. 7 Fun and Enjoyment Value Dimension – summary of support, contradictions and contributions. ..................................................................................................................294
Table 6. 8 Social Value Dimension – summary of support, contradictions and contributions. ..................................................................................................................298
Table 6. 9 S&PAVAL Dimension Comparison ..........................................................................................299
Table 6. 10 Social-demographic Modifying Factors – summary of significant findings, contributions and contradictions ..........................................................307
Table 6. 11 The Multi-dimensional Nature of Consumer Value in a S&PA Setting – summary of significant findings, contributions and contradictions ..................................................318
Table 6. 12 S&PAVAL as Facilitators of Participation Framework ........................................325
Table 6. 13 S&PAVAL Consumption Values as Behaviour Change ‘Triggers’ ....331
Table 6. 14 S&PAVAL Value Creation Framework ............................................ 334
Table 6. 15 Sources of customer Value ............................................................ 335
Table 6. 16 S&PAVAL Value Creation Framework ............................................ 341
Table 6. 17 S&PAVAL Dimension Comparison .............................................. 361

Table 7. 1 Defining the S&PAVAL Model .......................................................... 355
Table 7. 2 S&PAVAL Model Theoretical Contributions. ..................................... 362
Table 7. 3 Social-demographic Modifying Factors Theoretical Contributions. ..... 365
Table 7. 4 S&PAVAL Consumption Process Model Theoretical Contributions. ... 375
List of Figures

Figure 1. 1 Sport England: Adults Participation Rates (Oct 2006 to Oct 2012) ........... 3
Figure 1. 2 Sector Delimitation of Research Scope ................................................. 15
Figure 1. 3 Creating and Active Wales – The Physical Activity Spectrum ............ 17
Figure 1. 5 Sector Delimitation of Research Scope ................................................. 384

Figure 2. 1 Review of Literature Plan ................................................................. 23
Figure 2. 2 Intrapersonal Barriers ........................................................................ 47
Figure 2. 3 Interpersonal Barriers .......................................................................... 47
Figure 2. 4 Structural Barriers ............................................................................... 48
Figure 2. 5 A Hierarchical Model of Leisure Constraints ......................................... 49
Figure 2. 6 The ‘Balance Position’ ......................................................................... 51
Figure 2. 7 Facilitators to Leisure Model ............................................................. 52
Figure 2. 8 Variations in Constraint by Age ........................................................... 59
Figure 2. 9 Value and Customer Value ................................................................. 63
Figure 2. 10 The Nature of Consumer Value ......................................................... 65
Figure 2. 11 Customer Value Hierarchy Model ..................................................... 69
Figure 2. 12 Typology of Experience Value ......................................................... 71
Figure 2. 13 Describing Value in a Social Marketing Service .................................. 75
Figure 2. 14 Stimulus – Response - Reward ......................................................... 81
Figure 2. 15 Social Cognitive Theory ..................................................................... 82
Figure 2. 16 Theory of Reasoned Action .............................................................. 84
Figure 2. 17 Theory of Planned Behaviour ........................................................... 86
Figure 2. 18 Health Belief Model .......................................................................... 88
Figure 2. 19 Social Marketing Contribution to Expectancy-value Outcomes .......... 93

Figure 3. 1 Theoretical and Conceptual Overview ............................................... 97
Figure 3. 2 Active Adults as a Consumer ............................................................. 99
Figure 3. 3 Initial S&PAVAL Conceptual Framework ........................................... 101
Figure 3. 3 The Preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework ............................. 108

Figure 4. 1 Convergent Parallel Design ............................................................... 121
Figure 4. 2 Procedures adopted in Implementing a Convergent Parallel Design ... 123
Figure 4. 3 Purposive-Mixed-Probability Sampling Continuum ............................ 126
Figure 4. 4 S&PAVAL Scale Development Process ............................................. 130
Figure 4. 5 The Preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework ............................ 131
Figure 4. 6 An Active Adults Survey Completion Point – Reception .................... 145
Figure 4. 7 An Active Adults Survey Completion Point – Communal Area ......... 145
Figure 4. 8 Subscale Internal Consistency and Reliability Analysis ...................... 147
Figure 4. 9 Classifications of Multivariate Methods ............................................ 148
Figure 4. 10 Rietvel & Van Hout (1993) EFA Flow Diagram .............................. 151
Chapter 1
Introduction
Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This thesis represents the first examination of the value construct as it pertains to the consumption of sport and physical activity. The aim of this chapter is to outline the thesis direction and provide the context for the subsequent chapters. The chapter starts by outlining the research rationale and justification (1.2) which is followed in section 1.3 by identifying the research problem, then developing the research aim and outlining the three supporting research questions.

The next section (1.4) provides an overview of the pragmatically informed mixed methodology is provided. This leads to a summary of the thesis main findings and contributions to theory, methodology and practise (1.5). The next section 1.6 delimits the research scope, whilst section 1.7 provides an overview of the structure and context of each chapter, before the final section (1.8) summarises the key points.

1.2 Research Rationale and Justification

Physical inactivity has been recognised as one of the 21st Century’s contemporary public health issues (WHO 2009), which now challenges policy makers and leisure service providers alike to develop ways of conferring the health related benefits that
arise from being physically active to a largely uninterested population (Fahey et al., 2004; Sport England, 2009; Sport Scotland, 2006; Sports Council for Wales, 2005). Since the mid 1980’s, despite public policy being focused on extending participation in physical activity amongst a range of ‘targeted social groups’, the overall participation rates in physical activity across the UK have remained static (GHS, 2002), with no discernible improvement in recent years as illustrated in figure 1.1.

Figure 1. 1 Sport England: Adults Participation Rates (Oct 2006 to Oct 2012)

Neither have the participation inequalities between various demographic groups narrowed, nor has the participation base widened (GHS, 2002). Participation data indicates that across the UK a greater proportion of men take part in sport and physical activity than do women (Sport England, 2009; Sports Council for Wales, 2005; Sport Scotland, 2006) and the evidence on the social class of participants indicates a significant skew towards those from a professional background and that the disparities between social classes have not become any less marked over recent years (GHS 2002).

The World Health Organisation has identified physical inactivity as the 4th leading risk factor for global mortality and estimates that on a global basis at least 3.2 million
people die (6% of death globally) each year as a result of physical inactivity. Furthermore, that physical inactivity is estimated to be responsible for:

- 21–25% of breast and colon cancers
- 27% of diabetes
- 30% of ischaemic heart disease burden

(WHO 2010, p. 10)

By contrast, physical activity is closely associated with decreased risks of poor health and a wide range of illnesses. Research has shown that adults who are physically active have up to a 50% reduced risk of developing major chronic diseases such as coronary heart disease, obesity, diabetes, cancer and have a 20-30% reduced risk of premature death (DoH 2004). In monetary terms, according to Allender et al. (2007) the cost of physical inactivity to the NHS in 2002 was £1.06 billion, the Department for Health has estimated that the average healthcare cost of physical inactivity for each primary care trust (PCT) is £5million per year (DoH, 2009), and finally the Welsh Audit Office (WAO) has estimated that the total cost of physical inactivity to the Welsh Health Service and the economy as a whole is around £650 million per year, equivalent to over 12% of the Health and Social Services budget (WAO, 2007).

Interventions by public bodies to promote public health objectives is not a new phenomenon (Jochelson, 2006), contemporary themes have related to, ‘fastening your seat belt’, ‘not drinking and driving’, ‘having safe sex’, ‘eating five fruit and veg’ a day’ and ‘increasing exercise’, through for example, the current ‘Change 4 Life’ campaign. Interventions that have been focused on protecting individuals from the deeds of others have generally been accepted, all-be-it after some initial discourse (Baggott, 2005). However, the same cannot be said for interventions which have endeavoured to promote public health objectives by safeguarding individuals from the harmful consequences of their own actions, such as being physically inactive, these type of interventions have proved much more controversial and difficult to implement (Hoek, 2008).

In this context, social marketing offers a potent and effective method for bringing about a voluntary behaviour change (Andreasen, 1994; 2002). Indeed, the UK
Governments White Paper on Public Health endorsed the “power of social marketing” to better encourage behaviour that improves health and make behaviours that harm health less attractive and that it should be “used to build public awareness and change behaviour” (DoH, 2004). In adopting a social marketing perspective this thesis views participation in sport and physical activity in the same vein as any other consumer behaviour, here physically active adults are consumers and physical activity is an offering in an already crowded market place, where value expectations influence an individual’s health behaviour intentions. Whilst, much of the governmental social marketing literature is located within the public health arena, none of this research has examined the contribution that consumer value theory or value creation can have in bringing about a voluntary behaviour change by a specific target audience. Understanding the dimensions of consumer value that underpin an adult’s participation in sport and physical activity is important as the receipt of outcomes that are valued would appear to drive the demand for exercise opportunities (Jackson et al., 1993; Ajzen, 1991; Bandura, 1986; Strecher and Rosenstock, 1997).

The need to better understand the dimensions of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting through the specific lens of consumption values was informed by four considerations which span both academic and practitioner fields. Firstly, given the prevalence of inactivity among the adult population, it is anticipated that the greatest public health benefit will come from decreasing the number of individuals living a sedentary lifestyle. From a practitioner standpoint the status-quo is not therefore acceptable, as Henry Ford once said ‘if we keep on doing what we have always done, we will always get what we have always got’. It is therefore essential that new thinking, from a different perspective is needed to readdress the general participation apathy and inequalities that exist (Fahey et al., 2004; Sport England, 2009; Sport Scotland, 2006; Sports Council for Wales, 2005). This research is central to this ‘new thinking’, Rothschild (1999) believed that the management of public health behaviour relied too much on education and law whilst disregarding the potential of marketing, especially the notion of exchange. Similarly, Zainuddin et al. (2011) and Andreasen (2012) both emphasised the need to
understand the value offering to be exchanged and argued that policymakers and leisure service providers need to know what ‘it’ is that customers value from their consumption experience in order for ‘it’ to be included into the design and implementation of campaigns aimed at enticing and motivating individuals to become more physically active. It is only through investigating what ‘it’ is, what the dimensions of consumer value underpinning the consumption of sport and physical activity are, will practitioners be able to design products, services and offerings that add value and make sense in individual’s everyday life (Holt, 2003).

Secondly, as previously alluded to, despite the importance of value as an incentive for customers to perform desired behaviours (Zainuddin et al., 2011; Kolter and Lee, 2008) there is little research that considers value or value creation from within a sport and physical activity context or from the participant’s perspective. This absence of a psychometrically sound consumer value scale, which has been informed by both theoretical and empirical considerations, and which identifies and then defines the dimensions of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting, has prevented scholars from assessing the constructs influence on increasing levels of participation and whether the value adults receive from being physically active differs with gender, age and social class. This research will represent the first examination of the value construct as it pertains to the consumption of sport and physical activity, representing an important research opportunity to fill a gap in the literature.

Thirdly, the dimensionality of consumer value needs to be established in a sport and physical activity context. Marketers have traditionally believed that consumer preferences and market choices were motivated by utilitarian value (Chiu et al., 2005), with consumers perceived as rational beings making choices that maximised utility whilst being constrained by price and income (Sweeney et al., 1999). Therefore the functional nature of value has long been the most prominent conceptualisation whereby ‘value’ is considered to be a cognitive trade-off between benefits and sacrifices, typified by research streams focused on consumers’ quality-price perceptions (Monroe, 1990; Zeithaml, 1988). However, consumer research has
since evolved from such a functional focus regarding the cognitive aspects of decision-making to embrace intrinsic aspects, so that the ‘thinking and feeling’ dimensions of a product, service or experience can be seen as valued for its own sake (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). In a sport and physical activity setting the traditional functional nature of value as a trade-off between the ‘getting’ and ‘giving’ plays a key role, however, it would be unwise to attempt to understand the behaviour of physically active adults without incorporating affective components which are centred around feelings generated by the purchase and consumption experience. It may be that participation levels in physical activity could be increased if providers move beyond the rational or functional understanding of value based primarily on the quality-price trade-off, to instead understand the importance of the emotional or hedonic aspects of value in a sport and physical activity context and to be able to formulate enticing physical activity campaigns that motivate more adults to become physical active by understanding how value can be created at various stages in their consumption experience (Prahalad & Ramsawamy, 2004).

Finally, whilst there has been research into adults’ non-participation that adopts either a leisure constraints (Jackson et al., 1993) or behavioural approaches (Ajzen, 1991; Bandura, 1986; Strecher and Rosenstock, 1997), this investigation seeks to consolidate and synthesize these seemingly disparate areas through their various expectancy-value conceptualisations that underpin the importance placed on valued outcomes and their positive association with predicting the occurrence of behaviour. From a social marketing perspective the notion of exchange underpinned the expectancy-value process, to facilitate a voluntary exchange there needs to be a value proposition that induces action and/or motivates effort from the consumer (Dann, 2008; Kotler and Lee, 2008; Andreasen, 2002). In a similar vein, Jackson et al. (1993) introduced the expectancy-value process into the hierarchical constraints model in the form of the ‘balance position’ and finally within the behaviour change theories examples of the expectancy-value construct are evident in the ‘perceived benefits’ variable of the Health Belief Model (Strecher and Rosenstock, 1997) and in terms of the Theory of Planned Behaviour how much individuals value specific outcomes which ultimately influences their behavioural intentions (Ajzen, 1991).
Therefore, perceptions regarding the value of participation outcomes were identified as a key driving force underpinning the desire to engage in a particular behaviour. Informed by the reasoning outlined above, the development of a S&PAVAL Model based on a psychometrically sound consumer value scale and customer insights from in-depth interviews is justified on both academic and practical grounds.

1.3 Research Problem, Aim and Questions

It is important that health promotion initiatives, including those targeting physical inactivity are based on an appropriate knowledge and theory (Biddle and Nigg, 2000) as this allows for a genuine understanding of all construct and antecedents essential to designing effective intervention programmes (Corwyn and Benda, 1999). Prior to this thesis no specific research existed regarding the consumption values that underpin participation in sport and physical activity and this presented an important gap in our current knowledge. This lack of research has prevented both the academic and practitioner communities from building an empirically informed understanding regarding what the value adults receive from being physically active relates to and what their value expectations are. In this regard, the research problem relates to why some adults live and breathe sport and embrace physical activity throughout their lives, whilst to others it has no value or significance all. In response to the research problem the following research aim was formulated:

‘to develop a consumer value model informed by a valid and reliable consumer value scale and insights from in-depth interviews to assess the construct’s influence on adults participation in sport and physical activity’

To focus and operationalise this thesis research aim, the thesis was guide by three research questions:

− What are the consumption values that underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity?

− What influence, if any, do social-demographic (age, gender and social class) factors have upon consumption value in a sport and physical activity setting?
– Is consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting uni- or multi-dimensional?

The thesis research background, as outlined in section 1.2, provided both rationale and justification underpinning the research aim, which was in turn supported by the three research questions outlined in this section. In line with the research aim data was gathered in an attempt to answer each research question and in doing so contribute to the identified gap in knowledge (Emory and Cooper, 1991).

1.4 Methodology

The study adopted a mixed method approach which comprised both traditional quantitative methods, whilst at the same time also being able to compare and evaluate consumption values that emerge using qualitative techniques.

1.4.1 Quantitative strand

The S&PAVAL scale was developed using well established scaling literature (Churchill, 1979; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; DeVellis, 1991; Netemeyer et al., 2003). This entailed developing the S&PAVAL conceptual framework based on the existing consumer value literature and specifically Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) empirical adaptation of Holbrook’s (1999) typology. Guided by the literature and the conceptual framework items were developed and then reviewed by an expert panel (Churchill, 1979). The remaining items were then pilot tested before the final ‘active adults’ survey was administered over a 2-week period in October 2011 at 8-local authority managed leisure centres and swimming pools in the South Wales area.

For the measure of latent variables a seven-point Likert scale anchored from ‘Strongly disagree’ (1) to ‘Strongly agree (7), with ‘don’t know’ as an eighth point. Data from the completed sample (n=1058) was initially analysis using scale reliability protocol to assess the internal consistency of the scale and remove any extraneous items (Churchill, 1979). Cronbach’s alpha (α) was used to determine if it was justifiable to interpret the remaining aggregated items as factors presented in the
S&PAVAL model, on all factors α ranged from .961 to .871 which is within acceptable internal consistency (De Vellis, 2003; Nunally, 1978).

An initial Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was performed using SPSS v19, a principle axis factor extraction method was used to account for the non normal data (Costello & Osborne, 2005) and an obliminal rotation to assess the underlying structure of the data. Multiple considerations, subsequent factor analyses, and numerous test runs impacted upon the final number of factors extracted. Firstly, K1 was used to retain all factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 for interpretation (Kaiser, 1960), which was supplemented by use of Cattell’s Scree test (Cattell, 1966) to produce a graphical representation of the eigenvaules and assisted in locating the ‘break’ or ‘elbow’ at or around the 8th factor. Furthermore, any items that cross loaded were deleted, all factors were required to have at least two or more items (Hair et al., 1998) and the final factor needed to have at least three items (Ding et al., 1995) in order to be retained in the final 8-factor solution which adequately explained 73.9% of the total variance (Tucker & MacCullun, 1997).

To assess the S&PAVAL scales psychometric properties in terms of convergent/discriminant validity (Hair et al., 1998) and composite reliability (Fornell and Larcker, 1981) a subsequent Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted using Amos 20. An initial model produced a poor to marginally acceptable model fit, therefore, despite a number of criticisms from authors such as Cudeck & Browne (1983) the CFA was used in a post-hoc or exploratory manner (Byrne, 2001). The study used a number of diagnostics tools to help improve model fit, namely a review of the standardised regression weights (item loading), the standardised residuals, modification indices (Hair et al., 2006) and error terms. In terms of fit, the final S&PAVAL Model returned: $\chi^2 = 5150.27$, $p < 0.000$, $\chi^2/\text{df} = 4.449$, GFI = .822, CFI = .924, RMSEA = .057, HOELTER = 262. It is accepted that statistical analysis that are based on $\chi^2$ are adversely affected by large sample sizes and should not be used in isolation (Byrne, 2001), given the study’s sample size (n=1058) it was not surprising that $\chi^2/\text{df}$ was larger than the generally accepted score of >3 (Hair et al., 2006) and was not therefore used in isolation as the basis for
rejecting an otherwise acceptable model (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Lam et al., 2004; Tam 2004). Scale composite reliability (SCR) and average variance extracted (AVE) were estimated (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and were above the recommended levels (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). A comparison was undertaken between the average variance extracted (AVE) for each factor and the variance shared between the constructs, which indicated that discriminate validity was satisfactory. Finally, all standardised factor loadings were greater than 0.5, which again supports convergent validity (Steenkamp & Trijp, 1991).

1.4.2 Qualitative strand
Quantitative data were supplemented with qualitative insights from 20 in-depth interviews. Data analysis began at the transcription stage by dent of the interviews having been recording using Dragon NaturallySpeaking software and as a consequence of the software only being programmed to identify 1-voice (that of the researcher), it was necessary for the researcher to re-recorder each interview by playing both the part of the interviewer and interviewee. Despite being a lengthy process, this did allow an early ‘hermeneutic emersion’ into the life of the interviewee through re-speaking their words and to some extent re-living their stories.

Thompsons’s (1997) ‘Hermeneutical Framework’ was adopted in order to identify and understand relevant insights regarding the “texts” or stories from the 20 in-depth interviews in terms of a) any key individual patterns of meanings, b) any key group patterns of meaning and c) to identify wider conceptual and managerial implications that related to their participation in sport and physical activity. Despite the availability of computer-aided analysis software (CAQDAS), the analysis or coding of the transcription was undertaken manually, using a variety of different coloured highlighter pens to highlight relevant text. This decision was taken in-part based on critical arguments within the literature (Gilbert, 2002; Ereaunt, 2003; Welsh; 2002) and in-part too counter-balance the overtly statistically nature of the SPSS and AMOS quantitative analysis.
1.5 Summary of Findings and Main Contributions

This thesis represents the first examination of the value construct as it pertains to the consumption of sport and physical activity and as such is able to make a number of significant and original theoretical, methodological and practitioner based contributions that reveal a deeper and more meaningful understanding of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting.

1.5.1 Dimension of Consumer Value in a Sport and Physical Activity Setting

The study presents the Sport & Physical Activity Value (S&PAVAL) Model (figure 6.1) which identifies and then defines the 8-dimensions of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting: Physical Environment – ambience ($\lambda=0.77$); Physical Environment – surroundings ($\lambda=0.68$); Altruistic Value ($\lambda=0.67$); Benefits of Exercise ($\lambda=0.67$); Quality of the Service Experience ($\lambda=0.62$); Cost of Exercise ($\lambda=0.60$); Fun & Enjoyment ($\lambda=0.58$); and Social Value ($\lambda=0.50$). Furthermore, the S&PAVAL Model provides the social marketing field with a consumer value scale which has been informed by both theoretical and empirical considerations.

1.5.2 The Role of Social-demographic Modifying Factors

The study represents the first examination of gender, age and social status as it pertains to consumer value theory in general and specifically to the consumption values that underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity. The study’s results indicate that the value adults receive from being physically active differs with gender, age and social class.

1.5.3 Towards a ‘Continuum of Value’

The study results illustrate the multi-dimensional nature of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting but proposes that consumer value may be better conceptualised as a ‘continuum’ which questions the prevailing view of value being conceived as an either (value-in-exchange) or (value-in-use) concept.
1.5.4 S&PAVAL Consumption Process
The study offers the S&PAVAL Consumption Process Model (figure 7.1), which represents this thesis re-conceptualisation of the consumption process in a sport and physical activity setting by consolidating and synthesizing three distinct literature strands (behaviour change, constraints to leisure and consumer value) through the common perspective of the 8-consumption values as ‘facilitators’ to participation, as ‘triggers’ for behaviour change and finally as a basis for ‘value creation’.

1.5.5 Mixed Methodology
Whilst research into consumer value is well established, in contrast to previous consumer value research the study adopted a mixed method research design, utilising consecutive quantitative and qualitative strands. The study and the resulting S&PAVAL Model therefore represents an important step forward in the measurement of consumption values, not only because it has resulted from empirical testing but because it has also incorporated qualitative data from in-depth interviews.

1.5.6 Sport and Physical Activity Offering
The Sport & Physical Activity Value Model (S&PAVAL) is a significant contribution towards understanding what ‘it’ is that adult’s value from being physically active (Zainuddin et al., 2011; Andreasen, 2012) and thus enabling policy-makers and leisure providers to present physical activity opportunities to both new and existing audiences that add value and make sense in an individual’s everyday life (Holt, 2003). Practitioners can now base their propositions on emphasising the experiences and outcomes which appear to be highly valued by active adults such as the physical environment within which activities occur, the benefits of exercise and finally the role of altruistic motivations in the decision to become physically active.

1.5.7 Value Creation
The S&PAVAL Value Creation Framework (table 6.16) and S&PAVAL Consumption Process Model (figure 7.1) both represent significant and groundbreaking advancements regarding understanding how, through a service
providers interaction with its customers, value can be co-created at various stage of
the consumption experience (Russell-Bennett et al., 2009; Zainuddin et al., 2008) by
translating the mindset of value creation and co-creation of value into the sport and
physical activity industry for the first time. The S&PAVAL Value Creation
Framework extends consumer value knowledge by identifying three major sources of
value: marketing communication, the physical activity offering and customer
involvement and outlines practitioner-based actions that can contribute to value co-
creation.

1.5.8 Value-based Market Segmentation
The S&PAVAL Model combined with hither-to-unknown insights regarding the
impact of modifying variables such as gender, age and social class extends
practitioners current understanding of sporting behaviours/attitudes and enables them
to conduct more precise and targeted market-segmentation. The S&PAVAL Model
now enable practitioners to engage in value based segmentation with regard to
gender, age and social class, segmentation underpinned by the consumption values
that indicate to practitioners the outcomes and/or experiences the physical activity
offering has to satisfy.

1.6 Research Scope
To clarify the scope of the challenge, two aspects of the research need to be
delimited, firstly which sector of the sport and physical activity industry is the
research located in and secondly what is the sport and physical activity phenomenon
being studied.

1.6.1 Sport and Physical Activity Sector
The sector scope of this thesis was delimited in three ways as illustrates in figure 1.2,
which related to geographical location (y axis), sport and leisure industry sector (x
axis) and types of facilities (z axis).
Firstly, the study was conducted in Wales, which is represented by the y axis in figure 1.2, and was primarily chosen for data access reasons. Whilst it is not anticipated that the culture environment will impact upon the research, academics and practitioners alike who are either applying the S&PAVAL Model or using the thesis results should be mindful of its geographical limitations.

The second delimitations relates to the research being conducted in the public sector which is represented by the x axis in figure 1.2. and was again chosen in part for data access reasons but also because the historical responsibility for the provision of sports and physical activity opportunities within the UK has been assumed by the local authority, often underpinned by the Victorian paternalism of ‘rational recreation’ (Heeley 1986, Torkildsen 2005). Whilst, this paternalistic approach to provision has shown a remarkable persistence for well over a century, over the last 20-years the context and manner in which sport and physical activity opportunities are provided to the general public has undergone a number of legislative and market driven changes which has encouraged private sector competition, indeed some 17% of the local authority sector is now operated by private contractors (BISL 2008). Further fragmentation has occurred with the growth in the private health and fitness
clubs market lead by operators such as David Lloyds, Esporta, JJB Fitness, and Virgin Active.

Never-the-less, whilst the 21st Century sports and physical activity provision will continue to be provided by a combination of the public, private and voluntary sectors (x axis), local authorities will still have a significant role to play. Local authorities are still the largest providers of most types of community and specialist facilities, which is important for disadvantaged groups who may be unable to access private sector facilities. More importantly local authorities are also able to contribute through outreach work, development and through the support for voluntary clubs and organisations. However, the role and influence of local authority providers does appear to be moving away from being a delivery agent of sport and physical activity opportunities, to that of a strategic planner, community co-ordinator and facilitator. It is this range of contributions that serves to differentiate public sector provision from private and 3rd sector operators, and makes it an appropriate and relevant backdrop to the study. The third delimitation relates to the research being conducted within indoor facilities, specifically leisure centres and swimming pools, which is represented by the z axis in figure 1.2. and was again chosen for data access reasons in terms of being able to access physically active adults, but also because indoor facilities are an important venue with over 20% of active adults regularly using them (Sports Wales, 2009).

1.6.2 Sport and Physical Activity Phenomenon
A clear understanding of what sport and physical activity encompasses is also needed. The World Health Organisation (WHO) defines physical activity as “all movements in everyday life, including work, recreation, exercise and sporting activity” and the physical activity spectrum (figure 1.3) both suggests that sport is a derivative of physical activity. However, the European Sports Charter definition of sport embraces much more than traditional team games and competition: “all forms of physical activity which, through casual or organised participation, aim at expressing or improving physical fitness and mental well-being, forming social relationships or obtaining results in competitions at all levels” (Council of Europe
European Sports Charter, 1993), which suggests that physical activity is a sub-set of sport.

![Physical Activity Spectrum Diagram](image-url)

Figure 1. 3 Creating an Active Wales – The Physical Activity Spectrum

Therefore, the scope of the sport and physical activity phenomenon being studied relates to only two elements of the sport and physical activity spectrum: ‘active recreation’ and ‘sport’. In light of research scope, the research data and conclusion should be limited to the context of local authority managed leisure centre and swimming pools in Wales. Therefore, caution should be taken regarding the generalisibility of the results beyond these boundaries.

1.7 Thesis Outline

This section outlines how the thesis chapters are structured. Following the current introductory chapter, the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 sought to make clear the thesis’ critical understanding and analysis of key conceptual principles from the fields of social marketing specifically competition (leisure studies), voluntary behaviour change (behavioural psychology) and the exchange concept (consumer
behaviour). These seemingly disparate topics were then united by their various expectancy-value conceptualisations. Accordingly the need to better understand value outcomes underpinning adult’s participation in sport and physical activity through the lens of consumer value theory was identified as a gap in the literature and this represented an important research opportunity.

Chapter 3 specifically reviewed the existing consumer value literature, in order to further explore the domain of consumer value and to underpin the development of a preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework, which was based on Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) empirical adaption of Holbrook’s (1999) typology. The fundamental reason for developing the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework was fourfold:

1. to separate or extract the essential elements from the consumer value literature
2. to help reinterpret the consumer value literature and associated empirical research into a sport and physical activity context
3. for the S&PAVAL conceptual framework to inform and structure subsequent scale development and interview procedures by defining a preliminary construct domain.
4. to provide a conceptual apparatus that guided the overall research effort in pursuit of answering the research questions

Following on from this, Chapter 4 outlines the methodology adopted to gather primary data from both a qualitative strand using in-depth interview (n=20) and a quantitative strand using the S&APVAL scale (n=1058), which was guided by the scale development (Churchill, 1979; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; DeVellis, 1991; Netemeyer et al., 2003) and survey design (De Vaus, 2002) literature.

Once both the quantitative and qualitative data collection was completed, data analysis proceeded independently according to the respective strands. Chapter 5a outlines how with regard to the quantitative data a range of statistical techniques were used to reveal the dimensions of consumer value that underpinned adult participation in sport and physical activity, to assess the psychometric properties of
the scale and to indicate the impact of various modifying factors such as gender, age and social class. Chapter 5b outlines how with regard to the qualitative data Thompsons’s (1997) ‘Hermeneutical Framework’ was used in order to identify and understand relevant insights from the “texts” or stories from within the 20 in-depth interviews.

Chapter 6 then discusses the analysed data in the context of the literature. The three research questions where used to structure the start of the chapter and address the S&PAVAL Model and its contribution towards understanding what ‘it’ is that adults value from being physically active (Zainuddin et al., 2011; Andreasen, 2012), then the chapter discusses the original insights from the first examination of the modifying factors such as gender, age and social class on consumption value and finally discusses the multi-dimensionality of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting. The chapter then moved onto discussing the S&PAVAL Model in terms of the three key social marketing concepts of competition, behaviour change and the exchange which illustrated the facilitating roles S&PAVAL consumption values can have in either minimising or overcoming constraints to participation (Raymore’s, 2002), the integration of S&PAVAL consumption values as ‘trigger’s for behaviour change (Ajzen, 1991; Bandura, 1997; Strecher and Rosenstock, 1997) and how value can be co-created through the S&PAVAL Value Creation Framework (Smith and Colgate, 2007). Chapter 7 concludes the thesis by offering a number of theoretical, methodological and practitioner based contributions to knowledge along with limitations and directions for future research also being noted.

1.8 Summary

This chapter has outlined the basic building blocks which underpin this research. Initially, the context to the research was provided which outlined physical inactivity as a contemporary health issue. The contribution of adopting a social marketing perspective and utilising consumer value theory to bring about a voluntary behaviour change was noted and the value of participation outcomes identified as an empirical gap in the existing literature. The rationale for the research was then justified with
regard to policymakers and leisure service providers being challenged to decrease the number of adults living a sedentary lifestyle. Together these issues helped formulate the research problem, aim and supporting research questions, clear in the understanding this thesis investigation represents ‘new thinking’ in terms of the first examination of the value construct as it pertains to the consumption of sport and physical activity. Delimitations where then clearly stated the thesis structure outlined. With these foundations laid, the literature can now be reviewed in order to theoretically ground this thesis.
Chapter 2

Review of Literature
Chapter 2: Review of Literature

2.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 outlined the thesis research rationale in terms of seeking to understand why some adults live and breathe sport and embrace physical activity throughout their lives, whilst to others it has no value or significance. Furthermore, justification was provided in terms of the identified knowledge gap within the consumer value literature and through the three supporting research questions which guided the study’s investigation.

The antecedents and determinants of an individual’s participation in sport and physical activity has been considered from a range of academic perspectives, as Baker (2005: p.1) states “common sense dictates that we should start any problem-solving activity by establishing what we know already”, accordingly theories and models from the fields of leisure studies, behavioural psychology and consumer behaviour are reviewed in order to gain a better understanding of how the social marketing principles of competition, the exchange concept and behaviour change impact upon an adult’s participation in sport and physical activity. Whilst these topics seem disparate, a significant commonality is identified through the various expectancy-value conceptualisations, as illustrated in figure 2.1, which underpin the importance placed on valued outcomes and their positive association with predicting the adoption of healthy behaviours.
The first section of the chapter (2.2) reviews the role of marketing in supporting health behaviours (Rothchild, 1999). This section is entitled ‘The Marketing of Brotherhood: From Soap to Sport and Physical Activity’ and reflects the debate regarding marketing’s evolving concept and the use of commercial techniques in a social context. Having established the appropriateness of adopting a social marketing perspective, the chapter then reviews three key social marketing principles which appear to have a greater influence upon engaging in sport and physical activity: competition, the exchange concept and behaviour change. These individual social marketing principles represent the three key literature strands (leisure studies, behavioural psychology and consumer behaviour) that have studied, contributed and bring considerable diversity to the sport and physical activity phenomenon.

Section 2.3, ‘Competition and Constraints: From Barriers to Beyond’ puts into perspective the difficulties relating to increasing adult’s participation in sport and physical activity by examining societal factors that competes with and act to limit participation in a given activity. Section 2.4 ‘Exchange: what’s in it for me?’ examines customer perceptions of the value they received as a result of their purchase or consumption behaviours, to reflect upon the importance of offering physically inactive adults something that really want, something that they value and perceived to be beneficial. Section 2.5 is entitled ‘Changing Unhealthy Behaviours:'
Why Don’t People Do What’s Good for Them?’ which reviews models and theories of health behaviour that steer, develop and refine our understanding of many phenomenon, including adult’s participation in sport & physical activity.

Finally, section 2.6 concludes by drawing together these seemingly disparate topics by indicating how adults perceptions regarding the value of their participation outcomes is a key driving force underpinning the desire to engage in a healthy behaviour. The identification of the role of expectancy-value gives rise to an important research opportunity, that of better understanding consumer value and the consumption values that underpin adults sport & physical activity consumption experience, which is expanded upon in conceptual framework provided in chapter 3.

2.2 The Marketing of Brotherhood: From Soap to Sport & Physical Activity

To carry-out successful, innovative and customer-oriented marketing strategies, sport and physical activity policy-makers and providers need to better recognise and understand the prevalent myths, values and cultural narratives of their target markets. It is only with this understanding will they be able to design products, services and offerings that add value and make sense in individual’s everyday life (Holt, 2003). It is in this context that social marketing is being championed as an important public health strategy for affecting lifestyle behaviours such as drinking, smoking, physical activity and drugs use (CDC, 2005). The rationale for this stems from the success commercial marketing has had in encouraging people to buy an array of day-to-day products; therefore its techniques ought to be able to encourage individuals to embrace healthy behaviours that will benefit both their own wellbeing but also that of their fellow citizens’. It is imperative that sport and physical activity policy-makers and providers grasp these new conceptual tools and methods to if they are going to understand why, in the 21st Century, are adults still associated with high levels of physical inactivity despite having more leisure time and if suitable exercise adoption remedies are to be developed.
2.2.1 The Carrot, the Stick and the Promise.

Intervention by Governments to promote public health objectives is not a new phenomenon (Jochelson, 2006); contemporary themes have related to, ‘fastening your seat belt’, ‘not drinking and driving’, ‘having safe sex’, ‘increasing exercise’ and ‘eating five fruit and veg a day’. Interventions that have been focused on protecting individuals from the deeds of others have generally been accepted, all-be-it after some initial discourse (Baggott, 2005). However, the same cannot be said for interventions which have endeavoured to promote public health objectives by safeguarding individuals from the harmful consequences of their own actions; these type of interventions have proved much more difficult and controversial (Hoek, 2008).

The controversy has stemmed from the two philosophies government considers when trying to resolve the conflict between the individual and the state, paternalism and libertarianism. Whilst proponents of both paternalism and libertarianism do not dispute the evidence that obesity represents a serious health problem (Yach et al., 2004), they do however dispute how the causes and consequences of obesity might be averted. Paternalism adopts the position that the state provides for the needs of its citizens without giving them rights and responsibilities nor having asked for their consent or contrary wishes (Brock, 1983). By-contrast libertarianism stresses personal liberty; individuals should have complete freedom or action and should be left to make their own choices freely. The trade-offs and compromises between an individual needs and rights and those of society inevitably create behaviour management difficulties. Rothschild (1999) has suggested that interventions to promote behaviour change fall into one of three categories; they are either a ‘carrot’ a ‘stick’ or they are a ‘promise’. Furthermore, that target markets may be ‘prone, resistant or unable’. He described education campaigns, as those initiatives that aimed to fill knowledge gaps in the belief that enhanced knowledge would translate in to the desired behaviour change as “promises”. Marketing he described as providing the “carrots” in the form of incentives and rewards that promote behaviour change through the exchange process (McDermott, Stead, & Hastings, 2006) and final he identified the use of legal/regulatory processes as the “stick”.
It is accepted that educational approaches can inform and raise the awareness of the benefits of a particular behaviour, but as an approach it cannot deliver those benefits. It is similar in nature to persuasion (Lindblom, 1997), to behavioural solutions (Wiener and Doescher, 1991) and to health communications (Rasmuson et al., 1988), in so far as educational approaches rely on the individual to begin the search for benefits and then to voluntarily comply. The limitations of purely educative approaches have become apparent in a number of public health interventions where awareness of a desired behaviour is much greater than adoption of that behaviour, as Jochelson (2006) states education can ‘have only some impact on knowledge and attitudes, and little impact on behaviour’ (p. 1153).

The law uses coercion to achieve behaviour in a compulsory manner and also threatens a punishment for inappropriate or non-compliance behaviour. Of Rothschild’s (1999) tripartite classification, the law is considered the most potent and expeditious means of changing the factors that influence behaviour (Weiss and Smith, 2004). Jochelson (2006) argues that ‘Legislation brings about change that individuals on their own cannot, and sets new standards for the public good’ (p. 1149). Many such laws have been passed to reduce third party risk to individual such as smokefree legislation which has modified our social environments, drink-drive legislation which has set permissible blood alcohol levels for driving and the mandatory use of motorbike helmet has required the adoption of new behaviours (Baron, 2006). However, initiatives to reduce the risks that individuals pose to themselves such as eating fatty foods or not taking exercise have led politicians and businesses, whose commercial interests are threatened, to describe the regulatory processes as ‘nanny statist’.

Rothschild (1999) thought that the management of public health behaviour relied too much on education and law whilst disregarding the potential of marketing, especially the notion of exchange. Accordingly, he advocated that marketing could successfully temper the extremes of paternalism and libertarianism by offering “a middle ground by allowing exchange though the management of the environment (paternalism), as well as free choice and accommodation of self-interest
(libertarian)” (p. 34). In other words, marketing can manage health related
dependencies by offering incentives that reinforce a particular behaviour, in an
environment made supportive by favourable cost-benefit relationships and choices
with comparative advantages over alternatives, all aimed at enabling a voluntary
exchange (Rothchild, 1999). Marketers can therefore present the benefits that will
result from the adoption of the promoted behaviour; this recognises that for
consumers to forgo the outcomes they achieve from an unhealthy behaviour, they
must receive an equivalent (or superior) benefit.

2.2.2 The Ever Broadening Concept of Marketing
Over the course of time, marketing has successfully managed to reconcile itself to
changes in its external environment (Grether, 1976), as a discipline it has renewed
and reinvent itself several times since it’s ‘revolution’ in the early 1950’s (Brown,
two separate but inter-related issues that have proven to be of particular important in
the discipline renewal and reinvention, firstly the precise qualities and features of the
marketing concept and secondly the domain over which the concept is exercised.

Traditional marketing inherited a goods-dominant logic from economics which
focused on transactions, tangible goods and embedded value. However, in more
recent times new perspectives have begun to appear that have a different logic
centred on relationships, the co-creation of value and intangible resources. These
newer perspectives have combined to shape a new dominant logic for marketing, a
logic where the supply of service as opposed to the provision of tangible goods
underpins the notion of exchange, as illustrated in Table 2.1. The prevailing goods-
dominant logic of marketing views economic exchange in terms of the production
and distribution of units of output; typically these outputs are tangible, standardised,
produced without input from the customer and capable of being inventoried until
sold (Vargo and Akaka, 2009). Value is viewed as embedded in the object that is
exchanged; such value has been added during the production process and can be
equated to the price a customer is willing to pay for it. This has become known as
the value-in-exchange notion (Grönroos, 2004).

Table 2. 1 Marketing’s Dominant Logics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goods-dominant logic concepts</th>
<th>Transitional concepts</th>
<th>Service-dominant logic concepts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goods</td>
<td>Services</td>
<td>Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Products</td>
<td>Offerings</td>
<td>Experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature/attributes</td>
<td>Benefit</td>
<td>Solution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value-added</td>
<td>Co-production</td>
<td>Co-creation of Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit Maximisation</td>
<td>Financial engineering</td>
<td>Financial Feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>Value delivery</td>
<td>Value proposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equilibrium system</td>
<td>Dynamic system</td>
<td>Complex adaptive systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supply Chain</td>
<td>Value-chain</td>
<td>Value creation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>Integrated marketing</td>
<td>Dialogue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To market</td>
<td>Market to</td>
<td>Market with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product Orientation</td>
<td>Marketing Orientation</td>
<td>Service Orientation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Vargo and Luch (2006)

The goods-dominated marketing logic is firmly focused on transactions and getting customers to buy, as Kotler (1972) noted “the core of marketing is transactions. A transaction is the exchange of values between two parties” (p. 48). In other words exchange is not geared towards customer value creation or toward the development of relationships but towards transactions. In this quest all variables of the marketing mix are geared towards achieving sales, with the marketing practitioner as the ‘mixer-of-ingredients’ (Culliton, 1948; Borden, 1964).

By-contrast a service-dominant logic is a service–centred alternative to the traditional goods-dominant paradigm for understanding economic exchanges and value creation. This view holds that service, defined as the application of competencies for the benefit of another, is the basis of all exchange (Vargo and Lursh, 2004; 2006; 2008). The service-dominant logic advocates the importance of operant resources, ie those that act upon other resources to create benefits such as competencies, over operand resources such as natural resources, goods and money, which must be acted on to be beneficial (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). In other words operant resources such as knowledge and skills of employees, customers, suppliers
and other stakeholders are the underlying source of value. The service-dominated logic suggests that there is no value for customers until they can make use of a product; value only emerges for customers when goods and services do something for them, before this happens only potential exists. Therefore, value is not what goes into goods and services - it is what customers get out of them, value is not produced - although the resources out of which it can emerge are (Grönroos, 2004). According to this value-in-use view, suppliers and service providers do not create value in their planning, designing and production processes. The customers do it themselves in their value-creating process, through their daily activities when products are needed by them to perform activities.

Such a service orientation is based on the notion that in order to support customers’ value creation the firm should get involved in the customers processes, such as purchasing, paying, using, maintaining, updated, having mistakes and failures corrected. Adopting a service-dominant logic for marketing broadens both the scope and content from that of conventional marketing. The existence of interaction with customers and the value co-creation opportunities means that the firm is no longer restricted to traditional marketing activities such as adverts, PR and price offers. Marketing can be taken out of the marketing department and can become a mind-set amongst staff who perform their normal duties in a customer-orientated way, Gummesson (1991) so-called ‘part-time marketers’. In its efforts to update its marketing definition, the AMA has based its new view of marketing on value creation. The AMA’s 2004 and 2007 definitions both emphasised that value is delivered to customers supporting Sheth and Ulay (2007) suggestion that gearing marketing toward value creation may be a more contemporary and ultimately fruitful focus.

Just as the concept of modern marketing has been subject to discord and debate, so has the extent of marketing’s proper domain. The debate was started by Kotler and Levey (1969) who called for the concept of marketing to be extended beyond its traditional commercial context, rather than remaining as a narrowly focused business activity. They saw marketing as an activity the potential of which went ‘beyond the
selling of toothpaste, soap and steel’ (p. 10) and considered ‘whether traditional marketing principles are transferable to the marketing of organisation, persons and ideas’ (p. 10).

Whilst marketing has moved from a goods-dominant view, in which discrete transactions and tangible output were central, to a service-dominant view in which relationships and intangible processes are central. It has also evolved through the development of sub-specialities such as service marketing to facilitate the marketing of intangibles; arts marketing for the promotion of culture; tourism marketing to promote visit to specific places or events. However, concern existed that marketing had been remiss in effectively satisfying the want of consumers, but often without considering the longer-term interests of wider-society (Kotler, 1972). As a result of these concerns both societal and social marketing emerged as two adaptations of marketing, both aimed at enhancing public welfare.

Social marketing, which is examined in more detail in 2.2.2 places its primary emphasis on societal needs and often works toward goals that may not be in line with individual’s immediate desires. Societal marketing on the other hand, maintains a primary focus on delivering value to customers by satisfying their product and services-related wants but aims to achieve this in a way that also maintains or improves societal well-being (Kotler et al., 1996). In his seminal article on societal marketing, Kotler (1972) argued that the most desirable type of product is one that combined the immediate satisfaction that consumers preferred whilst also preserving their long-term welfare. Therefore it is Kotler’s (2000) assertion that ‘the societal marketing concept calls upon marketers to build social and ethical considerations into their marketing practices’ (p. 25).

There are numerous examples where companies have incorporated, even exploited, public interest in healthier foods and environmental-friendly products, but primarily to increase sales rather than for social or ethical reasons. For example – car manufactures have vastly improved safety feature such as a passenger seat and side air bags, however, the primary motivation has been to use these feature to increase
the number of cars sold (Bright, 2000). The societal marketing concept is not free from criticism (Crane & Desmond, 2002), the most prominent one being its inability to clearly differentiate itself from commercial marketing. Crane (1997, 2000) has shown that commercial sector marketers typically try to amoralise the marketing processes, which with scant regard for the longer-term interest of the individual or society design goods and services aimed at fully satisfying individual needs.

2.2.3 Social Marketing
Social Marketing has become a potent and influential tool for achieving positive social change by combining social and behavioural research with traditional marketing tools, aimed at supporting a voluntary behaviour change such as adopting healthier behaviours, contributing to a cleaner environment, less anti-social behaviour all of which benefits the wider society (Stead, Gordon, Angus & McDermott, 2006; Gordon, Stead, McDermott, Angus & Hastings, 2006). Social marketing ideas can be traced back to Wiebe (1951) who, 60-years ago, asked “why can’t you sell brotherhood like you sell soap?” Wiebe’s question arose from his evaluation of a number of social change campaigns, after which he noted the more each campaign resembled commercial marketing, the more successful they were.

The implications of Wiebe’s (1951) conclusion were clear - commercial organisations could consider focusing their marketing efforts to challenges other than selling goods and services. This led academics, policy-makers and marketing practitioners alike to seriously consider whether successful commercial sector methods used to influence behaviour might be transferable to the not-for-profit sector and to the promotion of social causes. Whilst Weibe (1951) threw down the gauntlet, the source of the term social marketing is in fact attributed to Kotler and Zaltman (1971), who provided the first formal definition:

“Social marketing is the design, implementation and control of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social idea and involving considerations of product planning, pricing, communication, distribution and marketing research” (p. 5).
Since its establishments there have been a number of formal definitions of social marketing within the literature which has stimulated 40-years of debate. Andreasen (1994) considered Kotler and Zaltman’s (1971) original definition to be problematic firstly in the choice of the term ‘social marketing’ which he thought was too easily confused with societal marketing; secondly whether social marketing was to be exclusively used by public and non-profit marketers and not other organisation. Finally, and most importantly Andreasen (1994) thought that Kotler and Zaltmen (1971) definition limited social marketing objectives relating to only ‘social ideas’.

Some authors have supported Kotler and Zaltman’s (1971) definition for example Fine (1991) defined social marketing “at its simplest [as] ... the applications of marketing methods to the dissemination of ideas, socially beneficial ideas like cancer research, energy conservation and carpooling” (p. xiv). Others have suggested Kotler and Zaltman’s (1971) definition is too restrictive, and believe that social marketing encompasses much more than ideas, namely that it involves both attitudes and behaviours. This wider perspective is reflected in Kotler and Roberto’s (1989) definition:

“an organised effort conducted by one group (the change agent), which intends to persuade others (the target adopters) to accept, modify, or abandon certain idea, attitudes, practises and behaviours” (p. 6).

Within this definition the authors likened social marketing with a social change campaigns. In a similar vein Rangun and Karim (1991) debated that social marketing “involves: (a) changing attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours of individuals or organisations for a social benefit and behaviours of individuals or organisations for a social benefit, and (b) the social change is the primary (rather than secondary) purpose of the campaign” (p. 3). Although both definitions were considered to be an improvement, Andreasen (1994) considered some important questions regarding social marketing’s legitimacy were left unanswered and proposed a further definition:

“Social marketing is the adaption of commercial marketing techniques to programmes designed to influence the voluntary behaviour of target
Andreasen’s (1994) definition illustrates a number of social marketing’s distinctive features. The firstly it does not involve forcing or coercing individuals but instead it is about a voluntary behaviour change. The second feature emphasises the principle of exchange, if a voluntary behaviour change is to occur, the benefits must be clear to the target audience in order to motivate and sustain the behaviour. Thirdly, commercial marketing methods such as the marketing mix, segmentation, targeting and market research, need to be used to understand and reach the target audience. Finally, what differentiates social marketing from commercial marketing is the notion that the ultimate objective is to improve individual and societal wellbeing.

Andreasen (1995) has defined social marketing as:-

“the application of commercial marketing technologies to the analysis, planning, execution and evaluation of programs designed to influence the voluntary behaviour of target audiences in order to improve their personal welfare and that of society” (p. 7).

2.2.4 Andreasen (2002) Framework

Andreasen (2002) established six essential benchmarks of ‘genuine’ social marketing interventions, those of behaviour change, consumer research, segmentation and targeting, marketing mix, exchange and competition as summarised in Table 2.2. These benchmarks are widely viewed within the literature as the set of criteria with which interventions are evaluated, if an intervention meets all six criteria it is considered to have embraced a social marketing approach. The social marketing principles of competition, the exchange concept and behaviour change have been considered important antecedent and determinants of an individual participation in sport and physical activity.

Firstly, a central theme of social marketing is the use of tools and techniques to bring about particular voluntary behaviour change by a target audience. Social marketing is focused on achieving measurable impact on people’s actual behaviour - not just
Table 2.2 Anderasen’s Six Essential Benchmarks of Social Marketing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benchmark</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Behaviour Change</td>
<td>Intervention seeks to change behaviour and has specific measurable behavioural objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Consumer Research</td>
<td>Consumer research Intervention is based on an understanding of consumer experiences, values and needs Formative research is conducted to identify these Intervention elements are pre-tested with the target group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Segmentation and</td>
<td>Different segmentation variables are considered when selecting the intervention target group intervention strategy is tailored for the selected segments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Targeting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Marketing Mix</td>
<td>Intervention considers the best strategic application of the ‘marketing mix’. This consists of the four Ps of ‘product’, ‘price’, ‘place’ and ‘promotion’. Other Ps might include ‘policy change’ or ‘people’ (e.g., training is provided to intervention delivery agents). Interventions which only use the promotion P are social advertising, not social marketing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Exchange</td>
<td>Intervention considers what will motivate people to engage voluntarily with the intervention and offers them something beneficial in return. The offered benefit may be intangible (e.g., personal satisfaction) or tangible (e.g., rewards for participating in the programme and making behavioural changes).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Competition</td>
<td>Competing forces to the behaviour change are analysed. Intervention considers the appeal of competing behaviours (including current behaviour) and uses strategies that seek to remove or minimize this competition.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Changing their awareness, knowledge or beliefs about an issue. Anderasen (1994) has stated that “the bottom line of social marketing is behaviour change” (p. 110), where-as Kacznski (2008) considers influencing behaviour to be “the ‘holy grail’ for social marketers” (p. 260).

A consumer’s ‘healthy’ behaviour is identical to that for commercial products – individuals act in a way that is most personally beneficial, accepting ‘good’ deals and rejecting ‘bad’ ones. Here, participation in sport and physical activity is viewed in
the same vein as any other consumer behaviour, physically active adults are consumers, physical activity is an offering in an already crowded market place and where value expectations influence an individual’s health behaviour intentions.

Advocates of social marketing consider it to be more difficult than commercial marketing because social marketing involves changing society’s taboo behaviours, many of which are found in complex social, economic and political environments. Consequently the targets groups are those that the commercial marketer tends to ignore - the hardest to reach, the least accessible, and those who are most reluctant to change their behaviours (MacFadyen et al., 1999). Therefore, social marketing interventions need not only to discover new demands, but need to overcome existing negative demand in situations where a target group is strongly resistant to or apathetic about a new behaviour (Andreasen, 1997). In this regard, the problem lies in being able to convince the individual that short-term pain in the form of immediate and sometimes undesirable behaviours must occur in order to achieve long-term gains. With respect to exercise and diet, many inactive adults have made a decision that it is easier for them be lazy or to eat fast-food. Educational messages can inform the individual of the benefits of exercising and eating more vegetables and advocate watching less TV and consuming fewer fatty-foods. However, in reality these messages only promise some vague possibility of reducing their risk of heart attack at any unknown time in the future, which may or may not occur at all. Such messages proposes an exchange that does not offer any definitive return from engaging in a healthy behaviour, leaving the individual to make a choice between an unhealthy behaviour that has instantly occurring, pleasurable outcomes and a healthy behaviour that may lead to a less obvious, but in the long-term a more beneficial outcome. Clearly there are significant challenges in changing adults’ behaviours in favour of adopting a physically active lifestyle (Sport England, 2005; Welsh Audit Office, 2007), section 2.5 will discuss the many theories, concepts, ideas and notions that try to explain how individuals’ modify their own behaviour in more detail.

The concept of exchange, the act of giving or taking one thing in return for another, is not unique to marketing; it can be found in disciplines such as economics,
sociology, psychology, management and law to name a few (Anderson, Challagalla and McFarland, 1999). Exchange theory is embedded in both commercial and social marketing and has been described by one of its seminal authors Bagozzi (1979) as “a transfer of something tangible or intangible, actual or symbolic, between two or more social actors” (p. 434). Whilst, the exchange concept is most easily conceived as the exchange of money for goods, it can be thought of in other ways. On the whole economic exchanges deal with transaction involving the transfer of tangibles entities, via the process of buying and selling of material and services between two parties. Both parties are assumed to be rational, informed on the availability of alternatives and strive to maximise; firms are considered as profit maximisers, whilst in individual are thought to be utility maximises (Bagozzi, 1975). Homas (1958) and Blau (1964) considered that individuals and organisations engage with each other in a manner that maximises their rewards and minimises their costs, through the concept of social exchange, where rewards can typically be viewed as desired objects, personal or social goals. By contrast, costs can be considered harmful objects or psychological and social punishment.

Bagozzi (1975) describes three types of exchange, that of restricted, generalised and complex. Restricted Exchange refers to a two-party reciprocal relationship which conforms to the usual notion of a ‘quid pro quo’ arrangement ie something of value is exchange in return for something of value and can be illustrated as $A \leftrightarrow B$, where $A$ gives to and receives from $B$. Generalised exchange again refers to a reciprocal relationship but between more than two parties. However, those involved only benefit indirectly, which can be shown as $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow A$, where ‘$\rightarrow$’ represents gives to. Finally, complex exchanges involve an intricate pattern of mutual relationships involving no fewer than three parties. Each party makes one direct exchange which can be shown as $A \leftrightarrow B \leftrightarrow C$. Most marketing exchange are generalised and/or complex, as opposed to being simply being restricted exchanges. The reasons or explanations underpinning any exchange has as a basis in the psychological and social significance and meaning of the experience. Bagozzi (1975) considers that marketing exchanges display either a utilitarian, symbolic or mixed meaning. A utilitarian exchange is one where money is given in return for
goods motivated by the anticipated use of the products based on it features and benefits. Symbolic exchanges describe the transfer of intangibles such as services, feelings and status. Finally mixed exchanges involve both utilitarian and symbolic aspects, a Levy (1959) quotes “people buy things not only for what they can do, but also for what they mean” and typifies the majority of marketing exchanges.

Hastings and Saren (2003) have reminded social marketers that one of the prerequisites for an exchange to occur is that each of the parties are free to accept or reject the offering, Andreasen (2002) also considers the decision to engage in a new behaviour lies in the hands of the target market “if individuals choose not to act, social change will not happen” (p. 41). Therefore, to facilitate voluntary exchanges there needs to be an exchange (or value proposition) that incentivises the consumer (Dann, 2008; Kotler and Lee, 2008). In other words, in order to boost a customer inclination to change “social marketers must provide them with something beneficial in exchange” (Hastings and Saren, 2003, p. 309). The need for social marketers to offer individuals something that they value, something that they really want, and perceive to be beneficial, is further discussed in section 2.3.

Competition is the final social marketing principle, which in a commercial marketing context is obvious, yet at first glance it seems counter intuitive in the social and not-for-profit sectors. In these settings competition relates to the behavioural options that compete with and often prevent the desired behaviour change; it can take a number of different forms not just product and services. It is self evident that adults have the freedom to choose between alternatives: to drink or not to drink, to exercise or to remain a couch potato. Therefore, because social marketers deal with voluntary behaviour there is always competition - inertia, free choice and apathy are all powerful competitive forces, as are barriers to participation such as cost, gender and lack of facilities. Hastings (2003) considers that competition can be an effective tool in designing and conducting social marketing programme because it ultimately enables social marketers to offer benefits that are perceived as being different or distinct, therefore distinguishing healthy behaviours from the competition and in doing so maximises their products/services attractiveness to consumers.
There are three constructs that characterise competition in social marketing - purposeful and inertial competition, general versus specific competition and there is the competition between short-term, low-cost benefits and long-term, hard-won benefits (Hastings, 2003). Purposeful competition represents the threats that McDonald and Coca-cola present to healthy eating. By contrast inertial competition represents the resistance or disinclination to want to change or adopt a new behaviour. The general versus specific competition debate refers to customers choosing between ‘good’ and ‘bad’ behaviour. For example being sedentary is equated with being bad whilst engaging in exercise is considered to be good; choosing between going to the gym (good) or meeting friends in the bar (bad), walking (good) or driving (bad) this lead to a “tyranny of small decision” (Hasting, 2003, p. 8). With regard to the competition faced in relation to short-term and long-term cost-benefit, the immediate pleasure of consuming a chocolate bar competes with the decision to decline in favour of a deferred weight loss. From a competitive perspective healthy eating has obvious rivals in the food industry as has alcohol abstention in the drinks industry. However, Hasting (2003) considered that exercise adoption is faced by barriers more than competitors. These barriers, have been termed constraints to leisure participation and are forces with-in people’s life which mitigates between an individual’s desire to participate and their actual ability to participate (Scott, 1991) and are discussed in section 2.3.

2.2.5 Social Marketing Impact on Healthy Behaviours
It is claimed that social marketing offers a potent and effective method for bringing about a voluntary behaviour change; the UK Governments White Paper on Public Health endorsed the use of social marketing to better encourage behaviour that improves health and make behaviours that harm health less attractive (DofH, 2004). The White Paper makes references to the “power of social marketing” together with the need for social marketing to be “used to build public awareness and change behaviour”. A number of reviews have been conducted to assess the effectiveness of healthy behaviour interventions developed using social marketing principles, with regard to nutrition (McDermott, Stead, Gordon, Angus & Hastings, 2006), smoking
preventions and cessation (Stead et al., 2006), alcohol prevention and harm minimisation (Stead et al., 2006) and physical activity (Gordon et al., 2006).

In their review of the effectiveness of nutritional intervention McDermott et al. (2006) reported that 24 (of 31 intervention reviewed) had evidenced no less than one significant positive outcome on some aspect of nutritional behaviour, such as fruit and vegetable consumption, fat consumption or consumption of fibre. Eighteen studies examined fruit and vegetable intake of which 10 showed strong evidence of a positive impact, 6 experienced mixed and/or moderate results, 1 produced no change and curiously 1 had a counter-productive effect. Eighteen studies also examined the interventions effect on fat intake; 8 of which were effective, 7 had a mixed and/or moderate effect and 3 reported no change. Furthermore, nine of 11 studies where effective in changing nutritional knowledge, with the remaining 2 producing mixed/moderate results. Furthermore, there is evidence that interventions were just as effective when targeting solo nutritional behaviour (eg fruit and vegetable intake only) or as a combined behaviours (eg fruit and vegetable intake and some other dietary behaviour).

In their review to assess whether interventions developed using social marketing principles has an impact on smoking cessation, Stead et al. (2006) examined 9 studies of which two had a significant effect on smoking cessation, five had modest or weak impact and 2 had unclear effects or no influence at all. Furthermore, Stead et al. (2006) also examined 21 studies in order to assess if they were effective in preventing smoking in young people across three time periods up to 12-months (short-term), between one to two years (medium-term) and more than 2-years (longer-term). Thirteen (of 18) short-term interventions had significant positive effects, 8 where in a school setting, 4 were in a community setting and used multi-components and the final successful intervention was media-based. With regard to the medium-term interventions seven (of 11) reported significant positive effect, 4 were multi-component community programmes and where 3 school-based. Five studies followed participates to assess long-term impact on levels of smoking, two of
the five interventions report a sustained impact, whilst the other 3 studies reported having no effects over this longer period.

In their review of the effectiveness of intervention aimed at preventing alcohol use and/or reducing the harm associated with alcohol abuse such as drink-driving, Stead et al. (2006) reported that the majority of short-term interventions (8 out of 13) indicated a number of significant impacts upon preventing or reducing alcohol use as did the medium-term interventions (4 out of 7). Of the long-term intervention 2 out of 4 interventions reported sustained impacts on preventing or reducing alcohol use.

In their review of the effectiveness of intervention developed using social marketing principles aimed at physical activity Gordon et al. (2006) examined 22 studies with regard to physical activity behaviour, increasing knowledge regarding the benefits of physical activity and increasing positive attitudes towards physical activity. The interventions reviewed targeted a broad spectrum of populations such as young people, older people, low income groups, minority ethnic groups and people with lower levels of literacy. Overall 10 of the studies showed a positive effect, 8 showed mixed results and 4 showed no effect on overall outcomes.

In terms of physical activity behaviour measured by an increased level of physical activity based on either frequency of activity or total time spent, only eight (of 22) studies reported a significant positive impact, whilst another 7 studies reported mixed results. In terms of increasing knowledge regarding the benefits of physical activity, four of the studies measured knowledge outcomes and all four reported a positive effect, three of the studies specifically measured participants knowledge of the recommended levels of physical activity. Finally, in terms of increasing positive attitudes towards physical activity, 11 of the studies attempted to influence psychosocial variables that were relevant to physical activity such as levels of self-efficacy and social support. Of the eleven, 6 reported a positive impact upon at least one variable.

Regarded as a whole there is strong evidence that intervention developed using Anderasen (2002) six social marketing principles can be effective. With regard to
nutritional interventions, the majority of the interventions demonstrated no less than one significant positive effect on some aspect of nutritional behaviour, such as the consumption of fruit and vegetable, lowering fat intake or some other behaviour. Similarly, there is moderate evidence that substance use interventions which targeted preventing youth smoking and alcohol use were developed can also be effective, reporting significant positive short-term effects. However, the effects declined after 1-year, although after 2-years nearly 50% of the tobacco and alcohol interventions did demonstrate some longer lasting positive impact. Unfortunately, the evidence is less conclusive for stopping smoking among adults, although small numbers of interventions were successful. Finally, the findings demonstrate that there is support interventions aimed at influencing physical activity behaviour, increasing knowledge regarding the benefits of physical activity and increasing positive attitudes towards physical activity through variables such as self efficacy or social support for physical activity can be effective. Despite some of the studies showing only a modest or insignificant impact upon the levels of physical activity, these interventions frequently reported positive knowledge and attitude outcomes. This suggests that interventions can be effective at changing perceptions and attitudes towards physical activity, despite the difficulties encountered in increasing actual levels of physical activity.

However, results need to be considered in the light of a number of methodological concerns. Stead, MacFadyen & Hastings (2002) have noted caution insofar as the intervention approaches that used direct action, community organisation and/or media advocacy have difficulty in defining precise statements of independent variables whose effect could be measured. The majority of cases reviewed were interventions compromised of a large numbers of components; unfortunately the research design did not permit different components to be compared meaning that only overall results were able to be reported. This meant that it was difficult to isolate what components were actually effective and which components were responsible for producing the observed effects. Furthermore, the consistency with which levels of physical activity were measured posed a problem when conducting inter-intervention comparisons. The lack of universally accepted measures limits the
ability to extrapolate clear conclusions. Another drawback identified within the studies was the use of self-reported levels of physical activity; Stead et al. (2002) cited examples of increased self-reported levels of physical activity but actual decreases in levels of fitness. This suggests that self-reports can cause problems with validity by producing over-estimated activity levels.

2.2.6 Summary
An examination of the literature surrounding marketing, both in terms of its broadening concept and sub-division of social marketing is an important aspect of the study for a number of reasons but specifically in terms of it offering Rothchild’s (1999) ‘middle ground’ thus recognising that in order for customers to forgo the outcomes they achieve from a unhealthy behaviour they must receive an equivalent or superior benefit. Social marketing posits that if a voluntary behaviour change is to occur there must be clear benefits to the individual concerned in order to motivate and sustain their behaviour (Andreasen, 2002). The review of literature indentified that of Andreasen (2002) six benchmark criteria of social marketing competition, exchange and behaviour change emerged as having the greatest influence upon supporting the adoption of health behaviours all of which will be explore in more depth in the subsequent sections of this chapters. Competition because it offers insights into the behavioural options that compete with and often prevent desired behaviour change from occurring - free choice, inertia and apathy are all significant competitive forces. However, Hasting (2003) has suggested that exercise adoption is faced by barriers more than competitors. These barriers have been termed constraints to leisure participation and are forces with-in people life which mitigates between an individual’s desire to participation and their actual ability to participation and are discussed in more detail in section 2.3.

Exchange because it underpins a customer’s perception of the value they will receive as a result of adopting certain behaviour. If a person is asked to exchange an old behaviour in favour of a new one of societies choosing the intervention needs to offer a value proposition that is perceived to be beneficial, an offering that is valued.
Customer value has emerged as a key factor in consumer’s decision making and behaviour and as a consequence it has become an area of increasing interest to marketers (Zeithaml, 1988; Sheth et al., 1991). The America Marketing Association (AMA) has based its new view of marketing on value creation; both their 2004 and 2008 updates have emphasises that it is value that need to be delivered to customers as opposed to products and service. The antecedent and more recent perspectives of value and customer value will be discussed in more detail in section 2.4.

Behaviour Change because it emphasises the need to initiate a voluntary behaviour by a particular target audience. Kacznksi (2008) argues that influencing behaviour is the “holy grail” for social marketers (p. 260) and in Rothchild’s (1999) opinion modifying behaviour separates marketing from both educational and legal approaches to social change. Clearly there are some significant challenges regarding changing people’s behaviour in favour of participation in a range of activities which thought to prevent ill-health and positively contribute to healthier lifestyles as this involves challenging many of society’s taboo behaviours, many of which are found in complex social, economic and political environments. The theories, concept, idea and notions that attempt to explain and predict how behaviour is modified will be discussed in more detail in section 2.5.

Social marketing offers a potent and effective method for bringing about a voluntary behaviour change, regarded as a whole there is compelling evidence that interventions developed using Andreasen (2002) six social marketing principles can be effective. With regard to nutritional interventions (McDermott et al., 2006) the majority of the interventions demonstrated no less than one significant positive effect on some aspect of nutritional behaviour. Similarly, there is moderate evidence that substance misuse interventions which targeted preventing youth smoking and alcohol use (Stead et al., 2006) can also be effective, reporting significant positive short-term effects. Finally, the findings demonstrate that there is support that interventions aimed at influencing physical activity behaviour, increasing knowledge regarding the benefits of physical activity and increasing positive attitudes towards physical activity can be effective (Gordon et al., 2006).
2.3 Competition and Constraints: From Barriers to Beyond

The importance of competition to the adoption of healthy behaviours such as physical activity was introduced in the previous section and will be expanded upon here. Engaging in any activity involves choice, therefore from a social marketing perspective competition refers to the behavioural options that compete or prevent the adoption of a desired behaviour. For every choice there is an alternative, for example to exercise or to remain a couch potato. How and why individuals make choices regarding the usage of their free time and their leisure behaviour has been of interest to leisure researchers and policy-makers a like (Henderson, Stalnaker & Taylor, 1988). Research on leisure constraints aims to –

“investigate and understand the factors that are assumed by researchers and/or perceived or experienced by individuals to limit the formation of leisure preferences and/or inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure”

(Jackson 2000, p. 62).

The traditional focus has been on the wide ranging factors that influence an individual’s leisure decision-making process, specifically those factors that act to deter participation i.e. competition (Jackson 1988, 2005; Raymore et al., 1993). To understand an individual’s leisure choices and subsequent behaviour requires an understanding of both the positive factors such as motivation and expected benefits and the negative barriers such as time, cost and gender that impact upon those choices. If something restricts or limits participation in a particular activity, it has been termed a constraint, defined as “a subset of reasons for not engaging in a particular behaviour” (Jackson, 1988, p. 211). Various categories of constraints have been found to act as competition and both overtly and covertly influence an individual’s leisure decision-making process and resulting behaviour (Alexandris & Carroll, 1993; Jackson, 1990; Jackson et al., 1993). In this regard, this section overviews the development, dimensions and direction of research on leisure constraints by examining the fields early origins and early flawed assumptions, before moving on to review the conceptual and empirical evidence. Then the section turns its attention to the effect of leisure constraints on a diverse population and the concept of ‘constrained leisure’ for those of different genders, social economic
groups and ages.

2.3.1 Theory’s and Models of Leisure Constraints
The origins of leisure constraints began the early 1960 with the study of North American parks and recreation (Mueller, Gurin & Wood, 1962; Ferris, 1962), however the emergence as a sub-field of leisure studies did not occur until the early 1980’s. During the 1980’s key elements of research regarding leisure behaviour were identified, described, and the breath and complexity of the phenomena recognised primarily through empirically based research (Boothby, Tugatt and Towensed, 1981; Howard and Crompton, 1984; Searle & Jackson, 1985a; Witt & Goodale, 1981). However, all research at this time had made a number of false assumptions about constraints and their impact upon an individual’s leisure decision-making (Jackson, 2005). It had been widely assumed that constraints on participation were the same as reasons for not participating (Jackson, 1988). Constraints were conceived as immovable, static obstacles to participation and that the effect of a constraint was to block participation. In other-words, the existence or absence of a constraint would be suffice to explain why an individual did or did not participate in any given activity. Furthermore, implicit in research at this time was the presumption that all individuals had a desire to engage in a physical activity and that the failure to fulfil this desire must indicate the presence of a barrier or constraint. Using this logic, a non-participant was accepted to be constrained in some way and by-contrast a physically active adult was unconstrained.

During the early 1990’s research in the field changed significantly (Jackson, 2005), it became more sophisticated characterised by the emergence of new theories and models based on more complex empirical research which served to both critique and challenge previously held assumptions. It was also at this time that the terminology also changed as ‘barriers to recreation participation’ was replaced with ‘constraints to leisure’. Jackson and Scott (1999) considered the revised terminology had a deeper meaning; they considered that ‘constraints’ represented a more inclusive term as barriers failed to convey the full range of reasons underpinning leisure non-participation, stopping participation and the emerging nature of constrained leisure.
They also viewed the replacement of the word ‘recreation’ with ‘leisure’ as an acknowledgment of the broadening range of investigations and the forging of closer links with mainstream leisure studies. Finally the dropping of ‘participation’ recognised that constraints influenced more than the decision to partake or not.

Jackson (1988) acknowledged the benefits for developing dimension of constraints which he classified as being either conceptually or empirically derived. Conceptual classifications have been concerned with the defining and clarifying relations rather than interpreting facts, where-as empirical classifications have been guided by practical experience and not theory. An early conceptual classification was the Internal-External dichotomy whereby constraints were viewed as an interaction between an individual’s attributes verses environmental characteristics. Franken and van Raaij (1981) considered internal constraints to be personal capacities, knowledge, abilities and interests, whilst external constraints related to lack of money, lack of time and lack of facilities. Boothby et al. (1981) distinguished between personal and social constraints, personal constraints being interest and physical ability, whilst social constraints comprised of cost, time, social networks and access to facilities. Similar distinction were also made Iso-Ahola and Manell (1985) who distinguished between ‘permanent’ and temporary’ and Searle and Jackson (1985a; 1985b) discussed ‘blocking’ and ‘inhibiting’ constraints, whereby blocking constraint are defined as “those which absolutely preclude participation” (p. 598) precludes participation but inhibiting constraints “merely serve to inhibit the ability to participate to a greater or lesser extent” (p. 598).

Crawford & Godbey (1987) seminal paper ‘Reconceptualising Barriers to Family Leisure’ was a watershed moment in the conceptual development of in leisure constraints researching the 1980’s (Jackson, 2005). A more sophisticated typology was suggested by Crawford and Godbey (1987) which challenged the prevailing assumption that “first a leisure preference exists, then a barrier intervenes and results in non-participation or, if no barriers intervenes, the individual will participate” (p. 119) and that a constraint could only be viewed as “any factor which intervenes between the preference for an activity and participation in it” (p. 120).
Crawford and Godbey (1987) also contended that such assumptions ignored the possibility that other types of constraints could even be relevant to the leisure decision-making process. Their typology divided constraints into three categories:

**Intrapersonal** – “involve individual psychological states and attributes which interact with preferences rather than intervening between preferences and participation” (p. 122). At this stage an individual’s preference, interest or desire for an activity has not yet been aroused, therefore the suitability of the behaviour may act as indirect barriers perhaps best described by the phrase “I wouldn’t be caught dead doing that” (Chick & Dong 2005, p. 170).

![Intrapersonal Barriers](image)

**Interpersonal** – “the result of interpersonal interaction or the relationship between individuals characteristics” (p. 123) for example the lack of suitable partners for leisure. Against best described by the phrase “Nobody will do that with me” (Chick & Dong 2005, p. 170).

![Interpersonal Barriers](image)

**Structural** – “intervening factors between leisure preference and participation” (p. 123). Preference or desire has already been established but factors such as lack of money, time or other resources limit participation, or as Chick and Dong (2005) would say “I don’t have the time or money to do that” (p. 170).
Whilst still echoing the internal-external dichotomy but in similar thinking to Crawford & Godbey (1987), Henderson et al. (1988) distinguished between ‘intervening’ constraints and ‘antecedent’ constraints. Intervening constraints were defined as “those which occur related specifically to the recreation opportunity” (p. 70) and shared common ground with Crawford & Godbey’s (1987) structural constraints. Whereas antecedent constraints were defined as “attitudes associated with a barrier such as personal capacities, personality, socialization factors, interest, etc...” (p. 2), which seems to be a merger of Crawford & Godbey’s interpersonal and interpersonal constraints.

Crawford & Godbey (1987) made two main contributions which can be surmised by their view that “barriers are influences upon, not determinants of, leisure behaviour” (p. 124). Firstly they argued against the prevailing assumption that constraints only affected non-participation and participation, instead arguing that constraints also affect the creation of preference and desire for an activity. In other words, a lack of awareness and/or inclination for an activity could be explained by and subject to constraints and ought to be considered as modifiers of preference rather than of participation. Secondly, by introducing intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints they expanded the scope of constraints that could be factors in affecting the leisure decision-making process. The model of hierarchical constraints developed by Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991), illustrated in figure 2.5, is widely viewed as one of the most influential conceptual developments, which has gained ascendancy as the primary constraints classification systems (Chick & Dong, 2005). Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991) argue that whilst the majority of existing research has been conducted on ‘structural’ constraints, these were in fact the least relevant in shaping leisure behaviour as they were the most distal.
The authors argued that the central tent of the hierarchical model was that “leisure participation is heavily dependent on negotiating through an alignment of multiple factors, arranged sequentially, that must be overcome to maintain an individual’s impetus through these systemic levels” (Crawford, Jackson and Godbey, 1991, p. 314), in other words individuals must attend to a sequential ordering of constraints wherein the sequence reflects the importance.

Intrapersonal and interpersonal are more proximal to the individual and where therefore likely to have a greater influence on the leisure decision-making process and resulting behaviour. The hierarchy model suggests that those who are most affected by intrapersonal constraints are the least likely to articulate the desire to engage in any particular sport or physical activity. Conversely, those who are least affected or not affected at all by intrapersonal constraints are more likely to express interpersonal and structural constraints as preventing them from undertaking the sport or physical activity of their choosing. The three categories of constraints may also act on each other in ways that further limit individual’s ability to use park and recreation facilities (Jackson, Crawford & Godbey, 1993). For example fear of being assaulted (interpersonal) may result in a negative attitude about the use of the outdoor (intrapersonal) and inhibit the expression of a desire or preference to take-up jogging. Similarly, transportation problems (structural) may prevent people for acquiring new skills and knowledge (intrapersonal) because they cannot access the opportunity.

The notion that individual’s might negotiate thought the consecutively ordered constraints was implied in the hierarchical model but was made more explicit in
Jackson, Crawford & Godbey (1993) ‘negotiation thesis’ which responded to a number of research findings that did not support the assumed link between high levels of perceived constraints and low participation levels (Shaw, 1991; Kay and Jackson, 1991; Scott, 1991) their proposition argued that leisure participation “is dependant not on the absences of constraints (although this may be true for some people) but negotiation through them. Such negotiation may modify rather than foreclose participation” (Jackson, Crawford & Godbey, 1993, p. 4). Much of leisure constraints research is predicated on the basis that the reporting of constraints has a direct and negative link on levels of participation. Shaw (1991) pointed to the need to test this widely evident assumption and revealed that an analysis of 11 reported constraints only 2 where associated with lower participation levels indicting the extremely poor predicative ability of reported constraints with respect to participation. Similarly, Kay and Jackson (1991) found that leisure activity continued despite the existence of constraints; specifically that three of the most frequently reported constraints (time, money, and facilities) were identified as having a positive rather than a negative relationship with participation. Kay and Jackson (1991) suggested that by exerting efforts to overcome constraints individuals either succeeded in maintaining their desired levels of participation or reduced them to less than they wished, but there appeared to be only small proportions of cases in which constraints completely excluded participation. Finally, in a study of contract bridge participation Scott (1991, p. 328) identified three strategies which were adopted in order to modify or lessen the constraints encountered. They were:

a. acquisition of information about limited opportunities
b. altered the scheduling of games to adjust for reduced group members and individual times commitments
c. skill development occurred to permit participation in advanced games.

Three key points emerged from these findings; firstly individuals can negotiate constraints in a number of different ways, secondly the effect of constraints is not always nonparticipation and negotiated participation will be different from unconstrained participation. As a result of Kay and Jackson (1991) and Scott (1991) research, the response to a leisure constraint is now viewed in terms of the level of participation rather than the original assumption of participation versus non-
participation. Jackson, Crawford and Godbey (1993) elaborated on the role of motivation in the negotiation process though their “balance proposition” that stated “both the initiation and outcome of the negotiation process are dependent on the relative strength of, and interaction between, constraints on participating in an activity and motivation for such participation” (p. 9).

Motivation has been applied to leisure behaviour (Iso-Ahola, 1999); leisure motives are viewed as internal psychological factors that “impel people to action” resulting in participation of a specific leisure activity (Mannell & Kleiber 1997, p. 187). Carroll and Alexandris (1997) in their study of Greek adults asked them to indicate the reasons they participated in recreational sporting activities. Whilst, they found greater levels of motivation were associated with higher levels of participation and lower levels of perceived constraints they were only able to provide qualified support for the ‘balance proposition’ and concluded that “highly motivated individuals are less likely to perceived high levels of constraints, and are more likely to participate in sports” (p. 296).

Building upon the importance of motivation and the negotiation of constraints, Raymore (2002) felt a more beneficial endeavour was to acknowledge the resources that encouraged or allowed participation as well as those that act to limit or prohibit, as illustrated in figure 2.7. Utilising a direct adaption of Jackson (1997) constraints definition, Raymore (2002) defined facilitators to leisure as factors that “are assumed by researchers and perceived or experienced by individuals to enable or promote the formation of leisure preferences and to encourage or enhance participation” (p.39).
Raymore (2002, p. 42) suggested that the facilitator concept could offer reasons for both participation and non-participation; participation occurs as a result of it being facilitated, whilst non-participation lacks the necessary facilitators (as opposed to facing constraints). However, the existence of such facilitators does not inevitably mean that an equivalent constraint has been surmounted. The model recognises the importance of the context within which participation decisions are made and presents a holistic approach to understanding participation and the wider leisure experience. The nested nature of the model is deliberately intended to show that intrapersonal facilitators/constraints can only be understood in the context of interpersonal/structural facilitators and constraints.

**Interpersonal Facilitators** – were proposed to be “individual characteristics, traits and beliefs that enable or promote the formation of leisure preferences” (Raymore 2002, p. 42).

**Interpersonal Facilitators** – were proposed to be “those individuals or groups that enable or promote the formation of leisure preferences” (Raymore 2002, p. 43).

**Structural Facilitators** – were proposed as the “social and physical institutions, organisations or belief systems of a society that operate external to the individual” (Raymore 2002, p. 43).
Raymore (2002) considered that a facilitator is not a process but instead in a condition that exists and that an understanding of the expectancy-value theory of achievement motivation, specifically the expectancy for success and the value of the outcomes is needed to understand the connections between facilitators, constraints and behaviour (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).

2.3.2 Constrained Leisure

Prior to the 1990’s the bulk of leisure constraint literature was empirically based and focused on identifying the most frequently occurring factors that limited participation so that policies and approaches could be developed to target non-participants. Jackson and Scott (1999) noted a consistent set of leisure constraints that cut across a range of studies and samples including “time commitments, cost, facilities and opportunities, skills and abilities, and transportation and access” (p. 304) with other authors noting factors such as ‘lack of interest’ and ‘lack of information’ (Searle & Jackson, 1985b; Howard and Crompton, 1984; Gobster 1998a).

2.3.2.1 Lack of Interest and Information

Howard and Crompton (1984) also identified that a ‘lack-of-interest’ was one of the most commonly cited constraints to participation reported in their study of why people did not use local park and recreation services in Florida, Texas and Oregon. Similarly, Schroeder and Wien (1986) reported that a lack of interest was the most frequently mentioned reason for not using public swimming pools, community centres, park and playgrounds. Gobster (1998a) found a lack of interest to be an important constraint to people involvement in golf, specifically that young Hispanic and African Americans thought golf was “not fun, was boring, uninteresting, lack excitement, and was not ‘up-to-date’” (p. 55) in comparison to alternative teenage sports.

The circumstances regarding why an individual may ‘lack interest’ in taking part in a given leisure activity has also been the subject of debate. Early researcher failed to interpret apparent lack of interest as a possible consequence of constraints on leisure,
largely because at this time they only recognised that constraints affect an individual’s participation, subsequent to having formed a preference. As this assumption was challenged recognition that ‘lack-of-interest’ ought to be viewed as a subset of constraints (Cawford & Godbey 1987; Henderson et al., 1988; Henderson & Bialeschki, 1991). A commonly accepted early assumption expressed by Jackson & Searle (1983) was that a “lack of interest ... may be assumed to be the primary characteristic distinguishing between those who would like to participate in a new or additional activity and those who would not” (p. 6). However, Searle and Jackson (1985b) suggested “the apparent lack of interest is more appropriately interpreted not as lack of interest per se, but rather as resignation to both personal and external circumstances” (p. 243) in response to their findings that single parents, the poor and the elderly were least likely to express the desire to start a new activity, whilst simultaneously experiencing significant constraints to their desired activity Thus concluding that the development of interest in a activity may be constrained in some way.

Jackson (1988) accepted that a lack of interest may indeed be a cause for not participating, however it should not be regarded as a constraint since the notion of a constraint implies the presence of a goal or objective, where as ‘lack of interest’ suggests that no such goal existed. However, Jackson (1990) later acknowledges that such a position overlooks that fact that a ‘lack of interest’ may in fact be an antecedent constraints, which shapes or limits the development of preferences, in a way possibly not even know to the individual. In contrast to his early position he advocated the inclusion of ‘lack of interest’ in future research because not to do so would “likely underestimate the number of people who experience constraints on their leisure” (p. 58). Most influential in this regard was Crawford, Jackson & Godbey (1991) hierarchal model of constraints which begins with those constraints which impact upon preferences before progressing to constraint that impact upon participation, and contends that a lack of interest is evidence of intrapersonal constraints.
Furthermore, individuals need various skills and abilities to participate actively in recreation, physical and social activities. However, Nadirova and Jackson (2000) reported that a lack of skill was more likely to contribute people’s decision to cease participation than preventing them from participating in a desired activity. Individuals are placed at a major disadvantage when lack of information concerning the availability of recreation and leisure opportunities. An adequate knowledge of programs, facilities, transport options and other resource is needed to make informed choices and decisions. Godbey (1985) found that residents reported varying degrees of awareness regarding their knowledge of both local park and recreation services. Such studies indicated a lack of awareness was widespread among non-participants, for example only 9% of respondents were unaware of the local zoo, 40% reported they did not know about local public golf courses. Godbey (1985) therefore argued that addressing and overcoming a ‘lack of awareness’ would be a more cost-effective approach to increasing participation than altering services to enable participation by those who are aware of the activities but are prevented from participation. Godbey et al. (1992) also found in a nation-wide survey of Americans, ‘lack of information’ was the second most often mentioned constraint for not participating in local recreational activities. Furthermore, a lack of awareness and information appears to play a role in why ethnic and racial minorities do not use public golf course in Chicago (Gobster, 1998a), do not use outdoor recreation facilities away from home (Scott & Kin, 1998) and do not participate in recreation activities on public land (Roper Starch, 1998).

2.3.2.2 Income
The evidence on the social class of participants indicates a significant skew towards those from a professional background and that the disparities between social classes have not become any less marked over recent years. Consequently those denoted as ‘professionals’ are still about three times more likely to participate in physical activity than those classified as ‘Unskilled Manual’ (GHS 2002). Research has also shown that individuals in the lowest income categories are the least frequent users of leisure and recreational facilities (Howard and Crompton, 1984; Godbey, 1985). Income has frequently exhibited a strong relationship with participation in sport and
physical activity (Kay & Jackson, 1991) in-so-far as more affluent individuals are less prone to experiencing structural constraints on participation than are less privileged individuals. Low income is associated with a variety of constraints including a lack of access, transportation, fear of crime and price of equipment. More specifically, Jackson (1983; 1994) found that equipment cost were the most frequently mentioned explanation for not participating in skiing and a variety of other outdoor recreation activities but were inconsequential in limiting people involvement in exercise activities, team sports and tennis. Similarly Jackson & Dunn (1988) reported that equipment cost was the most important reason why people did not initiate a new leisure activity.

Determining the link between social class and exercise participation is complex, compounded by few studies reporting the moderating impact of participants from different socio-economic backgrounds (Foster et al., 2005). However there is evidence to suggest that white, middles classes, female are more likely to engage in health behaviour change interventions (Marmot, 2005) compared to those who are economically disadvantaged (Hillson et al., 2007; Eyler et al., 2002). The complexity of the debate is extended further when reviewing the difficulties experienced by physical activity interventions that have specifically targeted disadvantaged groups. Despite targeting inactive individual’s who lived in area of poor-health, Dawson et al. (2006) found that their ‘walking the way to health’ intervention attracted mainly affluent and well educated individuals, similarly Yancy et al. (2006) intervention was ineffective in recruiting either ethnic or low-income populations despite these being the primary target market.

2.3.2.3 Gender
A variety of studies have shown marked disparities among different population groups in terms of their frequency of participation in different leisure activities. Stodolska (1998) lamented that the majority of constraints research focuses on the general population, with very little attention having been afforded to special populations such as women, race, culture & ethnic minorities, people with
disabilities and age. The majority of research on women’s leisure has focused on their gendered lives and their gendered leisure as opposed to using a constraints framework focused on identifying factors that inhibit level of participation (Shaw and Henderson, 2005). Women’s position in society, their lack of access to valued resources and societal expectations regarding their lives, roles and responsibilities all reduce their freedom and constrain their leisure options (Green, Hebron & Woodward, 1990; Henderson, 1994). The issues that has received greatest attention have been the ‘ethic of care’ and a women’s ‘lack of sense of entitlement’. Research has indicated that women’s caring behaviour is a major constraining factor on their leisure (Henderson et al., 1996), especially if they are also married, have children or have other caring responsibility such as elderly relatives (Harrington, Dawson & Bolla, 1992; Rogers, 1997). Furthermore, as women internalise the ethic of care and direct attention to the well-being of others, research has indicated that they do not develop a sense of their own needs or feel that they are entitled to leisure for themselves (Bedini & Guinan, 1996; Henderson & Bialeschki, 1991).

Whilst the ethic of care and lack of entitlement are strongest amongst mothers, Herridge, Shaw & Mannell (2003) indicated that college-age women gave up their own leisure time to please their male partners and Shaw, Caldwell & Kleiber (1996) reported that adolescent females are more inclined than male to report participating in activities to please others. However, evidence also exists to support that these constraints diminish with increasing age, as children grow-up and become more independent some of the entitlement to their own leisure is regained (Baileschki and Michener, 1994; Anderson, Fitzgerld and Laidler, 1995; Parry and Shaw, 1999). Another set of intrapersonal constraints (Crawford et al., 1991) that has received considerable attention relate to self-attitudes, including a lack of self-esteem, concerns regarding self- and body- image (Henderson & King, 1998; Shaw, 1992) and fear of violence (Bialescki & Hicks, 1998; Carr, 2000). Frederick and Shaw (1995) reported concerns regarding appearance, level of skill and fear of being embarrassed by not looking right when participation in aerobics, similar concerns were reported by James (2000) with regard to swimming. In a similar vein, the desire to participate in activities not considered to be appropriate by others is also reduced.
Culp (1988) found that family expectation regarding appropriate gender roles, constrained girls interesting in outdoor recreations whilst Wiley, Shaw & Havitz (2000) found decreased interest in male-dominated activities such as ice hockey, football, rugby, boxing or wrestling.

Lack of time for oneself is a significant constraint on women’s leisure lives. This dearth of time to engage in a desired leisure activity is largely due to paid work, plus unpaid work and household responsibilities are accounted for (Green et al., 1990). Family-related time also impacts on women’s opportunities of personal leisure. Research on family leisure has indicated that women spend considerable time and effort to ensure family leisure is a positive experience for their children, husbands and other family members at the expense of their own (Hunter & Whitson, 1992).

Crawford & Huston (1993) indicates that the birth of the first child has a dramatic negative effect as does the caring for elderly relations which is also disproportionately the responsibility of women (Frederick & Fast, 1999). Women’s lack of financial resources and lack of financial independence means that some women being economically deprived or economically dependent on others leading to constraints on spending money on personal leisure.

2.3.2.4 Age

It is acknowledged that constraints are not static, insurmountable obstructions to participation and enjoyment in a desired activity, but instead are negotiable (Jackson & Scott, 1999), similarly the nature and extent of constraints vary across an individual’s life cycle (Jackson, 2005). Each category of constraint exhibits distinct pattern of association with age which is illustrated in an idealised composite graph (figure 2.8) which shows a graphical presentation of quantitative data which has typically emerged from empirical research (Jackson 2005, p. 7).

Figure 2.8 shows that young people’s leisure is less constrained in terms of time but limited by cost, a lack of partners and opportunities. Whilst the passage into middle-age is associated with a reduction in these types of constraints, it is associated with
greater time constraints due to work and family commitments. In older-age both
time and cost constraints reduce but are replaced by difficulties with health, skills
and isolation.

![Diagram](image)

Figure 2. 8 Variations in Constraint by Age

Time constraints is the most common and strongest constraint (Jackson, 2005), it is
caracterised as an inverted U-shape, indicating an abundance of time before
employment starts and after it ends. Time constraints are the principle reason why
people say they have stopped participating in leisure activities (Jackson & Dunn,
1992), do not participate in desired activities (McCarville & Smale, 1993), do not
participate in fitness activities (Shaw, Bonen & McCabe, 1991; Mannell & Zuzanek,
1991), do not participate in local recreational services (Godbey et al., 1992; Howard
& Crompton, 1984) and do not visit local parks (Arnold & Shinew, 1998; Scott &
Jackson, 1996; Scott & Munson, 1994). The reporting of ‘time’ as a significant
constraint to participation may be legitimate due to care giving obligations or work
demands beyond an individual’s control. However, it may also indicated an unwillingness to sacrifice time spent doing something else, thus masking the real reason for non-participation, such as being too lazy and not wanting to make the effort (Mannell & Iwaski, 2005), in other words time becomes a social acceptable excuse. In this instance, the real reason is that the ‘constrained’ activity does not have a high enough priority within that individual’s life.

Isolation is usually illustrated by a U-shaped association with age, signifying that its greatest impact occurs in the early life-stages before declining and then increases again during the later stages of life. Jackson (2005) interpreted the graph as an ongoing process of change over the life cycle, but also as a processes of exchange, as one combination of constraints are replaced with another.

2.3.4 Summary
An examination of the literature surrounding leisure constraints, both in terms of constraints to leisure and constrained leisure is an important aspect of the study for a number of reasons but specifically because it extends the social marketing concept of competition beyond behavioural alternatives to the range of barriers that keep individuals from participating in sport and physical activity to the extent they desire or at all. To understand an individual’s participation choices and subsequent behaviour requires an understanding of all aspects that shape leisure behaviour, both positive such as motivation and expected benefits and negative factors such as constraints that impact upon free choices. Therefore, an understanding of leisure constraints has the potential to help practitioners to understand why certain populations groups do not make greater use of their facilities and activities.

Leisure constraints research has had an enormous impact on sport and physical activity policy; on the whole policy interventions have been based on the premise that a constraint was an insurmountable obstacle to sport and physical activity participation. Thus, it was wrongly taken for granted that if an individual encountered a constraint, the result would be non-participation, unless this constraint
was removed. Such logic created the link between certain constraints affecting certain types of individuals and the emergence of policies aimed at reducing the most salient constraints to those in greatest need – for example the wide-spread use of reduced-price policies as a method of increasing participation among low-income groups. This premise has been superseded with the identification of a continuum of constraints which have the potential to add a dynamic new perspective to policy interventions. There is a general consensus within the literature that there are three distinct types of constraints – intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural (Crawford and Godbey, 1987) which Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991) suggest are encountered hierarchically. However, the three categories may also interact with one another to further limit involvement (Jackson, Crawford & Godbey, 1993).

The role of intrapersonal factors suggests that practitioners must recognise that constraints may obstruct the development of preferences as expressed by a lack of interest in participating, as well as intervening between a desire to participate and actual participation. Traditional policy interventions have emphasised the removal of relatively distal constraints such as the better provision of built facilities and making them more accessible or affordable, but has on the whole neglected what might be considered more important predictors of participation, intrapersonal factors that tackle behavioural inertia and factors that affect an individual will to act.

The literature also demonstrates how constraints’ for different populations groups differ in nature and intensity. Many women are constrained by an ethic of care, a scene of lack of entitlement to leisure (Henderson & Bialeschki 1991), also by the fear of sexual assault (Whyte & Shaw, 1994) and by negative body image (Federick & Shaw, 1995; James, 2000). Finally, it is also important to note that many people participate in leisure activities despite encountering constraints. A number of research findings did not support the assumed link between high levels of perceived constraints and low participation rates (Kay and Jackson 1991; Shaw et al., 1991; Scott, 1991). Instead this research indicated that individuals actively seek to adopted strategies to negotiate or overcome the effect of one or more constraints. The
importance of motivation in the negotiation-participation process has been acknowledged and extended by Raymore (2002) to included ‘facilitation’ resources that encourage or allow participation.

2.4 The Exchange of Value – what’s in it for me?

The exchange concept underpins a target audience’s perception of the value they will receive as a result of adopting a healthy behaviour; so if someone is asked to exchange an old behaviour in favour of a new one of societies choosing, it is reasonable to ask what’s in it for them? In this regard social marketing interventions need to offer the target market something that they really want; something that they value and perceive to be beneficial. However, Day & Crask (2000) consider that despite of the growing status of the value concept in marketing, in reality there is relatively little known about what customer value is, for example there is no commonly accepted definition (Russell-Bennett et al., 2009) nor is there a definitive conceptualisation, framework or typology (Smith & Colgate, 2007) making an understanding how consumers determine value extremely difficult.

2.4.1 Conceptualisation of Customer Value

Payne and Holt (2001) identified four influential antecedents and three more recent perspectives of value and customer value as illustrated in figure 2.9. The first antecedent Payne and Holt (2001) note is the important of not confusing the terms consumer values (plural) with consumer value (singular). Rokeach (1973) describes ‘values’ as deeply held and enduring beliefs whereas Holbrook (1994) suggests ‘value’ refers to the notion of preferences. In other words, ‘value’ pertains to a preferential judgement, whilst ‘values’ refers to criteria upon which such value judgements are made. Our understanding of value and customer value has largely emerged from consumer research which focuses on understanding the purchasing decision-making behaviour of consumers. A better understanding of customer values is aimed at being able to design and position products and services which could be linked to these values, typical examples of this research are Mitchell’s (1983) ‘values and lifestyles’ methodology and Kahle’s (1983) ‘list of values’.
Secondly, the augmented product concept (Levitt, 1980) originated from Levitt (1969) view of competition, where he stated that competition is what is added to “factory output in the form of packaging, services, advertising, customer advice, financing, delivery arrangements, warehousing and other things that people value” (p. 142). Furthermore, Levitt (1981) considered that from a consumers perspective the product is “a promise, a cluster of value expectations of which its intangible parts are integral as its tangible parts” (p. 85). Many others have extended Levitt’s work, McDonald (1984) and Christopher and McDonald (1991) introduced the ‘product surround’ idea which suggests that whilst the core or generic product may account for 80% of the total cost, it may only have 20% of the total impact on customers, meaning that the product surround may represent up to 80% of what the customer actually values.

Thirdly, in contrast to exploring the purchase and decision making behaviours of consumers, customer satisfaction and service quality models such as SERVQUAL (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1985; 1988; Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml, 1991) are focused on value outputs such as satisfaction and quality. For example, SERVQUAL has five dimensions those of tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy which measure the service quality based on the customers
perception of the difference between their expectation of and actual experience of service quality. Many of the SERVQUAL element are not concerned with the tangible core product or service offering instead they give emphasis to the importance of ‘added-value’. Finally, in 1985 McKinsey & Co developed the original ‘value delivery system/sequence’ approach. Value systems per se highlight the need for a company to move from a traditional internal view of their organisation as a set of functions to an externally orientated view of their business as a form of value (Juttner and Wehril, 1994; Piercy, 1998; Clark et al., 1995). Porter’s (1985) value chain expressed the notion that competitive advantage could be achieved through the management of an organisation internal activities and that these activities formed its value chain. Porter (1990) spoke about providing “superior value to the buyers in terms of product quality, special features a or after-sales” (p. 37) recognising that customers have a value chain and that a firms source of competitive advantage and differentiation stems from how the firm value chain relates to the customers value chain. Vandermerwe (1993) further developed the concept of the customers value chain into the ‘customer’s activity cycle’, organisations need to know where added value can be inserted into the cycle and therefore threating the customers value creating chains as the same as their own.

Building on these four antecedents, Payne and Holt (2001) identified more recent perspectives which focus on the customer and the notion of ‘customer value’. Table 2.3 outlines the various definitions of Customer Value from key authors in the field.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zeithaml (1998)</td>
<td>“Perceived value is a customers' overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holbrook (1994)</td>
<td>Customer Value is “a relativistic (comparative, personal, situational) preference charactering a subject's (consumer's) experience of interacting with some object … i.e. any good, service, person, place, thing, event or idea”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holbrook (2005)</td>
<td>Customer Value is an &quot;interactive, relativistic preference and experience&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woodruff (1997)</td>
<td>Customer Value is a &quot;customer's perceived preference for and evaluation of those product attributes, attribute performance and consequences arising from use that facilitate (or block), achieving the customers' goal and purposes in use situations&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From a customer’s perspective, Zeithmal (1988) considers value is what they ‘get’ relative to what they have to ‘give-up’. Where-as Holbrook (1994; 2006) expresses the perceptual nature of value which is uniquely experienced by individual customers and also points to the fact that value is contextual and likely to change depending on the situation, product or individual and finally that value is dynamic in nature and inclined to change overtime (Ulaga, 2003). Other, more straight forward definitions have also been suggested by various authors, Anderson et al. (1993) in terms of the perceived worth for the price paid; Monroe (1990) as the perceived benefits received relative to the price paid; Butz and Goodstein (1996) as the relationship between customer and company; Woodruff and Gardial (1996) as the trade-off between the favourable and unfavourable outcomes of a product use.

2.4.2 Dimensionality of Consumer Value.
Two key approaches to the conceptualisation, research streams and theoretical models of consumer value has emerged from the literature which can broadly be described as either uni-dimensional, also referred to as economic value or value-in-exchange and multi-dimensional approaches such as experimental value or value-in-use as illustrated in figure 2.10.

![Figure 2.10 The Nature of Consumer Value](image)

2.4.2.1 Uni-dimensional
Uni-dimensional constructs of consumer value are most commonly expressed in terms of functionality and the perceived utility, benefits, quality and worth from the
purchase of goods or service and from the use of a product versus what was paid in terms of prices, cost and sacrifices. Zeithaml (1988) proposed a conceptual model that defined and related price, perceived quality and perceived value, by developing four consumer definition of perceived value:-

1) value is low price
2) value is whatever I want in a product
3) value is the quality I get for the price I pay
4) value is what I get for what I give

(p. 9)

Zeithmal (1988) model provides for an understanding of the inter-connections between price, perceived quality and perceived value. This suggests that consumers implicitly perform a cost-benefit analysis, albeit superficial and holistic, where the costs are equated to the expenditure of consumer resources (money, time, effort or physical energy) and benefits serve the role of reaching a particular consumption goals. Where “If value = benefits obtained – resources expended” the greatest value is derived from goods and services that are believed to yield the most benefit and required the least resource expenditure (Day and Crask; 2000, p. 57).

Authors have suggested that the primarily cost against which a consumer compares benefits received is the price paid (Anderson et al., 1993; Housel and Kenevsky 1995). However, Lai (1995) suggested it is more plausible that multiple costs are considered by consumers such as the time cost, psychic cost and human energy costs are traded-off against price. It has been stated that price paid is a good proxy measure of value (Housel and Kenevsky, 1995), however Day & Crask (2000) indicate that this might not be true as consumer might trade-off other costs against price to determine a maximum amount they would be willing to pay, but this is not necessary the price they actually do pay. In addition to viewing value as a trade-off, some authors have differentiated between intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Zeithmal, 1988; Teas and Agarwal 2000; Ralston, 2003). Intrinsic factors are considered integral to the product or service and can only be enhanced if the offering is altered, whereas extrinsic factors (such as selling price and brand image/position) be changed and enhanced over time.
Whilst, the perceptual nature of value is an accepted concept; it inevitable impacts upon a consumer’s assessment of the costs and benefits of an object or offering (Lai 1995). This means that it is impossible to objectively define levels of cost or benefits due to the distortion of reality. Therefore, the value a consumer perceives in an object or offering is difficult to determine due to the tradeoffs between benefits that must be sacrificed in return for larger amounts of benefits (Woodruff and Gardial, 1996). Consumers also assess the nature and extent of perceived risk, such as the risk of not obtaining the benefits expected to the levels desired, or worse experiencing unpleasant or unwanted consequences, such assessments are personal and idiosyncratic making an objective determination of perceived risk across individual, situations and types of products or services extremely difficult. Because neither ‘benefits obtained’ or ‘resources expended’ can be known prior to purchase and consumption, the consumer faces the risk of making incorrect estimate or either benefits or costs, Day & Crask (2000) considered value is therefore provided when risk is reduced. They suggest that consumers consider a) the likelihood of a product/service performing the function desires, b) physical harm or injury ensuing from the product use, c) gaining approval of others, d) achieving a sense of self-efficacy and e) wasting money, time or effort when making a particular choice. Furthermore, when considering benefits received, there is little agreement as to what these benefits are. Whilst various authors have categories them, Day & Crask (2000) considered that many simply describe what is being received through acquisition or consumption rather than as criteria of value.

However, some authors have broadened their value conceptualisations, Parasuraman and Grewal (2000) view perceived value as a ‘dynamic construct’ comprising four value types: acquisition, transaction, in-use and redemption value. They defined acquisition value as the benefits obtained for the price paid, and transactional value as the gratification received by the customers for negotiating a good purchase deal. Parasuraman and Grewal (2000) explain in-use value as the utility obtained from using the product or services, whilst redemption value is categorised as the value left over at the end of a products life or when services are stopped. Ravald and Grönroos (1996), in their approach posit that the customer-company relationship has an
important influence on a customer’s perceived value of their product or service. The longer a relationship continues, the evaluation of perceived value shifts from a judgement based on the benefit/sacrifices of the product or services attributes to a judgement based on the positive and negative effects of the relationship attributes.

Whilst Holbrook (1994) and other authors suggested that customer value is a more intricate and complicated concept in a service setting (Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994) with traditional functional attributes interacting with other ‘higher order abstracts’ (Ziethanl 1988), highlighting that such trade-off models disregard the multi-dimensional nature of services because they are rooted in the functional feature and benefits. As an alternative a number of multi-dimensional models of customer value have also been proposed that combine both functional, experimental and socio-psychological dimensions such as Woodruff and Gardial (1996) customer value hierarchy, Sheth et al.(1991) theory of consumption values and Holbrook (1994, 1999) typology of experiential value which are discussed in the next section.

2.4.2.2 Multi-dimensional

Whilst the uni-dimensional nature of consumer value focuses on the trade-off between quality and price, multi-dimensional or experiential approaches attempts to explain value in the context of fulfilling customer’s needs or wants by purchasing a product or by using a service. Woodruff and Gardial (1996) developed a customer value hierarchy model which shows how desired attributes and their performance, desired usage outcomes and the fulfilment of a customer’s goal allows for the determination of customer-perceived and/or desired value, they believed that “customer value is not inherent in products or services themselves; rather it is expressed by customers as a consequence of using the suppliers products and services for their own purposes” (p. 7). Their model, illustrated in figure 2.11 represents how products relate to customers at three levels: attributes, consequences and desired end-states (Woodruff and Gardial, 1996, p. 142).

According to Woodruff (1997), the value hierarchy proposes that customers
purchases products and services because they believe that the outcomes of their various attributes and benefits will help them achieve their goals and purposes. At the lowest level of the hierarchy, customer value is focused on the product or service attributes, with the assessment of the features and benefits in terms of satisfying their needs uppermost in their minds. At the next level up value in-use is uppermost and as a result of having used the product or service its suitability to help the customer’s experience or attain their desired goals can be assessed. At the top of the hierarchy customers use their goals to define their desired outcomes (Clemons and Woodruff, 1992); which in turn helps them to determine what particular attributes and benefits will help them achieve their desired outcomes (Mentzer, Rutner and Matsuno, 1997). The process is cyclical and is constantly being refined as a result of the customer using and assessing the contribution of the product and service to attaining the customer goals.

Sheth et al. (1991) ‘theory of consumption value’ describe five types of value that drive consumption behaviour, each of which would have a differential impact upon individuals decision making process in different contexts. Their first value is ‘functional’ which they defined as the “perceived utility acquired from an alternative’s capacity for functional, utilitarian or physical performance” (Sheth et
al., 1991, p. 160), which is derived from the tangible attributes that a consumer experiences when using or consuming the product. The second value is ‘emotional’ defined as “the ability of the product or service to arouse feeling or affective states” (Sheth et al., 1991, p. 161) and represents the product or service’s ability to invoke feeling of comfort, security, excitement and such like. Sheth et al. (1991) third value is ‘social’ and is defined as the “perceived utility acquired from an alternatives association with one or more specific social group” (Sheth et al., 1991, p. 161) and is obtained from the benefits associated with a product or service’s social class or social status. ‘Epistemic’ is their fourth value which refers to “the perceived utility acquired when the product arouses curiosity, provides novelty and/or satisfies a desire for knowledge” (Sheth et al., 1991, p. 162). Finally, their fifth value is ‘conditional’ which refers to the value resulting from an offering’s ability to meet specific needs in specific circumstances (Sheth et al., 1991, p. 162). It is clear from these definitions that value is not just a trade-off between quality and price; it includes a focus on consumer’s needs and wants and their attainment of these goals through experiencing the goods and services (Holbrook, 2006; Sheth and Uslay, 2007).

Holbrook (1994) expressed in greater detail the nature of customer value by developing a typology where-by the ‘consumption experience’ can be allocated into different dimensions of customer value. Holbrook (1994) distinguishes eight types of value in the consumption experience:

(i) Efficiency – value resulting from manipulating something as a means to a self-oriented end
(ii) Excellence – personal satisfaction associated with the admiration of the characteristic of an object because they provide a means to an end
(iii) Politics – value resulting from manipulating something as a means to the other-oriented end of achieving a favourable response from someone else
(iv) Esteem – value arising from the contemplation on one’s own status or prestige as reflected in the opinion of others
(v) Play – value derived from the pleasure of engaging in some activity
(vi) Aesthetic – value achieved by admiring something not as a means to an end but because it provided value in itself
(vii) Morality – value achieved by doing things because they are the ‘right’ thing to do not because they gain us favour with others
It is worth noting that some of these values as ‘spirituality’, ‘morality’, ‘aesthetics’ and ‘play’ appear more tangential to mainstream marketing than others which focus on ‘efficiency’ (convenience), ‘excellence’ (quality) and ‘esteem’ (reputation) and ‘politics’ (success).

Holbrook (1999) identified four elements of customer value (figure 2.12), firstly he reasons that customer value pertains to a preference, which is described as a “favourable disposition, general liking, positive effect, judgment as being good, tendency to approach, pro versus con attitude” (Holbrook 1994, p. 27). Secondly, value comprises of an interaction between the consumers and a company’s offering.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Extrinsic</th>
<th>Intrinsic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-orientated</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>EFFICIENCY</td>
<td>PLAY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(output/input,</td>
<td>(fun)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>convenience)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reactive</td>
<td>EXCELLENCE</td>
<td>AESTHETICS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(quality)</td>
<td>(beauty)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other-orientated</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>STATUS</td>
<td>ETHICS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(success, impression management)</td>
<td>(virtue, justice, morality)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reactive</td>
<td>ESTEEM</td>
<td>SPIRITUALITY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(reputation, materialism, possessions)</td>
<td>(faith, ecstasy, rapture, sacredness, magic)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2.12 Typology of Experience Value

Thirdly, customer value is relativistic in nature, meaning that it can be compared between objects, and that it varies among different customers and within different contexts. Finally, customer value is derived from an experience as opposed to the procurement of a product or service. Holbrook (1994, 1999) typology is based on a combination of ‘extrinsic/intrinsic’ and ‘active/reactive’ sources of value on the
other. With regard to the active and reactive sources of value, Holbrook (1994) defines the active dimension as “a manipulation of the environment” (p. 43), by contrast in the reactive domain the customer acts as an observer and is a recipient rather than being actively involved.

Researchers have found that multiple value dimensions impact on both choice and purchase decisions in a number of different tourism settings, such as golf holidays (Petrick and Backman, 2002), cruising (Petrick, 2004) and attending festivals (Lee, Patrick and Crompton, 2007). Williams and Soutar (2005) found that emotional value, functional value (in the guise of value-for-money) and novelty value influenced satisfaction levels on an adventure tourism trip. Soutar, Lee and Jenkins (2008) indicated that the strongest influence on intentions to visit a coastal destination in Western Australia was emotional value, with social and functional value having a smaller impact. More recently, Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) have presented an empirical adaption of Holbrook’s (1999) typology which the authors regarded to be a more comprehensive approach to the value construct because it captured the “diverse aspects of the consumption experience, both cognitive and affective in nature – that is, the economic, social, hedonic and altruistic categories of consumer value” (p. 97). Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) research was conducted in a service context (vegetarian restaurants) and indicated that the intrinsic elements of play, aesthetics and altruistic are more reflexive of consumer value in a service context than are extrinsic categories of efficiency, quality and social. Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) findings suggest that by utilising an adaptation of Holbrook’s (1999) typology, research in a service–orientated context could move beyond the rational or functional orientation based primarily on the quality-price trade-off and instead produce data that indicated the important of the emotional or hedonic aspects of value. In a similar vein, Grönroos (2008) believes that there is now a new paradigm shift from marketing being based on the concept of value-in-exchange to marketing being based on the concept of value-in-use. From this perspective, value-in-exchange is therefore only a function of value-in-use.
2.4.3 Sources of Value

There appears to be less debate and more consensuses in the literature regarding the sources of customer value, as illustrated in table 2.4. Smith and Colgate (2007) have suggested from a goods-focus standpoint there are five sources of value a company can create for its customers, that being information, products, interaction, environment, ownership/possession transfer. Russell-Bennett et al. (2009) examined value creation in terms of government social services marketing and proposed that there are six sources of value that influence the consumption process. Whilst they endorse four of Smith and Colgate’s (2007) typology, albeit substituting service for product, they also add both co-creation and social mandate in the place of ownership.

Table 2.4 Sources of Customer Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Information</td>
<td>Information</td>
<td>Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product</td>
<td>Service</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>Environment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ownership - possession transfer</td>
<td>Co-creation</td>
<td>Social Mandate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Smith and Colgate (2007) information in the form of advertising, public relations, labels and instructions help educate and inform the customer regarding the functional and/or instrumental value of the product, furthermore by educating customers in this way they are able to make better informed and quick purchase decision thus adding cost/sacrifice value. Through the use of creative advertising focused on inspirational messages and meaning, Smith and Colgate (2007) suggest that both experiential/hedonic value and symbolic/expressive value is also created. Products are Smith and Colgate’s (2007) next source value; functional and/or instrumental is provided through the products quality, feature and benefit
attributes. Experiential/hedonic value can be created through the associated meanings and experiences, whilst the product brand and brand values develop symbolic/expressive value. Finally, Smith and Colgate (2007) consider the price of the product has a direct impact on cost/sacrifice value. Russell-Bennett et al. (2009) extend Smith and Colgate’s (2007) conceptualisation to services; in their view services provide value in term of the needs and benefits they meet and through the add-on or supplementary services they provide.

The interactions between the customer and the company are Smith and Colgate’s (2007) third source of value; functional/instrumental value emerges through the extent of staff competencies and the resulting level of service quality. The use of customer loyalty schemes and privilege cards can underpin symbolic/expressive value, where as cost/sacrifice value can be created through the development of relationship with the firm, thus reducing the risk associated with purchasing the product or repeat purchases. The environment within which the purchase or consumption occurs can also create value; factors such as the store design and layout can provide functional or instrumental value thorough thoughtful lighting to make it easy to read labels. The provision of music or a café which is aimed at making shopping more enjoyable added to experiential/hedonic value. Symbolic/expressive value can be achieved when environments are themed to accommodate specific seasonal or religious celebration such as Christmas or Halloween. Finally, Smith and Colgate (2007) consider the provision of free or convenient car parking impacts upon the cost/sacrifice value.

The fifth and the final of Smith and Colgate’s (2007) source of value relates to the ownership and/or possession transfer such as delivery arrangements and contract of sale. Functional and/or instrumental value is created through timely delivery or extended opening hours, where as experiential/hedonic value comes from an over satisfaction with the shopping experience. Smith and Colgate (2007) consider that symbolic/expressive value can be created by providing additional services such as gift wrapping and finally the use of automatic product tracking system can give the customer peace of mind as an example of cost/sacrifice value. Russell-Bennett et al.
(2009) add co-creation as a source of value, which Prahalad and Ramawamy (2004) describe as ranging from joint-problem solving to the development of personalised services.

2.4.4 Consumer Value in a Social Marketing Setting
When consumer value is addressed in a social marketing or governmental setting, much of the existing literature either takes a managerial perspective, where the focus is on public administration and the management of public services or a consumption perspective where the focus is on the consumers of public services. Irrespective of which perspective is used, typically this research uses service quality to assess customer satisfaction (Ancarani and Capald, 2001; Brady, Cronin and Brand, 2002; Brysland and Curry, 2001). Those researchers adopting a consumer approach tend to use customer satisfaction as equating to value (Roth and Bozinoff, 1989; Callahan and Golbert, 2003), whilst from a managerial perspective value is often defined in economic terms (Kirlin, 1996). Much of the governmental social marketing literature is located within the public health arena yet there is little research that looks at value or value creation. Notable exceptions are the work of Zainuddin et al. (2008; 2011) and Russell-Bennett et al. (2009) both of whom have proposed models of value creation in both social marketing and governmental social change management (see figure 2.13).

Figure 2. 13 Describing Value in a Social Marketing Service
Building upon Sweeny (2003) Customer Value Development model (CVDM), both Zainuddin et al. (2008) and Russell-Bennett et al. (2009) value creation process models illustrate how value might be created during the three stages of the consumption process, followed by satisfaction, behaviour intentions and outcomes. The authors suggest that consumers of a social marketing intervention experience value at three stages of the consumption process which in turn lead to outcomes of value: satisfaction, behavioural intention and sustained behavioural change. Furthermore, that the role of satisfaction is important; Sweeney (2003) proposes that consumer-perceived-value relates directly to customer satisfaction, and that satisfaction is important as thus leads to the intention to perform the new behaviour time and time again.

At the pre-consumption stage consumers are still considering whether to use the social marketing service or intervention, or not. The model predicts that they are likely to want high level of both functional and emotional value at this stage but by contrast will only seek moderate levels of both social and altruistic value. As consumers will be considering how well the service or intervention performs, perceived functionality is likely to be an importance factor in the consumers decision-making process. It is also likely at this stage that consumers may have negative feelings such as fear or anxiety, especially if they are unfamiliar with the service, making the need for emotional value particularly important. It is not anticipated that pleasing others (social value) or acting for the betterment of society (altruistic value) is as important as the fulfilment of the consumer’s functional and emotional needs. At the consumption stage, consumers have made their decision to act primarily based on the premise that consuming the service would fulfil or satisfy their functional needs. The model therefore predicts that high levels of functional value will be experienced at this stage along with high levels of emotional value due to the need to overcome any residual negative emotions needed to reaffirm their decision to act. Once again, it is not anticipated that altruistic or social value is considered to be as important as functional or emotional. Once the service or intervention has been consumed and the experience completed the importance of functional value has diminished due to the customers’ needs having been fulfilled.
However, if customers reflect on their decision and feel that they have performed a socially-responsible act, they may experience high levels of altruistic value. Once again, it is not anticipated that social status or influence will have much, if any, significance at this stage resulting in consumers having low social value.

2.4.5 Summary
An examination of the literature surrounding value and consumer value is an important aspect of the study for a number of reasons but specifically because it extended the social marketing concept of exchange into that of a value proposition. Kotler (1972) notes that “a transaction is the exchange of value between two parties” (p. 48). Therefore, if an individual is asked to exchange an old behaviour for a new one, the value proposition must offer something that they really want, something they perceived to be beneficial and something that is valued.

Customer value has emerged as a key factor in consumer’s decision making and behaviour and as a consequence it has become an area of increasing interest to marketers (Zeithmal, 1998; Sheth et al., 1991). However, the existence of varying definitions, ambiguous interpretations regarding the nature of value and the lack of a definitive conceptualisation makes understanding how customer determining value difficult. However, two key two approaches to conceptualising customer value have emerged from the marketing literature: Uni-dimensional or economic and Multi-dimensional or experiential (Russell-Bennett et al., 2009). Traditionally, marketing has adopted an economic approach whereby value is the outcome of a cost-benefit trade-off focused on the utility gained (Payne and Holt, 1999). Value is viewed as embedded in the product that is exchanged; such value has been added during the production process and can be measured by the price a customer is prepared to pay for it. This has become known as the value-in-exchange notion (Grönroos, 2004).

However, this trade-off with its emphasis on functional value and utility is considered too simplistic, terms such as ‘cost’ and ‘price’ both overtly imply a monetary exchange which within a social marketing context is not necessarily
applicable. Customer value has also been conceptualised as being experiential with the consumption experience itself being a source of value (Grönroos, 2004). Mathwick et al. (2001) consider that experiential value perceptions are based upon “interactions involving either direct usage or distance appreciation of goods and services” (p. 41). Multiple value dimensions that arise from the consumption experience itself are as functional value, emotional value and social value (Holbrook, 2006). According to this experiential value-in-use view, value is not what goes into goods and services - it is what customers get out of them, value is not produced - although the resources out of which it can emerge are (Grönroos, 2004).

Whilst, the perceptual nature of value is accepted, the subjective nature of value should not be forgotten or underestimated, with the value of a product or service being the result of the customer subjective judgement (Zeithaml, 1998; Woodruff and Gardial, 1996; Huber et al., 2007). Value judgements are relative and comparative because product and services are always assessed in relation to a competing offer and/or a former experience.

2.5 Changing Unhealthy Behaviour: Why Don’t People Do What Good for Them…?

Exercise behaviour is unique in so far as it is an acquisition behaviour, as opposed to most other health behaviour research which involves behaviour cessations. This section focuses on how a behaviour change occurs and attempts to answer the conundrum that if an active lifestyle is healthier than a sedentary one, and this message is understood by the adult population (DoH, 2004) – then why don’t people do what’s ‘good for them?’ Clearly in order to increase physical activity levels there are major challenges in changing peoples’ behaviours, not least due to the fact that successful interventions rely upon an individual’s willingness to engage-in and continue a physically active lifestyle over a number of years. Efforts to promote physical activity are now firmly fixed on better understanding the origin, nature, and definitive characteristics of its determinants and in doing so create more effective interventions aimed at promoting regular physical activity (Regers et al., 2001). The
various factors that influence adults to adopt and maintaining participation in physical activity have been split between those that are constant and cannot be changed such as age, gender, race, ethnicity and those that can be modified for example behaviour traits such as intention and attitude to physical activity and creating a supportive environment within which to participate. Accepting that researchers have already examined a wide variety of influences on adult physical activity, this section will examining only those factors that can be changed.

2.5.1 Behavioural Research on Physical Activity among Adults
Early physical activity research was largely atheoretical; however more recently there has been a greater emphasis on the need for our understanding to be underpinned by theory (Baranowski et al., 1998). Behavioural research regarding the physical activity of adults has developed two key strands, firstly factors that influence or predict participation ie determinants research and secondly research focusing on the effectiveness of strategies and programmes aimed at increasing participation known as intervention research. A range of theoretical approaches are now being used to underpin both areas of research. In a review of the models and theories used in the field of health behaviour, DeBarr (2004) identified four distinct categories: individual health behaviour, interpersonal health behaviour, group interventions and staged models as illustrated in table 2.5. Individual health behaviour theories seek to interpret or analyse behaviour at the individual level, where intention to change is independent of the actions of others. Interpersonal health behaviour models move beyond individual theories and consider the influences of other personal on health behaviours. Social support theories focus on how supportive or conducive the environment is. The final grouping contains health behaviour theories which are referred to as stage theories and focus on following or predicting the progress of adopting new behaviours through a number of stages. DeBarr (2004) indicated that the most often cited were stage theories or models such as the transtheroretical model (Prochaska and DiClementer 1988, 1992) which included 10-processes of change which drive individual through 5-stage of change.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory/model</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Key Concept</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classic learning theories</td>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>Reinforcement, Cues, Shaping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Belief Model</td>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>Perceived susceptibility, Perceived severity, Perceived benefits, Perceived barriers, Cues to action, Self-efficacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory of Reasoned Action/ Theory of Planned Behaviour</td>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>Behavioural intention, Attitude, Outcome expectancy, Evaluation of likelihood of outcome, Expectancy, Subjective Norm, Motivation to comply, Perceived behavioura controls, Control beliefs, Actual behavioural control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protection Motivation Theory</td>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>Threat appraisal, Coping appraisal, Severity, Vulnerability, Self-efficacy, Response-efficacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Cognative Theory</td>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Reciprocal determinism, Behavioural capability, Self-efficacy, Outcome expectation, Observational learning, Reinforcement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Locus of Control</td>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Expectancy, External locus of control, Health internals &amp; externals, Internal locus of control, Powerful others, Reinforcement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Support</td>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Instrumental support, Informational support, Emotional support, Appraisal support, Social capital, Supportive Behaviours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transtheoretical model</td>
<td>Stage</td>
<td>Precontemplation, Contemplation, Preparation, Action, Maintenance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. 5 Theories and Models used in Health Behaviours and Physical Activity Research
The next most frequently cited were the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) and the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1975; 1980), followed by social cognitive models such as the social learning theory (Bandura 1997b) or social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1988) and the health belief model (Rosenstock, 1960, Strecher and Rosenstock, 1997), King et al. (1992) identified that behaviour modification techniques lead to a 10-75% increase in the frequency of physical activity when compared to no treatment control groups. However, Dishman and Sallis (1994) were unable to determine whether one method or construct was better than another because they were often part of multi-factor interventions.

2.5.2 Classic Learning Theories
Operant Conditioning theory (Skinner, 1953) is based upon the notion that an individual changes their behaviour as a result of their response to certain stimuli, and when a particular stimulus-response (S-R) pattern is reinforced by being rewarded this strengthens the desired behaviour leading to the behaviour occurring more frequently, as illustrated in figure 2.14.

![Stimulus – Response - Reward Diagram](image)

Figure 2.14 Stimulus – Response - Reward

Therefore, health behaviours such as participating in sport and physical activity can be determined by manipulating environmental stimuli to initiate the required behaviour by stimulating the intention to participate. Stimuli can vary from a simple poster campaign promoting physical activity to telephone calls from health/fitness professional advice to exercise more frequently. Reinforcement is focused on
attempting to increase the probability that the target behaviour continues. In exercise related interventions this mainly involves external rewards such as being awarded prizes and being given branded merchandised but can also involve internal reward in the form of feeling better about yourself as a result of peer group praise.

2.5.3 Social Learning Theory (SLT) & Social Cognitive Theory (SCT)
Social learning theory (Bandura 1997a) was later changed to social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), these two theories emphasises the importance of self-efficacy (Bandura 1997b) beliefs and the expectancy-value conceptualisation relating to the expected outcomes of health behaviour and the perceived importance of these outcomes. Both SLT and SCT are based on the notion of triadic reciprocal causation where-by personal, environmental and behavioural factors are thought to be mutually influential, as illustrated in figure 2.15. The theory contributes by identifying that learning and performance are two separate events, for example, even though adults know exercise is good for them (because they are given health information), they may not adopt a healthier lifestyle. The ‘gap’ between learning and performance is mediated by the concept of self-efficacy which is a central tent of both the SLT and SCT. Self-efficacy is the confidence, faith and trust a person has in their own competence to perform a particular behaviour, furthermore they must perceive an

![Figure 2.15 Social Cognitive Theory](image-url)
incentive to adopt the behaviour, and they must also have positive expectations that the benefits of performing the behaviour will outweigh any negative consequences of undertaking it in the first place. Finally, they must value the outcomes or consequences of the proposed healthy behaviour.

It is Bandura (1986; 1997b; 1995) opinion that self-efficacy is the single most critical factor that determines a person’s propensity to change behaviour and is considered to be one of the most influential beliefs to impact upon achievement in a sport and physical activity context (Feltz & Magyar, 2006). Levels of self-efficacy have regularly been a positive predictor of adult physical activity participation (Courneya and McAuley, 1994; Desmond et al., 1993, Garcia and King, 1991; Hofsetter et al., 1991; Yordy and Lent, 1993). High levels have also been positively associated with both the adherence to structured physical activity programmes (DuCharme and Bawley 1995; Duncan and McAuley, 1993; McAuley et al., 1993; Poag-DuCharme and Brawley, 1993) and to physical activity stage of change ie the transition from no intention to exercise to exercising regularly (Marcus et al., 1994; Marcus and Owen, 1992; Marcus, et al., 1992). By-contrast, low self-efficacy has been identified as a key barrier to physical activity (Rejeski et al., 1998) however by manipulating its components it can lead to positive changes in physical activity (McAuley et al., 1993). Frustratingly though there exists a circular association between self-efficacy and physical activity, an increase in self-efficacy can be achieved by participation in physical activity, yet self-efficacy is needed to boost the likelihood of taking part in exercise in the first place (McAuley et al., 2003). Typically those with low self-efficacy are highly likely to avoid sport and physical activity, which then leads to increased inactivity and even lower self-efficacy (Rejeski et al., 1998). Furthermore, McAuley et al. (2000) reported that physical self-efficacy is related to self-esteem and the subjective assessments of physical attractiveness, strength and health status. Self-efficacy’s role in designing successful participation interventions cannot be underestimated. It has been positively associated with group exercise participation and found to decrease when formal group exercise programs have been terminated (McAuley et al., 2003).
2.5.4 Theory to Reasoned Action (TRA) and Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)

The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) is based on the premise that individuals are rational and that their behaviour is under their volitional control; the TRA then provides links between an individual’s beliefs, attitudes and health behaviours (Fishbein et al., 1994). Fishbein et al. (1994) considers a person’s intentions is the best indicator of their behaviour; if it is a person's intention to behave in a particular way then it is very likely that they will do so (Ajzen & Fishbein 1975). However, the TRA suggests that intention is inextricably linked to an individual’s attitude toward the behaviour and feedback from their subjective norm, as illustrated in figure 2.16.

![Figure 2.16 Theory of Reasoned Action](image)

Furthermore, an individual’s attitude toward a health behaviour is affected by a mixture of two related factors: their belief about whether the outcome is likely or unlikely and whether the outcome will be a good or bad thing - i.e. their evaluation of the potential outcome. By-contrast, their subjective norm are beliefs centred around what others will think about the behaviour and are best described as social or peer group pressure to engage or avoid particular behaviours. These opinions are mitigated by how motivated an individual is to comply or reject these opinions.

According to the TRA behaviour, then, is the enactment of an individual’s intentions and can be predicted by their attitude towards the behaviour and their assessment of how others will view their behaviour. To date behaviours explored using the TRA
included drinking, smoking, using contraceptives, wearing safety helmets or seatbelts and exercising regularly (Fishbein et al., 1994). In terms of explaining participation in physical activity the TRA would posit – I think exercise is good for my health (attitude), all my friends exercise regularly (subjective norm), I want to start exercising (intention) leading to I’m going to join the Gym (behaviour). Therefore, the TRA suggests that the likelihood of engaging in physical activity would be increased if the individual predicts that physical activity will be pleasurable not harmful, lead to positive outcomes not negative ones and most importantly that their social network would approve of them being physically active. Whilst, the TRA does consider and explain the potential impact of an individual’s ‘social norm’ - it is based on the premise that when an individual forms an intention to act or behave in a certain way they are free to do so without any hindrances. In reality, constraints such as limited time, money or ability limit their freedom to act (Jackson, 2005). Furthermore, it is considered that the scope of TRA fails to account for a spontaneous behaviour or those that are impulsive or habitual (Bentler & Speckart, 1979). Such behaviours have been omitted because they may not occur voluntarily or involve a conscious decision by the individual.

In the light of these shortcomings, the theory has been modified and enhanced into the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) which has added a third dimension of perceived behaviour control, as illustrated in figure 2.17. The TPB argues that the greater control a person perceives they have over behaviour the more effort they will put into performing it. This important addition acknowledges that there are circumstances when individuals have the intention of undertaking a healthy behaviour, but the behaviour does not occur due to the fact that they lack either confidence or control over the behaviour.

The TPB suggests that typical control factors include both internal elements such as the perceived difficulty and their skills/abilities and external issues such as
opportunities and resources (Rhoades and Courneya, 2003). Intention is still a direct determinant of behaviour, but it now consists of the attitude towards the behaviour, peer group pressures and the extent to which the behaviour is under the individual’s control. Hausenblas, Carron and Mack (1997) found that with regard to either the TRA or TPB the most significant predictor of health behaviour was intention linked to attitude, there research indicated that those who had more positive beliefs about exercise had the greatest commitment to exercise. The TPB adds to the understanding of participation in sport and active recreation by highlighting that control over the skills, resources and opportunities to engage in sport and physical activities is a necessary prerequisite for an individual’s behaviour to change. Therefore, participation interventions must be mindful that engagement in exercise would be increased if potential participants were confident they could acquire the necessary skills or fitness to participate and had numerous opportunities in which to be active (Godin, 1994).

Figure 2. 17 Theory of Planned Behaviour
The TPB accepts that not all behaviour is under an individual’s volitional control but is instead located on a continuum from a complete lack of control to total control. The theory does however overlook emotional variables such as negative or positive feeling, threat or fear. This is especially important, given that many health behaviours are influenced by such emotions, and is considered a disadvantage for predicting health-related behaviours, such as exercise adoption (Dutta-Bergman, 2005). Behavioural intentions, as found in both the TRA and TPB, have consistently been positively linked with adult physical activity (Courneya and McAuley, 1994; Godin, Valoise, Lepage, 1993; Godin et al., 1987, 1991; Yordy and Lent, 1993), adherence to structured exercise programmes (Courneya and McAuley, 1995; DuCharme and Brawley, 1995) and physical activity stage of change (Courneya, 1995). However, the evidence regarding the role of the subjective norm in adult physical activity, adherence to structured exercise programmes and physical activity stage of change is more mixed. Some studies have reported a positive associations (Courneya 1995; Godin et al., 1987, 1991; Hawkes and Holm, 1993; Yordy and Lent (1993), whilst other have found not association (Courneya and McAuley, 1995; Godin et al., 1995; Hofstetter et al., 1991).

2.5.5 Health Belief Model (HBM)
The Health Belief Model (HBM) (Strecher and Rosenstock, 1997) is one of the best known and most frequently used models in health education and promotions (Glanz, Rimer & Lewis, 2002). The underlying concept of the HBM is that an individual’s health behaviour is based on their perceptions and personal beliefs regarding ill-health and the types of options they have available to avoid their occurrence. In other words, by using the motivation to avoid the possibility of negative health outcomes individuals will take positive health actions; it also suggest that individual will avoid healthier behaviours unless they “possess at least minimal levels of health motivation and knowledge; view themselves as potentially vulnerable; view the condition as threatening; are convinced of the efficacy of the treatment and see few difficulties in undertaking the action” (Biddle and Ashford 1988, p. 135).
The model, as illustrated in figure 2.18, tries to explain health actions through the perceptions and interaction of four main constructs that of perceived seriousness, perceived susceptibility, perceived benefits and perceived barriers. Perceived Seriousness describes a person’s belief regarding severity or seriousness of an illness based primarily on medical advice but also from the everyday experiences of others with the same illness (McCormick-Brown, 1999). Perceived Severity in the form of personal exposure and vulnerability is one of the most potent and effective perceptions that prompt individuals to adopt healthier behaviours. It is this perception of vulnerability that prompted people to be vaccinated for influenza (Chen et al., 2007), promote holiday maker to use sun screen to prevent skin cancer, has prompted homosexual men to be vaccinated against hepatitis B (de Wit et al., 2005) and to use condoms to decrease HIV infection (Belcher et al., 2005).

However the contrary is also true, when individuals perceived that they are not at risk unhealthy behaviours tend to result. For example Maes & Louis (2003) reported that older adults do not practise safe sex because they do not perceived themselves to be at risk of contracting HIV infections. Whilst perceptions of susceptibility appear to explain that an increased risk results in healthier behaviours and a decreased risk is linked to unhealthy behaviours, this is not always the case. Lamanna (2004) found

[Diagram of Health Belief Model]
that students did not stop tanning themselves even thought they were aware that such behaviour would place them at an increased risk of skin cancer.

The perceptions of susceptibility and seriousness are combined into a perceived threat (Strecher & Rosenstock, 1997), where a perceived threat exists behaviour often changes rapidly. Forsyth & Goetsch (1997) reported that the children of type II diabetes sufferers were more likely than others to engage in health-enhancing and/or risk-reducing behaviours such as controlling their weight due to their perceived threat of developing the disease themselves. With regard to the perceived benefits of a new behaviour, the model suggests that an individual will be reluctant to modify their behaviour, even if the perceived threat is high unless they trust and believe that the new behaviour will reduce the risk of becoming ill. The last construct of the HBM address the issues of perceived barriers to change. An individual undertakes a cost-benefit analysis to assess whether a particular health action is capable of avoiding factors such as pain, inconvenience and unpleasant side effects. In order for a new health action or behaviour to be embraced it is critical that the benefits of the new behaviour surpass the negative effects of continuing with the old behaviour. The four main perceptual constructs are modified by other variables which influence personal perceptions such as past experiences, motivation, skill and educational background. Finally, in addition to the four beliefs or perceptions and the modifying variables, the HBM also proposes that behaviour is affected by cues to action.

The HBM has been applied in a wide range of health behaviour interventions such as condom usage, seat belt wearing and health screening in addition to physical activity. A key predictor of participation in an exercise context is an individual’s beliefs in the benefits that physical activity can confer (Morgan et al., 1984). However the evidence to support such a suggestion is mixed; Biddle and Ashford (1998) identified that exercisers and non-exercisers beliefs about the capability of physical activity to be effective differed and that this may be a starting point for understanding participation decisions. In a similar vein Riddle (1980) reported that sedentary individual’s perceived jogging to be too time consuming, tiring and required high levels of self-discipline and Godin et al. (1986) found that non-exercisers who
intended to exercise perceived exercise as physically demanding and time-consuming. By contrast, a number of studies have reported no associated between adult physical activity and the role of perceived benefits (Hofdtetter et al., 1991; Mirotznik, Freldman, Stein, 1995; Taggart and Connor, 1995) nor the role of perceived barriers (Desmond et al., 1993; Godin et al., 1995, Taggart and Connor, 1995). Furthermore, research has indicated mixed evidence regarding a positive association between the perceived severity of diseases and either physical activity (Godin et al., 1991) or adherence to structured exercise programmes (Lynch et al., 1992; Robertson and Keller, 1992). No relationship has been found between perceived susceptibility to illness and adult’s adherence to structured exercise programmes (Lynch et al. 1992; Miromontznik et al., 1995; Oldridge and Streiner, 1990).

2.5.6 Summary
It is important that health promotion initiatives, including those targeting physical activity are based on an appropriate knowledge and theory (Biddle and Nigg, 2000) as this allows a genuine understanding of all constructs and antecedents and is essential to designing effective intervention programmes (Corwyn and Benda, 1999). Of the modifiable determinants relating to adult physical activity self-efficacy has been consistently associated with a positive outcomes regarding adult physical activity. Furthermore, the review of literature supports the conclusion that the outcome expectations both in terms of positive (benefits) and negative (barriers) are linked with adult’s participation in physical activity. Expectations of positive health outcomes or perceived benefits resulting from being physically active have been consistently and positively associated with participation (Ali and Twibell, 1995; Neuberger et al., 1994), physical activity stage of change (Booth et al., 1993, Calfas et al., 1994; Marcus and Owen, 1992; Marcus, et al., 1992) and adherence to structured physical activity programmes (Lynch et al., 1992; Robertson and Keller, 1992).

Furthermore, attitude towards the behaviour in terms of expected outcomes and their associated value has also been positively linked with physical activity (Courneya and
McAuley, 1994; Dishman and Steinhardt, 1990; Godin et al., 1987, Yordy and Lent 1993) and physical activity stage of change (Courneya, 1995). Conversley perceived barriers to physical activity have been negatively linked with all aspects of adult physical activity (Ali and Twibell, 1995; Dishman and Steinhardt, 1990; Calfas et al., 1994; Marcus and Owen, 1992; Marcus, et al., 1992). The evidence also routinely supports that enjoyment of exercise has been positively linked with adult physical activity (Courneya and McAuley, 1994; Horne, 1994; McAuley, 1991), physical activity stage of change (Calfas et al., 1994) and adherence to structured exercise programmes (Wilson et al., 1994). Somewhat surprisingly, an adult's previous experience of physical activity during their childhood and youth is unrelated to their adult participation (Powell and Dysinger, 1987; Sallis, Hovell, Hoffstetter, 1992).

2.6 Conclusion

2.6.1 Identifying the Gap in the Literature

This literature review was guided by a social marketing perspective. Rothchild (1999) recognised that the management of public health behaviour relied too much on educational programmes and law remedies whilst disregarding the potential of marketing. Similarly, Weibe (1951) and others recognised that the use of commercial sector marketing techniques in the social and not-for-profit sector could be beneficial to the promotion of social causes (Andreasen 1994; Kotler and Roberto’s 1989; Kotler and Zaltman, 1971). Social marketing has a number of distinctive features - a central tenet of which is that it does not involve forcing or coercing individuals but instead it is about achieving a voluntary behaviour change and it also emphasises the principle of exchange, if a voluntary behaviour change is to occur, the benefits must be clear to the target audience in order to motivate and sustain the behaviour (Andreasen, 2002). Of Andreasen (2002) six benchmark criteria for social marketing competition, exchange and behaviour change emerged as having the greatest influence upon supporting the adoption of health behaviours.

Competition because it offers insights into the behavioural options that compete with and often prevent desired health behaviours from occurring - free choice, inertia and
apathy are all significant competitive forces. Exchange because it underpins a customer’s perception of the value they will receive as a result of adopting a healthy behaviour. If a person is asked to exchange an old behaviour in favour of a new one of societies choosing the intervention needs to offer a value proposition that is perceived to be beneficial, an offering that is valued. Finally, behaviour change theories because it emphasises the need to initiate a voluntary behaviour by a particular target audience which Kacznksi (2008) argues is the “holy grail” for social marketers (p. 260).

Theories and models from the fields of leisure studies, behavioural psychology and consumer behaviour and were reviewed in order to gain a better understanding of how these social marketing principles of influenced participation in a range of activities thought to prevent ill-health and positively contribute to healthier lifestyles. Leisure constraints and constrained leisure literature was reviewed in order to understanding what competes for the time and attention of the target audience. This literature has developed to gain an understanding of why people do not engage in their desired leisure activities and has distinguished types of constraints and explored the role of factors such as negotiation (Jackson, Crawford & Godbey, 1993) and facilitation (Raymore, 2002). A review of the literature regarding the concept of exchange, the act of giving or taking one thing in return for another extended into the customer value literature to gain an understating regarding the extent to which offerings could be tailored to a specific audiences based on what they desire or perceive to be valuable. Literature relating to the field of customer value made a contribution to understanding the complexities associated with determining an individual’s perception of value and its impact on their decision-making process. Finally, a variety of behaviour change theories were reviewed to evaluate their impact on achieving the desired behaviour. Approaches such as the Health Belief Model have been developed to specifically predict non-participation and participation in health related exercise behaviour, whilst others have been used to inform the development of health models and to explain non-participation, such as self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1976) and the theories of reasoned and plan behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Fishbeing & Ajzen, 1975).
Whilst the topics outlined in the review of literature seemed disparate, there is a considerable similarity in the constructs that comprise them and the processes hypothesised to link them with adult’s participation in sport and physical activity in terms of the various conceptualisations of the expectancy-value theory and processes that underpin the importance of outcomes and their positive association with predicting the occurrence of behaviour as illustrated in figure 2.19.

![Social Marketing Diagram](image)

Figure 2.19 Social Marketing Contribution to Expectancy-value Outcomes

2.6.2 The Research Aim and Questions
The research sought to understand why some adults live and breathe sport and embrace physical activity throughout their lives, whilst to others it has no significance or value at all. Based on the literature reviewed in this section, the following research aim was formulated:

‘to develop a consumer value model informed by a valid and reliable consumer value scale and insights from in-depth interviews to assess the construct’s influence on adults participation in sport and physical activity’
To focus and operationalise this research aim, three supporting research questions were identified:

- What are the consumption values that underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity?
- What influence, if any, do social-demographic (age, gender and social class) factors have upon consumption value in a sport and physical activity setting?
- Is consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting uni- or multi-dimensional?

Now the relevant literature has been reviewed, it is possible to build on this chapter to develop this thesis conceptual framework in the next chapter in order to be able to answer the stated research questions.
Chapter 3

Conceptual Framework
Chapter 3: Conceptual Framework

3.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to outline the conceptual basis for the S&PAVAL conceptual framework, as illustrated in figure 3.1. Grounded in a broad range of literature, the previous chapter reviewed the three key social marketing topics of competition, exchange and behaviour change, which demonstrated that these seemingly disparate topics were united by their various expectancy-value conceptualisations, which in-turn was positively associated with participation in sport and physical activity opportunities highlighting the need to better understand the value outcomes underpinning adult’s participation in sport and physical activity. Next, the rationale for considering physically active adults as consumers and physical activity as an offering where value expectations are expected to influence an individual’s health behaviour intentions is explored. The importance of a multi-dimensional perspective to consumer value is then justified as being unwise to attempt to understand the behaviour of physically active adults without including the feelings generated by the purchase and consumption experience. Thereafter, the postulated dimensions of consumer value are justified based on the re-interpretation of Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) model and defined in a sport and physical activity context.
Figure 3.1 Theoretical and Conceptual Overview
3.2 Expectancy-value Outcomes

Wigfield and Eccles (2002) consider that theories in the expectancy-value mode suggest that an individual’s “choice, persistence and performance can be explained by their beliefs about how well they will do on the activity and the extent to which they value the activity” (p. 68). Terms such as motive, reasons and benefits have been used to describe the importance of the expected outcome that result from engaging in a particular behaviour. In this regard, perceptions of the value of participation outcomes are a key driving force underpinning the desire to engage in a healthy behaviour. From a social marketing perspective the concept of exchange underpins the expectancy-value process, in terms of needing a value proposition that induces action and/or motivates effort from the consumer in order to facilitate a voluntary exchange (Dann, 2008; Kotler and Lee, 2008; Andreasen, 2002). In a similar vein, Jackson et al. (1993) introduced the expectancy-value process into the hierarchical constraints model in the form of the ‘balance position’. The balance position stated “both the initiation and outcome of the negotiation process are dependent on the relative strength of, and interactions between, constraints on participation in an activity and motivation for such participation” (proposition 6, p. 9). Here, higher levels of motivation were associated with higher levels of participation and lower levels of perceived constraints (Carroll & Alexandris, 1997; Hubbard & Manell, 2001). Finally, within the behaviour change theories examples of the expectancy-value construct are evident in the ‘perceived benefits’ and ‘health value’ variable of the HBM (Strecher and Rosenstock, 1997). Furthermore, the TPB suggests that positive attitudes and the beliefs people hold about the outcome of participation will affect how much they value those outcomes ultimately influencing behavioural intentions (Ajzen, 1991).

3.3 Active Adults as a Consumer

In adopting a social marketing perspective this thesis views participation in sport and physical activity in the same vein as any other consumer behaviour, here physically active adults are consumers, physical activity is an offering in an already crowded market place, where value expectations influence an individual’s health behaviour
intentions. Marketers have traditionally believed that consumer preferences and market choices were motivated by utilitarian value (Chiu et al., 2005), with consumers perceived as rational beings making choices that maximised utility whilst being constrained by price and income (Sweeney et al., 1999). In order to be able to formulate enticing physical activity campaigns that motivate more adults to become physically active provider need to understand how value can be created at various stages in their consumption experience (Prahalad & Ramsawamy, 2004). The thesis posits that participation levels in physical activity could be increased if providers move beyond the rational or functional understanding of value based primarily on the quality-price trade-off to instead understanding the importance of the emotional or hedonic aspects of value in a sport and physical activity context, as illustrated in figure 3.2.

![Figure 3.2 Active Adults as a Consumer](image)

Whilst, the functional nature of value has long been the most prominent conceptualisation whereby ‘value’ is considered to be a cognitive trade-off between benefits and sacrifices, typified by research streams that focused on consumers’ quality-price perceptions (Monroe, 1990; Zeithaml, 1988). Consumer research has since evolved from such functional focus regarding the cognitive aspects of decision-making to embrace intrinsic aspects, so that the ‘thinking and feeling’ dimensions of a product, service or experience can be seen to be valued for its own sake (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). In a sport and physical activity setting the traditional functional nature of value as a trade-off between the ‘getting’ and ‘giving’ plays a key role,
however, it would be unwise to attempt to understand the behaviour of physically active adults without incorporating affective components which are centred around feelings generated by the purchase and consumption experience. In this regard the dimensionality of consumer value needs to be established in a sport and physical activity context.

3.4 Postulating a Preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework.

One of the principal operational difficulties relating to researching consumer value relates to the fact that it is still in its conceptual infancy and suffers from a lack of universally accepted single conceptualisation (Smith & Colgate, 2007). Furthermore, Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) consider that the testing and application of the various theoretical concept of consumer value has been limited by its measurement challenge. In order to overcome such conceptual and measurement challenges, a preliminary Sport & Physical Activity Value (S&PAVAL) conceptual framework was postulated to gain more developed understanding of the consumption value underpinning participation in sport and physical activity. The development of the postulated preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework was informed by Churchill (1979) seminal work and guided by the extant scale development literature (DeVellis, 1991; Netemeyer et al., 2003).

There were three rationales for following Churchill’s (1979) paradigm. Firstly, because Churchill’s (1979) paradigm sets down an academic protocol which has been widely used and acknowledged by other researchers, its use provided the study with an accepted process to guide the development of the framework. Secondly, Churchill’s (1979) paradigm has been extensively used when developing general marketing constructs such as consumer-based brand equity (Vasquez et al., 2002), reputation (Formbrun et al., 2000), marketing orientation (Deng and Dart, 1997) and when developing specific consumer value scales such as PERVAL (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001), SERV-PERVAL (Petrick, 2002) and GLOVAL (Sanchez et al., 2006). Finally, in addition to these two points, following Churchill’s (1979) paradigm ensured academic rigour underpinned the development process as it requires the
researcher to draw on the relevant literatures to justify theoretically grounded items which are suggested as underpinning the constructs dimensions.

The decision to postulate, rather than to hypothesise, the dimensions of consumer value in a sport and physical activity context was adopted because it was in keeping with previous scale development literature, furthermore because this investigation represented the first examination of the value construct as it pertains to the consumption of sport and physical activity, postulating was consistent with the exploratory nature of the investigation.

3.4.1 The development of the Preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework

Figure 3.3 presents the initial S&PAVAL conceptual framework, based on Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s (2009) adaption of Holbrook’s (1999) typology of consumer value. Specifically, Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) suggest that by utilising such an adaptation research in a service–orientated context could move beyond the rational or functional orientation based primarily on the quality-price trade-off and instead produce data that indicated the importance of the emotional and/or hedonic aspects of value.

![Figure 3.3 Initial S&PAVAL Conceptual Framework](image-url)
Consequently, they regard their model to be a more comprehensive approach to the value construct because it captured the “diverse aspects of the consumption experience, both cognitive and affective in nature – that is, the economic, social, hedonic and altruistic categories of consumer value” (Sanchez-Fernandez et al., 2009, p.97).

This model of consumer value was chosen because it both recognised and emphasised the concept of value as an experiential notion, in addition to which it indicated that the intrinsic elements of play, aesthetics and altruistic were more reflexive of consumer value in a service context than were extrinsic categories of efficiency, quality and social, all of which was considered relevant to the understanding of participation in sport and physical activity. However, this initial S&PAVAL conceptual framework needed to be adapted to a sport and physical activity context, namely the experience of participating and/or engaging in exercise or physical activity at a local authority Leisure Centre or Pool. The initial phase of the re-interpretation was based on the extant literature and using the researcher’s industry knowledge to re-focus Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s (2009) adaptation of Holbrook’s (1999) typology, as described below.

3.4 1.1 Efficiency
Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) viewed efficiency (or functional) value as the get-versus-gives aspect of consumption which are often measured by comparing what the consumer gets in an exchange relationship with what they gave for the purchase (p. 99). The health related benefits of exercise are well rehearsed - physical activity is closely associated with decreased risks of poor health and a wide range of illnesses. Research has shown that adults who are physically active have up to a 50% reduced risk of developing major chronic diseases such as coronary heart disease, obesity, diabetes, cancer and a 20-30% reduced risk of premature death (DoH, 2004). Furthermore, these benefits can extend beyond physical health to mental health and personal wellbeing (Lawlor & Hanratty, 2001; Mutrie, 2000; Fox, 2000, Biddle, 2000). Research has shown that individuals in the lowest income categories are the
least frequent users of leisure and recreational facilities (Howard and Crompton, 1984; Godbey, 1985). Income has frequently exhibited a strong relationship with participation in sport and physical activity (Kay & Jackson 1990), where low income is associated with a variety of constraints including a lack of access, transportation, fear of crime and price of equipment. However, the costs associated with being physically active need not depend upon or require a monetary exchange as is implied by the term price, instead factors such as time, overcoming psychological barriers, effort and physical addiction (Peattie and Peattie, 2003) and body image concerns, limited transportation, and a lack of knowledge (Jackson, 2005) may be more significant and prohibiting costs that than the price alone. In this regard, the Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s (2009) ‘efficiency’ was re-interpreted in a sport and physical activity setting as the trade-off an individual makes between the outcomes of exercise (benefits such as improved physical and mental wellbeing) and the inputs needed to exercise (costs such as money, time and effort).

3.4.1.2 Quality.
Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s (2009) viewed this dimension as involving a reactive appreciation of an object or experiences potential ability to accomplish some goal or to perform some function (p. 100). Quality can be inferred from how good the services experience is and from the relationships between staff and customer. Holbrook’s (1999) ‘excellence’ infers the notion of ‘quality’ and was considered a similar construct by Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009). However there is a general consensus that value and quality are different concepts, with some authors arguing that quality is a sub-category of overall satisfaction (Sheth et al., 1991; Holbrook 1999; Sweeney & Soutar 2001) whilst others have contended that quality is an antecedent that has a positive effect on perceived value (Baker et al., 2002, Chen & Dubinsky 2003; Tam 2004).

In a retail service context Sweeney et al. (1999) identified that the quality of service was important in the creation of value perceptions. Similarly, in a sport & physical activity context, Crawford et al. (2007) considered the provision of a high quality
service experience an important aspect of a consumers overall participation experience. Furthermore, Wei et al. (2010) identified that providing a high level of service quality was critical to increasing participation, to retaining customers and to the facilities ability to charge a premium price if service expectation are met. Finally, MacKay & Crompton (1988) have also shown that consumer’s evaluation of the quality of their service experience when partaking in sport and recreational activities positively affects participation. Accordingly, the Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s (2009) ‘quality’ dimension was re-interpretated in a sport & physical activity setting as ‘quality of service experience’ representing the factors affecting a customer in a perception or their appreciation regarding the quality of their service experience in terms of customer interaction with, and experience of staff and their chosen activity.

3.4.1.3 Social value.
Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) operationalised Holbrook’s (1999) ‘status’ and ‘esteem’ as a single index of ‘social value’. Holbrook (1999) himself conceded that articulating the difference between status and esteem was difficult because there was only “the fuzziest demarcation lying in a grey area somewhere in between”. Accordingly, Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) viewed social value as the active manipulation of one’s consumption to make a favourable impression on others and a reactive appreciation of the prestige associated with one’s possessions (p. 100). Research has shown the importance of customer-to-customer interactions in fulfilling psychological needs, similarly groups of customers who are “in the same boat” positively enhances perceived involvement in a service setting (Gentry and Goodwin, 1995), as well as promoting long-term patronage and loyalty (McGinnis et al., 2008) and finally being in the company of others is considered a positive aspect of the consumption experience (Tombs and McColl-Kennedy, 2003). In a sport & physical activity context Aftihinos et al. (2005) indicated that “opportunities to meet people” was listed as one of the most desired aspects of customer participation experience, similarly Elliott and Hamilton (1991) indicated that when deciding to participate in sport and leisure programmes, socialising was identified as the second most important factor in their decision making process, specifically selecting activities that
“their friends are doing” (p. 328). McGrtath et al. (1993) suggests that many consumers actively seek out entering into enjoyable, light-hearted association with other consumers, especially where consuming an activity such as a workout or an aerobics class alone may feel peculiar. Berg (2006) suggested that older people sought activities that provided opportunities to meet other people; similarly Green (2005) also indicated that socialising or social outcomes could be a primary motivator for partaking in sporting activities. Accordingly, whilst it was not considered that a sport and physical activity setting would affect antecedents of social value, Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s (2009) ‘social value’ dimension was linked to the notion of social wellbeing such as gaining the respect of others and facilitating more social opportunities.

3.4.1.4 Play
Deighton & Grayson (1995) consider play to be a significant factor in many aspects of consumer behaviour leading Grayson (1999) to state that ‘nearly every product or service might be sold or consumed as play’. In keeping with Holbrook (1999) view that ‘play typically involves having fun and thereby characterizes the intrinsically motivated side of the familiar distinction often made between work and leisure’, Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) viewed the play value dimension as including the perceived relationships between the consumer and other customers, staff relationships, entertainment or other fun-related aspects of consumption (p. 101). However, very little attention has been devoted to the study of play as a type of consumer value (Sanchez-Fernandez et al., 2009), aside from being considered an act of consumption (Holt, 1995). By contrast, the importance of emotional arousal in experiential consumer behaviours is well established (Havlena and Holbrook, 1986), where the experiential benefits have been recognised as a form of escape (Wann, 1995) or as a coping strategy that lead to fulfilment and contentment (Gladden and Funck, 2002). Burns and Neisner (2006) consider that emotions play a central and significant role in the lives of individual consumers and that this emotional impact on consumer behaviour cannot be underestimated. Klinger (1971) considered that the consequences of consumption appear “in the fun that a consumer derives from a product (the enjoyment that it offers and the resulting feeling of pleasure that it
evokes” (p. 18). In a sport and physical activity context, the enjoyment of physical activity has been found to be highly associated with participation (Sallis & Owen, 1999; Leslie et al., 1999). A wide range of participation literature has routinely supported the positive link between the enjoyment of exercise and adult’s engaging in physical activity (Courneya and McAuley, 1994; Horne, 1994; McAuley, 1991) and adhering to structured exercise programmes (Wilson et al., 1994). Furthermore, Salmon et al. (2003) found that enjoyment of a physical activity was a significant predictor of participation, specifically those reporting high levels of enjoyment of a structured physical activity were twice as likely to participate in vigorous activities. Accordingly, Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s (2009) ‘play’ dimension was re-interpretated in a sport & physical activity setting as ‘fun and enjoyment’ representing the extent to which undertaking exercise relates to, or is motivated, by fun and enjoyment related aspects of consumption in terms of a sense of joy, happiness, pleasure or delight and the relationships between customers.

3.4.1.5 Aesthetics
Holbrook (1999) has defined aesthetic value as the “value achieved by admiring something not as a means to an end but because it provided value in itself” (p. 35), where as Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) described it as bringing pleasure and personal enrichments to the consumer (p. 101). Aesthetics as a consumption value can be both difficult to define and therefore difficult to operationalise. Accordingly, the Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) ‘aesthetic’ dimension was re-interpretated in a sport & physical activity context not in terms of beauty or other abstruse concepts but in terms of the ‘physical environment’ or servicescape within which the physical activity is performed, delivered and consumed (Bitner, 1992) as it relates to creating a pleasant environment in the minds of physically active adults whilst also avoiding atmospheres that create submissiveness. A clear implication of the servicescape is that the physical setting within which activities occurs can either help or hinder a customer’s consumption experience (Bitner, 1992). Researchers have identified that factors such as scent, air quality and fragrance (Mattila and Wirtz, 2001), visual stimuli such as lighting, colours, brightness shapes (Dijkstra et al., 2008), auditory stimuli such as music (Morin et al., 2007; Oakes and North, 2008) and temperature
(Reimer and Kuehn, 2005) are component of the servicescape. Within the sport and physical activity setting, the sportscape concept (Wakefield and Sloan, 1995) is an extension of Bitner’s (1992) servicescape that specifically focuses on spectator’s evaluation of their stadium experience in terms of parking, cleanliness, crowding, fan control, food and services. However, Hill and Green (2012) indicated that the sportscape had minimal impact on participation in a multi-sports facilities setting such as the 8-leisure centres used in the study. Finally, using the servicescape was considered particularly relevant as it is now conceived as an opportunity for interaction and value co-creation, suggesting that the servicescape typology provides an opportunity to cross-over into consumer value rather than as simple factors that impact upon consumers decisions to stay, explore, spend money, return or avoid places (Edvardsson et al., 2005, 2008; Grönroos & Ravald, 2011).

3.4.1.6 Altruistic value
Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) followed others in combining Holbrook’s (1999) categories of spirituality and ethics in consumer behaviour into a single index of altruistic value (Holbrook, 2006) to view altruistic value as an ‘other-orientated’ consumption experience valued intrinsically for its own sake as an end in itself (p. 101). In other words, if consumers feel that they have acting for the betterment of society or performed a socially-responsible act, they may experience high levels of altruistic value. Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s (2009) study of vegetarian diners indicated that altruistic value emerged as an important reflector of consumer value, however, the role and contribution of altruistic value has not been examined in depth because it lies outside the sphere of ordinary marketplace exchanges (Smith, 1999). Opinions vary as to whether ‘altruism’ should only be used when consideration for others is the sole or overriding motivator or whether it should be used when personal or collective interests are promoted. Some authors suggest that act of altruistic behaviour involve a degree of reciprocity whereby the giver and the receiver both benefit (Nowak, 2006; Baston and Shaw, 1991). Edwards & Braunholtz (2000) coined the term “weak altruism” to describe behaviour based on individuals not expecting to lose out and McCann, Campbell & Entwistle (2010) described
“conditional altruism” where willingness to help others was not based solely on considering others but was instead conditional on them perceiving some additional benefit to themselves. Accordingly, in a sport and physical activity context ‘altruistic value’ was interpreted to represent the extent to which undertaking exercise relates to, or is motivated by, wider factors than the immediate health related benefits of exercise to factors such as being fit, active and health to avoid ill-health, prolonging life as a result of being physically active for individual and family reasons, to achieve more independence in later life and to avoid unnecessary cost to the Health Service.

3.4.2 The Preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework
Figure 3.4 illustrates the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework which is comprised of 6-dimension: efficiency, quality of service experience, social value, fun and enjoyment, physical environment and finally altruistic value.

![Diagram of the Preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework](image)

Figure 3.4 The Preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework

3.4.3 Evaluating the Preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework.
It is necessary to evaluate the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework in the context of Suvatjis and de Chernaotony (2005) ‘model’ development criteria. Whilst,
the ten-criteria of visual clarity, ease of interpretation, logical sequence, adjustment and adaptability, production of synergies, employees operationalisation, easy of memorising, effectiveness, modularity and proactivity were developed in the corporate identify context they are considered a “useful and valid” framework (p. 810) for building a “visual, clear and workable model” (p. 811) which could be applied to other contexts and therefore the evaluation of theoretical frameworks in general. In this regard they were considered a useful conceptual tool with which to direct and evaluate the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework. In terms of its ability to provide both structure and guidance for the development of the underlying measure model aimed at identifying the consumption values underpinning adult’s participation in sport and physical activity.

Suvatjis and de Chernaotony (2005) consider visual clarity related to the framework being “pictorially clear and stimulating” (p. 811), thus ensuring the framework is visually engaging, uses metaphors to convey meaning and as a result needs no further explanation. The preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework aims to summarise the postulated dimension of consumer value as they pertain to a sport and physical activity context, in a simple, clear and logical manner. Whilst accepting the subjectiveness of the visual clarify criterion, the postulated framework would appear to need limited explanation to illustrate the multi-dimensionality of the sport and physical activity value construct.

Ease of interpretation is concerned with ensuring the framework is simple and straightforward to understand, supporting Naert and Leeflang (1978, p. 322) comments that “a model must be simple, complete, adaptive and robust”. So that the postulated framework does not become ‘all things to all people’, its ease of interpretation has been guided by a social marketing perspective and consumer value theory which provides its theoretical anchor points. In an attempt to avoid obtaining ‘absurd’ responses (Little, 1970) the framework clearly identifies the 6-postualted dimensions of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting.

Logical sequence refers to the well-grounded and reasoned flow between the different elements and constructs of the framework. A key strength of the postulated
framework is the logical sequencing it adopts. Suvatjis and de Chernaotony (2005) consider adjustment and adaptability relates to the framework being able to accommodate new factors and data as and when they become available, so the framework “can be adjusted as new information is acquired” (Little, 1970, p. 466). The postulated framework is sufficiently flexible to adapt to the “representations of reality” (Leeflang and Wittink, 2000, p.109), and can be adjust at both the first order level of dimensionality (efficiency, quality, social value, play, aesthetics and altruistic value) and at the second order level of the S&PAVAL construct.

Production of synergies relates to Suvatjis and de Chernaotony (2005) belief that frameworks dimensions should be able to interact at the same time, be mutually beneficial and dependent on other construct within the framework. The postulated framework stimulates collaborative thinking as the dimensions of the S&PAVAL framework should not be considered mutually exclusive but as integrated and reinforcing. For example, Holbrook (1999) suggests the dichotomies of ‘extrinsic vs. intrinsic’ (benefits/costs, quality of service experience, social value vs. physical environment, fun & enjoyment) ‘self-orientated vs. other orientated’ (benefits/costs, quality of service experience, social value, physical environment verse social value, altruistic value) and finally ‘active vs. reactive’ (benefits/costs, fun & enjoyment verses quality of service experience, physical environment)

Employee operationalisation relates to the framework being ‘put into practice’ by both employees but also other interested groups such as researchers, consultant and students and in doing so overcomes Naert and Leeflang’s (1978) concerns that many frameworks are constructed but rarely used in practice. At the postulation stage it was difficult to predict if the postulate framework and associated measurement model would identify the consumption values underpinning adults’ participation in sport and physical activity.

Suvatjis and de Chernaotony (2005) consider ease of memorising relates to the framework being able to act as a “mnemonic device” (p. 814) intended to be used as an aid in remembering the framework, focusing thinking, stimulating dialogue and
problem solving. The progression of the framework from top to bottom is intended to ease memory recall. With regard to the six postulated S&PAVAL dimensions, Miller (1956) suggests that humans are only capable of processing approximately seven pieces of information, so cognitive recall of the S&PAVAL dimensions should be feasible.

The effectiveness of a framework can be judged by the degree to which it supports and guides the formation of strategy, the setting of priorities and reacting to dynamic environments (Carmeron and Whetten, 1983; Drucker, 1964; McFarland, 1979). With regard to ‘strategy formation’ the dimensions of consumer value underpinning the consumption of sport and physical activity will enable practitioners to design products, services and offerings that add value and make sense in individual’s everyday life. With regard to ‘priority setting’, certain dimensions of S&PAVAL may or may not be priorities depend upon the age, gender or social class of the target market. Finally, viewing the postulated dimensions of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting as a set of tactical tools, the flexibility and adaptability make the framework well suited to its dynamic environment.

Suvatjis and de Chernaotony (2005) consider modularity relates to the framework being able to be segmented into its composite elements in order to facilitate “flexibility in the assembly of the component units” (p. 815) and to avoid “bottlenecks” (p. 815). In addition to this a modular approach allows more complex issues to be broken-down into smaller elements, which once resolved can be reintegrated into the final framework. The postulated framework can be considered modular as it has the ability to be broken down into at least four smaller elements such as:

(i) The review of social marketing principles which indicates the conceptual link to the expectancy-value outcomes and their positive association with participation
(ii) Re-conceptualisation of participation as a consumption experience
(iii) The review of the consumer value literature which identified the suitability of a multi-dimensional approach to value in a sport and physical activity context
(iv) The re-interpretation of Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s (2009) model to a sport and physical activity setting
(v) The individual dimensions which comprise the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework

Consequently, there is considerable flex in the arrangement of framework. The final Suvatjis and de Chernaotony (2005) criterion, *proactivity*, helps to provide the framework with an outcome focus aimed at articulating and achieving goals. Such success could be achieved through strategically planning how each of the S&PAVAL dimensions can help increase adults participation in sport and physical activity.

### 3.5 Summary

This chapter was informed by a gap in the literature that arose from the synthesis of leisure studies, behavioural psychology and consumer behaviour literature, from which a theoretically grounded preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework was developed. The basis for developing this framework was threefold. Firstly, as already noted to provide the required theoretical basis from which empirical research could be undertaken to bridge the identified gap in the literature. Secondly, inform the structure of the subsequent quantitative (scale development) and qualitative strands (interviews) of the study by postulating a preliminary construct domain. Finally, to provide a conceptual framework that guides the overall research effort in perusing answers to the research problem which relates to why some adults live and breathe sport and embrace physical activity throughout their lives, whilst to others it has no value or significance at all and the supporting research aim of developing a consumer value model informed by a valid and reliable consumer value scale and in-depth insight from active adults to assess the constructs influence on adults participation in sport and physical activity. This chapter, therefore lays the foundation for the Methodology chapter, where the procedures used to develop a valid, reliable and parsimonious S&PAVAL scale (quantitative strand) are outlined alongside the processes employed to facilitate the in-depth interviews which formed the qualitative strand.
Chapter 4

Methodology
Chapter 4: Methodology

4.1 Introduction

In response to the research problem outlined in chapter 1, the research aim of identifying a consumer value model informed by a valid and reliable consumer value scale and in-depth insights from active adults was formulated. Chapter 2 set the scene on adult’s participation in sport and physical activity; specifically it highlighted the value of participation outcomes as a key driving force underpinning the desire to engage in a healthy behaviour, from which a preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework was postulated in chapter 3.

This chapter will offer a broad and comprehensive overview of the research methodology chosen to operationalise the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework and in doing so better understand the consumption values that influence participation in sport and physical activity.

4.2 Philosophical Constructs

Whilst accepting that research is pivotal to both academic and business activities alike, an all encompassing agreement regarding how it should be ‘defined’ within the literature is elusive. However, there is some consensus from the various offerings is that research is an investigation or a process of enquiry which always starts with a
question and is a systematic way of findings the answers to that question, often guided by the theories and research of others (Trochim, 2006). The philosophical stance of any research is formed from the ontological and epistemological positions regarding the manner in which data should be collected, analysed and ultimately used. Hatch and Cunliffe (2006) highlight the mutual dependence between ontology and epistemology; if a researcher embraces a particular ontological position this will affect their epistemological choices. Furthermore, the philosophical standpoint adopted by any research study also has a major influence upon the methodology and methodological techniques available to be used, as they must be consistent with the philosophical stance to enable the research question(s) to be meaningfully answered.

4.2.1 Ontological Position

Ontology is the philosophical study of the nature of being and reality. Blakie (1993) has defined ontology in general terms as “the science or study of being” and in relation to the social sciences to “claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up and how these units interact with each other”. Therefore, ontology is concerned with questions regarding the nature of reality, what really exists, what can really be known; specifically it asks is reality subjective i.e. created in our mind or is it objective i.e. it really exists. Lincoln and Guba (1985) have posed questions regarding any researches ontological position such as “what is the form and nature of reality” and “what can be known about it”. In answering Lincoln and Guba (1985) questions regarding the ontological position of this study, this study believes in the existence of multiple realities not just one, realities that are not only constructed by the knower but can also be altered by them. Reality is subjective as opposed to being objectively determined, it is not something ‘out there’, but instead something that is specific and locally constructed. Ontological assumptions can be deeply embedded and can affect how an individual attributes a mode or manner of existence to one set of things over another. If these underpinning presumptions are not acknowledged and considered, certain phenomena may be taken for granted as they are implicitly assumed and left unquestioned.
4.2.2 Epistemology Position

Epistemology is the study of the nature of knowledge, its presuppositions, extent and validity, or as Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008) have described it “what is knowledge and what are the sources and limits of knowledge”. Similarly, Cope (2002) view epistemology as “a theory of knowledge with specific reference to the limits and validity of knowledge” (p. 43). In a similar manner to ontology, objective and subjective epistemological positions exist. Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008) consider that objective epistemology relates to a world that is both independent and theory neutral, whilst a subjective epistemology is based on an individual’s own interpretation and observations. Lincoln and Guba (1985) have enquired regarding “what is the nature of the relationship between the knower and what can be known” with the answer defining any researches epistemological position. Polkinghorne (1983) considered research as a human activity, one in which the researcher as knower is pivotal. Similarly, Denzin and Lincoln (2000) regarded the researcher and their respondents as being linked in the co-creation of findings, with the researcher as a ‘passionate participant’. Therefore, in reply to Lincoln and Guba (1985) the epistemological position of this study is that the researcher was the Manager of Bridgend Recreation Centre, and it is expected that prior knowledge and interpretation gained from industry experience and business connections will affect the research findings. Indeed, the belief or opinion regarding value-free research has been questioned and its pursuit criticised as limiting knowledge about human experience and especially meaning making (Cotterill & Letherby, 1993).

4.3 Pragmatic Research Paradigm

Bryman (2004) considered a paradigm to be a cluster of believes, which in academic research dictates how such research ought to be conducted and the manner in which the ensuing results need to be interpreted (p. 453). Traditionally, in the social and behavioural sciences such paradigms have fallen into two opposing views that of positivism and interpretivism. However, more recently a ‘third way’ that of pragmatism has begun to emerge within the literature.
Positivism is synonymous with the natural sciences or with observable facts; it is based on an ontology of a world that is external and objective and an epistemology in which the observers are independent. The initial basis for a positivist ideology is the assumption that the social world has similar properties and characteristics to the natural world. Positivists believe that as the natural world is regulated by the functioning of natural laws, so too is the social world controlled by the application of social laws. Positivism assumes that the social world obeys certain laws of development and considers that without systematic methods of identifying them it is impossible to perceive directly, grasp with any certainty or regard as true beyond doubt the nature of these laws. Given the belief that there is a link between the natural and the social world, the positivist approach adopts the methodology of the natural sciences and tends to be associated with quantitative methods of inquiry usually resulting in the collection of numeric data from experiments or surveys.

By contrast, interpretivism considers that the physical and social worlds have objective, external existences but this is mediated by social interaction which also has a socially constitutive effect; it allows a focus on understanding what is happening in a given context. Carson et al. (2001) recognised interpretivism usefulness given that “social field phenomena are relative to each other in some way as opposed to seeking to isolate variable as in positivist studies adhering to scientific rules” (p. 14). An interpretive approach therefore makes scientific declaration regarding the social world, whilst at the same time accepting that human beings and the subject of the natural world are different. From this standpoint the study of social relationships among humans utilises a different mode of methodology to those adopted by Positivist. Interpretivism is associated with methods such as case studies, interviews and open-ended textual data because it is interested in meaning rather than measurement. Whilst positivists articulate general statements regarding the nature of human societies, those adopting an interpretive approach tend to make statements about the social world which are kept within certain limits or only apply to particular social behaviours and interaction between humans at a particular time in their development. Interpretivists believe that the ‘truth’ of social reality is contextually contingent because of local social construction through social interaction, so
knowledge can only correspond to local realities. Furthermore they emphasises the importance of the ‘subjective state of mind’ and that it needs to be understood and considered when studying the social world. Although interpretism is clearly distinct to positivism, it should not automatically be considered, treated, or depicted as a ‘non-scientific’ methodology.

Over the years the debate regarding the best paradigm for conducting social research has persisted. Tashakkori and Teddie (1998) termed this debate between the benefits of positivism verse interpretivism as the ‘paradigm wars’ and effectively challenged the dominance of the mono-method era. Whilst accepting that quantitative and qualitative approaches have their strength and weakness, in more recent times an appreciation of an approach that combines the advantaged of both has become more prominent (Tashakkori and Teddie, 1998; Creswell et al., 2003; Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011; Punch, 2005). The pragmatic paradigm emerged as a response to the ‘paradigm wars’ based on rejecting the forced choice between either positivism or interpretivism by advocating the use of mixed methods and mixed models. Creswell et al. (2003) acknowledge that research questions rarely sit wholly within either of the traditional paradigms and considered that pragmatic approach links the selection of a philosophical standpoint with the purpose and nature of the research question posed. Darling and Scott (2002) noted that in reality research approaches are not based on any one particular philosophical commitment but on a belief regarding which design or methodology is the best fit.

The study rejected both the mono-methods of positivism and interpretivism in favour of a pragmatic paradigm. A pragmatic paradigm has what both Tashakkori and Teddie (1998) and Creswell et al. (2003) consider to be an intuitive appeal, embracing methods that are appropriate and in accord with the researchers own value system. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) also noted that there are three areas where a mixed methods approach is more beneficial than a mono-methods approach. Firstly mixed methods are able to address research questions that other approaches cannot, for example mixed methods can tackle confirmatory and exploratory questions
simultaneously. The use of a mixed method approach will allow the study to carry out exploratory research regarding the consumption values that underpinned adult’s participation in sport and physical activity by using traditional quantitative methods, whilst at the same time also being able to compare and evaluate consumption values that emerge from using qualitative techniques.

Secondly, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) believe that in answering complex social phenomena, mixed methods result in more persuasive, effective, cogent insights and inferences in terms of both depth and breadth. The literature reviewed in chapter 2 has outlined the complexity of understanding why some adults live and breathe sport and embrace physical activity throughout their lives, whilst to others it has no significance at all or they face barriers that are too great to overcome? Yet adults’ participation rates in sport and physical activity have been static for the past 20-years. Thirdly, such methods provide the opportunity for the expression of differing viewpoints through the divergent findings; in short they consider that by interweaving both qualitative and quantitative techniques this can “maximise the knowledge yield of the research endeavour” (p. 518). For the reasons outlined above the use of only one methodological approach was considered to be limiting and that using mixed methods, specifically the integration of quantitative and qualitative approaches was deemed a more suitable approach to answer the study’s research question (Carson et al., 2001; Tashakkiri and Teddlie, 2003).

4.4 Mixed Methods Research Design

The purpose of designing any research is to guarantee that the range of data collected will be able to answer the research question. Nachmias and Nachmias (1992) have defined research design as a plan that:

“guides the investigator in the process of collecting, analyzing and interpreting observations. It is a logical model of proof that allows the researcher to draw inferences concerning causal relationships among the variables under investigation. The research design also defines the domain of
generalisibility, that is, whether the obtained interpretations can be generalized to a larger population or to different situations”
(p. 77-78).

Similarly, Yin (1994) describes a research design as “an action plan for getting from here to there, where here may be described as the initial set of questions to be answered and, there is some set of conclusions (answers) about these questions” (p. 19).

These are important definitions as they not only ensure that the chosen methodology allows interpretation of the findings, assessment of their impact and relationships between different variables but also that the research design takes into account how far interpretations can be generalised. The research design must therefore be rigorously constructed if the ensuing findings are to be valid. Traditionally taking a particular approach to a particular paradigm has invariably meant taking a particular approach to the overall research process. However, this is not the approach to research adopted by the pragmatic paradigm. Kent (2007) suggests that there will “usually be no one ‘correct’ or ‘best’ way to research a problem” (p. 249) and in fact mixing data collection method and data analysis procedures within the research design is positively promoted (Creswell, 2003).

Adopting a mixed methods design is essentially about mixing traditional quantitative and qualitative protocols. At a basic level a mixed method could comprise of mixed data collection protocols such as a questionnaire that has both set-choice questions (quantitative) and open-ended questions (qualitative). However at a more sophisticated level it could include the mixing of research methods such as surveys and experiments (quantitative) with in-depth interviews and focus groups discussion (qualitative). Several authors have created taxonomies of mixed method designs such as Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998, 2003) and Creswell (2003). More recently Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) suggest there are four-basic mixed method designs (convergent parallel, explanatory sequential, exploratory sequential and embedded).
that can provide a logical framework to ensure the research design is both rigorous, persuasive and of high quality. This study adopted a convergent parallel design as outlined in figure 4.1, using a concurrent timing for both the quantitative and qualitative strands, giving equal priority to both methods, keeping each strands data analysis independent until the final overall interpretation stage.

![Figure 4. 1 Convergent Parallel Design](image)

The rationale for using a convergent parallel design was based on developing a deeper and more meaningful understanding of consumer value theory by synthesizing complementary quantitative and qualitative results. Morse (1991) considers the purpose of a convergent parallel design is to best understand the research problem through “obtain different but complementary data on the same topic” (p. 122). An approach that has some support within the consumer value literature, Woodruff and Gardial (1996, p.158) noted that “measuring customer value is rooted in the use of quantitative data-gathering techniques”, referring to research based on various consumer value measurement scales in a wide variety of contexts including service-related settings such as golf holidays, cruise passenger behaviours, adventure tourism trips costal visitation in Western Australia and vegetarian dinning (Petrick and Beckman, 2002; Petrick, 2004; Williams and Soutar, 2005; Sourtar, Lee and Jenkins, 2008; Sanchez-Fernandez et al., 2009). However, Sweeney et al. (1997, p.109) also noted that a qualitative stage could also be used which should “explore the ideas and opinions that diverse groups of people have about consumption values.”
Furthermore, a concurrent mixed method designs enabled the study to triangulate data from both the separate qualitative (in-depth interviews) and quantitative (questionnaire) strands of the study, thus allowing them to “confirm, cross-validate, or corroborate findings within a single study” (Creswell et al., 2003, p. 229). However, it must be noted that conducting a mixed method study may require making a compromise between the representative/saturation trade-off (Teddlie and Yu, 2007). Such a trade-off means there is a potential for the study to place more emphasis on the representativeness of the quantitative samples and less emphasis on the saturation of the qualitative sample and vice-a-versa. A final and somewhat supplementary reason related to the need to collect both sets of data in a short ‘window of opportunity’ between Oct and Dec 2011, due the outsourcing of the leisure centres and swimming pool from January 2012.

The protocol adopted for conducting the convergent parallel design is summarised in figure 4.2, and comprised 4-stages (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). The first stage related to the design of the quantitative and qualitative research questions based on the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework (chapter 3), deciding the quantitative and qualitative research approach and collecting quantitative and qualitative data. The second stage related to analysing the quantitative data using SPSS v19 for the exploratory factory analysis and AMOS v20 for the confirmatory factor analysis (chapter 5a) with the analysis of the qualitative data based on the hermeneutic spiral, emerging themes and supporting quotations (chapter 5b). The third step involved merging the two set of data prior to the final step of interpretation and discussion (chapter 6).
4.4.1 The Research Population
Kent (2007) considers any research population to be comprised of cases that a researcher would like to study. Each case contains objects, people, survey respondents or organisations such as ‘motorist’ or ‘mothers with babies’. The total sets of cases reflect the focus of the research and are often referred to as the ‘target population’ (Kent, 2007). Any target population needs to be defined very carefully as any ambiguities may result in ambiguities in the results of the research. In order to overcome any such ambiguities, Kent (2007) recommends that the target population definition should involve a precise specification of the type of case(s) that are the focus of the research.
Previous empirical research regarding the measurement of consumer value has primarily focused on the post-purchase evaluation of durable goods/products (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001) and services such as golf holidays (Petrick and Beckman, 2002), cruise passenger behaviours (Petrick 2004), adventure tourism trips (Williams and Soutar, 2005), costal visitation in Western Australia (Sourtar, Lee and Jenkins, 2008) and vegetarian dinning (Sanchez-Fernandez et al., 2009). Accordingly, this study also adopted a reflective focus on the post-purchase evaluation of physically active adult’s in terms of the consumption values affecting their decision to engage in exercise.

Data was collected from ‘active adults’ who were members of ‘the Bridge Card’ which is Bridgend Country Borough Council’s leisure membership scheme, which as of 1st July 2011 was comprised of a large number of members (n=15,030) and a variety of different membership categories. However, as there were such a large number of members and different membership categories, sampling was considered to be the only feasible course of action. Kent (2007) describes a sample as “a subset of cases that is selected and then studied by the researcher for the purpose of being able to draw conclusion about the entire population” (p. 229).

4.4.2 Sample Strategy
The design of a suitable sampling strategy is equally as important for qualitative research as it is for quantitative research. An accurately and unambiguously stated sampling strategy that uses a robust and unbiased framework can deliver robust and unbiased results. Teddlie and Yu (2007, p.78) have proposed a taxonomy of sampling strategies that are applicable to the social and behaviour sciences and is comprised of four broad categories – probability, purposeful, convenience and mixed methods (as illustrated in table 4.1). Kent (2007, p.231) describes probability sampling as “where members of the population (the cases) have a known change of being selected into the sample”. This method of sampling encompasses a selection process in which all people or cases within the target population have an independent
and equally likelihood of being selected, for example by drawing numbers or names from a box (Teddlie and Yu, 2007).

Table 4. 1 Taxonomy of Sampling Strategies

I. Probability Sampling
   A. Random Sampling
   B. Stratified Sampling
   C. Cluster Sampling
   D. Sampling Using Multiple Probability Techniques

II. Purposive Sampling
   A. Sampling to Achieve Representativeness or Comparability
   B. Sampling Special or Unique Cases
   C. Sequential Sampling
   D. Sampling Using Multiple Purposive Techniques

III. Convenience Sampling
   A. Captive Sample
   B. Volunteer Sample

IV. Mixed Methods Sampling
   A. Basic Mixed Methods Sampling
   B. Sequential Mixed Methods Sampling
   C. Concurrent Mixed Methods Sampling
   D. Multilevel Mixed Methods Sampling
   E. Combination of Mixed Methods Sampling Strategies

Such probability sampling methods are most often used in quantitative orientated studies where the aim is to achieve a sample which represents the entire population. If there is a need for groups to be portrayed in their actual proportions, for example the number of male and females then a stratified random sample would be required. Alternatively the researcher may samples groups that are inherent in the population which is described as a cluster sample (Kent, 2007).

Purposeful samples are also referred to as non-probability samples and are most commonly associated with qualitative studies and involved selecting certain people or cases “based on a specific purpose rather than randomly” (Teddlie and Yu, 2003, p. 713) and are generally characterised by the researcher intentionally selecting what they consider to be the most fertile sample in order to answer the research question. Whereas convenience sample involves choosing the most accessible and easily obtained subjects, it is considered the least rigorous qualitative technique, but is also the most accessible in terms of cost, time and effort. However, it may also result in
poor quality data and as a technique has been criticised for lacking academic credibility.

The final category of Teddlie and Yu (2007) typology focuses on mixed methods sampling which is comprised of “the selection of units or cases for a research study using both probability sampling (to increase external validity) and purposeful sampling strategies (to increase transferability)” (p. 78). Of specific interest to this thesis is Teddlie’s (2005) ‘Purposive-Mixed-Probability Sampling Continuum’ which illustrates how the contradictory position between purposive and probability becomes a seamless flow between qualitative and quantitative approaches (figure 4.3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zone A</td>
<td>consists of totally qualitative (QUAL) research with purposive sampling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zone B</td>
<td>represents primarily QUAL research, with some QUAN components</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zone C</td>
<td>represents totally integrated mixed methods (MM) research and sampling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zone D</td>
<td>represents primarily QUAN research, with some QUAL components</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zone E</td>
<td>consists of totally quantitative (QUAN) research with probability sampling</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4. 3 Purposive-Mixed-Probability Sampling Continuum

Teddlie and Yu (2007) suggest that converging towards the middle of the continuum points to the acceptance and integration of mixed methods and sampling. Conversely, movement to either end of the continuum indicates that research methods are more separated and distinct. Guided by Teddlie and Yu (2007) the study choose to adopt a mixed method sampling strategy where convenience sampling was used for the qualitative strand of research and purposeful sampling was used for the quantitative
strand. As these sampling procedures occurred independently, each type of sampling procedure did not influence the other.

4.5 Quantitative Strand

4.5.1 Sample Size

It is rare for researchers to survey an entire population primarily because the population is too dynamic and the cost is too high (Adèr, Mellenbergh, & Hand, 2008). Therefore, an appropriately sized sample needs to be drawn from the study’s target population. Determining the sample size is an important component of any study design, however, it is of particular importance to quantitative research where the aim is to contain adequate numbers of respondents to ensure that result identified are statistically significant. Using too few respondents could results in inconclusive findings wasting the researcher’s time, effort, and money making it difficult to determine whether a particular intervention or strategy could have been effective. By contrast, whilst using too many subjects may result in significant conclusions, however, if the same answer could have been obtained with fewer subjects and with less expense in terms of time, effort and money.

The study considered a number of quantitative sampling protocols. The first approach to determining a suitable sample size was to consider the sample size used by similar consumer value studies. In this regard, whilst developing the PERVAL scale, Sweeny & Soutar (2001) surveyed a total of 273 students which was followed-up by a wider telephone survey of 875. When determining golf travellers overall satisfaction Petrick and Backman (2002) sent-out 1000 questionnaires to golfers who had booked a golfing holiday. In addition to this, when measuring consumer value in the service context of a vegetarian restaurant Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) surveyed 306 diners, whilst investigating the dimensionality of consumer value in a travel-related context Gallaraza & Saura (2006) surveyed 274 students and finally Petrick (2004) who examined cruise passenger behaviour distributed at total of 1183 questionnaires. The review of previous research would therefore indicate that a
sample size of about 1000 usable questionnaire would be sufficient. However, caution must be taken to review and carefully examine the procedures employed in previous studies to avoid the risk of replicating errors that may have been made in determining these sample sizes.

A second approach considered was to use one of several sample size formula. Cochran’s (1997) sample size formula uses two key factors a) the alpha and b) level the margin of error which is the level of risk the researcher considers tolerable in their research. Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh (1996) have determined that the alpha level used in the majority of educational and social research studies is either .05 or .01 and Kerjcie and Morgon (1970) consider the acceptable margins of error for categorical data (eg age or gender) is 5% and continuous data (eg Likert scale) is 3%.

\[
\begin{align*}
  n_0 &= \frac{Z^2pq}{\epsilon^2} \\
  \text{Where:} \\
  Z^2 &= \text{the abscissa of the normal curve} \\
  p &= \text{the estimated proportion of an attribute that is present in the population} \\
  q &= 1-p \\
  \epsilon &= \text{level of risk the researcher considers tolerable in their research} \\
  n_0 &= \frac{(1.96)^2 * (.5)(.5)}{(0.05)^2} = 385
\end{align*}
\]

A third way of determining a suitable sample size is to use published tables such as Bartlett, Kotrlik & Higgins (2001) in order to determine the required minimum returned sample size for any given target population. Using Bartlett, Kotrlik & Higgins (2001) table, with a BridgeCard population of 15,030 the study would need 119 usable questionnaires with regard to continuous data and 370 for categorical data, at the 95% confidence level. A fourth and final approach reviewed was to consider the minimum number of usable questionnaires needed to ensure the suitability of the data-set in-terms of the data analysis protocols (exploratory and confirmatory factory analysis). In this regard, the general recommendation is the larger the better as factors obtained from small data sets do not generalise as well as those derived from larger samples. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest that “it is comforting to have at least 300 cases for factors analysis” (p. 613). Other authors
suggest that it is not the overall sample size that is of concern but instead the ratio of participants to items. Field (2000) considers that “you should have at least 10-15 subject per variable” (p. 443) and Nunnally (1978) recommends a 10:1 ratio, so 10 cases for each item to be factor analysed. Assuming the S&PAVAL questionnaire has 65 questions, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) would recommend 300 usable questionnaire, whereas Field’s (2000) 15:1 ratio would require 975 usable questionnaires and Nunnally’s (1978) 10:1 ratio would require 650 usable questionnaires. Salkind (1997) recommended oversampling with regard to questionnaire surveys, stating “If you are mailing out surveys or questionnaires ... count on increasing your sample size by 40-50% to account for lost mail and uncooperative subjects” (p. 107). But by contrast, Fink (1995) states that “oversampling can add costs to the survey and is often unnecessary” (p. 36). Therefore, guided by previous customer value studies sample sizes, specifically Sweeney & Soutar (2001) =1148, Petrick and Bacman (2002) = 1000, Petrick (2004) = 1183 and statistically considerations a suitable sample size was considered to be 1000+ usable questionnaires.

4.5.2 Data Collection Methods
One of the principal operational difficulties relating to consumer value research relates to the fact that it is still in its conceptual infancy and suffers from a lack of universally accepted single conceptualisation (Smith & Colgate, 2007). Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) consider that given the number of customer value dimensions and the development of various measurement techniques over time, testing and applying the various theoretical concept of consumer value has been limited by its measurement challenge.

4.5.2.1 S&PAVAL Scale Development Process
The development of the S&PAVAL scale was primarily guided by Churchill’s (1979) paradigm with subsequent stages paying due regard to Anderson and Gerbing (1988) and Gerbing and Anderson (1988) in terms of the confirmatory factor analysis. There were two reasons for following Churchill’s (1979) paradigm, firstly
it’s use is widely endorsed in the scaling literature (DeVellis, 2003; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Nunally and Bernstein, 1994). Secondly, this paradigm has been extensively used in the marketing literature (de Chernatony et al., 2004; Simoes et al., 2005; Sin et al., 2005b; Walsh and Beatty, 2007). Figure 4.5 summaries the scale development process that was followed and also highlights the psychometric property of interest during each stage of the process (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 1991; Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Netemeyer et al., 2003).

Figure 4.4 S&PAVAL Scale Development Process
4.5.2.1.1 The preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework.

The first step of Churchill’s (1979) paradigm involves specifying the domain of the consumer value construct. The literature reviewed in chapter 2 enable the thesis to develop a preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework which was further explained in chapter 3. As noted in chapter 3, the domain of consumer value in a sport and physical activity context was postulated as comprising 6-dimensions: efficiency, quality of service experience, social value, fun and enjoyment, physical environment and finally altruistic value, as illustrated in figure 4.5.

![Figure 4.5 The Preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework](image)

Commencing the scale development with a clear construct definition, both in terms of the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework and associated working definitions (table 4.2) is consistent with Netemeyer et al.’s (2003, p. 9) approach where “the process of scale development starts with a thorough review of the literature in which a solid theoretical definition of the construct and its domain is delineated and outlined”
Table 4. Defining the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency</td>
<td><em>In a Sport &amp; Physical Activity setting this was interpreted to be the trade-off an individual makes between the outcomes of exercise (such as improved physical and mental wellbeing) and the inputs needed to exercise (such as money, time and effort).</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Service Excellence</td>
<td><em>In a Sport &amp; Physical Activity setting the factors affecting a customer in a perception or their appreciation regarding the quality of their service experience was interpreted in terms of customer interaction with, and experience of staff and their chosen activity.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Value</td>
<td><em>Whilst it was not considered that a Sport &amp; Physical Activity setting would affect antecedents of social value, it was linked to the notion of ‘social wellbeing’ such as gaining the respect of others and facilitating more social opportunities.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun and Enjoyment</td>
<td><em>In a Sport &amp; Physical Activity setting play/emotional value were operationalised to represent the extent to which undertaking exercise relates to, or is motivated, by fun and enjoyment related aspects of consumption in terms of a sense of joy, happiness, pleasure or delight and the relationships between customers.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Environment</td>
<td><em>The study re-interpreted ‘aesthetics’ in terms of the physical environment or servicescape (Bitner, 1992) within which the physical activity occurred, as it relates to creating a pleasant environment in the minds of physically active adults whilst also avoiding atmospheres that create submissiveness.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic value</td>
<td><em>In a Sport &amp; Physical Activity context altruistic value was interpreted to represent the extent to which undertaking exercise relates to, or is motivated by, wider factors than the immediate health related benefits of exercise to factors such as being fit, active and health to avoid ill-health, prolonging life as a result of being physically active for individual and family reasons, to achieve more independence in later life and to avoid unnecessary cost to the Health Service.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5.2.1.2 Generating a Pool of Items (questions)

With the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework postulated, a pool of items, or latent variables (De Vellis, 2003; Netemeyer et al., 2003), needed to be created to measure each dimension. In order to operationalise latent variables, items are required that ‘tap’ or ‘scale’ the domain of the construct (Netemeyer et al., 2003). In order to generate the pool of items, or latent variables Bourque and Clark (1994) have propose that researchers can adopt one of three strategies:

- Adopt questions used in other questionnaires
- Adapt questions used in other questionnaires
- Develop their own questions

(p. 62)

This study utilised all three of Bourque and Clark (1994) strategies. The majority of items contained in the S&PAVAL scale were ‘cullied’ or ‘adapted’ items from existing consumer value scales, as summarised in table 4.3. To date, the majority of research regarding consumer value has been based on various value measurement scales, which have been used in a wide variety of contexts including service-related settings such as golf holidays (Petrick and Beckman, 2002), cruise passenger behaviours (Petrick 2004; Hung & Petrick ,2011), adventure tourism trips (Williams and Soutar, 2005), costal visitation in Western Australia (Sourtar, Lee and Jenkins, 2008) and vegetarian dinning (Sanchez-Fernandez et al., 2009).

PERVAL (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001) was introduced as a measure for consumer durable goods in retail settings and is a 19-item measure involving four distinct value dimensions, that of emotional, social, functional (quality/performance) and
Table 4. Sources of S&PAVAL Scale Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Items culled and/or adapted from:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Efficiency | *Items relating to the benefits of engaging in exercise were adapted from NHS Choices (www.nhs.uk/livewell) list of the type of benefits that arise from being physically active:*  
  - Improved health, reduce the risk of ill health  
  - Better energy level, improved sleep, helps mental outlook  
  - Helps to build and maintain healthy bones, muscles, and joints  
  - Help to improve body shape and reach and maintain a healthy weight  
  - Gives me more social opportunities and a sense of achievement  
  - Help achieve a more independence in later life |
|           | *Items relating to sacrifices such as money were adapted from:*  
  Ruiz et al. (2008) ‘service value: reflective measure’:  
  SV1 - The value I receive from this company’s services is worth the time, effort, and money I have invested.  
  SV2 - This company’s services are reasonably priced.  
  SV3 - This company offers good services for the price.  
  SV4 - I am happy with the price of this company’s services.  
  SV5 - This company makes me feel that I am getting my money’s worth.  
  SV6 - The value of this company’s services compares favourably to other service providers.  
  SV7 - This company offers good value for the price I pay.  
  Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) ‘efficiency’ questions:  
  - In general, you are happy with the prices of this Restaurant  
  - The prices are good, considering what you have received from the restaurant  
  - The effort, time, and money spent in the restaurant are right |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Items were adapted from Gallarza &amp; Saura (2006):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Quality of Service Excellence | - Provide service reliably, consistently and dependently  
- Provide service in a timely manner  
- Competent employees (knowledgeable and skillful)  
- Approachable employees and easy to contact  
- Courteous, polite and respectful employees  
- Employees listen to me and we understood each other  
- Employees were trustworthy, believable and honest  
- Employees make the effort to understand my needs  
- Employees were neat and clean |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Value</th>
<th>Items were adapted from Sweeney and Soutar (2001):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
|              | - Would help me to feel acceptable  
- Would improved the way I am perceived  
- Would make a good impression on other people  
- Would give its owner social approval |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fun and Enjoyment</th>
<th>Items were adapted from Petrick and Hung (2011):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Escape & relaxation: | - I cruise to have fun  
- I cruise so that I can be free to do whatever I want  
- I cruise to escape  
- I cruise to give my mind a rest |
| Socialization:     | - Cruising provides me a chance to meet new people.  
- I cruise because I like to meet different people on a cruise ship |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Items culled and/or adapted from:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Physical</strong></td>
<td><strong>Items were adapted from Bitners (1992) Servicescape concept:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Environment</strong></td>
<td><strong>Ambient conditions:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Temperature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Air quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Noise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Music/odour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Space/function:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Layout</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Equipment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Furnishing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Signs, symbols and artefacts:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Signage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Personal artefacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Style of decor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Altruistic</strong></td>
<td><strong>value</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>As the measurement of Altruistic value is not well defined in the literature and consequently few scales exist, these statements were constructed from the researchers understanding of Altruism and industry knowledge.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Facility layout makes it easy to get to the changing rooms and toilet |
| The facility layout makes it easy to get to the changing rooms and toilet |
| The interior wall and floor colour schemes are attractive |
| There is sufficient signage in the facility |
| The signage in the facility is large enough to be seen |
| The signage in this facility is easy to understand |
| The signage in the facility makes it easy to find your way |
| The decorations in the facility are appropriate |

| The temperature in the facility is comfortable |
| The air quality in the facility is good |
| The background music/sound is appropriate |
| The smell in the facility is pleasant |
| The lighting in the facility is adequate |
| The lighting in the facility is easy on eye |
| Overall, the ambient condition in the facility makes it comfortable to exercise in |
| The facility layout makes it easy to get to the activity you are looking for |

| I consider being fit, active and healthy is important |
| I want to be fit, active and healthy for my family |
| I want to be fit, active and healthy to avoid illness |
| I want to be fit, active and healthy to avoid unnecessary costs to the Health Service |
| I want to be fit, active and healthy to achieve more independence in later life |
functional (price/value for money) characteristics. Petrick (2002) adapted the earlier work of Sweeney and Soutar (2011) along with the inclusion of SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al., 1988) and SERVPERF (Cronin and Taylor, 1992) characteristics, to create SERV-PERVAL a 25-item instrument to measure the perceived value construct in relation to service. Petrick (2002) developed a multi-dimensional scale which examined five distinct dimensions of the perceived value of a service offering, that of behavioural price, monetary price, emotional response, quality and reputation. As both PERVAL and SERV-PERVAL have been tested and found to be valid and reliable measures (Gallarza and Saura, 2006; Petrick, 2003; Sanchez et al., 2006), the study decided to adapted its social value questions from the PERVAL scale.

However, both the PERVAL and SERV-PERVAL measurement instruments only focus upon the post-purchase evaluations of products and service as opposed to the overall perceived value of a purchase (Gallarza and Saura, 2006; Sanchez et al., 2006; Petrick, 2002). Therefore neither scale accounts for value perceptions which occur at the various stages of the purchase and consumption process, such as the pre-purchase stage, the moment of purchase, at the time of use and after use (Sanchez et al., 2006). Sanchez et al. (2006) took note of the need for perceived value measurements to be broadened and in response to this developed GLOVAL. They suggest that “the tourist values all the elements that affect his or her consumption experience” (p. 397), thus including all aspects relating to their experience and not just the after purchase effects. The GLOVAL scale is a 40-item measurement instrument covering the three general areas of perceived value, namely its functional value, emotional value and social value. From within these three general components of perceived value the scale disaggregates the concept into six dimensions, by dividing the functional value component into four parts. The combination of these six dimensions was found to adequately measure the holistic view of tourists’ perceptions of value over the range of their emotions, social status, and various functional aspects. The study choose to adapt its quality of service excellence from Gallarza & Saura (2006), who’s contribution to the measurement of consumer value was to adopt Holbrook’s (1994, 1999) typology and to extend it through integrating negative value inputs, to assess the proposition that negative value dimensions may
have detrimental effects on the perceived value. Zeithmal (1988) value definition suggests that negative aspects should be conceived as part of the trade-off between the ‘get’ and the ‘give’ but only in the context of monetary cost, where-as Gallarza & Saura (2006) also included non-monetary cost such as perceived risk, time and effort spent. Their results indicated that time and effort spent was the only negative value perception or cost.

The study considered that the ‘get or benefits’ that arise from being physically active were specific to the exercise context and is well researched in physical activity literature. Therefore, in terms of probing these aspects of efficiency value, the study choose to adapt the NHS Choices identified benefits of exercising into questions, rather than any of the exiting consumer value literature. However, in terms of probing the ‘cost/price’ aspect of efficiency value, the study adapted question from both Ruiz et al. (2008) ‘service value’ scale and from Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009). Ruiz et al. (2008) proposed that a formative approach best models value in a service context, as opposed to the majority of exiting literature which focuses only on value as a post-purchase reflective concept. Ruiz et al. (2008) suggest that customer’s perceptions of value is dependent upon a variety of service elements and specifically identified four service component that were particularly influential indicators of service value: service quality, service equity, confidence benefits and sacrifice index. More recently, Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) presented an empirical adaption of Holbrook’s (1999) typology which the authors regarded to be a more comprehensive approach to the value construct because it captured the “diverse aspects of the consumption experience, both cognitive and affective in nature – that is, the economic, social, hedonic and altruistic categories of consumer value” (p. 97).

Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s (2009) research was conducted in a service context (vegetarian restaurants) and indicated that the intrinsic elements of play, aesthetics and altruistic are more reflexive of consumer value in a service context than are extrinsic categories of efficiency, quality and social. Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s (2009) findings suggest that by utilising an adaptation of Holbrook’s (1999) typology, research in a service –orientated context could move beyond the rational or
functional orientation based primarily on the quality-price trade-off and instead produce data that indicate the important of the emotional or hedonic aspects of value. Whilst it has been argued that numerous scales exist for customer evaluation of product value (Petrick 2002; Heinonen, 2006) there has been little attention towards service value scales, which makes Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s (2009) conceptualisation and resulting value measurement scale a valuable contribution given that the attention of a substantial body of value literature has predominately been on products.

As the physical environment’ was re-interprtrated but the study in terms of the servicescape within which the physical activity is performed, delivered and consumed (Bitner, 1992), these questions arose from a variety of sources including Wakefield and Blodgett (1994; 1996) sportscape. Finally, as altruistic value is not well defined in the consumer value literature with few existing scales, these statements were constructed from the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework definition of altruistic value and from the researchers industry knowledge.

Multiple item or statements were generated for each latent variable to enhance scale reliability by allowing any measurement errors to cancel each other out (Churchill 1979), also because it is highly unlikely that any single item will be adequate in measuring the construct (Churchill 1979, De Villis 19991; Netemeyer et al., 2003), furthermore assessing the psychometric properties of a single item is difficult (Diamantopoulos, 1999) and finally to “allow the most unambiguous assignment of measuring to the estimated constructs” (Anderson and Gerbring, 1988, p. 415). Such methods of statement and scale generation can be a problem with respect to accurate data generation, and respondents are faced with a set of statements that box in their opinions while also guiding or leading their responses. In this respect, the statements ask only one thing, and that is how respondents feel about a particular statement. When developing a scale, Churchill (1979) and other scholars advocate the use of a qualitative item generation stage when such as the use of focus groups or exploratory interviews (Simoes et al., 2005; Walsh and Beatty, 2007) to add contextual relevance whilst also enhancing content and face validity. However, such
a stage was not employed for a number of reasons, the upper most being that as part of the converging parallel research design the study was also undertaking in-depth interviews. However, other scale development literature such as Netemeyer et al. (2003) does not advocate the need for focus groups or exploratory interviews but instead stresses the important of generating theoretically grounded items by reviewing relevant literature. Whilst the value of an exploratory qualitative stage is acknowledged, instead the study sent an initial set of items to a panel of key informants for comment, specifically they were invited to modify the items and suggest new items, as discussed in section the next section.

4.5.2.1.3 Administer items to an expert panel

An initial set of questions was sent to a panel of key informants for comment and critique. The panel comprised 4 academics who specialism is marketing and 3 managers from the Healthy Living Department of Bridgend County Borough Council (BCBC).

Academic Marketers

1. Reader in Marketing (University of Glamorgan): 6th June 2011
2. Professor of Marketing (University of Glamorgan): replied 13th June 2011
3. Senior Lecture in Marketing (University of Wales): replied 9th June 2011
4. Consumer Value Author (University of Almeria): replied 12th June 2011

Bridgend County Borough Council

5. Head of Healthy Living
6. Group Manager - Sport and Physical Activity Service
7. Health and Wellbeing Manager

Feedback from the panel indicated that there could be improvements made to the range of benefits, that the drawbacks of exercise such as the sacrifice of time and effort needed could be expanded upon and finally that the use of the servicescape was an appropriate from an organisational perspective but that there could be other issues from a customer perspective. The key informants confirmed the suitability of the study’s interpretation of with Holbrook’s (1999) typology in a sport and physical activity context.
4.5.2.1.4 Finalising the ‘Active Adults’ Survey

In preparation for the ‘active adults survey’ to be pilot tested, a number of other factors needed to be considered such as the item statement and wording, avoiding bias, the benefits of using a likert scale and the structure of the survey.

4.5.2.1.4.1 Item Statements/Wording

Care was taken to ensure all items statements were clear (DeVellis, 1991), unambiguous (Johnson et al., 2004), avoided jargon, double-barrelled and double negatives (Baker, 2003; De Vellis, 1991; Netemeyer et al., 2003) as simplifying items enhances reliability (Peter, 1979). The questionnaire used forced-choice questions or closed-ended questions as it was considered easier and quicker for the respondent as they require minimal writing and easier to analyse and compare for the researcher because responses have already been predetermined (De Vaus 2002; Dillman, 2000). Research findings regarding the length of the questionnaire and its impact upon response rates are mixed (De Vaus, 2002) as it has been difficult to isolate the effect of length from other factors regarding how the survey was administered. Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2003) recommend between four and eight A4 pages for self-administered questionnaires. However, Dillman (2000) states that where the choice is between additional length and a cramped questionnaire, an extra page is likely to be more acceptable to respondents. The study’s ‘active adults questionnaire’ was 4-sided can printed on a folded A3 size paper.

4.5.2.1.4.2 Avoiding Bias

Various considerations were given to limiting the occurrence of bias (socially desirable, acquiescence and non-response bias) due to the survey nature of the research. Netemeyer et al. (2003) laments that the importance of socially desirable responding in self-reported survey research does not receive the consideration it deserves. Whilst, the potential of a respondent answering questions in accordance with favourable social norms (Nederhof, 1985) and thus distorting or exaggerating responses was acknowledged, its impact was not considered to be significant as the
study’s used self administered questionnaires which reduces this tendency (Brace, 2006; Nederhof, 1985; Richman et al., 1999).

‘Yea-saying’ or acquiescence bias relates to respondents agreeing with a statement irrespective of whether it is positively or negatively worded (Brace, 2006; Johnson et al., 2004). To minimise ‘yea-saying’, Churchill (1979) recommends the use of mixed items where statements are both positively and negatively worded. However, the study chose to use only positively worded questions as negatively worded questions can be confusing and difficult to understand (De Vellis, 1991; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Furthermore, Dillman (2000) considers that the presence of mixed items means that participants have “to concentrate more on how to respond correctly than on the substance of each question” (p. 120). Research regarding the impact of mixed statement on research findings had proved mixed; Churchill and Peters (1984) have reported no detrimental impact on reliability whilst Johnson et al. (2004) and Netemeyer et al. (2003) have found the opposite. Finally, non-response bias relates to whether respondents and non-respondents provide significantly different answers (Dillman, 2000). Armstrong and Overton (1977) “interest hypothesis” assumes that non-respondents are the same as late respondents and that early and late respondents scores should be subject to statistical analysis to assess if their means scores are significantly different (Saunders et al., 2007). If such an analysis indicates a difference between the two groups this is an increased chance that the results will be biased.

4.5.2.1.4.3 Using a Likert Scale

In keeping with previous perceived value measurement instruments a Likert type scales was adopted to measure respondents’ opinions and perceptions. With regard to the number of scale points to be used, Moors (2007) notes that the ideal number of response categories has yet to be determined, although Weng (2004) considered that either six and seven points would provided consistent and reliable responses. Cox (1980) recommends using an odd number of points to avoid respondents feeling uncomfortable about being ‘forced’ to indicate an opinion instead of being able to tick the mid-point and declare a neutral position (Brace 2006). Malhorta and Birks
(2006) have noted that statistical techniques such as exploratory factor analysis require seven or more points, but more than seven point does not necessary improve validity to reliability (Dawes, 2008). Although Likert scales are an undeniably popular method of measuring attitudes and opinions, they are not without their critics. Likert scales are designed on a favourable-unfavourable continuum, with their reliability generally rated as good (Oppenheim, 1966). That being said, one major criticism of the Likert scale is that the statements used often “fail to represent all degrees of attitude but (fall) largely at the favourable and unfavourable ends of the scale with the middle categories neglected” (Edwards, 1957 p. 163). In addition, Likert scales have been described as offering “no metric or interval measures, and lack a neutral point, so that one does not know where scores in the middle ranges change from mildly positive to mildly negative”, therefore the options in the middle are often ignored (Oppenheim, 1966 p. 140). Scale labels were used as this “enables participants to conceptualise and respond in spatial terms” (Cox 1980, p. 420) with Weng (2004) recommending “a scale with each anchor label clearly specified should be preferred to achieve consistent and stable participant responses” (p. 970) and Schwarz et al. (1991) noting the use of numbers and labels help “disambiguate” scale point more than when combined. Accordingly, for the measure of latent variables the scale used a seven-point Likert scale anchored from ‘Strongly disagree’ (1) to ‘Strongly agree’ (7), with ‘don’t know’ as an eight point.

4.5.2.1.4.4 Active Adults Survey Structure

The ‘Active Adults’ Survey (appendix 1) was divided into 3-sections, the first section focused on gaining an insight into the exercise habits of the respondents, the second section focused on exploring the dimensions of the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework and finally section 3 related to collecting demographic information about the respondent. Section 1 “About Your Exercise Routine” was aimed at ascertaining which facilities and activities the respondent used most often along with how frequently they exercised. Whereas section 3 “About You” was focused on collecting a variety of demographic information about the respondents including gender, ethnicity, social
class, age and disability. Questions which related to gender, age categories and ethnic group were taken from the Census 2011 questionnaire. The categories of disability were taken from the UK Health Survey. Social class was determined by using the Registrar General’s Standard Occupation Classification (SC). Although the National Statistics Socio-economic Classification (NS-SEC) has superseded the SC measure, and extends to the whole adult population, the NS-SEC classification was discounted because it required excess explanation of each categories as it describes different forms of employment relations, not skill levels.

Whilst, the SC is based on the individual’s occupation and is classified into one of six groups, the SC classification does not apply directly to parts of the population who are not in paid employment, such as women, children, retired people and people who have been sick for a long time - without an occupation they cannot be assigned to a Social Class.

4.5.2.1.5 Pilot the ‘Active Adults’ Survey
Before the ‘Active Adults’ survey was administered to the public it was subjected to a pre-test and a small scale pilot in order to reduced measurement error from respondents misunderstanding questions (Baker, 2003; Vasquez et al., 2002). An amended paper-based questionnaire was piloted using Leisure Centre staff in July 2011. In total 15-questionnaires were completed by a variety of staff all of whom were physically active. Staff were asked to complete the questionnaire in good faith but to also highlight any questions they found confusing or difficult to answer. At this stage a number of duplicate/similar questions were identified and other minor presentation and typographical changes were made. At the same time an e-questionnaire was sent to 10-staff via Survey Monkey to test how feasible it would be to send the questionnaire using this method. The overall response was good, with some minor amendments to how the questionnaire looked on-line and needed better on screen instructions.

4.5.2.1.6 Administer the ‘Active Adults’ Survey
The ‘active adults’ survey was administered across all 8-leisure facilities for a 2-week period (14th November to 27th November 2011), the questionnaires were
prominently positioned in the Reception area of each facility as well as at various location through-out the facility, as illustrated in figure 4.6 and 4.7

Figure 4. 6 An Active Adults Survey Completion Point – Reception

Figure 4. 7 An Active Adults Survey Completion Point – Communal Area

Baker (2001) considers a survey to be an appropriate data collection method from which to test hypotheses. Furthermore, Hart (1987) considers that adopting a survey protocol provides an economical way of collecting large amounts of scientific
research data. Klassen and Jacobs (2001) note how surveys are particularly suitable when investigating concepts (such as what is consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting?), testing theory (for example what are the dimensions of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting?) and analysing / measuring relationships (does gender, age or social status impact upon consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting?). Finally, surveys can provide participant assurance with regards to confidentiality (Leong and Austin, 1996).

As members of the BridgeCard scheme (ie active adults) were the target population, the study considered a number of ways to ‘reach’ them, such as the use of a postal survey, an e-survey or an onsite survey. The use of self completed postal survey is a well recognised marketing research data collection method (Dillman, 2008; Falconer and Hodgett, 1999) as is the use of web-based surveys. Marketing research literature would suggest that web-based surveys have a number of distinct advantages over traditional postal techniques such as quicker response times (Jobber and O’Reilly, 1998; Schaefer and Dillman, 1998), reduced need for data input (Ilieva et al., 2002; Kaplowitz et al., 2004) and finally reduced costs (Ilieva et al., 2002). With regard to completion rates evidence from the literature is mixed, Klassen and Jacobs (2001) indicate superior completion rates; however other authors suggest lower response rates (Fricker and Rand, 2002; Kaplowitz et al., 2004; Saunders et al., 2007; Schaefer and Dillman, 1998).

Despite the various merits of postal and web based methods, neither were able to be used due concerns regarding compliance with the Data Protection Act (1998), specifically that ‘used of data clause’ had not been inserted into the BridgeCard members term and conditions to allow the use of their data from marketing research purposes. Therefore, following Creswell (2003) and Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) matching the data collection method to the problem (and not vice versa) was considered necessary; therefore an in-facility self-completed survey protocol was adopted as this did not require any Data Protection permissions. Furthermore, the use of a ‘in-situ’ surveys has been widely used in the consumer value literature, for example Petrick (2004) examined cruise passenger behaviour by distributing on-board questionnaires (left in the cabins of holiday makers) and Sanchez-Fernandez et
al. (2009), surveyed 306 diners.

4.5.3 Data Analysis.
The term ‘data analysis’ refers to the process by which large amounts of raw data is reviewed in order to determine conclusions based on that data. The nature of data analysis varies, and correlates to the type of data being examined. With regard to the analysis of S&PAVAL scale, following Churchill (1979) scale development process, the data analysis protocol adopted by the study had 3 key elements, a) the internal consistency or reliability of the subscales was assessed before b) a exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to reveal early construct dimensionality or underlying groups of factors before c) widening the analysis by undertaking a confirmatory factor analysis (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988).

4.5.3.1 Subscale Internal Consistency and Reliability Analysis
An assessment of the internal consistency and reliability of the S&PAVAL scale was undertaken using SPSS v19 to undertake a comprehensive analysis of scale reliability, using Cronbach’s alpha (α) coefficient, corrected item-total correlation, and finally Cronbach’s α if Item Deleted. Figure 4.8 indicates the study’s chosen techniques which are fully justified in Chapter 6a – Data Analysis.

---

![Figure 4.8 Subscale Internal Consistency and Reliability Analysis](image-url)
4.5.3.2 Factor Analysis

Zikmund (2003) considers the choice of statistical data analysis technique to be largely dependent upon the type of question to be answered and the number of variables the measurement scale employed. Of particular importance to the study will be the number of variables that will need to be simultaneously investigates, and this was the primary consideration in the choice of a multivariate analysis. When only one variable is under investigation it is possible to conduct a univariate data analysis, and similarly where there is a need to describe the relationship between two variables a bivariate data analysis will suffice. However, the data from the study’s value-measurement questionnaire was more sophisticated and required three or more variable to be analysed at the same time. Under these circumstances, a multivariate data analysis technique it is considered the most appropriate option. There are two basic groups of multivariate techniques, one group are dependence methods and the other group are interdependence methods, as illustrated in figure 4.9.

Figure 4.9 Classifications of Multivariate Methods

If the analysis is attempting to predict or interpret the dependant variable in terms of two or more of the independent variables, this is considered to be an analysis of dependence. Where-as if the aim is to give meaning to a set of variables where no one variable or sub-set of variables are to be predicted from the other, which is the
study’s aim, then an analysis of interdependence is required. The most common statistical technique used to analyse interdependence are factor analysis, cluster analysis and multidimensional scaling. The aim of a cluster analysis is to arrange or organise individuals or objects into smaller groups that are mutually exclusive and exhaustive. Similarly, multidimensional scaling was also rejected as it is primarily concerned with aiding the understanding of why objects are judged in a particular way with the creation of perceptual map to indicate similar and dissimilar objects.

Therefore, undertaking a factor analysis was considered to be the most suitable interdependence method for the study because it aims to summarise the data from large number of variables into a smaller number of factors, which are then used to detect and recognise underlying dimensions in phenomena. The study’s S&PAVAL scale asked respondents numerous questions about the cost and benefits of exercise, their social and enjoyment factors when exercising and their opinions about the services they received at the facilities they used based on the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework. Thus, as the study wanted to be able to reduce a large number of variables into certain underlying constructs or dimension, in line with previous value-measurement research (Petrick and Beckman, 2002; Petrick, 2004; William and Soutar, 2005; Soutar, Lee and Jenkins, 2008; Sanchez-Fernandez et al., 2009), it was decided that a factor analysis would be the most suitable multivariate method.

Typically there are two types of factor analysis: exploratory and confirmatory. Whilst confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) are both powerful statistical techniques, EFA seeks to uncover the make-up of the constructs affecting a set of responses. Where-as a CFA examines the extent to which the model fits the empirical data. In general, an EFA is used if the research project is not based on a particular theory and where the constructs underlying responses to the measures are unknown, where-as a CFA is preferable if, like the current study, the research is based on a strong theoretical basis, albeit in a different setting. Therefore, the study decided to initially undertake a EFA to test whether a relationship between the observed variables and the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework’s latent consumer-value constructs of efficient, quality of service excellence, social value,
fun & enjoyment, aesthetics and altruistic value existed a sport & physical activity setting before undertaking a subsequent CFA.

4.5.3.2.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis
The S&PAVAL scale was subjected to an EFA using SPSS v19. As an EFA is a complex procedure with few absolute guidelines and many options, the analysis was conducted following Rietveld & Van Hout (1993, p. 291) flow diagram (figure 4.10) which outlines the necessary steps to successfully carryout an exploratory factor analysis and indicates the study’s chosen techniques which are fully justified in Chapter 5a – Analysis of Findings (Quantitative).

4.5.3.2.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis
A subsequent CFA was undertaken on the eight factor solution that arose from the EFA, flow diagram (figure 4.11) outlines the steps taken to successfully carryout a confirmatory factor analysis and indicates the study’s chosen techniques which are fully justified in Chapter 5a – Analysis of Findings (Quantitative).
Figure 4. 10 Rietvel & Van Hout (1993) EFA Flow Diagram
Figure 4. 11 CFA Flow Diagram
4.5.4 Validity & Reliability
Satisfying the demands of validity and reliability are central to ensuring the quality of any research; Yin (1994) and Riege (2003) consider that it is essential that they are robustly met. Accordingly, implementing verification strategies were integral to the research design; therefore issues relating to both validity and reliability were addressed at both the data collection and analysis phases but were also tested post-hoc by the use of statistical analysis, both of which are discussed in more detail in the following sections. The converging parallel research design adopted by the study enabled it to triangulate data from the separate qualitative (in-depth interviews) and quantitative (questionnaire) strands of the research allowing it to “confirm, cross-validate, or corroborate findings within a single study” (Creswell et al., 2003, p. 229). By using a mixed method approach the study anticipated overcoming the intrinsic biases and inherent defects or failing that arises from using mono-methods. Patton (2001) argues in favour of the triangulation “triangulation strengthens a study by combining methods. This can mean using several kinds of methods or data, including using both quantitative and qualitative approaches” (p. 247).

4.5.4.1 Construct Validity
The overall concept of validity relates to how well the study measures what the researcher wants or is aiming to find out and the degree to which the data results in an authentic measurement. Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2003), have described validity as “The extent to which data collection method or methods accurately measure what they are intended to measure. The extent to which research findings are really about what they profess to be about” (p. 492). The aim of construct validation is to ensure that the sub-scales operates as theoretically expected as noted by Netemeyer et al. (2003) is an “assessment of the degree to which a measure actually measures the latent construct it is intended to measure” (p. 8), in other words the S&PAVAL scale ‘behaves’ as expected (De Vellis, 1991). Whilst construct validity is a necessary foundation for both theory building and theory testing (Peter, 1981) it’s scope is widely debated, accordingly the study chose to adopt four of its main components content validity, face validity, discriminant validity and finally convergent validity (Netemeyer et al., 2003).
4.5.4.1.1 Content Validity
The content validity of the S&PAVAL scale was assessed through clearly defining
the domain of the construct as a result of a comprehensive theoretical & literature
review. Furthermore, through the item-generation process this included seeking the
opinions of an expert panel and undertaking a small scale pilot study and finally
through the scale purification process guided by Churchill (1978) protocols.

4.5.4.1.2 Face Validity
The face validity of the S&PAVAL Scale was protected through seeking the
opinions of an expert panel and undertaking a small scale pilot study to establish the
scale items relevance.

4.5.4.1.3 Convergent Validity
Evidence of convergent validity was obtained in two ways. Firstly the variance
extracted for each factor was calculated and were higher than or equal to 0.50, as
recommended by Fornell & Larcker (1981), In addition to this all standardised factor
loading were greater than 0.5 (Steenkamp and Trij, 1991).

4.5.4.1.4 Discriminant Validity
Discriminant validity was obtained in two way. Firstly by comparing the average
variance extracted (AVE) or each factor and the variance shared between the
constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) where the numbers on the diagonal are all much
larger than the number off the diagonal. In addition to this Hair et al. (2010)
recommend that both Maximum Shared Squared Variance (MSV), and Average
Shared Squared Variance (ASV) need to be smaller than the Average Variance
Extracted (AVE).

4.5.4.2 Reliability
Data reliability relates to the consistency of the data collected, data can be regarded
as reliable if identical (or comparable) results are achieved by different researcher
using the same methodological approach but on a different target population.
Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2003) have described data reliability as "if a method of
collecting evidence is reliable it means that anybody using this method, or the same
person using it at another time, would come up with the same results. The work could be repeated and the same results gained” (p. 488). Internal consistency reliability describes the consistency of the results to ensure that the different items measuring the different constructs produce or achieve a consistent score. Depending upon the degree, complexity and scope of the test, there are a number of methods for measuring the internal consistency reliability. However, they all ensure that the constructs measured and their associated results are correct. The exact technique used is determined by subject, size of the data set and resources.

4.5.4.2.1 S&PAVAL Scale Reliability
An assessment of the internal consistency and reliability of the S&PAVAL scale was undertaken using SPSS v19 using Cronbach’s α coefficient, corrected item-total correlation, and finally Cronbach’s α if Item Deleted.

4.5.4.2.2 Composite Reliability
Composite reliability scores were estimated to assess the internal consistency of the 8-sub scales of the S&PAVAL Model. To obtain these values, an averaged variance shared between each construct and its measure was used (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), with all reliabilities being above the recommended level of 0.6 (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988).

4.6 Qualitative Strand
4.6.1 Sample Size
There exists a common misconception that numbers are not important in determining the sample size in qualitative research. Whilst it is accepted that the sample sizes for qualitative research are usually smaller than those used in quantitative research guided by the concept of saturation (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In other words as the study progresses the collection of more data does not inevitable lead to more insight and understanding, instead Ritchie et al. (2003) propose that there is a ‘point of diminishing return’. Crouch & McKenzie (2006) consider that, as qualitative research is only interested and involved with understanding meaning and not necessarily making generalised hypothesis, statements frequencies are not as
important as a single occasion of the data, as a single occasion may be as useful as many occurrences in comprehending the process behind a phenomenon. Samples must be of sufficient size to ensure that the different insights revealed are able to furnish corroborating evidence, but equally if the sample is too large the opportunity for the deeper, case-oriented analysis may be lost as the data becomes repetitive and, eventually, superfluous.

Bowen (2008) has argued that many qualitative researchers have reportedly achieved saturation, without actually having any clear and transparent statement or account of how saturation was achieved and what it means or are able to evidence it. Straus and Corbin (1998) suggests that saturation is a “matter of degrees” (p. 136) and that the longer a researcher examines and acquaint themselves with and analyse data there will always be the opportunity for “the new to emerge”. Instead, Straus and Corbin (1998) recommend that saturation would be better conceived as the tipping point at which it becomes “counter-productive” and that “the new” that is revealed or exposed does not add to the general theory, model, story or framework (p. 136). Whilst the concept of saturation regulates the majority of qualitative sample sizes, authors have suggested other factors can also impact upon sample size and saturation in qualitative studies. Ritchie et al. (2003) describes seven factors such as “the heterogeneity of the population; the number of selection criteria; the extent to which ‘nesting’ of criteria is needed; groups of special interest that require intensive study; multiple samples within one study; types of data collection methods use; and the budget and resources available” (p. 84). Whilst, Jette, Grover and Keck (2003) have intimated that proficiency in the research area could lead to reduction in number of participants needed. Lee, Wood and MacKenzie (2002) proposed that studies that use mixed methods needed fewer participants, as do longitudinal or panel studies that use interviews with the same participant or multiple interviews. Charmaz (2006) suggests that an unpretentious or modest study might reach saturation more quickly than research that is focused on describing a process that cut across many disciplines.

The consequence of such complexity and potential variations in determine qualitative sample sizes has resulted in many researchers avoiding clearly defining what constitutes a sufficient sample size. Guest, Bunce, and Johnson (2006) suggest that
“although the idea of saturation is helpful at the conceptual level, it provides little practical guidance for estimating sample sizes for robust research prior to data collection” (p. 59). Some authors suggest that establishing appropriate sample size in qualitative research is really more of a judgement call based on the researcher’s knowledge or skill in appraising the richness of the data against the uses to which it will be put too. This position may well have arisen because there are relatively few sources that offer guidance for qualitative sample sizes. Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006) identified only seven sources which stipulated qualitative sample sizes parameters:

- Ethnography and ethnoscience: Morse (1994, p.225) 30-50 interviews for both; Bernard (2000, p.178) states that most studies are based on samples between 30-60 interviews for ethnoscience
- Grounded theory methodology: Creswell (1998, p.64) 20-30; Morse (1994, p.225) 30-50 interviews
- Phenomenology: Creswell (1998, p.64) five to 25; Morse (1994, p.225) at least six
- All research: Bertaux (1981, p.35) fifteen is the smallest acceptable

Whilst these authors have put forward these guidelines they have not presented any empirical arguments to support their recommendations. Neither is there any explanation or clearly argued rationale for different authors belief that particular methodological approaches require more or less participants that other approaches. Guest, Bunce, and Johnson (2006) identified that saturation occurred after only 12 of their 60 interviews, where as Charmaz (2006) proposes that “25 participants are adequate for smaller projects” (p. 114). Ritchie et al. (2003) suggested that qualitative sample sizes “lie under 50” (p. 84) and Green and Thorogood (2009) state that “the experience of most qualitative researchers is that in interview studies little that is ‘new’ comes out of transcripts after you have interviewed 20 or so people” (p. 120).

Accordingly, the study adopted the most recent recommendation from Green and Thorogood (2009), targeting in the first instance 20 interviews. A decision was made regarding the sample selection criteria as to which characteristics were needed to be reflected in the sample population to address the research question. The study will adopt a stratified sample of the existing adult BridgeCard membership as a mini-
reproduction of the entire membership population. Before sampling, the BridgeCard membership was divided into characteristics of importance such as gender and age as illustrated in table 4.4

Table 4. 4 BridgeCard Membership Characteristic (July 2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Groups</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16-24yrs</td>
<td>1,968</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>912</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>1,056</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34yrs</td>
<td>2,155</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>971</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>1,184</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44yrs</td>
<td>2,121</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>928</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>1,193</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54yrs</td>
<td>1,635</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>762</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>873</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64yrs</td>
<td>2,448</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>1,072</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>1,376</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65-74yrs</td>
<td>3,431</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>1,619</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>1,812</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75-89yrs</td>
<td>1,086</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>578</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>508</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90+</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|                | 15,030 | 100%| 6,943 | 46%| 8,087  | 54%|

From this analysis a stratified sample was established based on undertaking 20-interviews, as illustrated in table 4.5. Where the stratified sample revealed the need to interview 0.4 of an individual, this was rounded down and where there was a need to interview 0.6 of an individual this was rounded-up. Adult members of the Bridge card scheme were asked to participate in an interview until the age and gender quota illustrated above was fulfilled and saturation met.

Table 4. 5 BridgeCard Membership Stratified Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Groups</th>
<th>Bridge Card %</th>
<th>Planned</th>
<th>Actual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-24yrs</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34yrs</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44yrs</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54yrs</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64yrs</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65-74yrs</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75-89yrs</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90+</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.6.2 Data Collection Methods

4.6.2.1 S&PAVAL In-depth Interview Protocols

In the past most consumer value studies have focused on measuring value through the use of scales such as Likert, which has confined or restricted participants’ responses to the pre-determined options contained within the questionnaire, thus compromising the respondent’s individual perception of value. A key component of this study’s research methodology was to ask those adults who are physically active to describe their physical activity consumption experiences and what value means to them, with all its component parts, through the use of questions with no closed response answer alternatives. According to Van Manen (1997), the interview has two purposes:

i. it may be used as a means of exploring and gathering experiential narrative material that may serve as a resource for developing a richer and deeper understanding of a human phenomenon

ii. the interview may be used as a vehicle to develop a conversational relationship with a partner (interviewee) about the meaning of an experience.

(p. 66)

Individual interviews are powerful tools for understanding human beings and their ideas; they are more than a series of questions and answers. The interviews involved asking questions focused on exploring and probing the interviewees thoughts and reflections partaking in sport and physical activity, as stated by Van Manen (1997) “the art of the researcher in the hermeneutic interview is to keep the question (of the meaning of the phenomenon) open, [and] to keep himself or herself and the interviewee orientated to the substance of the thing being questioned” (p. 98).

Fontana & Frey (2000) consider the most prevalent type of interview is the verbal face-to-face of which there are three approaches a) structured, b) unstructured, and c) semi-structured or conversational. The study has chosen to use a semi-structured or conversational interview format based on a series of prepared broad questions to enable a flexibility approach to probing the studies chosen topic. Open-ended questions were used to support, stimulate and spur interviewees into reflecting, describing ideas and voicing opinions; participants will also be asked to expand upon
their answers using examples of their experiences where appropriate. Several techniques were used by the researcher to engage the interviewees including funnelling from open questions to narrower subject matter, probing to elicit further details, and supporting story-telling.

The questions (table 4.6) were designed to enable a general discussion about why interviewee exercised but also to focused on exploring the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework and were refined during three pilot interviews which highlight a number of helpful points regarding the structuring of the questions, the researcher’s technique and finally when to prompt and when not to prompt.

Table 4.6: The preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework interview questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency</td>
<td>Can you describe the reason why you exercise? Given the amount of exercise that you do, are there any downsides…? Thinking of a day/time when you have planned to exercise but in fact did not… what stopped you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Service</td>
<td>The service is keen to provide value to our customers, what does vale mean to you? Are there any aspects that are more or less important? Can you describe what a perfect visit to the Centre would be like for you? Is there anything that could make your experience better?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Value</td>
<td>Can you outline, in a typical week, what exercise you undertake? Have you always been active or is this something that has come to you in later life? Can you explain what role being physically active play in your life?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun and Enjoyment</td>
<td>Do you enjoy exercising?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Environment</td>
<td>Can you describe what a perfect visit to the Centre would be like for you? Is there anything that could make your experience better?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic value</td>
<td>How would you explain to an inactive person the benefits of exercising?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.6.3 Data Analysis
The analysis of qualitative data can be undertaken in a number of different ways, Tesch (1990) has identified as many as 27 different techniques depending upon the purpose of the research. Unlike quantitative research there is no unified set of principles, however Kent (2007) had identified both academic and practitioner based techniques as illustrated in figure 4.12. Of the techniques suggested by Kent (2007) the use of ethnography, where researchers interact and/or observe individuals in their everyday lives, and the use of semiotic where the focus is on the products of consumer culture and the signs that they give off, were discounted as being inconsistent or incompatible with the study’s design.

![Figure 4.12 Qualitative Data analysis Methods](image)

Content analysis which in its simplest form is a statistical exercise that involves counting the usage of words, phrase, themes or topics to build-up a representation of the structure of behaviour that support social interactions was discounted as it in effect creates quantitative data from qualitative material. Grounded theory aims to discover or generate theory to explain particular experiences rather than describing the meaning of that experience. Whilst it is very useful when little is known about a topic and finding abstract conceptual categories in the data through open-coding, it is not considered suitable to analysis the data from the in-depth interview which are based on the re-interpretation of Holbrook (1999) typology of consumer value.
4.6.3.1 The Hermeneutic Spiral

Instead the study chose to adopt a phenomenological approach with which to analyse and understand the meaning and essences of the subjective experiences of the interviewees. Unlike other types of qualitative research, phenomenology does not generate theory but aims to furnish insight into how individuals understand the world they live in. Phenomenology has developed into a number of strands including social phenomenology, which focuses on social and group experiences, transcendental phenomenology which emphasis individual experiences and hermeneutic phenomenology which in text (including transcript of interviews) are interpreted according to the context in which phenomena occurs (Kent, 2007).

Phenomenological analysis uses both deduction and induction logic in a process that moves forwards and backwards data and theoretical ideas through the ‘hermeneutic spiral’ as Kincheloe and McLaren (2000) describe “parts in relation to the whole and the whole in relation to the parts” (p. 286). In the seventeenth century, hermeneutics was largely associated with the interpretation of text, particularly in the context of biblical studies. In more modern times, its practice has moved beyond biblical text to interpretation of human understanding (Laverty, 2003). Therefore hermeneutic phenomenology was selected as an appropriate criterion for analysing how individuals understand the phenomenon of exercise adoption or rejection into themes, paradigms and exemplars.

The Hermeneutic Spiral (figure 4.13) guided the act of understanding and interpretation of the interview transcriptions. It allowed the research process to grow and include interpretations of others such as authors, the researcher and study participants – it will include sharing personal values, beliefs and assumptions.

![The Hermeneutic Spiral](image)

Figure 4.13 The Hermeneutic Spiral
Spiral 1 – the researcher began their journey on the hermeneutic spiral by clarifying pre-j judgements regarding the determinant of sport and physical activity participation through a) past learning, b) 20-years experience with in the leisure industry and c) through undertaking a comprehensive review of literature. The review of literature enabled an understanding of how other authors and researchers have interpreted key concepts relating to sport and physical activity and enabled the primary research question to be defined.

Spiral 2 – From the review of literature an appropriate conceptual framework was identified (based on Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) have presented an empirical adaption of Holbrook’s (1999) typology which was adapted a sport & physical activity context by the researcher own industry experience and by reference to academic experts.

Spiral 3 – Pilot Study conducted based on the adapted sport & physical activity typology of consumer value. Conversations from each of the 3-interviews were transcribed prior to the next interview. Through reading the data a deeper understanding was attained regarding the determinant of sport and physical activity participation, evidence by each of the pilot interviews taking slightly longer than the previous one as new questions and insights were added from previous interviewees.

Spiral 4 – the forth spiral involved conducting the 20 in-depth interviews. The transcripts were read and re-read in an effort to ‘hear’ what the interviewees had said, with-out interpretation or altering the meaning.

Spiral 5 – the penultimate spiral involved a fusion of participants and researcher viewpoint as key themes emerged both from the transcriptions and the statistical analysis that appeared to answer the research question. The key themes were interpreted and a variety of models were constructed to portray and explain the emergent themes.

Spiral 6 – the final spiral involved a critique of the various models proposed through submitting work from this thesis (see Publication list on page viii) to the peer review process at various conferences and journals.

4.6.4 Validity & Reliability
Any worthwhile qualitative research must also be able to withstand rigorous scrutiny to ensure quality. However, the criteria by which reliability and validity are judged in qualitative research is subject to much debate. Some researchers have argued that these concepts are not appropriate to qualitative data and instead subject concepts such as ‘believability’, ‘robustness’ and ‘relevance’ are more useful (Hamersley, 1988). In their seminal work Guba and Lincoln (1981, 1985) have argued that different standards are needed to judge the rigor of qualitative research and explicitly
offer the concept of ‘trustworthiness’ containing four test of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability as alternatives to the conventional quantitative-based tests, as in their opinion, they are better aligned with the fundamentals of qualitative research. Accordingly, the study paid a great deal of attention to the strategies necessary to underpin the reliability and validity of the qualitative strand based on Guba and Lincoln (1981, 1985) credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Credibility is an assessment of the extent to which research findings, regardless of circumstances, describe and set forth a “credible” notion or interpretation of the source data. (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 296). Transferability is the extent to which research findings can be “transferred” or generalised to different populations not with the project scope. Dependability is an evaluation regarding the how “dependable” or robust is the research design including data collection methods, the approach theory generation and data analysis. Confirmability is the degree to which the research findings are collaborated by the data collected (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The trustworthiness of this strand of the research will be ensured as detailed below:

4.6.4.1 Credibility
Credibility was achieved by ensuring that participants were able to review their interview transcriptions to verify the accuracy of what was said. In addition to this the study undertook “Member Checking” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) with 3 of the interviewee who were shown a summary of the research results and asked if they felt that the 8-identified consumption values were consistent with their own experiences.

4.6.4.2 Transferability
The study increased the extent to which the research finding could be generalised beyond the bounds of this research project by clearly documenting the research assumption and context, it is anticipated that this will allow others to assess how applicable the research finding are to other context.
4.6.4.3 Dependability
The notion of dependability stresses the need to explain or justify any change to the research context or setting. This was achieved by documenting any contextual changes that occur and how these have impacted on the study.

4.6.4.4 Confirmability
An independent review of the research methods adopted was conducted by a sufficiently qualified and capable peer (DBA supervisors) ensured that the findings were collaborated by the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 1990).

4.6.4.5 Researcher Bias
During the qualitative strand of the study, the researcher will be the data collection instrument, Patton (1990) suggested four possible ways a researcher could inadvertently sway qualitative data by imperceptible or intangible means:

- Researcher Presence – interviewees actions elicited due to the researcher’s presence
- Instrument Change – potential changes over the course of the study by the researcher
- Professional Incompetence – caused by poor preparation or a lack of adequate training
- Value Imposition – the researcher biases or values influencing the interviewees.

Research has suggested that participants can occasionally react unusually to the researcher’s presence which can influence the data collected. To avoid the risk of such a reaction Patton (1990) considers that the research should allow time for them and the participant to “get used to each other” (Patton, 1990, p. 473). This study included at the start of each interview with a brief period of relationship-building specifically designed to develop a “working alliance” between the researcher and interviewee. Meier & Davis (2000) consider that the creation of a working alliance leads to a better interaction and reduce the need for the participant to adopt an artificial role helping to build an atmosphere of trust.
Concerns about the research instrument or researcher “going native” (Patton, 1990, p. 474) and changing over the course of the research project and thus creating bias in the data usually only arises on occasions where prolonged participation is likely. In this study, the interviews occurred over of about 3-months from October 2011 to December 2011. During this time the researchers total contact time with all interviews was about 10-15hours. Thus any uneasiness about the researcher “going native” in this study was unnecessary. Furthermore, the researcher followed the interview protocol and asked the same range of question to each participant.

With reference to researcher incompetence an inexperienced unpractised or ill-training researcher can have an adverse impact of the quality of the data collected. However, the existing skill-set of the researcher was considered sufficient to facility this research process in a professional manner, thus reducing any unintended biases or influence linked to researcher competence. Finally, notwithstanding an increasing accord that “value-free interpretive research is impossible” (Denzin, 1989, p. 23), the criticism that researchers engaged in qualitative inquiry could inadvertently sway data by the imposition of their values and or belief is a common one, but one rejected by Patton (1990) who states:

“...the ways in which measures are constructed in psychological tests, questionnaires, cost-benefit indicators, and routine management information systems are no less open to the intrusion of the evaluator’s biases than making observations in the field or asking questions in interviews. Numbers do not protect against bias, they merely disguise it. All statistical data are based on someone’s definition of what to measure and how to measure it “

(p. 480)

4.7 Ethical Considerations

The UK Research Integrity Office (2009) in their ‘Code of Practise for Research: Promoting good practise and preventing misconduct’ have provided a comprehensive overview of ethical issues that researchers need to consider. The code identifies a number of interacting, interrelated and interdependent principles that represents a structure for supporting the rights of research participants. The Code suggests that the key principles of that of voluntary participation, informed consent,
confidentiality, anonymity and avoidance of harm are all critical to conducting ethical research.

Voluntary participation demands that research participants are not coerced into partaking in research; instead participation was done willingly. In a similar vein is the prerequisite of informed consent meant that prospective research participants gave their consent to participate and that this consent based on being fully aware of the research protocols and any associated risks that may result from their involvement. The participants involved in this study were informed about the background of the research area ie increasing adult participation in sport and physical activity as well as about any potential risks or harm that the study may cause.

With regard to protecting the privacy of research participant’s confidentiality and anonymity, researchers are required to assure participants that the need to collect information that identified them directly will be minimised and if it is needed it will not be shared with any person who is not directly involved with the study. This is compared to anonymity which requires that the participant be anonymous during the entire time or extent of the research process, even to the researcher. Whilst, anonymity is a more potent assurance of privacy, it can be difficult to attain in situations where participants have agreed to face-to-face interviews.

The study respected the participants’ confidentiality and anonymity by ensuring all personal information is anonymised, it will be impossible to establish the identity of any individual from the data collected either through the interview transcriptions or the questionnaire responses. In order to protect the privacy of those who participated in the study, the interviewees were only identified by the use of reference numbers along with the date of the interview. They were also sent a transcription of their interviews and asked to make any changes they felt were necessary. With regard to those active adults who completed the paper-based questionnaire, the questionnaire did not asked for any identifying information - only standard demographical data will be collected on the questionnaires eg age, gender, membership type and a 5-digit post code to prevent the house number and street name being identified. Finally, these participants were provided with boxes within which to submit their responses (see
figures 4.6 and 4.7). Furthermore, only the research and supervisor will have access to the researches raw data.

The study reduced the risk of harm by avoiding practise that involve dishonesty, deceit, breaking confidentiality, invasion of privacy, and using data for activities that have not been clearly explained to participants. Throughout the study the researcher was aware of the ethical consideration relating to conducting research within a business context. The research study received formal consent from the Sport and Physical Active Service to conduct the pilot study on BCBC employees to use BridgeCard customers.

4.8 Summary

This chapter has offered a broad and comprehensive overview of the research methodology chosen to better understand the consumption values that underpin participation in sport and physical activity. The study chose to adopt a pragmatic paradigm rejecting both the mono-methods of positivism and interpretivism. The study integrated both qualitative and quantitative approaches in order to answer the research question. Specifically the study adopted a converging parallel research design conducting research simultaneously over two phases, a qualitative strand using in-depth interview and a quantitative strand using questionnaires.

The target population was adults who are currently members of the Bridgend County Borough Council’s leisure membership scheme called the ‘BridgeCard’. This is in line with previous research regarding the measurement of consumer value the study will focus on the reflective or post-purchase evaluation of factor affecting physical active adult’s decision to engage in exercise. Data from the quantitative strand was statistically analysed using both EFA and CFA protocols to determine the interrelationships between the study’s value-measurement questionnaire and participating in sport and physical activity. The interpretation of the data from the qualitative strand will be guided by the use of the Hermeneutic Spiral to identify any emerging themes.
It was hoped that the questionnaire and interviews analysis would provide rich new data and that some new themes and insight would be gained to enable the researcher to make comments on these findings, which are analysed in chapters 5a and 5b.
Chapter 5a

Analysis of Findings - Quantitative Data
Chapter 5a: Analysis of Findings - Quantitative Data

5a.1 Introduction

The review of literature chapter outlined the varying consumer value conceptualisations and the emerging importance of both the multi-dimensional and/or experiential nature of consumer value and its potential to impact upon the existing static sport and physical activity participation levels. Following on from this, the conceptual framework chapter outlined how the theoretical framework based on Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s (2009) empirical adaption of Holbrook’s (1999) typology was operationalised including who the target audience was and how data was collected from them in order to explore further the consumption values that underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity.

After the introduction, this chapter consists of 8 further sections. Section 5a.2 explores the raw data via descriptive statistics, missing value analysis and the testing of parametric assumptions. Guided by scaling literature (Churchill, 1979) and structural equation modelling literature (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988), the next three sections outlines the steps taken to develop the S&PAVAL scale, through a reliability analysis (section 5a.3), followed by an exploratory factor analysis (section 5a.4) and confirmatory factor analysis (section 5a.4) to verify the S&PAVAL Scale’s dimensionality and to assess its psychometric properties. Thereafter, section 5a.6 overviews validity and reliability protocols, before section 5a.7 presents the final S&PAVAL scale. The penultimate section 5a.8 explores the gender, age and social economical status differences. Finally, concluding remarks are offered in
section 5a.9 which serves to reiterate the multidimensional nature of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting and the relative importance of each consumption value.

5a.2 Exploring the data

The analysis of the study’s raw data began by using SPSS v19 to exploring a range of descriptive statistics (mean, variance, kurtosis and skewness), frequency distribution data in terms of histograms and box plots. This aided familiarisation with the data, enabled the dataset to be checked for data entry errors, missing values and finally provided an early assessment of parametric data assumptions

5a.2.1 Descriptive Statistics

In terms of an ‘active adult’ profile more females (n=607, 57%) completed the survey than did men (n=451, 43%), over half the respondents (51%) were aged between 25 and 44 year old, respondents also came from an even spread of social economic backgrounds with the exception of C1 supervisory category as shown in tables 5a.1, 5a.2 and 5a.3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15-19yrs</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44yrs</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49yrs</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-59yrs</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-64yrs</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70-74yrs</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80-84yrs</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85-89yrs</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1058</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Status</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[A] Higher Managerial</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[B] Intermediate Managerial</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[C1] Supervisory</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[C2] Skilled Manual</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[D] Semi/low Skilled Manual</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[E] Low, OAP &amp; Students</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Stated</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1058</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Furthermore, 95% of the active adults indicated that they were of ‘white British origin, whilst 60% considered themselves to have a religious belief, predominately that of Christianity (57%) and a further 38% considered themselves to be an atheist. Only 7% of respondents considered they had a disability of which mobility (4%) was the most frequently stated. Finally, with regard to their Bridgecard membership category, 33% indicated that they did not have any form of membership and 40% said that they had an ‘all-in-one’ card, although this is not representative of the 15,000 adult Bridgecard members (as at 1st July 2011).

5a.2.2 Missing Value Analysis
The accuracy of estimations are affect by the occurrence of missing data due to an increase in variance which reduces the statistical inference power (Fichman and Cumming, 2003), therefore the way in which missing data is identified and dealt with is important. The impact of the missing values for the scale items was not considered an important issue as all items had less than 10% of values missing (Roth and Switzer, 1995). Missing data can be viewed as either missing completely at random (MCAR), missing at random (MAR) or not missing at random (NMAR). Little’s (1998) MCAR test indicated that the study’s data are not missing completely at random as p=0.00 which is below the required significance value of less than 0.05 (Little, 1998). There are a number of different ways in which missing data can be dealt with in order to maximise the statistical inference power with a common approach being listwise deletion which omits those cases with missing data and the analyses is conducted on what data remains (Pallant, 2010). Whilst listwise deletion

Table 5a. 3 Active Adults Membership Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Membership Type</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All-in-One</td>
<td>420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timezone</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relax &amp; Splash</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swim60</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GP Referral</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access-to-Leisure</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Booking Card</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay &amp; Play</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1058</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
often results in a sizable decrease in the sample size available it does have important advantages for the analysis, under the assumption that data are MCAR, as it produces unbiased parameter estimates. Unfortunately, even when the data are MCAR, which is not the case with the study’s data, there is a loss in statistical power when using a listwise deletion approach.

An alternative approach is to replace data pairwise, where each element of the inter-correlation matrix is estimated using all available data. Whilst Pallant (2010) recommends the use of pairwise deletion unless there is reason not to, it also requires the data to be MCAR (Hair et al., 1998). However, given that Little’s (1998) MCAR test revealed that the data was not MCAR this presented some misgivings regarding using either the listwise or pairwise approaches. Therefore the expectation maximisation algorithm (EM) (Dempster et al., 1997) was chosen as the most suitable method over other missing value protocols primarily because it does not require MCAR data (Little and Rubin, 1987) and it was considered to be particularly suitable for non normal data whilst still being able to provided means variance and covariance estimation with low levels of bias (Brown, 1994). Accordingly, missing data was replaced using the EM algorithm to create a complete data set upon which all subsequent analysis was conducted. A post EM comparison of the affect of this imputation indicated only marginal changes to the items estimated means and standard deviation.

5a.2.3 Parametric Data – testing assumptions

It is accepted that both EFA and CFA are based on parametric data (Field, 2005) and therefore it was necessary to conduct a number of tests to assess the parametric data assumptions. The normality assumption for each question or item was initially tested with reference to an inspection of the both the histograms and the Skewness and Kurtosis values which gave an early indication that the data was not normally distributed. Perfectly distributed data would result in Skewness and Kurtosis values of 0 which is an uncommon occurrence in the social sciences (Pallet, 2010). The data demonstrated negative Skewness values indicating a clustering of scores at the high or strongly agree end of the 7-point Likert scale. Tabachnick & Fidell (2007) consider that with large samples sizes (200+) skewness would not “make a
substantive difference in the analysis” (p. 80). However, results from the Kurtosis analysis was slight more mixed with 56 items demonstrating positive values indicating a clustering in the middle of the graph, however negative values, which occurred on 12-items, would tend suggest there are too many cases in the extremes.

The general rule of thumb is that if skewness and kurtosis are in excess of ± 1.96 this indicates a violation of normality and the data is not normally distributed (Hair et al., 1988). Table 5a.4 provides data from the skewness analysis which indicated that 13-items marginally exceeded this rule and 24 items were outside ± 1.96 the parameters in terms of the kurtosis analysis, giving an early indicates that the data was not normally distributed but instead appeared to moderately deviate from normality in 3 of the factors QSE, EFB and AV.

### Table 5a.4 Skewness and Kurtosis Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Std E</td>
<td>Std E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE1</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>1.118</td>
<td>-1.472</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE2</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>1.077</td>
<td>-1.860</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE3</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.31</td>
<td>1.045</td>
<td>-2.093</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE4</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.16</td>
<td>1.130</td>
<td>-1.686</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE5</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.31</td>
<td>1.023</td>
<td>-2.011</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE6</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.19</td>
<td>1.128</td>
<td>-1.801</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE7</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.38</td>
<td>.989</td>
<td>-2.345</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE8</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>1.138</td>
<td>-2.016</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB1</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.62</td>
<td>.801</td>
<td>-3.242</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB2</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.51</td>
<td>.884</td>
<td>-2.556</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB3</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.43</td>
<td>.947</td>
<td>-2.311</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB4</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.49</td>
<td>.895</td>
<td>-2.681</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB5</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>1.018</td>
<td>-2.042</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB6</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.06</td>
<td>1.222</td>
<td>-1.656</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB7</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.14</td>
<td>1.183</td>
<td>-1.631</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB8</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.13</td>
<td>1.112</td>
<td>-1.586</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB9</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.16</td>
<td>1.118</td>
<td>-1.668</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB10</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>1.292</td>
<td>-1.581</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB11</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>1.165</td>
<td>-1.814</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB15</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.39</td>
<td>.977</td>
<td>-2.064</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV1</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.45</td>
<td>.911</td>
<td>-2.353</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV2</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>1.213</td>
<td>-2.080</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV4</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.38</td>
<td>.971</td>
<td>-2.136</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV6</td>
<td>1058</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.10</td>
<td>1.274</td>
<td>-1.798</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However as the ± 1.96 technique can be considered subjective it was supplemented by the use of two statistical tests a) the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and b) the Shaprio-Wilk (S-W) test. It was considered appropriate to use both the K-S and S-W to overcome Barnes (2001) concerns that the K-S test is a less powerful test of
normality than the S-W and because the S-W test is also considered to be more accurate (Field, 2005), for both tests all items were significant (p<0.000) indicating that the scale items did not follow a normal distribution pattern, although an examination of the Normal Q-Q plots for the 68-items indicated that the observed (actual) values were closely aligned to the normal (expected) values.

Although the scale items demonstrated a marginal deviation from normally this was not unexpected, firstly as Cudeck (2001) states “virtually no variable follows a normal distribution” (p. 80) and Bentler and Yuan (1999) state “real data sets in practise seldom follow normal distribution” (p. 184). Furthermore, Malthouse (2001) and other have indicated that it is unusual for data sets that arise from a Likert scales to be normally distributed (Nunally, 1978) and finally because Field (2005) considered it is not unusual in large samples to obtain significant results ie 200+ (Hair et al., 1998) when only small deviations exist. Furthermore, Gorsuch (1983) considers that both EFA and CFA are relatively robust against violation of normality. Furthermore, both EFA and CFA are an interval based statistical technique, whilst a Likert scale is technically an ordinal scale. However, Kennedy et al.’s (1996) has demonstrated that whilst the psychological distances on a Likert scale are not equal they are very close. Therefore, in accordance with other marketing researchers such as Aaker et al. (2004) and Hair et al. (2006) the scale was considered to be interval and suitable for EFC and CFA (De Vellis, 1991).

5a.3 Scale Reliability

An assessment of the reliability of the S&PAVAL scale was undertaken to indicate the degree to which it was free from random error. As the study is adopting multi-scale measurement instrument where responses are anchored between strongly agree and strongly disagree, there are a number of methods for measuring a scales internal consistency. It was considered appropriate to use SPSS v19 to undertake a comprehensive analysis of scale reliability of which 4 key tests were considered in detail. Firstly Cronbach’s $\alpha$ coefficient, which helps to determine if it is justifiable to interpret the items that have been aggregated together was assessed. Nunnally (1978) recommends a minimum level or 0.7 and De Vellis (2003) suggests that
ideally the $\alpha$ coefficient of the scale should be above 0.7, however, values of above 0.8 are preferable. However, exceeding 0.9 (DeVellis, 1991; Netemeyer et al., 2003) is potentially an indication of item redundancy within the subscale. Secondly, the ‘inter-item correlation matrix’ was also checked for positive correlations as this indicated that each item is measuring the same underlying construct (Pallant, 2010).

Thirdly, the ‘item-total correlation’ was checked for low values or less than 0.3 (Pallant, 2010), as an indication of the correlation between the item and the composite score of all the other remaining items. Finally, ‘Cronbach’s $\alpha$ if Item Deleted’ scores were reviewed with regard to assessing the impact of removing each item from the scale by comparing the ‘deleted value’ with the scales original value. These analyses were conducted for each of the seven sub scales in an attempt to purify the measure and removed any rogue items.

With regard to the Quality of Service Excellence (QSE) subscale, a Cronbach $\alpha$ coefficient of .960 was returned which indicated a very good internal consistency/reliability as indicated in table 5a.5.

**Table 5a. 5 Quality & Service Excellence: Item-Total Statistics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>QSE1</td>
<td>43.85</td>
<td>44.423</td>
<td>.860</td>
<td>.953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE2</td>
<td>43.70</td>
<td>44.631</td>
<td>.883</td>
<td>.952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE3</td>
<td>43.64</td>
<td>44.742</td>
<td>.906</td>
<td>.951</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE4</td>
<td>43.80</td>
<td>45.844</td>
<td>.893</td>
<td>.951</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE5</td>
<td>43.65</td>
<td>45.095</td>
<td>.899</td>
<td>.951</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE6</td>
<td>43.77</td>
<td>43.896</td>
<td>.891</td>
<td>.951</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE7</td>
<td>43.58</td>
<td>46.763</td>
<td>.794</td>
<td>.957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE8</td>
<td>43.72</td>
<td>46.907</td>
<td>.660</td>
<td>.966</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.960$

The inter-item correlation matrix indicated only positive correlations which suggested that each item is measuring the same underlying construct and the corrected item-total correlation was above the recommended 0.3 level. However, the Cronbach’s $\alpha$ if Item Deleted score for item QSE8 indicated that despite have a good item-total correlation of 0.660, if it were deleted Cronbach’s $\alpha$ would increase marginally by 0.006 from 0.960 to 0.966.
With regard to the Efficiency – Benefits (EFB) sub scale, a Cronbach $\alpha$ coefficient of 0.901 was returned suggesting a good internal consistency/reliability as indicated in table 5a.6. The inter-item correlation matrix also indicated that 14-items had positive correlations, however 1-item EFB13 ‘I hate exercising but I know it’s good for me’ had a negative value which suggested that item EFB13 maybe measuring a different underlying construct. Once again for all items the corrected item-total correlation was above the recommend 0.3 level, with the exception of EFB13 at 0.105. Finally, Cronbach’s $\alpha$ if Item Deleted scores were reviewed to assess the impact of removing item EFB13 from the scale by comparing its value with the original $\alpha$ obtained which indicated that it would increase by 0.03 from 0.901 to 0.932 if it were deleted from the scale.

### Table 5a. 6 Efficiency Benefit: Item – Total Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EFB1</td>
<td>83.69</td>
<td>137.905</td>
<td>.623</td>
<td>.895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB2</td>
<td>83.80</td>
<td>136.066</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td>.893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB3</td>
<td>83.88</td>
<td>133.576</td>
<td>.723</td>
<td>.891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB4</td>
<td>83.82</td>
<td>134.679</td>
<td>.713</td>
<td>.892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB5</td>
<td>83.99</td>
<td>131.305</td>
<td>.769</td>
<td>.889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB6</td>
<td>84.25</td>
<td>129.946</td>
<td>.676</td>
<td>.891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB7</td>
<td>84.17</td>
<td>130.257</td>
<td>.689</td>
<td>.890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB8</td>
<td>84.18</td>
<td>130.788</td>
<td>.717</td>
<td>.890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB9</td>
<td>84.46</td>
<td>125.564</td>
<td>.742</td>
<td>.887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB10</td>
<td>84.15</td>
<td>130.089</td>
<td>.743</td>
<td>.889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB11</td>
<td>84.37</td>
<td>128.802</td>
<td>.676</td>
<td>.890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB12</td>
<td>84.71</td>
<td>131.347</td>
<td>.461</td>
<td>.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB13</td>
<td>86.17</td>
<td>139.603</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>.931</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB14</td>
<td>84.55</td>
<td>127.420</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td>.891</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB15</td>
<td>84.16</td>
<td>130.294</td>
<td>.700</td>
<td>.890</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.901$

With regard to Efficiency – Costs (EFC) subscale a Cronbach’s $\alpha$ coefficient of .853 was returned suggesting a satisfactory internal consistency/reliability for the sub-scale as indicated in table 5a.7. The inter-item correlation matrix indicated that all items were positive with the exception of EFC7. However, the occurrence of negative values associated with item EFC7 ‘The price charge for the Centre’s activities is high’ suggested that this item needed further examination and was possibly a negatively worded question which needed ‘reversing’. However, contrasting the wording of EFC7 with EFC1 (‘the Centre’s activities are reasonable
Table 5a. 7 Efficiency - Costs: Item –Total Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item- Total Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EFC1</td>
<td>47.73</td>
<td>70.866</td>
<td>.749</td>
<td>.824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC2</td>
<td>47.60</td>
<td>71.206</td>
<td>.783</td>
<td>.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC3</td>
<td>47.74</td>
<td>69.596</td>
<td>.777</td>
<td>.821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC4</td>
<td>47.71</td>
<td>69.554</td>
<td>.810</td>
<td>.818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC5</td>
<td>47.69</td>
<td>69.460</td>
<td>.787</td>
<td>.820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC6</td>
<td>49.11</td>
<td>72.021</td>
<td>.370</td>
<td>.868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC7</td>
<td>49.49</td>
<td>87.427</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC8</td>
<td>47.55</td>
<td>74.126</td>
<td>.631</td>
<td>.834</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC9</td>
<td>47.31</td>
<td>76.783</td>
<td>.599</td>
<td>.838</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC10</td>
<td>47.45</td>
<td>73.216</td>
<td>.731</td>
<td>.828</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cronbach’s α = 0.853

prices’) both appeared to be worded in a positive direction where high scores indicate high agreement, therefore EFC7 was not reversed. Once again for the other 9-items the corrected item-total correlation was above the recommend 0.3 level, with the exceptions of EFC7 at -0.053. Finally, Cronbach’s α if Item Deleted scores was reviewed to assess the impact of removing item EFC7 from the scale by comparing its value with the original α obtained which indicated that it would increase by .053 from .853 to .906 if it were deleted from the scale.

With regard to the Social Value (SV) subscale, a Cronbach α coefficient of .933 was returned suggesting a very good internal consistency/reliability for the sub-scale as indicated in table 5a.8.

Table 5a. 8 Social Value: Item-Total Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item- Total Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SV1</td>
<td>23.13</td>
<td>62.744</td>
<td>.850</td>
<td>.914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV2</td>
<td>23.12</td>
<td>62.081</td>
<td>.892</td>
<td>.908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV3</td>
<td>23.02</td>
<td>63.477</td>
<td>.853</td>
<td>.914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV4</td>
<td>23.37</td>
<td>61.301</td>
<td>.888</td>
<td>.908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV5</td>
<td>22.45</td>
<td>75.557</td>
<td>.543</td>
<td>.949</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV6</td>
<td>22.98</td>
<td>64.431</td>
<td>.785</td>
<td>.922</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cronbach’s α = 0.933

The inter-item correlation matrix was also checked for positive only correlations. The corrected item-total correlation was above the recommended 0.3 level. However, the Cronbach’s α if Item Deleted scores indicated that item SV5, despite having a
good item-total correlation of .543, if it were deleted the scales overall Cronbach’s $\alpha$ would increase marginally by 0.016 from .933 to .949 (table 4a.2).

With regard to the Fun & Enjoyment (PE) subscale, a Cronbach $\alpha$ coefficient of .926 was returned which suggested a very good internal consistency/reliability for the sub-scale as indicated in table 5a.9.

Table 5a. 9 Fun & Enjoyment Item-Total Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach's $\alpha$ if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PE1</td>
<td>32.15</td>
<td>69.981</td>
<td>.802</td>
<td>.911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE2</td>
<td>32.46</td>
<td>57.961</td>
<td>.864</td>
<td>.904</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE3</td>
<td>32.79</td>
<td>56.436</td>
<td>.845</td>
<td>.906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE4</td>
<td>32.53</td>
<td>57.960</td>
<td>.849</td>
<td>.906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE5</td>
<td>32.36</td>
<td>60.047</td>
<td>.755</td>
<td>.915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE6</td>
<td>32.38</td>
<td>62.711</td>
<td>.614</td>
<td>.929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE7</td>
<td>32.32</td>
<td>62.877</td>
<td>.644</td>
<td>.926</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.926$

The inter-item correlation matrix was also checked for positive correlations to evidence that each item was measuring the same underlying construct. The corrected item-total correlations were above the recommended level. However, the Cronbach’s $\alpha$ if Item Deleted scores indicated that for item PE6, despite having a good item-total correlation of .614, if it were deleted the scales overall Cronbach’s $\alpha$ would increase by .003 from 0.926 to 0.929.

With regard to the Aesthetic (A) sub scale, a Cronbach $\alpha$ coefficient of .958 was returned which suggested a very good internal consistency/reliability for the sub-scale as indicated in table 5a.10. The inter-item correlation matrix was also checked for positive only correlations. The corrected item-total correlations were also checked for the recommended level. However, the Cronbach’s $\alpha$ if Item Deleted scores indicated that despite having a good item-total correlation of .585, if item A3 were deleted the scales overall Cronbach’s $\alpha$ would increase marginally by 0.001 from .958 to .959.
Table 5a. 10 Aesthetic: Item –Total Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>82.69</td>
<td>272.071</td>
<td>.602</td>
<td>.958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>82.55</td>
<td>270.264</td>
<td>.703</td>
<td>.956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>82.57</td>
<td>274.554</td>
<td>.585</td>
<td>.959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>82.41</td>
<td>270.352</td>
<td>.766</td>
<td>.955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5</td>
<td>82.03</td>
<td>275.041</td>
<td>.788</td>
<td>.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6</td>
<td>82.11</td>
<td>274.076</td>
<td>.790</td>
<td>.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>82.16</td>
<td>271.717</td>
<td>.808</td>
<td>.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A8</td>
<td>82.09</td>
<td>271.642</td>
<td>.815</td>
<td>.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A9</td>
<td>81.97</td>
<td>275.803</td>
<td>.740</td>
<td>.955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A10</td>
<td>82.00</td>
<td>273.919</td>
<td>.799</td>
<td>.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A11</td>
<td>82.80</td>
<td>264.737</td>
<td>.747</td>
<td>.955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A12</td>
<td>82.23</td>
<td>270.996</td>
<td>.815</td>
<td>.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A13</td>
<td>82.14</td>
<td>272.443</td>
<td>.807</td>
<td>.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A14</td>
<td>82.06</td>
<td>273.505</td>
<td>.817</td>
<td>.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A15</td>
<td>82.14</td>
<td>271.900</td>
<td>.796</td>
<td>.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A16</td>
<td>82.39</td>
<td>269.263</td>
<td>.764</td>
<td>.955</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cronbach’s α = 0.958

With regard to the Altruistic Value (AV) subscale, a Cronbach α coefficient of 0.861 suggested a very good internal consistency/reliability for the sub-scale as indicated in table 5a.11.

Table 5a. 11 Altruistic Value: Item-Total Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AV1</td>
<td>30.59</td>
<td>23.813</td>
<td>.677</td>
<td>.837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV2</td>
<td>30.53</td>
<td>23.911</td>
<td>.728</td>
<td>.832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV3</td>
<td>30.77</td>
<td>22.139</td>
<td>.668</td>
<td>.835</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV4</td>
<td>30.60</td>
<td>22.863</td>
<td>.800</td>
<td>.819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV5</td>
<td>31.53</td>
<td>19.945</td>
<td>.535</td>
<td>.885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV6</td>
<td>30.88</td>
<td>21.067</td>
<td>.730</td>
<td>.823</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cronbach’s α = 0.861

The inter-item correlation matrix was also checked for positive correlations to ensure that each item was measuring the same underlying construct. The corrected item-total correlations were above the recommended 0.3 level. However, the Cronbach’s α if Item Deleted scores indicated that for item AV5, despite having a good item-total correlation of .535, if it were deleted the scales overall Cronbach’s α would increase by 0.024 from 0.861 to 0.885.

Removing problematic items, such as those that are low-loading, crossloading or are
freestanding, and re-running the analysis can sometimes resolve problems. However
the researcher has to carefully consider if doing so reduces the quality and integrity
of the data, Table 5a.12 summaries the items which reported outside the
recommended parameters, along with the study’s decision as to whether to retain or
reject the item from further analysis.

Table 5a. 12 S&PAVAL Scale: Retain/Reject Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>Retain/Reject</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>QSE8</td>
<td>.660</td>
<td>.960</td>
<td>.966</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>Retain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB13</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>.901</td>
<td>.931</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC6</td>
<td>.370</td>
<td>.853</td>
<td>.868</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC7</td>
<td>-.053</td>
<td>.853</td>
<td>.905</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV5</td>
<td>.543</td>
<td>.933</td>
<td>.949</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE6</td>
<td>.614</td>
<td>.926</td>
<td>.929</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>Retain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>.585</td>
<td>.958</td>
<td>.958</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>Retain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV5</td>
<td>.535</td>
<td>.861</td>
<td>.885</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Items QSE8, PE6 and A3 were of concerns because the results indicated that the
Cronbach’s α of their respective scales would increase if they were deleted.
However, the marginal nature of the α increase for these items and the fact that all
four items had strong corrected item-total correlation underpinned the study’s
decision to retain all these items for further analysis. Upon closer examination of
EFB13 it was considered that the question ‘I hate exercising but I know it’s good for
me’ was poorly worded, asking respondents to comment on two issues in the same
answer ie do they hate exercise and is it good for them. This confusion undoubtedly
led to a poor correct item-total correlation of only 0.105, below Pallent (2010)
recommendation. With regard to item EFC 7 (‘the price charged for the Centre’s
activity is high’) it had a negative inter-total correlation on -.053 but was positively
worded and did not require reversing, therefore item EFC7 was removed from the
scale and the subsequent analysis. Consequently, both items EFB13 and EFC7 were
removed from the scale and the subsequent analysis. For items EFC6 (‘The price was
the main factor affecting my decision’), SV5 (‘Many people that I know also
exercise’) and AV5 (‘I want to be fit, active and healthy to avoid unnecessary cost to
the Health Service’) the size of the α increase were all above 0.010 and for this
reason were removed from the scale and any subsequent analysis. Therefore, 63-
items of the S&PAVAL scale were subjected to an exploratory factor analysis.
5a.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA).

Undertaking an EFA is a complex procedure with few absolute guidelines and many options, therefore the analysis was guided by Rietvel & Van Hout (1993, p.291) flow diagram which outlines the necessary steps to successfully carryout a factor analysis and is illustrated in figure 5a.1.

Figure 5a. 1 Rietvel & Van Hout (1993) EFA Flow Diagram
5a.4.1 Reliability Measurements

Scale reliability estimates were obtained, as outline above, before conducting the EFA to avoid conducting the analysis on unreliable items and identifying conceptually irrelevant dimensions (Churchill, 1979), this resulted in 63-items of the S&PAVAL being subjected to an EFA using SPSS v19 to obtain early construct dimensionality estimates. Accordingly, before undertaking the EFA the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed by considering the data-set sample size. Whilst there is little agreement within the literature regarding how large a sample should be, the general consensus is ‘the larger the better’ as factors obtained from small data set do not generalise as well as those derived from larger samples. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest that “it is comforting to have at least 300 cases for factors analysis” (p. 613).

Other authors suggest that the ratio of participants to items is more important than the overall sample size with Field (2000) recommendng that “you should have at least 10-15 subject per variable” (p. 443) and Nunnally (1978) stating a 10:1 ratio requiring 10 cases for each item to be factor analysed. The size of the studies data-set (n= 1058) was consider sufficient for factor analysis as it exceeded Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) comfort zone of 300 cases, and has a 16.8 case to item ratio satisfy both Nunnally (1978) and Field (2000) respectively.

Two additional statistical measures were used to check the suitability of the data set for factor analysis, firstly Bartlett’ test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) which should be significant, in other words greater than 0.000001 and secondly the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser 1970, 1974). Where the KMO value exceeds the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser 1970, 1974) and where the Bartlett Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) is statistical significance, this supports the factorability of the data-set. The results of the KMO and Bartletts’s Test of Sphericity are shown in Table 5a.13 which indicates that the data satisfy’s the requirements for factor analysis with a high KMO value of 0.955 for the data which Kaiser (1974) would considered “meritorious”.

184
Table 5a. 13KMO and Bartlett’s Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.</th>
<th>955</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity</td>
<td>60645.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Df</td>
<td>1596</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity indicated a high significance level (0.000) and provides adequate assurance that the data was suitable for factor analysis.

5a.4.2 Correlation Matrix

The data was further assessed in terms of the strength of the relationship among the variables by examining the correlation matrix for evidence of clusters of variables that may be “manifestation of the same underlying variable” (Rietveld & Van Hout 1993, p. 255). Whilst, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) recommend an inspection of the correlation matrix for evidence of co-efficient greater than 0.3, suggesting that if few correlations above this level are found a factor analysis may not be appropriate. Other authors recommend deleting items that have a consistently low (<.2) correlation with at least fifteen other items (Davies et al., 2004; Walsh and Beatty, 2007), this resulted in two items EFB12 and SV4 being deleted from their respective scales. To avoid multicollinearity Field (2005) suggest using either the R-Matrix Determinant or to delete those items which have correlation above 0.9 (Davies et al., 2004; Field, 2005), an inspection of the correlation matrix indicated that all correlation were below 0.9.

5a.4.3 Factor Analysis Protocol

Statistical data reduction has traditionally used methods such as common factor analysis and principle component analysis (PCA), both are multivariate techniques and are widely used in the social and behavioural sciences; however they are not the same thing. A common factor analysis aims to extract as many latent variables (factors) as necessary to explain the correlations (common variances). In common factor analysis the factor identified are viewed as the hypothetical causes that account for the item correlation, which is different to PCA which creates summaries
of the observed variables and is best conceived as the effects rather than the causes of the item correlations (Reise, Waller and Comrey 2000). According to Field (2000) the choice between a common factory analysis and PCA is hotly debated but on balance considered that “the solutions generated from principle component analysis differ little from those derived from factor analysis techniques” (p. 434). Similarly Goldberg and Digman (1994) consider that it make no difference if the data is well structured, whether a common factory analysis or PCA is used. However, Widaman (1993) research suggests in circumstances where measured items (variables) have low communality and the factors or components has weak loading this can result markedly different results. Rietveld & Van Hout (1993) considered the difference between common factor analysis and PCA is very important when interpreting the factor loadings, stating “although the loading patterns of the factors extracted by the two methods do not differ substantially, their respective amounts of explained variances do!” (p. 372). DeCoster (1998) suggest that an factor analysis should be used when the research is focused on making statement about the factors that are responsible for a set of observed responses and that a PCA should be used when the research is interested in performing data reduction. However, PCA a data reduction method which is computed without regard to any underlying structure caused by latent variables (Ford et al., 1986). Floyd & Widaman (1995) suggest that in reality researchers rarely collect and analyze data without an a priori idea about how the variables are related and it is the aim of a factor analysis to reveal whether any of these latent variables cause the manifest variables to co-vary. Accordingly, the study adopted a common factor analysis deeming it to be preferable to a principal components analysis.

5a.4.5 Factor Extraction Technique

Within the SPSS v19 package there are six factor analysis extraction methods to choose from: unweighted least squares, generalised least squares, maximum likelihood, principal axis factoring, alpha factoring, and image factoring. Costello and Osborne (2005) indicated in their compilation of ‘best practises’ that information on the relative advantage and disadvantages of these techniques is scarce and poorly referenced. Furthermore, they lament a general confusion regarding the terminology used, suggesting that it is often hard to clearly understand which method a textbook
or journal article author is describing. Costello and Osborne (2005) imply that such unintelligibility underlies the popularity of principal components analysis as it is often the default setting of many statistically packages such as SPSS. Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum and Strahan (1999) have argued that the maximum likelihood method is the best choice if the data are relatively normally distributed, because “it allows for the computation of a wide range of indexes of the goodness of fit of the model [and] permits statistical significance testing of factor loadings and correlations among factors and the computation of confidence intervals.” (p. 277). However, if the multivariate normality is “severely violated” they recommend the usage of the principle axis factors method. Similarly, Costello and Osborne (2005) also recommend that a principle axis factors will provide the best results if the data is non-normal, accordingly a principle axis factor extraction method to account for the non normal data (Fabrigar et al., 1999; Costelloe and Osborune, 2005).

5a.4.6 Number of Factors to be Retained Rationale
Authors have commented upon the significance of having a clear rationale regarding how many factors to retain (Fabrigar et al., 1999; Resie, Waller and Comrey, 2000; Hayton, Allen and Scarpello, 2004) as both over-extraction and under-extraction of factors retained for rotation can significantly alter the solution and the interpretations of results. Hayton et al. (2004) considered that the usefulness of any factory analysis depends upon identifying important factors from trivial ones and therefore a balance needs to be struck between ‘reducing’ and ‘representing’ the correlations that occur in a groups of variables. Zwick & Velicer (1986) considers that under-extraction can lead to the loss of relevant information and distortion of the solution, whereas over-extraction can lead to factors with few substantial loadings which can be difficult to interpret.

The K1 is one of the best known and most used methods which retains all factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 for interpretation (Kaiser, 1960) and is the default position in SPSS v19. However, there is broad consensus in the literature that this is among the least accurate methods for selecting the number of factors to retain (Velicer & Jackson, 1990; Fabrigar et al., 1999). Fabrigar et al. (1999) have highlighted three concerns with the K1 approach namely that its logic is based on
PCA rather than on factor analysis, secondly they consider that adherence to 1.0 can lead to arbitrary decisions such rejecting .99 as ‘trivial’ and accepting 1.01 and ‘major’ and finally when K1 has been compared with various simulation studies this has demonstrated considerable over-estimations of factors as well as the occasional under-estimation (Zwick & Velicer, 1986).

Two alternate tests for factor retention were considered - Cattell’s Scree test and Horn’s parallel analysis. Cattell’s Scree test (Cattell, 1966) involves the visual interpretation of a graphical representation of the eigenvalues. The eigenvalues are linked with a line, presented in a descending order and requires looking for the ‘natural bend’ or ‘break point’ where the curve flattens out, with the objective being to locate a ‘break’ or ‘elbow’ which determines the number of factors to be retained. The subjective nature of this method has been criticised by Zwick and Velicer (1986), typical concerns relate to the fact that the graph can be difficult to interpret and the fact that it can be unclear if there are data points clustered together near the ‘break’ or ‘elbow. Furthermore, in their review of how Scree tests have been interpreted in by educational examiners, Zwick and Velicer (1986) found that the results varied depending upon the level of training and the complexity of the solution. Horn (1965) proposed the use of Parallel Analysis (PA) to determine the number of factors to be retained based on comparison of the observed eigenvalues extracted from the correlation matrix and those obtained from uncorrelated normal variables, utilising a Monte Carol simulation process. A factor is considered significant if the associated eigenvalue is bigger than the simulated eigenvalue. Various authors such as Zwick and Velicer (1986) have supported PA as a more accurate method, when compared to other such as K1 and Scree test, as it shows the least variability and sensitivity to different factors. Whilst others are in agreement in considering PA the best available method for robustly establishing the number of fact to retain and that there is consensus that PA provides an appropriate rule for factor selection (Glorfeld, 1995; Thompson and Daniel, 1996), it is not commonly available as an analysis option on the most commonly used statistical software packages and was not an option on SPSS v19, and therefore not used.

Multiple considerations, subsequent factor analysis and numerous test runs impacted upon the final number of factors retained. Firstly, K1 was used to retain all factors
with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 for interpretation (Kaiser, 1960). Whilst K1 has been subject to criticism for over-estimating factors (Zwick & Velicer, 1986), it is considered acceptable when the number of items exceeds 50 (Hair et al., 1998). Using the K1 criteria resulted in factors with eigenvalues of > 1 being excluded, which revealed the presences of 8 factors which explained 69.0% of the variance as illustrated in table 5a.14. This was considered adequate to represent that data as it is only marginal below the 75% acceptable total variance criteria (Tucker and MacCullun, 1997).

Table 5a. 14 Total Variance Explained

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
<th>Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total % of Variance</td>
<td>Cumulative %</td>
<td>Total % of Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>20.255</td>
<td>35.535</td>
<td>35.535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.932</td>
<td>6.898</td>
<td>53.609</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.206</td>
<td>5.624</td>
<td>59.234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.783</td>
<td>4.882</td>
<td>64.116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.847</td>
<td>3.241</td>
<td>67.357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.773</td>
<td>3.111</td>
<td>70.467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.393</td>
<td>2.445</td>
<td>72.912</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring

Acknowledging that K1 tends to produce too many factors, it was supplemented by use of Cattell’s Scree test (Cattell, 1966) to produce a visual interpretation of a graphical representation of the eigenvalues and assisted in locating the ‘break’ or ‘elbow’ at the 8th factor (figure 5a.2).

The generally accepted factor loading parameter of 0.3 or above was set to assist the interpretation of the data (Hair et al., 1998; Nunally, 1978). Consideration was also given to adopting the more stringent 0.5 parameter to avoid items with smaller loading failing to be taken serious if they failed to load significantly on any factor (Harman, 1976). However, it was considered preferable to retain as many items at the exploratory stage and removed them at a later stage if they appear to have an adverse affect on the scale psychometric properties. Furthermore, all items that cross
loaded were deleted, all factors were required to have at least two or more items (Hair et al., 1988) and the final factor needed to have at least three items (Ding et al., 1995) in order to be retained in the final factor solution.

5a.4.7 Rotation
The purpose of rotating the variables is to clarify and simplify the data structure; it is not a method of improving the basic aspects of the analysis, such as the amount of variance extracted from the items (Netemeyer et al., 2003). As with extraction methods SPSS v19 offers a variety of choices which are split into categories of orthogonal (varimax, quartimax, and equamax) and oblique (direct oblimin, quartimin, and promax). Orthogonal rotations produce factors that are uncorrelated (independent) whereas oblique methods allow the factors to correlate (related). Field (2000) states “the choice of rotation depends on whether there is a good theoretical reason to suppose that the factors should be related or independent” (p. 439). Given the nature of the study it was expected that some correlation among factors would occur as consumer behaviour and opinions are rarely independently of one another (Loo, 1979). Therefore it was considered that using an orthogonal rotation may results in a loss of valuable information if the factors were indeed correlated. It was hoped that adopting an oblique rotation should result in a more accurate, and perhaps
more reproducible, solution. Indeed, Gerbing and Anderson (1988) advocate the use of oblique methods “because it more accurately reflects the underlying structure of the data than the provided by the more restrictive orthogonal solutions” (p. 189). Fabrigar et al. (1999) have argued that there is no widely preferred method of oblique rotation; all tend to produce similar results. However, the literature would suggest that the most commonly used oblique technique is the direct oblimin (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007) which produces a pattern matrix used to interpret the factors. Accordingly, the study adopted a direct obliminal rotation approach.

5a.4.8 Results & Interpretation
The final factor solution is illustrated in table 5a.15. Cronbach’s alpha (α) was used to determine if it was justifiable to interpret the items that had been aggregated together to comprise the eight factors. On all factors α ranged from .960 to .853 which is within acceptable internal consistency of as Nunnally (1978) recommends a minimum level of .7, and De Vellis (2003) suggests that values of above .8 are preferable. The 8 factors identified were relatively easy to interpret as they were consistent with and would appear to be an extension of previous research, specifically Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) adaption of Holbrook’s (1999) typology of consumer value:

Factor 1 = Benefits of exercise
Factor 2 = Physical Environment – surrounding
Factor 3 = Social Value
Factor 4 = Costs of exercise
Factor 5 = Quality Service Experience
Factor 6 = Altruistic Value
Factor 7 = Fun & Enjoyment
Factor 8 = Physical Environment – ambiance
### Table 5a. 15 S&PAVAL Exploratory Factor Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>F1</th>
<th>F2</th>
<th>F3</th>
<th>F4</th>
<th>F5</th>
<th>F6</th>
<th>F7</th>
<th>F8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EFB 5 Exercising improves my mental outlook</td>
<td>.840</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 4 Exercising makes me feel good</td>
<td>.796</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 7 Exercising has improved my body shape</td>
<td>.779</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 3 Exercising boost my energy level</td>
<td>.757</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 8 Exercising helps me to reach and maintain a health weight</td>
<td>.708</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 6 Exercising help me to sleep better</td>
<td>.684</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 7 I exercise to achieve a mind and body balance</td>
<td>.679</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 2 Exercising helps me to reduce the risk of ill health</td>
<td>.675</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 1 Exercising helps improve my health</td>
<td>.666</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 10 Exercising gives me a sense of achievement</td>
<td>.627</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 15 I exercise to improve my everyday wellbeing</td>
<td>.529</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 11 Exercising will help me achieve more independence in later life</td>
<td>.487</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 14 Exercising helps me relax from a tense and stressful life</td>
<td>.466</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A13 The signage in the facility is large enough to be seen</td>
<td>-.917</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A15 The signage in the facility makes it easy to find your way</td>
<td>-.910</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A14 The signage in the facility is easy to understand</td>
<td>-.893</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A12 There is sufficient signage in the facility</td>
<td>-.854</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A16 The decoration in the facility are appropriate</td>
<td>-.627</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV2 Exercising improves the way I am perceived by others</td>
<td>.905</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV1 Exercising help me to feel socially acceptable</td>
<td>.852</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV3 Exercising make a good impression on other people</td>
<td>.815</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV6 Exercising gives me more social opportunities</td>
<td>.629</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC1 The Centre’s activities are reasonable priced</td>
<td>-.938</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC3 I am happy with the price of the Centre’s activities</td>
<td>-.933</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC5 The Centre offers good value for the price I pay</td>
<td>-.904</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC4 The Centre makes me feel that I am getting my money’s worth</td>
<td>-.897</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC2 The Centre offers good services for the price</td>
<td>-.847</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC10 The benefits I receive from exercising are worth the money I have spent</td>
<td>-.652</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC8 The benefits I receive from exercising are worth the time I spend getting to and from the Centre</td>
<td>-.513</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC9 The benefits I receive from exercising are worth the effort I have put in</td>
<td>-.419</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE3 The staff are courteous, polite and respectful</td>
<td>.956</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE6 The staff make every effort to understand my needs</td>
<td>.936</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE5 The staff are trustworthy, believable and honest</td>
<td>.939</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE2 The staff are approachable and easy to contact</td>
<td>.918</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE4 The staff listen to me and we understand each other</td>
<td>.914</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE1 The staff are competent, knowledgeable and skilful employees</td>
<td>.844</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE7 The staff are neat, clean and presentable</td>
<td>.771</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV4 I want to be fit, active and health to avoid ill health</td>
<td>.792</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV2 I want to be fit, active and healthy for myself</td>
<td>.774</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV1 I consider being fit, active and healthy is important</td>
<td>.699</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV3 I want to be fit, active and healthy for my family</td>
<td>.651</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV6 I want to be fit, active and healthy to achieve more independence in later life</td>
<td>.546</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE2 Exercising given me a sense of joy</td>
<td>.899</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE4 Exercising gives me happiness</td>
<td>.866</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE3 Exercising make me feel delighted</td>
<td>.880</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE1 Exercising gives me pleasure</td>
<td>.860</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE5 I feel relaxed when I exercise</td>
<td>-.728</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE7 I enjoy trying new things when I exercise</td>
<td>-.525</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE6 I enjoy meeting new people when I exercise</td>
<td>-.471</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2 The air quality in the facility is good</td>
<td>.838</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1 The temperature in the facility is comfortable</td>
<td>.738</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7 Overall, the ambient condition in the facility makes it comfortable to exercise</td>
<td>.696</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4 The small in the facility is pleasant</td>
<td>.675</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5 The lighting in the facility is adequate</td>
<td>.617</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6 The lighting in the facility is easy on the eye</td>
<td>.582</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3 The background music/sound is appropriate</td>
<td>.541</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eigenvalue: 19.95 6.09 3.66 2.97 2.55 1.54 1.48 1.10

% of Variance: 35.00 10.68 6.43 5.22 4.48 2.70 2.60 1.03

Cronbach’s Alpha for Factor
5a.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

The exploratory factor analysis suggested there were 8-consumption values underpinning adult’s participation in sport and physical activity. Following Gerbing and Anderson (1988) extension of Churchill’s (1979) scale development paradigm beyond Cronbach α and EFA a subsequent CFA was undertaken using AMOS v20, figure 5a.3 outlines the steps taken to successfully carryout a confirmatory factor analysis and indicates the study’s chosen techniques.

![Figure 5a.3 CFA Flow Diagram](image-url)
It was considered necessary to conduct further regression based analysis to verify (or refute) the suggested 8 dimensions that resulted from the EFA (Floyd and Widaman, 1995), to trim redundant items (DeVillis, 1991), to establish each sub scales unidimensionality (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988) and to assess the scales psychometric properties in terms of convergent/discriminant validity (Hair et al., 1988) and composite reliability (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

5a.5.1 Sample Size
In a similar vein to the exploratory factory analysis literature, there is little agreement regarding determining a suitable sample size upon which to conduct a CFA. Lei and Loma (2005) suggest a sample size of “100 or more are recommended for accurate parameter estimates” (p. 1), Andreson and Gerbing (1988) suggest 150, whilst both Kelloway (1998) and Mulaik (2007) consider 200 as the minimum needed for publishable results. Hair et al. (1998) suggests that a suitable sample size need to conduct a CFA is around five cases per scale item. The study had 57-items remaining from the EFA and a data set of n=1058 which exceeded Hair et al. (1998) minimum requirement of 285 cases to achieve a high level of statistical power.

5a.5.2 Selecting a Method of Model Estimation
Within the SPSS AMOS v20 package there are five model estimation options to choose from: maximum likelihood (ML), generalised least squares (GLS), unweighted least square (ULS), scale free least squares (SFLS) and asymptotic distribution free (ADF). Careful consideration was given to which estimation model to use in light of the impact each method has on fit indices (Hu and Bentler, 1998). The study instead to use maximum likelihood (ML) estimation for a number of reasons, not least that ML is one of the most frequently used techniques (Hair et al., 1998; Netemeyer et al., 2003) and has been previously used for scale development within the consumer value literature (Sanchez-Fernandez et al., 2009).

However, consideration was given to the study’s non normal data and contrary opinion in the literature regarding ML estimation performance when using such data. Several authors have indicated concern (Hu et al., 1992; Schermelleh-Engel et al.,
2003) whilst others have indicated that ML estimation provides robust parameter estimations (McDonald and Ho, 2002; Muthen and Muthen, 2002). Finally, Hu and Bentler (1988) indicate the ML based estimations are more desirable to those obtain from either GLS and ADF as they have proven to be more accurate with different sample size, different distributions and model misspecification, specifically that the bias in GLS estimations when used on small sample sizes of less than 300 (Olsson et al., 1999). Both Browne (1984) and Curran et al. (1996) have advocated the use of ADF with non normal data, however the difference between estimate parameters and true parameters values has been empirically questioned by Olsson et al. (2000) when compared to either ML or GLS. Scjermelleh-Engel et al. (2003) consider ML estimations (with or without bootstrapping) performs better than ADF. Alternative methods of estimations such as UWLS was not used as it did not output key model fit indicators such as IFI, TLI/NNFI, CFI or RMSEA.

5a.5.3 Model Fit
There are number of commonly used measures that can be calculated to determine the goodness of fit of any model, namely absolute measures, relative fit measures, parsimony measures, fit measure based on the non-central chi-square distribution, information theoretic fit measure and finally fit measures based on sample size (Bluch, 2008). McIntosh (2006) recommends that the first overall test of model fit should be the chi-squared test \(\chi^2\), where a significant \(\chi^2\) indicates a poor model fit and where smaller rather than larger values indicate good fit (Stapleton, 1997). However concerns regarding the integrity of \(\chi^2\) have been raised in regard to variations in sample size (Anderson and Gerbing, 1998; Bentler, 1990) and model complexity (Hair et al., 2006), so the chi-squared normalised by degrees of freedom \((\chi^2/df)\) was also used with an acceptable \(\chi^2/df\) ratio being less than 3.0 (Hair et al., 2006).

As a consequence of the concerns regarding \(\chi^2\) sensitivity to sample size, a range of alternative absolute fit indices have been developed such as the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and the Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) both of which are less sensitive to sample size variations. However, in a similar vein to \(\chi^2\) these indices have also been criticised for sample size susceptibly (Anderson and Gerbing, 1984;
Hu and Bentler, 1995; Netemeyer et al., 2003) despite behaving consistently in terms of estimation methods (Sugwara and MacCullen, 1993). Relative fit indices include the Normed Fit Index (NFI), the Reflected Fit Index (RFI), the Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI). The NFI has been used as standard but has been criticised for underestimating model fit based on small sample sizes, consequently the NFI was modified into the CFI which now takes account of the degrees of freedom into account (Bentler, 1980).

The RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) (Steiger, 1990) explicitly tries to compensate for both model complexity and sample size issues in its calculations (Hair et al., 2006). Which given the study’s sample size (n=1058) would assist in overcoming $\chi^2$ sample size vulnerabilities. However, use of RMSEA is not without some concern, Olsson et al. (1999) have highlighted that RMSEA when estimated with Generalised Least Squares tends to result in a more optimistic fit and Chen et al. (2008) indicated that as sample size increase model rejection rates using RMSEA decease. Finally, the Hoelter index states the sample size at which $\chi^2$ would not be significant, i.e., that is how small a sample size would have to be for the result to be no longer significant, and recommends values of at least 200, with values of less than 75 indicative of a very poor model fit.

Following Bollen’s (1990) advice multiple indices’ of model fit were examined and the selection of the studies indices’ as outlined in table 5a.16 were based on the recommendations of Hair et al. (2006) who suggested that researchers needs to report, in additional to chi-square at least 3 or 4 absolute and relative indices rather than report all indices due to the redundancy between them. Other than chi-squared and $\chi^2$/df value, model fit for the present study was examined using GFI, CFI and HOELTER, the finally index was the RMSEA which is also known as a badness of fit index.
Table 5a. 16 Model Fit Indicators Thresholds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Absolute Measures</th>
<th>Threshold</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square/df (cmin/df)</td>
<td>&lt; 3 good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt; 5 sometimes permissible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p-value for the model</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>&gt; .95 good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; .90 acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; .80 sometimes permissible</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative Fit Measures</th>
<th>Threshold</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>&gt; .95 good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; .90 acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; .80 sometimes permissible</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fit Measures based on NC $\chi^2$</th>
<th>Threshold</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>&lt; .06 good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.06 to .08 acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; .08 bad</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fit Measures based on sample size</th>
<th>Threshold</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HOELTER (.01)</td>
<td>&gt; 200 good fit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt; 75 poor fit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5a.5.5 Model Estimation

Results from the EFA indicated an eight factor measurement model consisting of 57 items which were then estimated using MLE in Amos v20, furthermore, following Anderson and Gerbing (1990) all eight factors were allowed to covary. In terms of fit the initial S&PAVAL Model returned: $\chi^2=9136.905$, $df=1456$, $\chi^2/df=6.275$. It is accepted that statistical analysis that are based on $\chi^2$ are adversely affected by large sample sizes and should not be used in isolation (Byrne, 2001) and given the study’s sample size $n=1058$ it is not surprising that $\chi^2/df$ was larger than the generally accepted score of > 3 (Hair et al, 2006). However this combined with other indices indicated a poor model fit GFI = 0.729, CFI = 0.871, RMSEA = 0.071, HOELTER = 184.

A non-significant chi-squared values, in combination with CFI/GFI values above .95 and RMSEA values less than .06 are generally needed to conclude there is a relatively good fit between the hypothesized model and observed data (Hu & Bentler, 1999), although Browne and Cudeck (1993) and Hair et al. (2006) suggest that RMSEA values less than .08 and fit indices above .90 indicate an acceptable levels of fit. Therefore, the initial S&PAVAL Model produced a poor to marginal model fit which was inadequate to lend sufficient empirical support for the measurement model as it was apparent that some modification were required in order for the model to better fit the data.
5a.5.6 Model Modifications

Whilst on the margins of acceptability, the model fit indices indicated that there was scope for model fit improvement. Therefore, despite a number of criticisms from authors such as Cudeck and Browne (1983) it was decided to use the CFA in a post-hoc or exploratory manner (Byrne, 2001). Indeed Anderson and Gerbing (1998) have suggested that such an approach is often necessary and Tanaka and Huna (1984) argue that such an approach does not lessen the impact and importance of a CFA so long as the exploratory nature of the research is acknowledged. The study used a number of diagnostics tools to help improve model fit, namely a review the standardised regression weights (item loading), the standardised residuals, modification indices (Hair et al., 2006) and error terms. If the data indicated an item should be removed, the study was mindful of Hair et al. (2010) and others endorsement for the use of theory driven considerations when making changes to ensure that the model is defensible from a theoretically perspective, which also avoids capitalising on chance (Markland, 2007) and is able to be generalised to the wider population.

5a.5.6.1 Standardised Regression Weights

Standardised item loadings on the postulated dimension ranged from .572 to .962, there were 8-items falling below the .70 acceptable loading score as illustrated in table 5a.17:

Table 5a. 17 Standardised Item Loadings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EFB14</td>
<td>Benefits of Exercise</td>
<td>.622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB11</td>
<td>Benefits of Exercise</td>
<td>.677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC9</td>
<td>Cost of Exercise</td>
<td>.574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC8</td>
<td>Cost of Exercise</td>
<td>.611</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>Physical Environment – ambiance</td>
<td>.615</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>Physical Environment – ambiance</td>
<td>.653</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE6</td>
<td>Fun &amp; Enjoyment</td>
<td>.572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE7</td>
<td>Fun &amp; Enjoyment</td>
<td>.611</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mindful of the exploratory nature of the post-hoc modifications (Tanaka and Huna, 1984) it was decided to only delete the items which had a factor loading of below .6. Therefore two items EFC 9 ‘The benefits I have received from exercising are worth
the efforts I have put in’ and PE6 ‘I enjoy meeting people when I exercise’ were deleted. This resulted in an improved model fit as indicated below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>$\chi^2$/df</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>HOELTER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>7755.806</td>
<td>1349</td>
<td>5.749</td>
<td>0.756</td>
<td>0.888</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permissible</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5a.5.6.2 Standardised Residuals
The standardised residuals represent the difference between the estimated and observed covariances. A particularly high residual between two variables indicated that the relationship between those variables is not well accounted for by the model with smaller fitted residual indicating good fit (Lu, Li and Cheng, 2007). Hair et al. (2006) recommends that items associated with a standardised residual greater than $\pm 4.0I$ are dropped, whilst further examination is given to those between $\pm 2.5I$ and $\pm 4.0I$ and finally those residual below $\pm 2.5I$ indicate that the model is correct. Three items were identified as consistently exceeding the recommended $\pm 4.0I$:

- EFC 8 “The benefits I have received from exercising are worth the time I spend getting to and from the Centre”
- EFC 10 “The benefits I have received from exercising are worth the money I have spent”
- AV 6 “I want to be fit, active and healthy to achieve more independence in later life”

At a theoretically level all 3-items were important. Items EFC 8 and 10 where both focused on exploring different cost vs benefit trade-offs in terms of time and money. However, it was decided that only one item would be deleted in order to retain the cost vs benefit trade-off concept and given that EFC 8 had a lower standardised item loadings, it was deleted. With regard to item AV 6 the measurement of Altruistic value in not well defined in the literature and consequently few scales exist, therefore the decision to retain this item was based on the need to expand research in this area. This resulted in an improved model fit as indicated below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>$\chi^2$/df</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>HOELTER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>7317.296</td>
<td>1297</td>
<td>5.641</td>
<td>0.764</td>
<td>0.894</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

199
5a.5.6.3 Modification Indices

The modification indices (MI) represent how much $\chi^2$ will be reduced if the parameter were ‘freed’ and the model re-run (Bryne, 2001). A review of the MI impact for each item indicated that freeing 4-items would have a disproportionally large effect on $\chi^2$:

- EFB1 "Exercise helps improve my health"
- EFB 14 “Exercising helps me relax from a tense and stressful day”
- EFB 11 “Exercising will help me achieve more independence in later life”
- A6 “The lighting in the facility is easy on the eye”

As these questions were similar in nature and were focused at exploring the same insight as other questions within the same factor for example EFB 1 “Exercise helps improve my health” was considered similar to EFB 2 “Exercising help me to reduce the risk of ill-health”, there were no theoretical reasons to prevent EFB1 from being removed. With regard to EFB14 “Exercising helps me relax from a tense and stressful day” was considered similar to EFB15 “I exercise to improve my everyday wellbeing”. Similarly for A6 “The lighting in the facility is easy on the eye” item A5 “The lighting in the facility is adequate” was considered a suitable substitute. However, for item EFB 11 it was considered that there was no suitable alternative question and therefore it was retained. This resulted in an improved model fit as indicated below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>$\chi^2$/df</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>HOELTER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5783.319</td>
<td>1147</td>
<td>5.042</td>
<td>0.912</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5a.5.6.4 Covariance of Error Terms

The final way in which the model fit was improved was through the covariance of error terms. Whilst this practice is generally frowned upon (Gerbing and Anderson, 1984) as it could be symptomatic of other issues that are not specified within the model. However, Jöreskog and Long (1993) suggests that if a researcher does decide to covary error terms there needs to be strong theoretical justification to substantiate their decision-making and that it is a procedure that should be approached with caution. A review of with-in factor items that that were similar in nature and/or
focused at exploring the same insight was undertaken. The rational was that it would be reasonable to expect these items to have similar error values because they are logically similar and have similar structures, but they do not necessarily have any causal ties:

AV1 \( \rightarrow \) AV2

AV1 “I consider being fit, active and healthy is important”
AV2 “I want to be fit, active and healthy for myself”

PE1 \( \rightarrow \) PE3

PE1 “Exercising gives me pleasure”
PE3 “Exercising makes me feel delighted”

EFB3 \( \rightarrow \) EFB4

EFB 3 “Exercising boosts me energy levels”
EFB 4 “Exercising makes me feel good”

EFB7 \( \rightarrow \) EFB8

EFB7 “Exercising has improved my body shape”
EFB8 “Exercising helps me to reach and maintain a healthy weight”

This resulted in an improved model fit as indicated below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \chi^2 )</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>( \chi^2/\text{d.f.} )</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>HOELTER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5150.27</td>
<td>1143</td>
<td>4.449</td>
<td>0.822</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore, the final S&PAVAL Model is comprised of the following dimensions, as illustrated in figure 5a.4:

- Dimension SV = Social Value
- Dimension Aone = Physical Environment – surrounding
- Dimension EFB = Benefits of exercise
- Dimension EFC = Costs of exercise
- Dimension AV = Altruistic Value
- Dimension QSE = Quality of Service Experience
- Dimension PE = Fun & Enjoyment
- Dimension Atwo = Physical Environment – ambiance
Figure 5a. The Final S&PAVAL Measurement Model

($\chi^2 = 5150.27, p < 0.000, \chi^2 / df = 4.449, GFI = .822, CFI = .924, RMSEA = .057, HOELTER = 262$)
5a.6 Validity and Reliability

There are a number of widely accepted statistical measures that are useful for establishing validity and reliability such as Composite Reliability (CR), Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Maximum Shared Squared Variance (MSV), and Average Shared Squared Variance (ASV) which are illustrated in table 5a.18:

Table 5a. 18 Validity and Reliability Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>MSV</th>
<th>ASV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality Service Experience</td>
<td>0.966</td>
<td>0.804</td>
<td>0.264</td>
<td>0.159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Environment – surroundings</td>
<td>0.958</td>
<td>0.820</td>
<td>0.545</td>
<td>0.189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits of Exercise</td>
<td>0.957</td>
<td>0.576</td>
<td>0.419</td>
<td>0.211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Value</td>
<td>0.952</td>
<td>0.775</td>
<td>0.296</td>
<td>0.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs of Exercise</td>
<td>0.954</td>
<td>0.777</td>
<td>0.292</td>
<td>0.150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Environment – ambiance</td>
<td>0.895</td>
<td>0.589</td>
<td>0.545</td>
<td>0.235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun &amp; Enjoyment</td>
<td>0.933</td>
<td>0.702</td>
<td>0.376</td>
<td>0.175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic Value</td>
<td>0.897</td>
<td>0.639</td>
<td>0.419</td>
<td>0.191</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5a.6.1 Composite Reliability

Composite reliability scores were estimated to assess the internal consistency of the 8-sub scales of the final S&PAVAL Model. To obtain these values, an averaged variance shared between each construct and its measure was used (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As Table 5a.18 shows, all composite reliabilities were above the recommended level of 0.6 (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988).

5a.6.2 Validity

5a.6.2.1 Convergent Validity

Evidence of convergent validity was obtained in two ways. Firstly the variance extracted for each factor was calculated, table 5a.18 indicates that all AVE’s calculated for all factors in this study were higher than or equal to 0.50, as recommended by Fornell & Larcker (1981) who stated “the researcher may conclude that convergent validity of the construct is adequate, even though more than 50% of the variance is due to error” (p. 46). In addition to this all standardised factor loading
were greater than 0.5 which again supports convergent validity (Steenkamp and Trijp, 1991).

5a.6.2.2 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity is the extent to which a measure of a construct differs from measures of other constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) in terms of the variance shared between different constructs or as Peter (1981) states “discriminant validity is determined by demonstrating that a measure does not correlate very highly with another measure from which it should differ” (p. 136). Fornell & Larcker (1981) suggest that to evaluate discriminant validity a comparison should be undertaken between the average variance extracted (AVE) for each factor and the variance shared between the constructs. Table 5a.19 illustrated the factor correlation matrix in which the square root of the AVE are illustrated on the diagonal. The numbers on the diagonal are all much larger than the number off the diagonal and based on this analysis, the discriminant validity of the factors appears to be satisfactory.

Table 5a.19 Factor Correlation Matrix with Square Root of the AVE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>QSE</th>
<th>Phy Env – S</th>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>SV</th>
<th>Cost</th>
<th>Phy Env – A</th>
<th>FE</th>
<th>AV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>QSE</td>
<td>0.897</td>
<td>0.484</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.221</td>
<td>0.429</td>
<td>0.514</td>
<td>0.249</td>
<td>0.399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phy Env – S</td>
<td>0.906</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.221</td>
<td>0.429</td>
<td>0.429</td>
<td>0.514</td>
<td>0.249</td>
<td>0.399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>0.759</td>
<td>0.415</td>
<td>0.415</td>
<td>0.429</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.538</td>
<td>0.319</td>
<td>0.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV</td>
<td>0.880</td>
<td>0.345</td>
<td>0.359</td>
<td>0.347</td>
<td>0.544</td>
<td>0.544</td>
<td>0.311</td>
<td>0.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost</td>
<td>0.881</td>
<td>0.266</td>
<td>0.347</td>
<td>0.540</td>
<td>0.273</td>
<td>0.540</td>
<td>0.416</td>
<td>0.374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phy Env – A</td>
<td>0.838</td>
<td>0.818</td>
<td>0.804</td>
<td>0.768</td>
<td>0.354</td>
<td>0.838</td>
<td>0.451</td>
<td>0.799</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, Hair et al. (2010) recommend that both MSV and AVE needs to be smaller than the AVE both of which Table 5a.18 indicates are satisfied.

5a.6.2.3 Construct Validity

The aim of construct validation is to ensure that the sub-scales operate as theoretically expected, as Netemeyer et al. (2003) noted is an “assessment of the degree to which a measure actually measures the latent construct it is intended to measure” (p. 8), in other words the S&PAVAL scales ‘behaves’ as expected (De
Vellis, 1991). Whilst construct validity is a necessary foundation for both theory building and theory testing (Peter, 1981) its scope is widely debated accordingly the study chose to adopt four of its main components content validity, face validity, discriminant validity and finally convergent validity (Netemeyer et al., 2003) as illustrated in figure 4.4. The content validity of the S&PAVAL scale was demonstrated through clearly defining the domain of the construct as a result of a comprehensive theoretical & literature review. Furthermore, through the item-generation process this included seeking the opinions of an expert panel and undertaking a small scale pilot study and finally through the scale purification process guided by Churchill (1978) protocols. Whilst, the face validity of the S&PAVAL scale was demonstrated through seeking the opinions of an expert panel and undertaking a small scale pilot study to establish the scale items relevance.

5a.7 The Final S&PAVAL Model

With reliability and validity of the scale established Table 5a.20 presents the dimensions and items for the final S&PAVAL Model.

5a.7.1 Consumer value as a second-order construct

It was considered appropriate to conceptualise the consumption values underpinning adult’s participation of sport and physical activity as a second or construct, due in-part to the positive and highly significant factor correlations (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988) and in-part due to following Law et al. (1998) comments that “In contrast to a set in inter-related uni-dimensional constructs, the dimension of a mult-dimensional construct can be conceptualised under an overall abstraction, and it is theoretically meaningful and parsimonious to use this overall abstraction as a representation of the dimensions” (p. 741).
Table 5a. 20 S&P AVAL Model: final scale and index reliability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Standardised loading</th>
<th>Reliability (CR, AVE) &amp; t-values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Benefits of Exercise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 5 Exercising improves my mental outlook</td>
<td>.859</td>
<td>CR=.937</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 4 Exercising makes me feel good</td>
<td>.807</td>
<td>AVE=.576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 7 Exercising has improved my body shape</td>
<td>.718</td>
<td>t=.14 490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 3 Exercising boost my energy level</td>
<td>.706</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 8 Exercising helps me to reach and maintain a healthy weight</td>
<td>.747</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 6 Exercising help me to sleep better</td>
<td>.715</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 9 I exercise to achieve a mind and body balance</td>
<td>.784</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 2 Exercising helps me to reduce the risk of ill health</td>
<td>.696</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 10 Exercising gives me a sense of achievement</td>
<td>.806</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 15 I exercise to improve my everyday well being</td>
<td>.720</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFB 11 Exercising will help me achieve more independence in later life</td>
<td>.693</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Environment – surroundings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A13 The signage in the facility is large enough to be seen</td>
<td>946</td>
<td>CR=.958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A15 The signage in the facility makes it easy to find your way</td>
<td>933</td>
<td>AVE=.820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A14 The signage in this facility is easy to be understood</td>
<td>945</td>
<td>t=17.842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A12 There is sufficient signage in the facility</td>
<td>920</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A16 The decoration in the facility are appropriate</td>
<td>772</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV 2 Exercising improves the way I am perceived by others</td>
<td>.962</td>
<td>CR=.932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV 1 Exercising help me to feel socially acceptable</td>
<td>.903</td>
<td>AVE=.775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV 3 Exercising make a good impression on other people</td>
<td>.893</td>
<td>t=12.408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV 6 Exercising gives me more social opportunities</td>
<td>.740</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs of Exercise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC 3 I am happy with the price of the Centre’s activities</td>
<td>.830</td>
<td>CR=.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC 1 The Centre’s activities are reasonable priced</td>
<td>.894</td>
<td>AVE=.775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC 5 The Centre offers good value for the price I pay</td>
<td>.914</td>
<td>t=15.809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC 4 The Centre makes me feel that I am getting my money’s worth</td>
<td>.926</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC 2 The Centre offers good services for the price</td>
<td>.892</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC 10 The benefits I receive from exercising are worth the money I have spent</td>
<td>.713</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Service Experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE 3 The staff are courteous, polite and respectful</td>
<td>.930</td>
<td>CR=.966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE 6 The staff make every effort to understand my needs</td>
<td>.921</td>
<td>AVE=.894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE 5 The staff are trustworthy, believable and honest</td>
<td>.912</td>
<td>t=16.322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE 2 The staff are approachable and easy to contact</td>
<td>.907</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE 4 The staff listen to me and we understand each other</td>
<td>.923</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE 1 The staff are competent, knowledgeable and skillful employees</td>
<td>882</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE 7 The staff are neat, clean and presentable</td>
<td>.795</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altrusnic Value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV 4 I want to be fit, active and health to avoid ill health</td>
<td>.843</td>
<td>CR=.897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV 2 I want to be fit, active and healthy for myself</td>
<td>.908</td>
<td>AVE=.639</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV 1 I consider being fit, active and healthy is important</td>
<td>.866</td>
<td>t=14.490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV 3 I want to be fit, active and healthy for my family</td>
<td>.686</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV 6 I want to be fit, active and healthy to achieve more independence in later life</td>
<td>.663</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun &amp; Enjoyment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE 2 Exercising given me a sense of joy</td>
<td>.933</td>
<td>CR=.933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE 4 Exercising gives me happiness</td>
<td>.922</td>
<td>AVE=.702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE 3 Exercising make me feel delighted</td>
<td>.924</td>
<td>t=15.261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE 1 Exercising gives me pleasure</td>
<td>.846</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE 5 I feel relaxed when I exercise</td>
<td>.752</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE 7 I enjoy trying new things when I exercise</td>
<td>.599</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Environment – ambiance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2 The air quality in the facility is good</td>
<td>.751</td>
<td>CR=.895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1 The temperature in the facility is comfortable</td>
<td>.652</td>
<td>AVE=.589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7 Overall, the ambient condition in the facility makes it comfortable to exercise in</td>
<td>.808</td>
<td>t=18.854</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4 The smell in the facility is pleasant</td>
<td>.823</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5 The lighting in the facility is adequate</td>
<td>.836</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3 The background music/sound is appropriate</td>
<td>.645</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

($\chi^2 = 5150.27, p < 0.000, \chi^2/df = 4.449, GFI = .822, CFI = .924, RMSEA = .057, HOELTER = 262$)
In this regard, table 5a.21 indicates that all 8 consumption values make a positive and highly significant contribution to consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting.

Table 5a. 21 Goodness of fit of *Consumer Value as a second-order factor*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Loadings ($\lambda$)</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical environment – ambiance</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical environment – surroundings</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic Value</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits of Exercise</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Service Experience</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost of Exercise</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun &amp; Enjoyment</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Value</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

($\chi^2 = 5150.27, p < 0.000, \chi^2/df = 4.449, GFI = .822, CPI = .924, RMSEA = .057, HOELTER = 262$)

The results would indicate that some consumption values contribute more than others for example Physical Environment – ambiance and surroundings would appear to play a more influential role than Social Value and Fun & Enjoyment.

5a.8 Analysis of Demographic Moderating Variables

5a.8.1 Analysis of Variances (ANOVA)

Malhortra, Peterson and Kleiser (1999) consider the use of the ANOVA to be one of the most widely used and flexible quantitative data analysis techniques within the marketing and consumer behaviour research domain. The study used a series of one-way ANOVA to test if where any significant differences between different groups such as gender, social economic status and age with regard to the S&PAVAL Model.

Whilst, a one-way ANOVA is traditionally used to identify if the means of three or more groups differ in some way, it was also used to compare two means (gender) as it is also capable of giving the same results as a t-test for independent samples (Sirkin, 1995). The variance ratio or F-statistic tests if the means of each group are different enough not to have occurred by chance, with a larger F-statistic indicating a larger difference between the means of the respective groups increasing the likelihood of the difference being statistically significant (Cramer and Howitt, 2004). Like all other parametric techniques, AVONA makes three key assumption about the
data that underpins its analysis which need to be met before any analysis can be undertaken (Zikmund, 2003):

1. Observations are independent
2. Normal distribution
3. Homogeneity of variance

Whilst the study’s data does moderately deviate from normality, based on simulation studies using a variety of non-normal distributions authors such as Glass et al. (1972), Harwell et al. (1992) and Lix et al. (1996) have indicated that violations of this assumption had little impact on the reported false-positive rates. According to Maxell and Delaney (1990) “even if a researcher’s data are not perfectly normally distributed, they may be close enough to normal (eg unimodal, symmetric, most scores centrally located, few scored at the extremes) that there would seem to be little cause for concern” (p. 109). Furthermore, Hay (1994) considers that the effect of non-normal distributions on the F-statistic is proportional to the sample size, as the sample size increases the impact on non-normal distribution lessens. Micceri (1989) found that after reviewing over 400 large data sets from behaviour science research a large majority of data was not normally distributed, whilst Breckler (1990) identified that less than 10% of the 72 articles in personality and social psychology journals considered whether the normality assumption has been violated.

The ANOVA is also considered to be quite robust to moderate violation of homogeneity of variance, which according to Maxwell and Delany (1990) are frequently violated in practise. Roberts and Russo (1999) and Howell (1997) suggest that if the ratio of the largest group to the smallest group is less than 3, then a violation of equal variance has minimal impact. Alternatively, van der Heijden (2003) has suggested a minimal impact if sample sizes are close ie if size differential is less than 1.5, whilst Huck and Cormier (1996) considers that the F-statistic is “highly immune” and “strong enough” when sample size are equal to withstand violations of equal variances. Therefore, many authors report that the ANOVA is a robust procedure and is able to produce correct results even when its assumptions are violated (Maxwell and Delaney, 1990; Cramer and Howitt, 2004; Field, 2005), furthermore it is generally agreed that the ANOVA is robust against mild violation of these assumptions, especially if the sample size is large as is the case for this study.
5a.8.2 One-way and Post-hoc Procedure
The standard SPSS v19 homogeneity of variance option, Levene’s test of homogeneity, was used which was particularly suited to the study data as it to be less dependent on the assumption of normality than other tests (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2000). However, where violations of the homogeneity of variance assumptions occur SPSS offers both Welch’s and Brown-Forsythe F-statistics neither of which assumes equal variance. Cohen (2001) and Field (2005) both note that neither test is more or less accurate that each other and that there are no guideline with regard which test better suits different sample sizes, variances or normality factors. However, Olejnik and Algina (1987) indicated that the Brown-Forsythe F-statistic is more accurate when the raw scores deviate significantly from the normal distribution, and was therefore considered more suitable to accommodating data which indicated a moderate derivation from normality. Furthermore, SPSS v19 offers a number of post-hoc test such as Scheffe test, Turkey’s HSD method, Tutkey’s LSD approach and Bonferroni, however Crammer and Howitt (2004) consider that there is no clear consensus on which test is best suited to which situations.

Two post-hoc tests were undertaken to identify exactly where the significant differences lie, where the homogeneity of variance was met Turkey HDS was used and where it was violated the more robust Tamhane’s post-hoc test was used (Cramer and Howitt, 2004).

Where significant differences were observed the practical significance or effect size was also calculated using eta squared ($\eta^2$). Eta-squared refers to strength of association between the independent variables (gender, social economic grouping and age) and the dependent variable (S&PAVAL model). If the strength of association is weak, or low, the independent variable has less meaning and/or relevance to the dependent variable. Cohen’s (1988) classification indicates that results less than .01 are classified as a small effect, .06 as a medium effect and .14 as a large effect.
5a.8.3 Gender
A series of one-way between groups ANOVA’s were conducted to explore the impact of gender (male = 451, female = 607) on the 8-consumption values of the S&P AVAL Model.

5a.8.3.1 Benefits of Exercise
With regard to the ‘benefits of exercise’ consumption value there was no statistical significant gender difference ($F_{(1, 1056)} = 1.022, p = .312$) with the mean scores for females (80.24, ±11.689) being slightly higher than males (80.10, ±10.690). However, a closer examination at the item level indicated two significant differences, as illustrated in table 5a.22.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Gender Diff</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits of Exercise</td>
<td>EFB2: Exercising helps to reduce the risk of ill health</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>$p = .026^*$</td>
<td>Male = 6.56</td>
<td>.772</td>
<td>$\eta^2 = .005$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female = 6.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.957</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EFB9: I exercise to achieve a mind and body balance</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>$p = .047^*$</td>
<td>Female = 5.92</td>
<td>1.294</td>
<td>$\eta^2 = .004$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Male = 5.75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.468</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Despite both EFB 2 and EFB 9 indicating a statistical difference between men and women’s, the actual difference in the mean scores was extremely small, with the effect size calculated using eta squared being $\eta^2 = .005$ and $\eta^2 = .004$ respectfully (Cohen, 1988).

5a.8.3.2 Costs of Exercise
With regard to the ‘cost of exercise’ consumption value there was no statistical significant gender difference ($F_{(1, 1056)} = 2.400, p = .092$) with the mean scores for males (45.85, ±8.20) being slightly higher than for females (44.95, ±8.79). Nor was there any statistical difference at an item level.
5a.8.3.3 Physical Environment - surroundings

With regard to the ‘physical environment (surroundings)’ consumption value there was a statistical significant gender difference ($F_{(1, 1056)} = 4.237, p = .040$), with the mean scores for males ($28.27, \pm 6.10$) being significantly higher than for females ($27.48, \pm 6.17$), in addition to this at the item level indicated two significant differences as illustrated in table 5a.23.

Table 5a. 23 Gender: Physical Environment (surroundings) Consumption Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Gender Diff</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical Env - surroundings</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>p = .040</td>
<td>Male = 28.27, Female = 27.48</td>
<td>6.10</td>
<td>$\eta^2 = .004$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A12: There is sufficient signage in the facility</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>p = .038</td>
<td>Male = 5.63, Female = 5.46</td>
<td>1.341</td>
<td>$\eta^2 = .004$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A14: The signage in this facility is easy to understand</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>p = .003</td>
<td>Male = 5.82, Female = 5.59</td>
<td>1.202</td>
<td>$\eta^2 = .008$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Despite indicating a statistical difference between men and women’s with regard to the overall consumption value and A12 and A13, the actual difference in the mean scores was extremely small, with the effect size calculated using eta squared being $\eta^2 = .004$, $\eta^2 = .004$ and $\eta^2 = .008$ respectfully (Cohen, 1988).

5a.8.3.4 Physical Environment – ambiance

With regard to the ‘physical environment (ambiance)’ consumption value there was a statistical significant gender difference ($F_{(1, 1004.49)} = 18.691, p = .000$), with the mean scores for males ($39.02, \pm 7.83$) being significantly higher than for females ($36.85, \pm 8.41$), furthermore, a closer examination at the item level indicated that all but one statement (A3) indicated a significant gender difference, as illustrated in table 5a.24. Despite indicating a statistical difference between men and women’s the actual difference in the mean scores between males and females was small (Cohen, 1988) for the consumption value ($\eta^2 = .018$), A1 ($\eta^2 = .018$), A2, $\eta^2 = .028$, A4 ($\eta^2 = .016$), A5 ($\eta^2 = .018$) and finally A7 ($\eta^2 = .009$).
5a.8.3.5 Social Value

With regard to the Social Value consumption value there was no statistical significant gender difference (F(1, 1056) = 2.933, p = .059), with the mean scores for males (45.85, ±8.20) and females (44.95, ±8.79). However, a closer examination at the item level indicated two significant differences, as illustrated in table 5a.25.

Table 5a. 25 Gender: Social Value  Consumption Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Diff</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Value</td>
<td>SV2: Exercising improves the way I am perceived by others</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>p = .014</td>
<td>Male = 4.65</td>
<td>1.920</td>
<td>η² = .005</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SV3: Exercising makes a good impression on others</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>p = .023</td>
<td>Male = 4.75</td>
<td>1.876</td>
<td>η² = .005</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Despite indicating a statistical difference between men and women’s with regard to SV2 and SV3, the actual difference in the mean scores was extremely small, with the effect size calculated using eta squared being η² = .005 and η² = .005 respectfully (Cohen, 1988).
5a.8.3.6 Quality of Service Experience

With regard to the ‘quality of service experience’ consumption value there was a statistical significant gender difference ($F_{(1, 1041.78)} = 3.84, p= .050$) with the mean scores for males (0.47, ±6.83) being significantly higher than for females (49.57, ±8.18). Furthermore, a closer examination at the item level also indicated three significant differences, as illustrated in table 5a.26.

Table 5a. 26 Gender: Quality of Service Experience Consumption Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Gender Diff</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Service Experience</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>$p = .050^*$</td>
<td>Male = 50.47</td>
<td>6.83</td>
<td>$\eta^2 = .004$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female = 49.57</td>
<td>8.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE1: The staff are competent, knowledge and skilful employees</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>$p = .017$</td>
<td>Male = 6.20</td>
<td>1.025</td>
<td>$\eta^2 = .005$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female = 6.04</td>
<td>1.178</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE5: The staff are trustworthy, believable and honest</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>$p = .008^*$</td>
<td>Male = 6.40</td>
<td>.908</td>
<td>$\eta^2 = .006$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female = 6.24</td>
<td>1.096</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE7: The staff are neat, clean and presentable</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>$p = .044^*$</td>
<td>Male = 6.45</td>
<td>1.071</td>
<td>$\eta^2 = .003$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female = 6.33</td>
<td>2.014</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Brown-Forsythe Asymptotically F distributed

Despite indicating a statistical difference between men and women’s the actual difference in the mean scores was very small (Cohen, 1988) for the consumption value ($\eta^2 = .004$), QSE1 ($\eta^2 = .005$), QSE 5 ($\eta^2 = .006$), and finally QSE7 ($\eta^2 = .003$).

5a.8.3.7 Altruistic Value

With regard to the ‘altruistic value’ consumption value there was a statistical significant gender difference ($F_{(1, 1050.18)} = 3.996, p = .046$) with the mean scores for males (31.85, ±3.88) was significantly higher than for females (31.30, ±4.85), a closer examination at the item level also indicated three significant differences, as illustrated in table 5a.27. Despite indicating a statistical difference between men and women’s with regard to the consumption value, AV1, AV2 and AV4, the actual difference in the mean scores between males and female was extremely small, with the effect size calculated using eta squared being $\eta^2 = .004$, $\eta^2 = .008$, $\eta^2 = .008$ and $\eta^2 = .004$ respectfully (Cohen, 1988).
5a.8.3.8 Fun and Enjoyment
With regard to the ‘fun and enjoyment’ consumption value there was no statistical significant gender difference ($F_{(1, 1056)} = 1.538, p= .331$) with the mean scores for males (45.85,±8.20) being slightly higher than for females (44.95,±8.79). Furthermore, a closer examination at the item level indicated that there were no significant differences.

5a.8.4 Social Economic Status
A series of oneway between groups ANOVA’s were conducted to explore the impact of social economic status on the 8-consumption values of the S&PAVAL Model. Active adults were divided into 6-categories - group 1: higher managerial, administrative or professional (n=201), group 2: intermediate managerial, administrative or professional (n=203), group 3: supervisor or clerical and junior managerial, administrative or professional (n=176), group 4: skilled manual workers (n=128), group 5: semi and unskilled manual worker (n=55) and finally group 6: casual, low grade workers, OAP and those dependant on the welfare state (n=224).

5a.8.4.1 Benefits of Exercise
With regard to the ‘benefits of exercise’ consumption value there was no statistical significant differences between the economic groups ($F_{(5,98)} = 1.549, p= 1.72$). Nor was there any statistical difference at an item level.
5a.8.4.2 Costs of Exercise

With regard to the ‘costs of exercise’ consumption value there was a statistical significant differences between the economic groups ($F(5, 981) = 3.99$, $p = .001$). A post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for casual, low grade workers, OAP and those dependant on the welfare state (46.86, ±8.66, $p=.000$) was significantly higher from that of intermediate managerial, administrative or professional group (43.43, ±8.31, $p=.000$), as illustrated in figure 5a.5.

![Figure 5a. 5 SES: Costs of Exercise Consumption Value](image)

The mean scores of all other groups did not significantly differ from each other. However, there were a number of statistically significant differences at an item level, as illustrated in table 5a.28.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Social Group</th>
<th>Diff</th>
<th>Social Group</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cost of Exercise</td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>+3.422</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>$p=.000$</td>
<td>$\eta^2 = .002$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC2: The centre offers good services for the price.</td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>+.409</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>$p=.038$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC3: I am happy with the price of the Centres activities.</td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>+.495</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>$p=.000$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC4: The Centre makes me feel that I am getting my money’s worth.</td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>+.500</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>$p=.001$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC5: The Centre offers good value for the price I pay.</td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>+.546</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>$p=.001$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC10: The benefits I receive are worth the effort</td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>+.347</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>$p=.026$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5a.8.4.3 Physical Environment – surroundings

With regard to the ‘physical environment - surroundings’ consumption value there was a statistical significant differences between the economic groups (F(5, 981) = 6.812, p = .000). A post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated, as illustrated in figure 5a.6, that the mean score for higher managerial, administrative or professional (26.18, ±6.48) was significantly different from skilled manual worker (29.17, ±5.50) semi and unskilled manual worker (30.30, ±5.30) and casual, low grade workers, OAP and those dependant on the welfare state (28.33, ±6.56). Furthermore, the mean scores for semi and unskilled manual worker (30.30, ±5.30) also differed from those of higher managerial, administrative or professional (26.18, ±6.48), intermediate managerial, administrative or professional group (27.36, ±6.07) and supervisor or clerical and junior managerial, administrative or professional (27.22, ±5.61). The mean scores of all other groups did not significantly differ from each other.

![Figure 5a. 6 SES: Physical Environment (surroundings) Consumption Value](image)

However, there were also a number of statistically significant differences at an item level, as illustrated in table 5a.29.
Table 5a. 29 SES: Physical Environment (surroundings) Consumption Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Social Group</th>
<th>Diff</th>
<th>Social Group</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>$\eta^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phy Env – surroundings</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+4.11</td>
<td>p=.000</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>+2.94</td>
<td>p=.019</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>+3.07</td>
<td>p=.014</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+2.98</td>
<td>p=.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+2.15</td>
<td>p=.004</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A12: ‘There is sufficient signage in the facility’</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.777</td>
<td>p=.002</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>+.578</td>
<td>p=.046</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>+.608</td>
<td>p=.034</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.598</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.432</td>
<td>p=.010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A13: ‘The signage is large enough to be seen’</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.715</td>
<td>p=.004</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.499</td>
<td>p=.008</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.443</td>
<td>p=.006</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A14: ‘The signage is easy to be understood’</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.753</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>+.547</td>
<td>p=.049</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.573</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.379</td>
<td>p=.010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A15: ‘The signage makes it easy to find your way’</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.787</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>+.590</td>
<td>p=.041</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.614</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A16: ‘The decoration in the facility is appropriate’</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+1.077</td>
<td>p=.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>+.790</td>
<td>p=.005</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>+.865</td>
<td>p=.002</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.701</td>
<td>p=.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>+.488</td>
<td>p=.47</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.564</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5a.8.4.4 Physical Environment – ambiance

With regard to the ‘physical environment - surroundings’ consumption value there was a statistical significant differences between the economic groups ($F(5, 981) = 8.348, p = .000$). A post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated, as illustrated in figure 5a.7, that the mean score for – higher managerial, administrative or professional (35.95, ±8.54) and the intermediate managerial, administrative or professional group (36.19, ±8.42) was significantly different from that of skilled manual workers (39.33, ±7.64), semi and unskilled manual workers (41.07, ±6.89) and casual, low grade workers, OAP and those dependant on the welfare state (37.67, ±8.27).

![Figure 5a. 7 SES: Physical Environment (ambiance) Consumption Value](image)

Furthermore, the supervisor or clerical and junior managerial, administrative or professional (36.93, ±8.21) differed significantly from both semi and unskilled manual workers (41.07, ±6.89) and casual, low grade workers, OAP and those dependant on the welfare state (37.67, ±8.27). The mean scores of all other groups did not significantly differ from each other. However, there were a number of statistically significant differences at an item level, as illustrated in table 5a.30.
Table 5a. 30 Social Economic Difference – Physical Environment (ambiance) 
Consumption Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Social Group</th>
<th>Diff</th>
<th>Social Group</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phy Env - ambiance</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>-5.12</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td>η² = .041</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>-4.88</td>
<td>Int Managerial</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>-4.14</td>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>p=.013</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-3.45</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>p=.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-3.21</td>
<td>Int Managerial</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-2.47</td>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>p=.031</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>-3.28</td>
<td>Int Managerial</td>
<td>p=.005</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>-3.04</td>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>p=.012</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>-2.98</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>p=.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A1: 'The temperature in the facility is comfortable'</td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-6.30</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-6.86</td>
<td>Int Managerial</td>
<td>p=.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-3.68</td>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>p=.009</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>-5.65</td>
<td>Int Managerial</td>
<td>p=.032</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A2: 'The air quality in the facility is good'</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>-7.02</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>p=.034</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>-7.18</td>
<td>Int Managerial</td>
<td>p=.026</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>-7.09</td>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>p=.031</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-5.44</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>p=.004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-5.80</td>
<td>Int Managerial</td>
<td>p=.002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-5.51</td>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>p=.006</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>-3.11</td>
<td>Int Managerial</td>
<td>p=.040</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A4: 'The smell in the facility is pleasant'</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>-9.48</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>p=.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>-8.29</td>
<td>Int Managerial</td>
<td>p=.002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>-7.16</td>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>p=.015</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>-5.97</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>p=.003</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>-4.77</td>
<td>Int Managerial</td>
<td>p=.036</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-5.50</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-4.31</td>
<td>Int Managerial</td>
<td>p=.023</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A5: 'The lighting in the facility is adequate'</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>-8.15</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>p=.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>-6.95</td>
<td>Int Managerial</td>
<td>p=.002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>-6.24</td>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>p=.010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>-5.56</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>-4.56</td>
<td>Int Managerial</td>
<td>p=.016</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-4.98</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>p=.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-3.78</td>
<td>Int Managerial</td>
<td>p=.015</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A7: 'The ambient condition make it comfortable...'</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>-6.52</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>p=.014</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>-7.18</td>
<td>Int Managerial</td>
<td>p=.004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-5.14</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-5.80</td>
<td>Int Managerial</td>
<td>p=.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-3.90</td>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>p=.036</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>-3.90</td>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>p=.036</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5a.8.4.5 Social Value

With regard to the ‘social value’ consumption value there was a value that was statistically significant difference between the economic groups (F(5, 332.263) = 5.072, p = .000). A post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated, as illustrated in figure 5a.8, that the mean score for higher managerial, administrative or professional (17.33, ±6.93) and intermediate managerial, administrative or professional groups (16.93, ±6.71) were significantly different from that of skilled
manual workers (19.52, ±6.39) and semi and unskilled manual workers (20.65, ±6.59). The mean scores of all other groups did not significantly differ from each other.

There were a number of statistically significant differences at an item level, as illustrated in table 5a.31.

Table 5a. 31 SES: Social Value Consumption Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Social Group</th>
<th>Diff</th>
<th>Social Group</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Value</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+3.32</td>
<td>p=.016</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>+43.72</td>
<td>p=.004</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>+2.19</td>
<td>p=.048</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>+2.59</td>
<td>p=.009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV1: 'Exercising helps me</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.924</td>
<td>p=.016</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to feel socially acceptable'</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>+1.025</td>
<td>p=.005</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Supervisory</td>
<td>+.838</td>
<td>p=.045</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>+.687</td>
<td>p=.015</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV2: 'Exercising improves</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.808</td>
<td>p=.047</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the way I am perceived by</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>+.982</td>
<td>p=.007</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>others'</td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>+.660</td>
<td>p=.020</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Casual/OAP/Welfare</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>+.541</td>
<td>p=.030</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV3: 'Exercising makes a</td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>+.617</td>
<td>p=.035</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good impression on other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>people'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV6: 'Exercising gives me</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.989</td>
<td>p=.008</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more social opportunities'</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>+.963</td>
<td>p=.011</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>Higher Managerial</td>
<td>+.654</td>
<td>p=.027</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>+.628</td>
<td>p=.039</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5a.8.4.6 Quality of Service Experience

With regard to the ‘quality of service experience’ consumption value there was a value there was a statistical significant differences between the economic groups \( F(5, 351.53) = 4.502, p = .001 \). A post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated, as illustrated in figure 5a.9, that the mean score for intermediate managerial, administrative or professional group (48.88, ±7.95) was significantly different from that of skilled manual workers (51.40, ±6.98) and that of semi and unskilled manual workers (52.21, ±4.74). The mean scores of all other groups did not significantly differ from each other.

![Figure 5a. 9 SES: Quality of Service experience Consumption Value](image)

Furthermore, there were a number of statistically significant differences at an item level, as illustrated in table 5a.32.

**Table 5a. 32 SES: Quality of Service Experience Consumption Value**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Social Group</th>
<th>Diff</th>
<th>Social Group</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality of Service Experience</td>
<td>Semi/Low Skilled</td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>+3.32</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>p=.047</td>
<td>( \eta^2 = .016 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE2: The staff are approachable and easy to contact</td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>+2.52</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>p=.040</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE4: The staff listen to me and we understand each other</td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>+.53</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>p=.044</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE5: The staff are trustworthy, believable and honest</td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>+.497</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>p=.010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QSE7: The staff are neat, clean and presentable</td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>+.456</td>
<td>Int. Managerial</td>
<td>p=.030</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5a.8.4.7 Altruistic Value

With regard to the ‘altruistic value’ consumption value there was no statistical significant difference between the economic groups ($F_{(5,981)} = 0.614, p = .668$). Furthermore, a closer examination at the item level indicated that there were no significant differences.

5a.8.4.8 Fun and Enjoyment

With regard to the ‘fun and enjoyment’ consumption value there was there was a statistical significant differences between the economic groups $F_{(5,336.676)} = 5.519, p = .000$). A post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated, as illustrated in figure 5a.10, that the mean score for intermediate managerial, administrative or professional group (35.85, ±9.07) was significantly different from that of skilled manual workers (40.07, ±6.85) and that of semi and unskilled manual workers (40.03, ±8.35). The mean scores of all other groups did not significantly differ from each other.

![Figure 5a. 10 SES: Fun and Enjoyment Consumption Value](image)

Furthermore, there were a number of statistically significant differences at an item level, as illustrated in table 5a.33.
Table 5a. 33 SES: Fun and Enjoyment Consumption Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Social Group</th>
<th>Diff</th>
<th>Social Group</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fun and Enjoyment</td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>Inter. Managerial</td>
<td>+4.22</td>
<td>Inter. Managerial</td>
<td>p=0.000</td>
<td>η² = .022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Semi-Low Skilled</td>
<td>Inter. Managerial</td>
<td>+4.18</td>
<td>Inter. Managerial</td>
<td>p=0.024</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PE1: Exercising gives me pleasure</td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>+5.39</td>
<td>Inter. Managerial</td>
<td>p=0.008</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PE2: Exercising gives me a sense of joy</td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>+5.75</td>
<td>Inter. Managerial</td>
<td>p=0.011</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PE3: Exercising makes me feel delighted</td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>+5.24</td>
<td>Low Skilled/OAP</td>
<td>p=0.023</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PE4: Exercising given me happiness</td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>+6.78</td>
<td>Inter. Managerial</td>
<td>p=0.004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PE7: I enjoy trying new things when I exercise</td>
<td>Skilled Manual</td>
<td>+5.41</td>
<td>Inter. Managerial</td>
<td>p=0.023</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5a.8.5 Age

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of age on overall value perceptions relating the 8-factors of the S&PAVAL Model. Respondents were divided into 15 age categories: 15-19yrs (n=79), 20-24yrs (n=80), 25-29yrs (n=102), 30-34yrs (n=114), 35-39yrs (n=159), 40-44yrs (n=155), 45-49yrs (n=94), 50-54yrs (n=61), 55-59yrs (n=49), 60-64yrs (n=54), 65-69yrs (n=54), 70-74yrs (n=28), 75-79yrs (n=19), 80-84yrs (n=7), 85+yrs (n=3).

5a.8.5.1 Benefits of Exercise

With regard to the ‘benefits of exercise’ consumption value there was there was no statistical significant differences between the different age groups F(4,1043) = 0.870, p = .591. However, there were a number of statistically significant differences at an item level, as illustrated in table 5a.34.

Table 5a. 34 Age: Benefits of Exercise Consumption Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Diff</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Benefits of Exercise</td>
<td>EFB5: Exercising improves my mental outlook</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>-.572</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=0.031</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>40-44yrs</td>
<td>-.593</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=0.010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>45-49yrs</td>
<td>-.592</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=0.032</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EFB7: I exercise to achieve a mind and body balance</td>
<td>15-19yrs</td>
<td>-.815</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=0.004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>-.813</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=0.004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>-.699</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=0.020</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>-.666</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=0.026</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>45-49yrs</td>
<td>-.735</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=0.034</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>40-44yrs</td>
<td>-.750</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=0.002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>45-49yrs</td>
<td>-.746</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=0.010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5a.8.5.2 Cost of Exercise

With regard to the ‘cost of exercise’ consumption value there was a statistical significant differences between the age groups $F_{(14, 86.069)} = 4.050, p = .000$. A post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated, as illustrated in figure 5a.11, that the mean score for those aged 65-69yrs (49.2139, ±7.42) and those aged 75-798yrs (51.69, ±6.17) differed significantly from those aged 25-29yrs (43.10, ±10.46), 30-34 yrs (43.03, ±9.46) and 35-39yrs (44.23, ±7.77).

![Figure 5a. 11 Age: Cost of Exercise Consumption Value](image)

The effect size, calculated using eta squared was .05 indicating that only 5.0 % of the variances relating to this factor is explained by age (Cohen, 1988). There were a number of statistically significant differences at an item level, as illustrated in table 5a.35.

![Table 5a. 35 Age: Cost of Exercise Consumption Value](image)
5a.8.5.3 Physical Environment – surroundings

With regard to the ‘physical environment - surroundings’ consumption value there was there was a statistical significant differences between the age groups F(14, 1043) = 2.342, p = .003. A post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated, as illustrated in figure 5a.12, that the mean score for those aged 20-24yrs (M= 40.20, sd = 9.50) differed significantly from those aged 35-39 yrs (M = 36.04, sd = 7.95). The effect size, calculated using eta squared was .031 indicating that only 3.1% of the variances relating to this factor is explained by age (Cohen, 1988). The mean scores of all other age groups did not significantly differ from each other.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Diff</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cost of Exercise</td>
<td></td>
<td>60-64yrs</td>
<td>-4.73</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=.049</td>
<td>η²  = 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+6.11</td>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>p=.002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+6.19</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+4.98</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=.014</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+8.59</td>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>p=.004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+8.67</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=.003</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+7.46</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=.021</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC1: The centre activities</td>
<td>are reasonable priced.</td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+9.84</td>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+8.12</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=.014</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+1.33</td>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>p=.004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+1.16</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=.027</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC2: The centre offers good</td>
<td>services for the price.</td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+6.94</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=.045</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+8.41</td>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>p=.004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+8.32</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=.004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+1.19</td>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>p=.009</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+1.19</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=.009</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+1.08</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=.032</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC3: I am happy with the</td>
<td>price of the Centres activities.</td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+9.49</td>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>p=.003</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+9.03</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=.005</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+1.34</td>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>p=.007</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+1.30</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=.010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+1.11</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=.050</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC4: The Centre makes me</td>
<td>feel that I am getting my money’s worth.</td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+8.31</td>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>p=.013</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+9.54</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+7.64</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=.017</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+1.18</td>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>p=.025</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+1.30</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=.006</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+1.11</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=.036</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC5: The Centre offers good</td>
<td>value for the price I pay.</td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+9.18</td>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>p=.005</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+9.94</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+1.28</td>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>p=.012</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+1.36</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=.004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC10: The benefits I receive</td>
<td>are worth the effort</td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+6.95</td>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>p=.027</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+6.64</td>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>p=.046</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There were a number of statistically significant differences at an item level, as illustrated in table 5a.36.

Table 5a. 36 Age: Physical Environment (surroundings) Consumption Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Age Group 1</th>
<th>Age Group 2</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Eta $\eta^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Phy Env – surroundings</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p&lt;.000</td>
<td>0.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A12: 'There is sufficient signage in the facility'</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>25-29yrs</td>
<td>p=.30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=.047</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>40-44yrs</td>
<td>p=.011</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A13: 'The signage is large enough to be seen'</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>40-44yrs</td>
<td>p=.021</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A14: 'The signage is easy to be understood'</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=.039</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>40-44yrs</td>
<td>p=.031</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A15: 'The signage makes it easy to find your way'</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=.033</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5a.8.5.4 Physical Environment – ambiance

With regard to the ‘physical environment - ambiance’ consumption value there was a statistical significant differences between the age groups ($F_{(14, 1043)} = 2.410$, $p = .003$). A post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated, as
illustrated in figure 5a.13, that the mean score for those aged 20-24yrs (40.20, ±9.50) differed significantly from those aged 35-39 yrs (36.04, ±7.95). The effect size, calculated using eta squared was .030 indicating that only 3% if the variances relating to this factor is explained by age. The mean scores of all other age groups did not significantly differ from each other.

Figure 5a. 13 Age Difference – Physical Environment (ambiance) Consumption Value

There were a number of statistically significant differences at an item level, as illustrated in table 5a.37.

Table 5a. 37 Age: Physical Environment (ambiance) Consumption Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Diff</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phy Env - ambiance</td>
<td></td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>+4.15</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=0.017</td>
<td>η² = 0.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1. 'The temperature in the facility is comfortable'</td>
<td></td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+1.01</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=0.022</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1. 'The temperature in the facility is comfortable'</td>
<td></td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+1.06</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=0.005</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1. 'The temperature in the facility is comfortable'</td>
<td></td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+1.11</td>
<td>45-49yrs</td>
<td>p=0.008</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2. 'The air quality in the facility is good'</td>
<td>60-64yrs</td>
<td>+8.97</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=0.017</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2. 'The air quality in the facility is good'</td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+9.14</td>
<td>30-34yrs</td>
<td>p=0.024</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2. 'The air quality in the facility is good'</td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+1.12</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=0.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2. 'The air quality in the facility is good'</td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>+9.01</td>
<td>45-49yrs</td>
<td>p=0.042</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3. 'The background music/sound is appropriate'</td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>+8.42</td>
<td>45-49yrs</td>
<td>p=0.044</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3. 'The background music/sound is appropriate'</td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>+9.99</td>
<td>65-69yrs</td>
<td>p=0.033</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3. 'The background music/sound is appropriate'</td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>+1.26</td>
<td>70-74yrs</td>
<td>p=0.029</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4. 'The smell in the facility is pleasant'</td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>+6.86</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=0.036</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7. 'The ambient condition make it comfortable...'</td>
<td>15-19yrs</td>
<td>+6.23</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=0.040</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7. 'The ambient condition make it comfortable...'</td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>+6.30</td>
<td>35-39yrs</td>
<td>p=0.034</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5a.8.5.5 Quality of Service Experience

With regard to the ‘quality of service’ consumption value there was no statistical significant difference between the economic groups (F(14, 1043) = .535, p= .095). Furthermore, a closer examination at the item level indicated that there were no significant differences.

5a.8.5.6 Altruistic Value

With regard to the ‘altruistic value consumption value there was no statistical significant difference between the age groups (F(14, 1043) = 2.557, p= .331). Furthermore, a closer examination at the item level indicated that there were no significant differences.

5a.8.5.7 Social Value

With regard to the ‘social value’ consumption value there was there was a statistical significant differences between the age groups (F(14, 1043) = 3.650, p = .000). A post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated, as illustrated in figure 5a.14, that the mean score for those aged 15-19yrs (20.80, ±5.84) differed significantly from those aged 40-44yrs (17.08, ±6.74), 45-49yrs (16.15, ±6.82) and 50-54yrs (15.16, ±6.92). Similarly those aged 20-24yrs (20.06, ±6.59) were significantly different to those aged 45-49yrs (16.15, ±6.82) and 50-54yrs (15.16, ±6.92).

![Figure 5a. 14 Age: Social Value Consumption Value](image-url)
Finally, those aged 75-79yrs (22.20, ±6.15) differed from those aged 50-54yrs (15.16, ±6.92). The effect size, calculated using eta squared was .05 indicating that only 5.0% if the variances relating to this factor is explained by age. The mean scores of all other age groups did not significantly differ from each other. There were a number of statistically significant differences at an item level, as illustrated in table 5a.38.

Table 5a. 38 Age Difference – Social Value Consumption Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Diff</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19yrs</td>
<td>-3.71</td>
<td>40-44yrs</td>
<td>p=0.025</td>
<td>η² = 0.047</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19yrs</td>
<td>+4.65</td>
<td>45-49yrs</td>
<td>p=0.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19yrs</td>
<td>+5.18</td>
<td>50-55yrs</td>
<td>p=0.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>+3.91</td>
<td>45-49yrs</td>
<td>p=0.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>-4.45</td>
<td>50-55yrs</td>
<td>p=0.008</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>-6.00</td>
<td>45-49yrs</td>
<td>p=0.025</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>-6.50</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=0.015</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV1: ‘Exercising helps me to feel socially acceptable’</td>
<td>15-19yrs</td>
<td>-1.19</td>
<td>50-55yrs</td>
<td>p=0.015</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+1.83</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=0.017</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV2: ‘Exercising improves the way I am perceived by others’</td>
<td>15-19yrs</td>
<td>-1.18</td>
<td>45-49yrs</td>
<td>p=0.002</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>-1.13</td>
<td>44-49yrs</td>
<td>p=0.049</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>-1.61</td>
<td>45-49yrs</td>
<td>p=0.038</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV3: ‘Exercising makes a good impression on other people’</td>
<td>15-19yrs</td>
<td>-1.29</td>
<td>50-55yrs</td>
<td>p=0.003</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SV6: ‘Exercising gives me more social opportunities’</td>
<td>15-19yrs</td>
<td>-1.22</td>
<td>45-49yrs</td>
<td>p=0.002</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20-24yrs</td>
<td>-1.32</td>
<td>50-55yrs</td>
<td>p=0.003</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>-1.66</td>
<td>45-49yrs</td>
<td>p=0.030</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>-1.76</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=0.025</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5a.8.5.8 Fun and Enjoyment

With regard to the ‘fun and enjoyment’ consumption value there was no statistical significant difference between the economic groups (F\(_{14, 1043}\) = 1.414, p= .139). However, a closer examination at the item level indicated that there a number of statistically significant differences at an item level, as illustrated in table 5a.39.
Table 5a. 39 Age: Fun and Enjoyment Consumption Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Diff</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Eta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fun and Enjoyment</td>
<td>PE1: ‘Exercising gives me pleasure’</td>
<td>60-64yrs</td>
<td>+.995</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=.021</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75-79yrs</td>
<td>+.30</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=.060</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PE4: ‘Exercising gives me happiness’</td>
<td>15-19yrs</td>
<td>+1.15</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>60-64yrs</td>
<td>+1.06</td>
<td>50-54yrs</td>
<td>p=.019</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PE7: ‘I enjoy trying new things when I exercise’</td>
<td>15-19yrs</td>
<td>+.771</td>
<td>40-44yrs</td>
<td>p=.016</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5a.9 Summary

The data from the ‘active adults’ questionnaire analysed in this chapter has helped move this thesis closer towards answering its research questions concerning identifying the dimensions of consumer value and measuring the consumption values that underpin adults participation in sport and physical activity. The first section (5a.2) explored the data in terms of descriptive statistics, missing value analysis and parametric assumptions. Section 5a.3 outlined how the S&PAVAL scale was developed using scale purification protocols (Churchill, 1979). Section 5a.4 outlined the exploratory factory analysis techniques which resulted in eight factors emerging. The S&PAVAL scale was verified and psychometric properties assessed in section 5a.5 via a confirmatory factory analysis which resulted in a multi-dimensional S&PAVAL Model containing 8-dimension and 50-items. Section 5a.6 indicated how the validity and reliability of the S&PAVAL Model was protected, with the final S&PAVAL Model being presented in section 5a.7. The final section of the chapter (5a.8) focused on identifying any gender, age and social economical status differences in the consumption value of physical active adults. With the data analysed these findings will be discussed in the context of the literature and research questions in Chapter 6 – Discussion.
Chapter 5b
Analysis of Findings – Qualitative Data
Chapter 5b: Analysis of Findings - Qualitative Data

5b.1 Introduction

The quantitative data analysis (chapter 5a) presented a final S&PAVAL scale comprised of 8-consumption values. In order to explore further the consumption values that underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity, section 5b.2 explores the transcribed active adult’s interviews, initially through these eight themes, before examining interviewee ‘notion of value’.

5b.2 Data Analysis of S&PAVAL Interviews

The interview questions and general discussions were based on the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework and included aspects of efficiency in terms of the costs and benefits of exercise, matters relating the physical environment or servicescape within which exercise occurs, the fun and enjoyment related aspects of exercising, the quality of service experience and with regard to other factors such as social and altruistic value.

Data analysis began at the transcription stage by dint of the interviews having been recording using Dragon NaturallySpeaking software and as a consequence of the software only being programmed to identify 1-voice (that of the researcher), it was necessary for the researcher to re-recorder each interview by playing both the part of the interviewer and interviewee. Despite this being a lengthy process, it did allow an
early ‘hermeneutic emersion’ into the life of the interviewee through re-speaking their words and to some extent re-living their stories. The interviews were then transcribed in full, where possible all words were transcribed including pauses, hesitations and repeated words in order to obtain as ‘true’ a transcription as possible (appendix 2).

Thompsons’s (1997) ‘Hermeneutical Framework’ was adopted in order to identify and understand relevant insights from the “texts” or stories that arose in the 20 in-depth interviews regarding a) any key individual patterns of meanings, b) any key group patterns of meaning and c) to identify wider conceptual and managerial implications that related to individuals participation in sport and physical activity. The analysis or coding of the transcription was undertaken manually, despite the availability of computer-aided analysis software (CAQDAS). This decision was taken in-part based on the arguments with in the literature which cautioned that “the software assists the management and retrieval of data, but does not replace the intuitive, interpretive aspects of analysis” (Rettie et al., 2008, p. 85) and Gilbert’s (2002) warning regarding falling into “a coding trap” and the need for a "metacognitive shift". Other critics of CAQDAS software such as Ereaunt (2003; 2010) and Welsh (2002) also pointed to the potential problems of “data fragmentation” and “decontextualisation”, whilst Davidson and Skinner’s (2010) comparison of manual verse computer-aided analysis techniques in a practitioner context indicated that manual analysis was on balance preferable. The decision to adopt a manual method of simply using a variety of different coloured highlighter pens to highlight relevant text was also taken in-part to counter-balance the overtly statistically nature of the SPSS and AMOS quantitative analysis. Therefore, each interview was listening to and re-listening to, each transcript was read and re-read, using the hermeneutical framework they were assessed and re-assess in terms of the consumers overall and individual interpretations, overall and individual consumption experiences as it related to the postulated consumption values and the types of meaning they constructed from their exercise experiences (Thompson, 1977).
5b.2.1 Benefits of Exercise
Interviewees were asked to describe the reasons why they exercised and what they would say to an inactive friend or relative to try and persuade them to become more physically active. Insights from these responses described the numerous benefit of which could be categorised as relating to either a healthy body or a healthy mind.

5b.2.1.1 Healthy Body
Physical aspects such as improved health, a reduce the risk of ill health, improved energy levels, improved sleep, improved body shape or a healthier weight were typical benefits that related to a healthy body. An improved body shape and/or the ability to lose weight were benefits noted across all age ranged and by both men and women:

“Yeah the visual side of things in the last few months since we have started has been really good, that again is a morale booster to know that it is actually working ...when you measure your body fat you can see that coming down as well, the little bits I do have, you can see that coming down and the muscle mass increasing. So visually it’s much better and you can feel it is well...“
Interviewee 7, Male: Aged 16-24yrs, (page 2)

“I’ve got photo on my phone where you can see the shape of my face when I was in comp and the shape of it now, and it's a lot different, it's a lot slimmer .... I think the main thing I always bring up is visually like, how you look, you feel a lot better with yourself.”
Interviewee 5, Male: Aged 16-24yrs, (page 5)

“Well not so much about losing weight but it was the toning to make things fit ... it was more than the fact I've lost inches...I know I’ve lost inches, definitely I’ve measured. I know that dresses that were very tight two years ago now fits perfectly and that's fantastic, but I’m the same weight and I'm just more toned.”
Interviewee 1, Female: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 2)

“...for anyone that says they're not interested in the way they look when they exercise would be a complete lie, we are all interested in turning up and improving the way parts of the body looks etc.. So I think that's part of it...”
Interviewee P2, Male: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 2)

“...so I am hoping I will lose a bit of weight, so I was so compensating for my social drinking I was drink maybe 15 pints a week or so which is a bit heavy and
A number of interviewees noted that leading a physically active lifestyle had helped them with their physical health and combating pre-existing conditions:

“...and I’ve got asthma as well so it helped with that, my breathing got a lot better... I used to take my pump quite often but I rarely have to take it now to be honest, which is good.”

Interviewee 6, Male: Aged 16-24yrs, (page 6)

“... the asthma side of it, it helped my asthma... Oh it did absolutely swimming and by being fit and not overweight .....the exercise did help asthma it’s a medical facts...”

Interviewee 15, Male: Aged 35-44yrs (page 4)

“...we’re going to review my medication and there is a good chance that I’m going to come off both, which is ideal and it’s just a question of me maintaining that... “

Interviewee 13, Male: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 13)

5b.2.1.2 Healthy Mind
The benefits of a healthy mind related to an improved mental outlook referred to variously as the feel-good-factor, a sense or achievement and de-stressing. A wide range of interviewees, both male and female who spanned the age ranges acknowledged the feel good factor:

“I'd say I feel better yes, I think a bit more better in myself nothing else has changed just feeling better, I look after my body a lot more and eating as well...”

Interviewee 5, Male: Aged 16-24yrs, (page 3)

“I exercise because I liked the burn afterwards and just seeing changes after a period of time and I feel much better in myself. There never a day I walk out feeling down. “

Interviewee 5, Male: Aged 16-24yrs, (page 9)
“I've definitely feel a million times better for it, the feel good factor after is well worth doing...I don't know it's just a nice switch off time, it's time for just me, I don't have to think about anyone else, no it’s just good I just really feel good”

Interviewee 1, Female: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 2)

“... you seem to be doing the same exercise for the same muscles for a longer time but again you feel better you feel better for it, but I know which muscles I have exercised.”

Interviewee 2, Female: Aged 65-74yrs, (page 6)

With regard to having an improved mental outlook as a result of exercising, typical comments were:

“Well it’s more to keep a real good state of mind, I like to know that I’m fit and healthy. I don’t necessarily eat the best but working-out is part of the routine of my life, playing football as well to stay active it gives me a boost to my morale knowing that I'm not sitting around laziness and it’s to get out, get active and keep fit to be honest.”

Interviewee 7, Male: Aged 16-24yrs, (page 2)

“... well it gives me a sense of accomplishment, a sense of achievement, a sense of strength because you get through the hard times... well I was talking about mentally, but physically as well. I know it does give you a bit of assurity that you can keep going, that you know can deal with physical things and mental things, you know that you've done it before and you can do it again”

Interviewee 11, Female: Aged 25-34yrs, (page 3)

“I think the great thing that this has done for me is just to help me improve my outlook, so I’ve improved my appearance by losing the weight etc and feeling better in myself…”

Interviewee 13, Male: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 13)

“For me it's the mental health well-being bit ... but the biggest thing to me is the mental health and well-being, it helps me keep my head clear and deal with ...”

Interviewee P2, Male: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 3)

“Well it’s for your mind as well as I think, because I've got friends who get depression and whatever, you know we all get it this time and when I come hear the I’m out of that environment and physical exercise I think is marvellous”

Interviewee 16, Male: Aged 75+,(page 2)
Being physically active was also noted as being an excellent de-stressor from a busy work and personal life:

“It started off as a challenge but I also do it for my own mental health. Well if I’m stressed if I’m not feeling, if I’m feeling down I train. That my way of coping…”

Interviewee 11, Female: Aged 25-34yrs, (page 2)

“At the moment it's about my stressful job, so it helps, it tires me out so I don't think about it when I go to bed. Yeah it’s a stressful job and you know it's exercise and I feel better after exercise, I have a lot more energy”

Interviewee 17, Female: Aged 25-34yrs, (page 2)

“…because my job is very stressful I find that it relieves stress so, and I find I feel far better after it and I can cope with situations far better.”

Interviewee P3, Male: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 3)

Finally, a number of older interviewees indicated that exercising set them up for the day:

“I come in the morning sometime because the training feels, it sets you up for the day, it feels a bit different training session, I’m doing same things but its different hours and you feel more alert.”

Interviewee 4, Male: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 8)

“Yes because it lifts your spirits, and I find coming here especially first thing in the morning, where-as some people say I must be mad, you'll be tier for the rest of the day, but it works the opposite way, I come here and it energises you for the starts of the day, it starts you off right and I think people are silly if they can't see that, they need to try it themselves.”

Interviewee 8, Female: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 2)

“I don't know whether because when I exercise I feel better for it and as a result of feeling better for it, I'm better for the day ... Yes I do I do feel energised after it.”

Interviewee P3, Male: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 3)

5b.2.2 Costs of Exercise

Active adult’s perceptions regarding the types of costs they incurred as a result of exercising was explored during the in-depth interviews by means of asking them to
describe any ‘downsides’ to exercising and to explain any reasons that might prevent them from participating on a specific day as they had planned to. Monetary costs was not mentioned as a ‘downside’ of exercise as often as other issues such as the high level of commitment, discipline and effort required especially against a backdrop of exhaustion and tiredness. Typical barriers that impacted upon interviewee’s ability to exercise as much as they wanted to centred on competing demands from work, family and loved-ones. Finally other negatives of exercising related to physical costs such as injuries and emotional costs such as feeling guilty about not exercising.

5b.2.2.1 Monetary Costs
The impact of money and price was referred to in terms of affordability and payback:

“It’s money first, as an outlay I just calculated I paid £21 a month that £210 per year and I'm a very mean chap, I count every penny, where as I might think here I'm not going to spend £210 on this.”

Interviewee 14, Male: Aged 75+, (page 14)

“Because you see some of the gym memberships now, when you look at the activities and the cost, from my own point the cost of golf, squash, gym, parking, fuel back and forth I would probable spend something in the region of £70 to £80 a week.....Yeah I am, but then the Golf is £80 a month, parking I'm probably spending £15 -£16 a week parking.... So the cost factor alone I'm probably spending about £300 a month on activities and that without Erin’s swimming lessons, without her ballet lessons when you add those together it expensive, maybe it’s a financial factor ...some people just can't afford it”

Interviewee 15, Male: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 5).

5b.2.2.2 It’s Hard Work
A number of interviewees commented that being physically active did not come easy, instead it required enormous amounts of commitment, discipline and effort:

“It’s the fact that you've got to work so hard to get any results, it would be nice if you could just go in there and just do a brisk walk for 10 minutes on the cross trainer and it be done, but I couldn't justify that there would be no point in doing that, so it is the fact that you have got to work so hard to see any results.”

Interviewee 12, Female: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 4)
“I think it is commitment to come training or to do any exercise because you can't just come today and not to do anything until next month, so you've got to be committed to it so that's where people sometimes fall down, is to give that commitment.”

Interviewee 4, Male: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 5)

“...there are times when you do feel, as you say you've had a hard day a long day at work and if I'm to train today, I won't tell a lie sometimes I put it off until tomorrow, but I can't miss the training session because I feel what I did yesterday or the day before is a waste of time and it is a big commitment”

Interviewee 4, Male: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 6)

“...you know when you talk to a lot of people, when they come down here they say phew ... I didn't feel like it today you know what I mean but on a scale of 10 and might find it 2 out of the10, not I can't be bothered ...

Interviewee 9, Male: Aged 65-74yrs, (page 4)

In addition to this a number of interviewees commented that a commitment to being physically active often left them feeling tired and exhausted:

“It can be exhausting at the end of every day I got to get up just before seven every morning, so if I finish in the gym at 10pm it is exhausting, you wake up in the morning and you can be real tired, so that's probably the biggest factor from me is tiredness ....I think it’s got worse now because the more intense the workouts get now the more drained you get, obviously we take our supplements as well to try and boost the protein in our bodies.”

Interviewee 7, Male: Aged 16-24yrs, (page 4)

“Basically tiredness I think, you know I have got up in the morning and I think God I'm tired you know and sometimes I think you've really got a push yourself right because I'm on this program all the time I really don't want to miss out on a day but tiredness would be probably the main thing for me”

Interviewee 10, Male: Aged 65-74yrs, (page 6)

5b.2.2.3 Competing Demands

A range of competing demands were expressed as reasons why interviewees might miss a planned exercise sessions such as work related, family and things that were considered to be more important:

“The only thing from me sometimes is work because I can work up to 8 o'clock and
by the time I get home and get ready the gym is usually closed, but other than that because I live in Tondu ...so if I’ve missed the train or if I’m late getting home the trains already gone that’s probably the biggest factor...”

Interviewee 7, Male: Aged 16-24yrs

“Well if my shift gets extended or if we get a cancellation or a problem in work that I have to stay for that’s happened where I’ve planned to come after work and not being able to as I’ve had to stay in work an extra couple of hours and when you’ve been in work since 4 o’clock in the morning the last thing you want to do if you’ve just been extended is to come...”

Interviewee 12, Female: Aged 35-44yrs: (page 5)

“...since the last three or four weeks because of college and work I can’t juggle between everything, so I had to cut down two days where I would be going to the gym, so Monday and Tuesday would be definite gym days”.

Interviewee 5, Male: Aged 16-24yrs (page 4)

“Work, work or illness. If I’ve had to work on a few hours, normally I’ll say I go home and get changed and go down the gym, if I can’t do that, so it generally it takes a lot to get me down the gym if I’ve had to work on an extra hour or two...”

Interviewee 17, Female: Aged 25-34yrs (page 5)

“The only reason I wouldn't exercise, it's fair to say that the bulk of the exercises do this during working hours, it’s always at lunchtime, and the only thing that stops me exercise on a planned lunchtime is a work commitment.”

Interviewee P2, Male: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 4)

Other reasons related to family and relationships:

“The only other thing that would stopped me would be the relationship I’m in but that wouldn't really bother me, I just juggle it about and I’d spend maybe one day of the weekend to come up for an hour so, but it’s not a big thing if I do miss out I’d go twice a week and I missed one day I would worry about it, it wouldn’t bother me”

Interviewee 5, Male: Aged 16-24yrs (page 6)

“Personally I don't see any negative aspect but there are for the family. I do often have a conversation about having to get up early in the morning and leaving before the kids go to school, so I don’t see my kids or my children first thing in the morning but that’s only four times a week, so I see them the rest of the time”

Interviewee P1, Male: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 2)
Some interviewees noted that other matters may arise that were considered to be more important:

“So really speaking although you fitness is important the other things in life are equally important than this, if the said to me this morning at half past nine can you come and take the youngster to school I'd have to take them to the school and then I'd work it in after”

Interviewee 9, Male: Aged 65-74yrs (page 5-6)

5b.2.2.5 Injury
The physical costs of being active were also referred to in terms of injuries and alike:

“The thing is sometime when I've injured something and I just don’t want to that, so I avoid it for a couple weeks, that's really it ...Yes but hasn't to stop me overall... “

Interviewee 6, Male: Aged 16-24yrs (page 3)

“Well you should see me trying to get out of bed in the morning! I do struggle with my lower back issues and I thinks some of the problems from the past, from sport and rugby and activity especially riding with some of the accidents I've had, I do tend to get quite stiff, so it’s all the stretching things that we've never did in the past I now have to do to keep going...”

Interviewee 15, Male: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 3)

“I've always tried to be active yes, about 15 years ago I was playing squash 4 to 5 times a week, buts that is petered out once my knees started hurting, I used to do a bit of a running on the roads but now I find I can't do that either because my knees ache.... Just my knees, so don't the running machine here because I find it hurts bit if I go on the cross trainer because I find it low impact or less impact.”

Interviewee P3, Male: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 2)

5b.2.2.6 Obsessional/Feeling Guilty
The emotional costs of being active were also referred to in terms of feeling guilty about not exercising and/or taking a day-off:

“You can get obsession about it and you can burn out, once you get hooked it's hard to give yourself a day off and you can push yourself too far it’s a fine line...”

Interviewee 11, Female: Aged 25-34yrs, (page 4)
“No I do feel guilty and if depending if I'm working overtime on my day off and I can’t get to the gym then sometimes I'm thinking ooh, it does start to worry me that I haven't been it’s quite sad really. I never thought I'd get like that.”

Interviewee 12, Female: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 3)

5b.2.3 Physical Environment

Customer perceptions of the physical environment or servicescape (Bitner, 1992) within which their physical activity occurred was explored in the in-depth interviews by means of asking them to describe what a perfect visit would be like for them. Insights from the in-depth interviews revealed that customers prioritised aspects of both the ambient conditions and elements of their physical surroundings.

5b.2.3.1 Ambient Conditions

The ambient condition of the facility in terms of the levels of cleanliness and temperatures within which the interviewees exercised was an important aspect of being physically active:

“I think the cleanliness side of it is very important because until they did the new changing rooms in Bridgend, they were dreadful I’ve got to say they were absolutely awful they are much better now...”

Interviewee 3, Female: Aged 65-74yrs, (page 6)

“When you get into the lockers they clean and the changing areas are clean, nice warm showers and the Pool warm”

Interviewee 8, Female: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 5)

“I’ve got to be honest with you love, sometimes I come here on a Saturday morning and the state of the car park out there is absolutely disgusting and I also notice that outside the reception here there are bottles and cans in things and I think to myself if anyone was entering the recreation centre they would say good god look at the mess here”

Interviewee 9, Male: Aged 65-74yrs, (page 6)

“... I want it to be light and I want it to be cool. I don’t want it to be hot and I don't want things covered in sweat, I don't want to be interfered unless I want help I just want to be able to get on with it.”

Interviewee 11, Female: Aged 25-34yrs, (page 7)

“The only one complaint I have got about this place is the heat, when I take my
daughter swimming I take her in to get her changed and the we go into the cafe and sit down and I just feel like I'm going to pass it is literally that hot, that is my only complaint the rest of the place the staff are fantastic and I think it is lovely place to come here”

Interviewee 15, Male: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 7)

5b.2.3.2. Surroundings

Interviewee also made reference to elements of the physical surroundings in terms of the availability and serviceability of various items of equipment.

“...but someone who trains at a level like I do I will look at the equipment being up to scratch, all working in good order easy access I would say that that is most important to me, someone else might think differently...I wouldn't want to come in here and find three or four running machines out-of-order and the other three-year being used and I wouldn't want two bikes out of order and someone else using the bikes ...”

Interviewee 4, Male: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 7)

“Well I think mine would be when I go to the gym like, when I go to the machine and there someone on there, my perfect thing would be I could go on any piece of kit whenever I wanted, instead of waiting a couple of minutes or something.”

Interviewee 6, Male: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 4)

”...you know in the men’s changing rooms downstairs there's a toilet seat been missing for about six weeks and now you know Paula I don't use the toilet facilities but I’ve hear people saying there's no toilet roll there...”

Interviewee 9, Male: Aged 65-74yrs, (page 6)

“...there would be hair driers in the dry side changing area, ones that actually work because I have a tendency to go under the hand dryer in the loos to dry my hair which isn't an idea ideal.”

Interviewee 11, Female: Aged 25-34yrs, (page 7)

“The lockers I think are poor, a lot of them are broken and I’m not happy about the shower area ...sometimes I think the toilets shouldn't be what they should be, regarding anything else in the centre I think it's really, really good”

Interviewee 10, Male: Aged 65-74yrs, (page 7)

“ No I don't think it would be an excuse for the changing rooms, I think that would be my main grouse I think...You know I don't think ...the lockers for one could be a lot better than they are, you know because you put coins in there and sometimes
5b.2.4 Social Value

The degree to which active adults participation was been influenced by social value was explored by means of asking them what role being physically active played in their lives and in terms of any self-reflective comments they might say to an inactive friend or relative when trying to persuade them to become more physically active. Insights from the interviews indicated that the role of family and social opportunities were important, as were the positive comments from and favourable impressions made to others.

5b.2.4.1 Fit Families

A number of the interviewee made reference to other members of their family or friends also being physically active, suggesting that partaking in exercise was considered to be ‘normal’:

“Well my mother was a lifeguard from a very young age, she stopped doing that about the five or ten years ago now, my father played football up until the age of 40, so yes most of my family is on the rugby side as well, so it’s a bit of a change for me to go to football, but yeah both sides of the family are really active...”

Interviewee 7, Male: Aged 16-24yrs, (page 3)

“My Dad always played football and rugby through his youth and then to be honest with you I started riding horses and about five, and he gave up all his sport to chaperone me and took me everywhere, so pretty much he done that. But it’s always been, we play tennis together whatever we could...”

Interviewee 15, Male: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 3)

“Yes my son the one son goes to the gym a lot and the others are active with their work and my daughter goes to Pencoed gym because she finds it easier to get there.”

Interviewee 8, Female: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 4)
5b.2.4.2 Social Opportunities

One of the interviewees raised how engaging in sport and physical activity had facilitated social opportunities and was now an important aspect of his social life and friendship network:

“It’s a biggy, meeting up with your friends on a regular basis specially with Golf to be honest, we always have a couple of pints after the Golf so that’s more sociable activity and enjoyment, where the squash again with friends is a good activity and if it’s an evening we’ll have a couple of pints after and if it’s in the day we have a coffee, so it very social...”

Interviewee 15, Male: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 2)

“...the social aspect is the biggest thing you know playing sport I’ve got friends from school rugby that still socialise with now. But that is probably 30 or 40% of my life is sport and the people I’ve met through it...”

Interviewee 15, Male: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 4)

5b.2.4.3 Positive Peer Review

A large number of interviewees indicted that they had received appreciation or favourable comments from others and whilst they hadn’t sought such comments they were never-the-less well received:

“Hum, Mum thinks it brilliant she went to the gym and Viv obviously is very approving, nobody been negative, they have all said how much better I’m looking and that has boosted me.”

Interviewee 1, Female: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 3)

“...more so in work now specially now in my uniform, as I said my skirt was tight and a lot of people now, especially over the last couple weeks have started to notice... colleagues who are close by yes, they knew that I was watching what I was eating and obviously that I was training because I go to the gym before my late shift, but there were people, say some of the cleaners and other staff who work in the same company but in different department, they would also they have started to notice and it's fantastic...”

Interviewee 12, Female: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 4)

“Well a lot of people I work with and Jackie’s friends they think it's brilliant what I do, at my age to still go climbing 18,000 feet and stuff like that...”

Interviewee 4, Male: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 4)

“...one thing I’m always asked when I go to the gym is can I ask how old you are
...because nobody will believe me that I'm nearly 70, because they say you're joking”

Interviewee 10, Male: Aged 65-74yrs, (page 3)

“...Stewart who runs the GP gym he has my name in lights, I’ve been in the latest GP referral newsletter I’m on it you know...”

Interviewee 13, Male: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 1)

“I had my name in the magazines here once promoting the exercise with older people and I’ve got a son in Australia so I sent it to him and he was thrilled he said that's lovely.”

Interviewee 16, Male: Aged 75+, (page 4)

5b.2.4.4 Favourable Impressions
A couple of interviewees indicated that their decision to exercise was, in-part, focused on trying to make a favourable impressions on others:

“Well you know one of the biggest things from me and a few of my friends as well is the visual side of things, at my age it's a lot about going out to town looking good, the way you look, the way you do your hair, your body is a big fact of life at my age and I think that that would be a big persuader to show them the benefits of what you can do and your physically stronger and mentally stronger as well because you know, you don’t want to fight the world but you are confident in yourself and if you were cornered by someone you would know what you got in you “

Interviewee 7, Male: Aged 16-24yrs (page 3-4)

“It is quite important, for anyone that says they're not interested in the way they look when they exercise would be a complete lie, we are all interested in turning up and improving the way parts of the body looks etc...”

Interviewee P2, Male: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 2)

“...the major thing was my wife took up a class here once a week and I thought hay she looks beautiful I better make myself look better, OK that was it.”

Interviewee 14, Male: Aged 75+, (page 2)

5b.2.5 Quality Service Experience
Customer perceptions of their experience of facility staff and activities were explored in the in-depth interviews by means of asking them to describe what a perfect visit
would be like for them. The important role that staff’s skill, knowledge and attitudes played as part of their consumption experience was evident through a range of complimentary comments relating to staff.

5b.2.5.1 Customer Experience

A number of interviewees comments upon how important the role of staff was to their overall experience:

“… the girls are so polite, of course I’ve known a lot of the staff for donkeys years because I’ve been coming since it opened, the kids were young when it opened…”

Interviewee 1, Female: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 4)

“Well from start to finish, the staff are always pleasant, I can’t fault that and I know some of the staff, so yes staff are pleasant …”

Interviewee 4, Male: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 7)

“…at Reception if your greeted with anything like ‘how’s the weather’ it’s nice to have that little bit of interaction and bonding between you and the members of staff”

Interviewee 7, Male: Aged 16-24yrs, (page 5)

“I must say the staff always good I’ve got no complaints at all there”

Interviewee 8, Female: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 5)

There were also numerous comments indicating the important role that the class instructor plays:

“Well the teacher makes all the difference, you know and Allison is brilliant and I always enjoy this class more so really than the other one because of the people as well, it’s not just the exercise I suppose…”

Interviewee 2, Female: Aged 65-74yrs, (page 6)

“ Alison is excellent I always feel that I’ve done and an exercise class when she takes it, so I would say that I am probably more active now that I’ve retired than I was when I was working”

Interviewee 3, Female: Aged 65-74yrs, (page 2)
5b.2.5.2 Relationships and Rapport

Furthermore, the importance of having staff member in the fitness suite and having a positive relationship with a regular instructor was also emphasised:

“...they (the gym instructors) know everything to be honest and I wouldn't expect anything less but it's nice to know if you need to ask them they are more than willing if you ask them to for advice on my biceps or triceps and they will show you a number of different exercises what you can do and they explain the benefits and not to work too hard and to work within your limits…”

Interviewee 7, Male: Aged 16-24yrs, (page 6)

“the GP referral staff are great because you know them all by first name etc... and yeah you know I do the key card and I go and do what I need to do and the great thing is as well I can ask them if I need help for various bit of equipment and as I said to you early about getting the technique right, so I find every time I come it works out fine for me, friendly, helpful you know approachable and it’s just easy to do here and I don't have any issues with any of the staff “

Interviewee 13, Male: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 10)

“...if I feel I could really done a bit more particularly with the instructors in the class, I mean with the older spinning regime Delme was the regular instructor and he would really push us because we were regular attendee at his class he knew us, and he knew that we are capable of a particular level and he pushed us…”

Interviewee P2, Male: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 5)

“Yeah, yeah, the only thing that sometimes there are issued keys when they're not around ... there was one lady waited quite a while a short while ago for an instructor because there was nobody around and some people, I know a lot of the instructors, but this lady didn't know so she just stood there for 10 to 15 minutes ...

Interviewee 12, Female: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 7)

5b.2.6 Altruistic Value

Interviewees were asked to describe the reasons why they exercised which resulted in a number of insights supporting the relevance of altruistic factors in a sports and physical activity context. Interviewees commented upon the importance of exercising for future rewards such as avoiding ill-health, prolonging their life expectancy and ensuring more independence in later life:
5b.2.6.1 Avoiding Ill-health

A number of interviewees indicated that being physically active was an important element in warding off any impending conditions:

“Well the lifestyle would be better wouldn’t it, it could prevent any heart problems any blood pressure problems sometimes cholesterol you know because cholesterol is to do with what you eat, so therefore you change your eating habits, so it can change your lifestyle…”

Interviewee 4, Male: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 4)

“…from my personal health I see exercises as being extremely important, obviously to ward off any impending conditions or just to make myself feel as comfortable and happy soon as I can … I want to continue on as long as I possibly can to help stave off conditions that come-on as you get over older…”

Interviewee P1, Male: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 1)

“…my aim is to reach over 70 and still be in reasonable condition, but I think that my aim when I’m 70-75 I’ll be very happy, if this is way off trying to get me to that point because I want to enjoy 10 years of my retirement and that’s what I’m looking for and I want to get some value out of the money I paid in.”

Interviewee P3, Male: Aged 55-64yrs (page 7).

5b.2.6.2 Prolonged Life Expectancy

In a similar vein to avoiding ill-health, exercising to improve future health and therefore life expectancy was mentioned by a number of interviewees:

“…I’m looking at people my age because next year it’s my birthday in a month and next year I’ll be 50, so you know I have to say that because I don’t believe it myself I don’t feel it you know and I’m reaching a stage in life now that things are starting to go south, that’s right and things drop off memory and all the other bits. Funnily enough when I walk around town I look at people and say 10-15 years older than me and they got mobility scooter or they’ve got a walking stick and they are obese and no I don’t want to be like that”

Interviewee 13, Male: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 7)

“I've always exercised but now, I find it far more important because of my little girl. I'm of an age now I'm 42 and she's four and so to allow myself to keep fit to keep doing exercise with her through her teens and hopefully seeing her through College and Uni, I need to keep fit and exercise and keep going really. So I do enjoy it but that the main reason…”

Interviewee 15, Male: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 2-3)
“... a fourth thing is I smoke, so as a result of smoking I think this will do a lots of good for my lungs and what have you to try and clear them a bit.”

Interviewee P3, Male: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 1)

5b.2.6.3 Independence in later life

The final future or deferred reward mentioned by interviewees related to ‘helping yourself’ to be fit and well in later life:

“Yes because if I didn't by now, if I hadn't come here and done the exercise, I would be in a wheelchair and if you don't help yourself nobody else is going to do it for you.”

Interviewee 8, Female: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 2)

“... I suffered with arthritis in my shoulders and my elbows a bit, so I went to the doctor and said look I need to do something about this and she said yeah OK we’ll get you down the gym and that's where it all started and I came on the referral course and I did my 16 weeks in it...”

Interviewee 10, Male: Aged 65-74yrs, (page 2)

With regard to avoiding unnecessary cost to the Health Service, one customer who had been prescribed physical activity by his doctor commented:

“I think it's the right thing to do because I can understand the benefits of doing it, the benefit of doing is that of course you can reduce your medication or come off it completely and the whole idea behind it is to get people away from going to doctors, so the savings they can make...”

Interviewee 13, Male: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 2)

5b.2.7 Fun & Enjoyment

Insights from the in-depth interviews appear two-fold. Firstly adults that are physically active placed particular emphasis on friendliness, friendship and fun elements that arose as a result of being physically active but also demonstrated a ‘love’ or ‘love-hate’ relationship with regard to actually enjoying their exercise.
5b.2.7.1 Friendliness, Friendship and Fun

A number of interviewees indicated the supportive role that friendliness and friendships added to their exercise activities:

“...on Tuesday we’ve got a little Aquafit group that we meet the first Tuesday of month we meet for coffee up in the Pines, you know where McArthur Glen is and we’ve arranged trips to go to the theatre, I do the arranging, there is a group of about 12 of us and we go to the theatre and at Christmas time we have a meal at Bryngwar House and then what we do is we all pay an extra £1 and we pay for Alison’s meal when she comes with us, which is really nice. Last year there were 32 of us and this year there are 26 of us, you know there is the social side to it as well...”

Interviewee 3, Female: Aged 65-74yrs, (pages 5)

“I would say now it's more of the social part of it, you are speaking to different people, whoever you are next to in the pool you’re having a little chat, it’s about speaking to different people ... and its nice just to have a little bit of interaction and a bit of a laugh.”

Interviewee 1, Female: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 6)

“Yes lots of new friends, I've come more since my husband died about four years ago...”

Interviewee 2: Female: Aged 65-74yrs, (page 2)

“I find it say if you like, if you workout you have a 30-second rest and you can talk to your friends and stuff, so I wouldn't really like to come that much on my own and I think I've just come once out of the year on my own.”

Interviewee 6, Male: Aged 16-24yrs, (page 5)

Interviewees also reinforced that having fun and enjoying themselves was an important aspect of partaking in physical activity:

“Yes I enjoy the water, I learnt to swim when I was 40, I couldn't swim at all before that ...and I learnt to swim there and I really enjoyed it, before that I wouldn't even put my face in the water, when my son was little I’d be down the shallow end of the water, but I enjoyed it so much and I like Aqua fit and I'm not a gym person I can't see me on the running machine, but I do like aquafit and enjoy it”

Interviewee 3, Female: Aged 65-74yrs, (page 3)
“I always meet my friends here and we always have a good time, have a laugh and a joke...”
Interviewee 5, Male: Aged 16-24yrs, (page 7)

“I really enjoy and I love the pool you know the exercise we do to music in the pool”
Interviewee 16, Female: Aged 75+, (page 5)

“Yes, I mean I do enjoy it, obvious enjoyment is a big part of good exercise, so I do enjoy it ....I still enjoy getting up early in the mornings and come in early because I prefer to training first thing in the morning, so I enjoy that.”
Interviewee P1, Male: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 2)

5b.2.7.2 ‘Love-Hate’

Whilst fun and enjoying was stated as an important aspect of partaking in physical activity, a number of those interviewed also provided an intriguing insight into a ‘love-hate’ relationship with regard to being physically active - being able to enjoy it when it hurts or enjoying certain activities and loathing others:

“I do kind of get to enjoy it even when it hurts, if you know what I mean... Sometimes I don't, sometimes I train because I have too and there are plenty of sessions like that that I don't enjoy but I do it because it has got to be done, it's just one of those thing in the day that just has to be done. Whereas there are other sessions were I love it”
Interviewee 11, Female: Aged 25-34yrs, page 2

“I can't say I immensely enjoyed it, I can't say I love doing it but it to me is all about the weight coming off and it's something I feel I have to do. I know I feel better after I've done it and I know it's working but it's just like going to work is something I have to do.”
Interviewee 12, Female: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 3)

“...yes I am enjoy coming here and doing the activities and I know I’m keeping myself fit and fitter but at the end of the day it’s not the be all and end all of my life it’s something I do.”
Interviewee 13, Male: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 9)

“Yes and no! Yes I enjoyed bits of it...I like to think I’ve done well, one of the things I do enjoy is I aim to try and beat my time on the rower ...”
Interviewee 13, Male: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 11)

“The gym, well I really don't like the gym if I'm honest it's literally just enough to keep me fit to carry on playing squash and golf. So it's a need as opposed to an enjoyment”
Interviewee 15, Male: Aged 35-44yr, (page 2)
“I don't enjoy running but I do enjoy doing this circuit its different every week something like that. Yet I feel better after, I know I'm going to feel better after so that helps…”

Interviewee 17, Female: Aged 25-34yrs, (page 3)

“No I don't enjoy coming to the gym, I will say that categorically I don’t. If I were played badminton or squash then I would enjoy that.”

Interviewee P3, Male: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 8)

5b.2.8 Notion of Value

Active adults understanding of value was explored in the in-depth interviews by means of asking them to describe something they considered to be valuable. Insights from these interviews revealed that customers viewed value in a number of different ways. Some interviewee recounted ‘value-in-exchange’ and ‘value-in-use’ examples, whilst others described item that had an ‘elemental value’ such as health and family relationships.

5b.2.8.1 Value-in-exchange

A range of interviewees conceived value as a one-dimensional construct where economic and cognitive reasoning is used to assess the relevant benefits and costs in terms of a quality-price trade-off:

“... my husband plays golf and his golf fees are a lot more than that and I’m always saying I’m getting good value for mine, but I’m also losing him for 5-hours a day on the golf course and that’s invaluable, you can’t put a value on that…”

Interviewee 3, Female: Aged 65-74, (page 8)

“It’s money first, as an outlay I just calculated I paid £21 a month that £210 per year and I’m a very mean chap, I count every penny, where as I might think here I’m not going to spend £210 on this, the fact that I’m doing it over monthly periods and not thinking about it they must have some inherent value to me”

Interviewee 14, Male: Aged 75+, (page 13-14)

“I mean it’s a different range really obviously price is probably the biggest barrier or the biggest issues for most people but obviously having a corporate card means that it is cheaper than the standard bridge card but even the standard bridge card costs are quite favourable compared to other facilities, basically just making sure
“to know what you expect out of your membership is what you get ...”

Interviewee P1, Male: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 3)

“Well to me at the moment I suppose it’s time, time is valuable to me at the moment... to get things, to cram everything in I want to cram in. Well that could be the answer for a lot of people I suppose. There are just aren't enough hours in the day, so my time and my time off, I value my time of to be able do what I want and when I want”

Interviewee 12, Female: Aged 35-44, (page xx)

5b.2.8.2 Value-in-use

A number of customer viewed value as a multi-dimensional construct which formed a more holistic representation of value in terms of the outcome experiences:

“... it isn’t necessary about money, yes money does get you this that and the other, but it doesn’t give you your health and that’s what this coming down here is giving me, if I stopped coming my mobility would go downhill and then I would lose the quality of my life, So to me that means more... I know that I don’t pay from my bridge card anymore, but in all fairness if we had to pay for it as far as I’m concerned this is a necessary part of my life...”

Interviewee 8, Female: Aged 55-64, (page 6)

“...I think what I value or is valuable from what you’re giving here is the opportunity to remain fit, the opportunity to elongate my life, because you gain the benefit from that...”

Interviewee 13, Male: Aged 45-54, (page 13)

“Well my family life is valuable, that is my biggest enjoyment and the thing that I worry about the most, so that is valuable to me and part of exercising, the friendship and social life and all that is part of the family life, so these facilities allow me to come and Erin and socialise in the Crèche, I use the Crèche quite a lot all those facilities is key to me being happy, well more for her and she is a very sociable child and spending a lot of time, she’ll come in all the girls know her by name and they all say hello and how you, value to me is having these facilities to help my family life to be more enjoyable”

Interviewee 15, Male: Aged 35-44, (page 8)

5b.2.8.3 Elemental Value

Other interviewees described examples such as health and family relationships, example that appeared to have an inherent or elemental value to them.
“Value means to me making friends really, I’ve made some really good friends through this and that means a lot to me…”

Interviewee 2, Female: Aged 65-74, (page 7)

“Well I’d say my family is valuable and friendship and having good friends you know people to call on, I’ve got a support of family getting away from everything else that is valuable…”

Interviewee 4, Male: Aged 55-64, (page 8)

“Well what is it that I value, what value more than anything else in life because I think that is what we are talking about is family above all, no matter what, it doesn’t matter what I do in life I’m a dad and husband and that how identified with, so I think from my own a point of view dealing with life as I do in those terms.”

Interviewee 13, Male: Aged 45-54, (page 13)

“Value is something that you keep close, I suppose that my friends I like to keep them close and stuff like that…”

Interviewee 6, Male: Aged 55-64, (page 5)

“…I think health is very important and that may seem strange coming from someone who smokes, who is damaging their health up to a point…”

Interviewee P3, Male: Aged 55-64, (page 7)

5b.3 Summary

The insights from the ‘active adults’ interviewed analysed in this chapter has added to this thesis knowledge regarding answering its research question concerning defining, dimensionising and better understanding the consumption values that underpin adults participation in sport and physical activity, by allowing interviewees to tell their exercise stories in their own words.
Chapter 6
Discussion
Chapter 6 Discussion

6.1 Introduction

The analysis of both the quantitative and qualitative data undertaken in the previous chapter indicated that, in a sport and physical activity setting, consumer value is a multi-dimensional construct which is comprised of elements relating to the physical environment within which exercise occurs, altruistic behaviours, both the cost and benefits associated with participation, the quality of service experience, social value and fun & enjoyment value.

Therefore the objective of this chapter is to draw out and discuss the key findings (chapters 5a and 5b) from data collected (chapter 4) in relation to the relevant literature (chapter 2) which was informed by the three research questions (chapter 1) which have guided this thesis. These research questions were:

– What are the consumption values that underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity?

– What influence, if any, do social-demographic (age, gender and social class) factors have upon consumption values in a sport and physical activity setting?

– Is consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting uni- or multi-dimensional?

As these three research questions have provided the rationale for this thesis they are used to structure the start of this chapter, before moving onto to discuss the S&PAVAL model in terms of the three key social marketing concepts of
competition, the exchange concept and behaviour change posited to have a greater influence upon the adoption of health behaviour such as participating in sport and physical activity.

Therefore, in the first section (6.2) the S&PAVAL model is discussed in the context of the study’s findings and associated literature. The second section (6.3) of the chapter elaborates on the S&PAVAL model by discussing, what if any impact, the modifying influences of age, gender and social economic status have upon consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting. The third section (6.4) discusses the multi-dimensional nature of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting both in terms of the existing literature and with regard to a new and emerging conceptualisation of value as either a continuum or kaleidoscope or as having an elemental quality.

Section 6.5 discusses the S&PAVAL model in terms of the factors that compete with and can prevent physical activity participation. Using Crawford’s et al. (1991) hierarchy of constraints and Raymore’s (2002) facilitator concept to propose a framework of how the 8-dimensions of consumer value can be used to negate or minimise such competing forces. Section 6.6 discusses the S&PAVAL model in terms of bringing about a voluntary behaviour considered to be the “holy grail” for social marketers (Kaczynski, 2008) by using the S&PAVAL 8-consumption values as trigger for behaviour change.

The penultimate section (6.7) discusses how the S&PAVAL model underscores the need to move from value that is exchanged to value that is co-created as a driver of sport and physical activity participation. In this regard an S&PA Customer Value Creation Framework is proposed which illustrates how value is created, exchanged and consumed in a sport & physical activity setting and can therefore be used as a driver of participation. The concluding section (6.8) reiterates the key points made during this chapter, not least that this is the first study to empirically establish the nature of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting.
6.2 What are the dimensions of Consumer Value in a Sport & Physical Activity Setting?

6.2.1 Introduction

The study’s first research question focused on identifying the consumption values that underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity. Despite the emerging importance of value as an incentive for customers to perform desired behaviours (Zainuddin et al., 2011; Kolter and Lee, 2008) prior to the study’s investigation there has been no examination of the value construct as it pertains to the consumption of sport and physical activity opportunities. The findings of this study therefore represent a significant contribution to the understanding of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting and offers hither-to unknown insights with which to design exercise offerings that can effectively attract adults into becoming physically active, benefiting themselves and society alike.

6.2.2 Sport and Physical Activity (S&PAVAL) Model

A preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework (figure 4.5) was postulated, the purpose of which was to build on the foundations and strengths of earlier conceptions and measurement scales of consumer value, some of which had proposed that value dimension were independent of each other such as Sheth et al. (1991), whilst others such as Sweeny and Soutar (2001) proposed that value dimension were interrelated. Whilst different authors have adopted different terminology for their various value dimensions four were consistently represented that of functional, social, emotional and altruistic value (Holbrook 2006; Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001) in the literature. After reviewing the various conceptions and typologies Holbrook’s (1994, 1999) typology (figure 2.12) was considered to be the most suitable theoretical basis with which to move the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework beyond the rational or functional understanding of value to instead understand the importance of the emotional or hedonic aspects of value in a sport and physical activity context.

However, the complexity of Holbrook’s (1999) structure had limited its operationalisation and ability to capture certain types of value such as ethical and
spiritual (Holbrook, 1999). For this and other reasons the few extant empirical exploration of this typology have only covered reduced sets of selected categories (Gallarza and Saura, 2006; Mathwick et al., 2001). In this regard, the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework was based on a notable exception with-in the literature that of Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) empirical adaptation of Holbrook (1999) typology based in a service context; specifically vegetarian restaurants. The authors argue that their adapted model was a more comprehensive approach to the value construct because it captured the “diverse aspects of the consumption experience, both cognitive and affective in nature – that is, the economic, social, hedonic and altruistic categories of consumer value” (p. 97). Accordingly, the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual model was based on a sport and physical activity adaptation of Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) model (figure 3.3). As a result of the quantitative strand of the investigation 8-consumption values were identified as underpinning adults participation in sport and physical activity where combined with insights from the qualitative interviews to form the S&PAVAL model illustrated in figure 6.1 which is comprised of: Physical Environment – ambiance, Physical Environment – surroundings, Altruistic Value, Benefits of Exercise, Quality Services Experience, Cost of Exercise, Fun and Enjoyment Value and Social Value.

![Figure 6.1 S&PAVAL Model](image-url)
The study’s findings indicate that some consumption values contributed more than others for example physical environment – ambiance and surroundings would appear or play a more influential role that fun and enjoyment or social value as indicated in table 5a.21 Each of the sport and physical activity consumption values are now discussed in order of importance over the next eight sections.

6.2.2.1 Physical Environment – ambiance

In a departure from previous research on consumer value and following Edvardsson et al. (2008) and Grönroos & Ravald (2011), the study operationalised Holbrook’s (1999) ‘aesthetics’ not in terms of beauty or other abstruse concepts but in terms of the physical environment or servicescape within which the physical activity is performed, delivered and consumed (Bitner, 1992). Whilst the Bitners’s (1992) servicescape traditionally canvases both customer and employee responses and behaviour, the study’s use of it concentrated solely on active adult’s responses within a leisure centre and swimming pool setting. Never-the-less, utilising the servicescape was considered particularly relevant as it is now viewed as an opportunity for interaction and value co-creation. In this regard the study’s findings supported the use of the various servicescape concepts both as a key dimension of consumer value rather than simply as factors that impact upon consumers decisions to stay, explore, spend money, return or avoid places (Edvardsson et al., 2008 and Grönroos & Ravald, 2011).

The importance of ‘aesthetic value’ to active adult’s consumption experience was clearly articulated by the emergence of two separate dimensions from the data which disaggregated aesthetic value into two of Bitner’s (1992) servicescape dimensions: physical environment – ambiance (ambiance conditions) and physical environment – surroundings (signs, symbols and artifcats). The study’s findings using data gathered from the quantitative strand of the investigation indicated that the physical environment – ambiance value dimension was ranked the highest of all 8-dimensions (0.77) which was supported by comments made during the qualitative interviews.

Researchers have identified that ambient conditions within the servicescape comprise of visual stimuli such as lighting, colours, brightness shapes (Dijkstra et al., 2008), scent, air quality and fragrance (Mattila and Wirtz, 2001), temperature (Reimer and
Kuehn, 2005) and auditory stimuli such as music (Morin et al., 2007; Oakes and North, 2008) which is broadly consistent with the findings of this study which found that aspects such as the lighting (A5= .836), smell (A4=.823), air quality (A2= .751), temperature (A1=.652) and music (A3=.645) were also important in influencing an active adults consumption experience, as expressed by the comment below:

“... I want it to be light and I want it to be cool. I don’t want it to be hot and I don't want things covered in sweat ...”

Interviewee 11, Female: Aged 25-34yrs, (page 7)

And

“The only one complaint I have got about this place is the heat, when I take my daughter swimming I take her in to get her changed and the we go into the cafe and sit down and I just feel like I'm going to pass it is literally that hot, that is my only complaint the rest of the place the staff are fantastic and I think it is lovely place to come here”

Interviewee 15, Male: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 6-7)

A clear implication of Bitner’s (1992) model is that the physical setting within which physical activity occurs can either help or hinder a customer’s consumption experience, in terms of their cognitive, emotional and physiological responses which may in turn influence their behaviours. Thus, active adults participation may in some way be mediated by their internal response to their setting. As the consumption of exercise is experiential in nature and high in credence attributes (Zeithmal, 1988) affording few intrinsic cues upon which to base value judgements, active adults may use extrinsic cues such as their physical environment or servicescape to form judgements about their consumption experience.

More obviously the perceived servicescape may also affect active adults in a purely physiological way – the music in the aerobics class may be too loud and cause discomfort, the temperature in the fitness suite may be too warm and cause them to perspire, or the air quality in the pool hall smelling of chlorine may make it difficult to breath – all of which may directly influence their consumption experience. The importance of such factors should not be underestimate as Hall et al. (2010) have indicated that in-terms of attendance at major sporting events the suitability of facilities was the most significant predictor of future attendance.
The way in which this category reflects consumer value suggests the need for future offerings to give careful consideration to the participation servicescape in terms of ensuring the overall ambiance of the facility is focused towards ensuring it is comfortable to exercise in, therefore the study offers the following definition of the Physical Environment – ambiance consumption value in a sport and physical activity context as ‘the ambiance conditions, such as lighting, smell, air quality, temperature and music that create a pleasant environment in the minds of physically active adults’ and within which to exercise’.

As a result of the study’s insights, policy-makers and leisure providers can now base their service provision on emphasising the experiences and outcomes which appear to be highly valued by active adults such as the physical environment with-in which physical activity occurs. The removal of ‘structural barriers’ (Crawford et al., 1991) and the emphasis placed on access to suitable sport & physical activity opportunities and facilities is a critical element underpinning adults exercise consumption. Indeed of all the ‘barriers’ to participation the ability of policy-makers and leisure providers to enhance the facilities within which exercise occurs is the most amenable to management control.

For example the use of background music in the fitness suites or in the swimming pool which can be a contentious issue for many customers. The Musicscape framework is an extension of Bitner’s (1992) servicescape model, and focuses on only one of the ambient conditions – music and its impact upon creating beneficial consumer response by positively influencing consumer mood and expectations. Research by Herrington and Capella (1996) has indicated musical preference can have a positive influence on both time and money spent by customers. Numerous studies have indicated that the more a customer enjoys as piece of music the longer they perceive the time period to be (Kellaris and Kent, 1992; Hui et al., 1997) and conversely disliked pieces of music resulting in a shorter time estimation (Kellaris and Mantel, 1994). Finally, with regard to the volume of background music research has indicated that louder music resulted in a short shopping time (Simth and Curnow’s, 1966) whilst Herrington and Capella (1996) reported no influence on shopping time.
In summary, the study’s findings indicated that the value adults receive from being physically active is related, in-part, to their expectations of fit for purpose facilities in terms of ensuring the overall ambiance of the facility (lighting, temperature, decoration, signage and background music) is comfortable to exercise in. This understanding is both consistent with and contradicts previous research (as discussed in this section and summarised in table 6.1), but never-the-less extends the existing consumer value knowledge by confirming the importance of the physical environment to the consumption of sport and physical activity offerings.
Table 6. 1 Physical Environment (ambiance) Value Dimension – summary of support, contradictions and contributions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Support, contradictions and contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holbrook (1999)</td>
<td>Identification of Aesthetic value as an element of experiential value. The study contributed to previous consumer value research by operationalising Holbrook’s (1999) ‘aesthetics’ not in terms of beauty but in terms of the physical environment or servicescape within which physical activity is performed, delivered and consumed (Bittner 1992).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bittner (1992)</td>
<td>Servicescape, Sportscapes or Micscape concepts – proposes that the physical setting can either help or hinder a customer’s consumption experience. The study confirmed the importance of aesthetic value to active adult’s consumption experience by the emergence of two separate dimensions from the data which disaggregated aesthetic value into two of Bittner’s (1992) servicescape, which ranked physical environment ambiance highest of all 8-dimensions (0.77).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hall et al., (2010)</td>
<td>Suitability of facilities was the most significant predictor of future attendance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edwardsson et al., (2008) and Vreugden and Raval, (2011)</td>
<td>Servicescape considered an opportunity for interaction and value co-creation. The study’s findings support the use of the various servicescape concepts as a key dimension of consumer value rather than simply as factors that impact upon consumer’s decisions to stay, explore, spend money, return or avoid places. The study provided insights into how value might be created.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dijkstra et al., (2008)</td>
<td>Lighting, colours, brightness shapes Scent, air quality and fragrance Temperature Auditory stimuli such as music Physical environment – ambiance consumption value based on Bittner (1992) servicescape ambient conditions categorisation which was ranked highest (0.77) of all 8-dimensions. The study’s findings were consistent with the most important aspects identified by Bittner (1992 and others) in terms of lighting (A5~ 836), smell (A4~ 823), air quality (A2~ .751), temperature (A1~ 652) and music (A3~ 645) influencing active adults influencing consumption experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Environment (ambiance)</td>
<td>This study’s definition: Based on the study’s findings the study defined the Physical Environment – ambiance consumption value in a sport and physical activity context as ‘the ambiance conditions, such as lighting, smell, air quality, temperature and music that create a pleasant environment in the minds of physically active adults’ and within which to exercise’.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2.2.2 Physical Environment - surroundings

Research in a bank setting by Baker, Berry and Parasuraman (1988) suggested that customers have different needs and desires for their physical surroundings which is consistent with the study’s findings indicating a second value dimension which related to Bitner’s (1992) sign, symbols and artefacts categorisation in the form of the physical environment - surroundings value dimension (0.68). The study’s findings indicated that signage (A13= .946, A14= .945, A15= .933 and A12= .920) and facility décor (A16=.772) were both important to an active adults consumption experience, which is consistent with the physical signals that managers use such as generic signs, way-finding signs, caution signs and rules of behaviour aimed at enabling a customer’s movement through a servicescape (Bitner, 1992).

The study decided not to adopt elements of the sportscape concept (Wakefield and Sloan, 1995), which is an extension of Bitner’s (1992) servicescape that specifically focuses on spectators evaluation of their stadium experience in terms of parking, stadium cleanliness, crowding, fan control, food and services, due to Hill and Green (2012) findings that the sportscape had minimal impact on participation in a multi-sports facilities setting such as the 8-leisure centres used in the study. However, contrary to Hill and Green (2012) two-key aspects of the sportscape concept arose from the in-depth interviews that of cleanliness and car parking, which because they were not aspects of the servicescape were not examined during the quantitative investigation. Findings from the qualitative interviews typified by:

“I think the cleanliness side of it is very important because until they did the new changing rooms in Bridgend, they were dreadful I've got to say they were absolutely awful they are much better now...”

Interviewee 3, Female: Aged 65-74yrs

Whilst another indicated:

“I've got to be honest with you love, sometimes I come here on a Saturday morning and the state of the car park out there is absolutely disgusting and I also notice that outside the reception here there are bottles and cans in things and I think to myself if anyone was entering the recreation centre they would say good god look at the mess here”

Interviewee 9, Male: Aged 65-74yrs. (page 6)
Comments which supports Kim and Kim (1995) and Afthinos (2005) findings regarding the importance of cleanliness to the consumers’ consumption experience and Hill and Green (2012) findings that positive perceptions of cleanliness were linked to increased participation. Therefore, the study’s findings would support the future use of elements from the sportscape, which have been identified as influencing consumer behaviour in participative sports facilities (Kim and Kim, 1995; Afthinos, 2005; Hill and Green, 2012).

Most examinations of the servicescape concepts have viewed them as a managerial tool for marketing purposes and have therefore adopted a stimulus-organism-response phenomenon where the customers are passive responders to environmental stimuli (Paraigis, 2012). More recently a view has emerged regard services, including the service- and sportscape as an opportunity for the co-creation of consumer value (Edvardsson et al., 2010; Grönroos & Ravald, 2011; Vargo and Lusch, 2008) where value is created in collaboration between the customer and service provider and much of the customer value is in the outcome of the service experience. Despite the concept of service experience resonating with Holbrook’s (2006) definition of value, much of the existing research on either servicescape or sportscape does not put forward the notion of value co-creation at the centre of customer experiences, in this regard study’s findings both supports the use of the various servicescape concepts as key dimension of consumer value and contributes insights as to how such value might be created.

Finally, Zainuddin et al. (2008) social marketing consumption model (figure 2.13) illustrated how value might be experienced during the three stages of the consumption process: pre-consumption, consumption and post-consumption. Contrary to Zainuddin et al. (2008) suggestion that during the consumption stage aspects of altruistic value would not be important, instead high levels of functional value would be as consumers act to satisfy their functional needs, the study’s findings suggest that physically active adults have high levels of aesthetic value expressed in terms of their physical environment (ambiance 0.77 and surroundings 0.68) within which they participate.
The study’s findings indicate that the way in which the physical environment – surroundings dimension reflects consumer value suggests the need for future offerings to give careful consideration to the participation servicescape in terms of ensuring the overall surroundings of the facility are conducive to customers use of the facilities. The study therefore offers the following definition of the Physical Environment – surrounding consumption value in a sport and physical activity context as ‘the surrounding such as signage, facility décor, cleanliness, car parking and service excellence that create a pleasant environment in the minds of physically active adults’ and within which to exercise’.

As a result of insights from the study, policy-makers and leisure providers should ‘manage’ customer experiences in such a way as to maximise value whenever they interact with the service- and sportscape and focus on the provision of a conducive physical environment combined with a quality service experience. This is especially true when considering a broader understanding of the extent to which environmental stimuli can be used to impact on consumer responses in ways which are beneficial to them and the service provider through the co-creation of value.

In summary, the study’s findings indicated that the value adults receive from being physically active is related, in-part, to their expectations of fit for purpose facilities in terms of the overall surroundings of the facility are conducive to active adults use of the facilities. This understanding is both consistent with and contradicts previous research (as discussed in this section and summarised in table 6.2) but never-the-less extends the existing consumer value knowledge by confirming the importance of the physical environment to the consumption of sport and physical activity offerings.
Table 6. 2 Physical Environment (surroundings) Value Dimension – summary of support, contradictions and contributions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>S&amp;P AVAL Model’s support, contradictions and contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holbrook (1999)</td>
<td>Identification of Aesthetic value as an element of experiential value. The study contributed to previous consumer value research by operationalising Holbrook’s (1999) ‘aesthetics’ not in terms of beauty but in terms of the physical environment or servicescape within which physical activity is performed, delivered and consumed (Bitner 1992).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bitner (1992)</td>
<td>Servicescape, Sportscape or Musicscape concepts – proposes that the physical setting can either help or hinder a customer’s consumption experience. The study confirmed the importance of aesthetic value to active adult’s consumption experience through the emergence of two separate dimensions from the data, which disaggregated aesthetic value into two of Bitner’s (1992) servicescape elements, with physical environment (surroundings) being ranked 2nd highest (0.68). The study’s findings were consistent with the most important aspects identified by Bitner (1992) in terms of signage (A13=.946, A14=.945, A15=.933 and A12=.923) and facility décor (A16=.772).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edvardsson et al., (2008) and Vriens and Ravald, (2011)</td>
<td>Servicescape considered an opportunity for interaction and value co-creation. The study’s findings support the use of the various servicescape concepts as a key dimension of consumer value rather than simply as factors that impact upon consumer’s decisions to stay, explore, spend money, return or avoid places. Furthermore, the study contributes insights into how value might be created.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hill &amp; Green (2012), Kim &amp; Kim (1995), Athinos (2005)</td>
<td>Sportscape has a minimal impact of participation in multisports facilities. Identified the important of cleanliness to consumer consumption experiences. Contrary to Hill and Green (2012) two key aspects of the sportscape concept arose from the in-depth interviews that of cleanliness and car park. The study findings support previous research which indicated that these elements of the sportscape can influence consumer behaviour in participative sports facilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zainoédin et al., (2008)</td>
<td>Social Marketing consumption model suggests that aspects of altruistic value are not important during consumption of a social marketing service. Contrary to Zainoédin et al., (2008) the study’s findings suggest that physically active adults have high levels of aesthetic value expressed in terms of their physical environment (ambiance 0.77 and surroundings 0.68) within which they participate.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Physical Environment (surroundings)**

**This study’s definition:**

Based on the study’s finding the study defined the Physical Environment – surrounding consumption value as a sport and physical activity context as ‘the surrounding such as signage, facility décor, cleanliness, car parking and service excellence that create a pleasant environment in the minds of physically active adults.’ and within which to exercise.”

269
6.2.2.3 Altruistic Value

The role and contribution of altruistic value has not been examined in depth because it has been considered to lie outside the sphere of ordinary marketplace exchanges (Smith, 1999), therefore the study’s findings contribute much needed insight into altruistic value in general and specifically its role with a sport and physical activity setting. The study followed Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s, (2009) and others in combining Holbrook’s (1999) categories of spirituality and ethics into a single index of altruistic value which, in a sport and physical activity setting, was re-interpreted to represent the extent to which undertaking exercise related to, or was motivated by, wider factors than the immediate health related benefits of exercise such as the deferred health benefits that could be reaped in later life.

In general the study’s findings supported the view point that altruistic value could be highly relevant to social marketing, as many consumers may be motivated to change their behaviour on the basis of wanting to contribute to the greater good and in doing so derive a sense of satisfaction from contributing to their own wellbeing and that of society, in essence exercising for tomorrow and not today. The study’s findings indicated that altruistic value was ranked 3rd highest (0.67) of all 8-dimensions by active adults wanting to be healthy for themselves (AV2=.908: I want to be fit, active and healthy for myself; AV1=.886: I consider being fit, active and healthy is important) followed by wanting to avoiding ill-health (AV4=.843: I want to be fit, active and health to avoid ill health). Furthermore, insights into altruistically motivate physical activity did occur when respondents were asked to describe the reasons why they exercised one stating:

“...I think it's the right thing to do because I can understand the benefits of doing it, the benefit of doing is that of course you can reduce your medication or come off it completely and the whole idea behind it is to get people away from going to doctors, so the savings they can make...”

[Interviewee 13, Male: Aged 45-54yrs, page 2]

However, it could be argued that elements of the study’s findings do not relate to traditional altruistic motivations but instead indicated a relationship between consideration for others and consideration for themselves with regard to the longer-
term or deferred benefits of exercise. Opinions vary as to whether ‘altruism’ should only be used when consideration for others is the sole or overriding motivator or whether it should be used when personal or collective interests are promoted. Baston and Shaw (1991) argue that all acts of supposed altruism involve a degree of reciprocity whereby the giver and the receiver both benefit, similarly Nowak (2006) considered altruistic behaviour is likely to depend on future opportunities for reciprocation, reputation enhancement or benefit to the culture group that then benefit the individual indirectly.

Edwards & Brauholtz (2000) coined the term “weak altruism” in the context of participation in clinical trials to describe situations where patient’s participation was based on them not expecting to lose out, similarly Kalvin and Jacob (2006) described epilepsy trial participants indicated that ‘they were happy to help others, but only where they could also help themselves’. Perhaps the best way to view the study’s finding is in terms of “conditional altruism” (McCann, Campbell & Entwistle, 2010), whereby willingness to help others is not solely based on considering others but is instead conditional on them perceiving some additional benefit to themselves.

However, it was clear from the study’s findings that aspects of active adults exercise consumption were based on their consideration for others in terms of not wanting to be a burden on their family or (AV3=.686: I want to be fit, active and healthy for my family) and to be well enough to lead an independent later life (AV6=.663: I want to be fit, active and healthy to achieve more independence in later life). Furthermore, insights into altruistically motivated participation did occur when interviewees were asked to describe the reasons why they exercised which indicated that being physically active could help reduced their dependence on medication and going to the doctors, whilst an older father indicated the importance of being physically active to support his young daughter through her teenage years and beyond:

“I’ve always exercised but now, I find it far more important because of my little girl. I’m of an age now I’m 42 and she's four and so to allow myself to keep fit to keep doing exercise with her through her teens and hopefully seeing her through College and Uni, I need to keep fit and exercise and keep going really. So I do enjoy it but that the main reason…”

[Interviewee 15, Male: Aged 35-44yrs, page 1-2].
Finally, when considering the study’s finding in terms of Zainuddin et al. (2008) social marketing consumption model, the authors suggested that the role of altruistic value is limited especially at the pre-consumption and consumption stages where it is not anticipated that acting for the betterment of society (altruistic value) would be as important as the fulfilment of the consumer’s functional and emotional needs. However, at the post-consumption stage if customers reflect on their decision and feel that they have performed a socially-responsible act, they may experience high levels of altruistic value. Contrary to Zainuddin et al. (2008) suggestions regarding the limited role of altruistic value, its importance to active adults supports recent empirical evidence from Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) study of vegetarian diners which indicated that altruistic value emerged as an important reflector of consumer value, indeed more reflective of consumer value in a service context than other categories such as efficiency, quality and social value.

Despite the recognition that altruistic factors both inspire and influence many forms of consumption experiences (Holbrook 2004; Brown 1999; Wagner 1999), altruistic value has not been studied in depth due to the complexity of its conceptualisation, not least the differentiation between consideration of others from consideration of self (McCann et al., 2010) and the lack of measurement exploratory models, (Sanchez-Fernandez et al., 2009). Therefore, the study’s findings help extend our existing knowledge and based on the way in which this category reflects consumer value suggests the need for future physical activity offerings, propositions or promises (Peattie and Peattie, 2003) to promote the long-term benefits. The study therefore offers the following definition of altruistic value in a sport and physical activity context as ‘wider factors than the immediate health related benefits of exercise to factors such as being fit, active and health to avoid ill-health, prolonging life as a result of being physically active for individual and family reasons, to achieve more independence in later life and to avoid unnecessary cost to others’.

As a result of insights from the study policy-makers and leisure providers should ensure that new activity’s and interventions are based on emphasising and delivering the long-term benefits wanted by active adults and ensure all marketing
communications consistently promote the benefits that can arise from being physically active.

In summary, the study’s findings indicated that the value adults receive from being physically active is related, in-part, to their participation decision being based altruistic motivations in-terms of accruing the deferred or long-term benefits of exercise and thus exercising for tomorrow and not today. This understanding is both consistent with and contradicts previous research (as discussed in this section and summarised in table 6.3) but never-the-less extends the existing consumer value knowledge by confirming the importance of altruistic value to the consumption of sport and physical activity offerings.
Table 6. 3 Altruistic Value Dimension – summary of support, contradictions and contributions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>S&amp;PVAL Model’s support, contradictions and contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holbrook (1999)</td>
<td>Identification of ‘spirituality’ and ‘ethics’ in consumer behaviour. The study contributed much needed insight to the limited examination of altruistic value in general and specifically its role with a sport and physical activity setting by following Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) and Holbrook’s (1999) and operationalising ‘spirituality and ‘ethics’ as a single index of altruistic value and re-interpreted it as representing the extent to which undertaking exercise related to, or was motivated by, wider factors than the immediate health related benefits of exercise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanchez-Fernandez et al., (2009)</td>
<td>Combined ‘spirituality and ‘ethics’ into a single index of altruistic value. Limited research on altruistic value as outside marketplace exchanges.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Smith, 1999)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanchez-Fernandez et al., (2009)</td>
<td>Altruistic value identified as being important in a service setting (vegetarian restaurant). The study confirmed the importance of altruistic value to active adult’s consumption experience by being ranked 3rd highest (0.67) of all 8-dimensions. Aspects of active adults altruistic consumption behaviour were consistent with their consideration for others in terms of their family (AV3=686), independent later life (AV6=663).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nowak (2006) &amp; Batson and Shaw (1991)</td>
<td>Altruistic behaviour influenced by reciprocation, reputation enhancement or benefit. However, other aspects of active adults altruistic consumption related to wanting personal gain such as to be healthy for themselves (AV2=908, AV1=.866) and wanting to avoiding ill-health (AV4=.843). Whilst these items contradicted traditional altruistic motivations but instead were consistent with definitions of ‘weak’ or ‘conditional’ altruism which encompass an element of personal interest or personal benefit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Braithwaite (2000)</td>
<td>Weak Altruism Conditional Altruism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McCann, Campbell &amp; Eastwood (2010)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zainuddin et al., (2008)</td>
<td>Social Marketing consumption model suggests that the role of altruistic value is limited during the consumption of a social marketing service. Contrary to Zainuddin et al., (2008) the study findings suggest that altruistic value emerged as an important reflector of active adult’s consumption experience.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Altruistic Value | This study’s definition: Based on the study’s findings the study defined Altruistic Value in a sport and physical activity context as ‘wider factors than the immediate health related benefits of exercise to factors such as being fit, active and health to avoid ill-health, prolonging life as a result of being physically active for individual and family reasons, to achieve more independence in later life and to avoid unnecessary cost to others’. |
6.2.2.4 Benefits of Exercise

The study operationalised Holbrook’s (1999) ‘efficiency’ as the trade-off an individual makes between the outcomes of exercise (such as improved physical and mental wellbeing) and the inputs needed to exercise (such as money, time and effort). Efficiency or functional value has been well defined within the literature as a single dimension of consumer value in terms of a consumer’s exchange relationship. The importance of ‘efficient or functional’ value to an adult’s exercise consumption experiences was clearly evidenced by the study’s findings of two separate value dimensions indicating that the benefits of exercise are a separate consumption value to the costs of exercising, in other words the ‘get’ (immediate benefits associated with exercise) are a separate consumption value from the ‘give’ (costs associated with exercising).

The new ‘benefits of exercise’ dimension is concerned with the range of immediate benefits or positive outcomes associated with being physically active such as improved physical and mental wellbeing and was ranked 4th of all 8-dimensions (0.67). The study’s findings indicated that benefits of exercise could be further categorised as either relating to a ‘healthy mind’ or a ‘healthy body’. Indeed the findings suggest that active adults placed a higher emphasis on the ‘healthy mind’ aspect of their consumption experience with these aspects being ranked 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 5th and 7th of the 11 identified benefits.

Healthy Mind

It has already been noted that the benefits that arise from being physically active can diffuse beyond physical health to mental health and personal wellbeing. For example, regrettably, at least 1 in 6 people suffer from mental health problems in Britain (ONS, 2001) and physical activity has been shown to have a significant impact on lessening the clinical symptoms of those diagnosed as being mildly, moderately or severely depressed (Lawlor & Hanratty, 2000; Mutrie, 2000; Craft & Landers, 1998), furthermore physical activity is at least as effective for treating depression as psychotherapy, it can be as successful as medication and can make people feel happier with themselves and more satisfied with life (Fox, 2000; Biddle, 2000).
Whilst, the study findings cannot attest to the restorative powers of physical activity, the findings do support the fact that active adults exercise to achieve, in-part, an improved mental outlook or the so-called ‘feel-good-factor’ in-terms of a sense or achievement and de-stressing which were supported by both the quantitative and qualitative strands of the investigation. The quantitative strand indicated that the most important aspects being the ‘feel good factor’ ($EFB4 = .807$), improved mental outlook ($EFB5 = .859$), achieving a mind and body balance ($EFB9 = .784$), gaining a sense or achievement ($EFB10 = .806$) and a general improvement to everyday wellbeing ($EFB15 = .720$). These finding were supported by a range of comments from those interviewed which also indicated that they felt ‘a-million times better’ for exercising which gave them quality ‘me-time’ and was often combined with adopting a healthier diet:

“*I've definitely feel a million times better for it, the feel good factor after is well worth doing...I don't know it's just a nice switch off time, it’s time for just me, I don’t have to think about anyone else, no it’s just good I just really feel good*”

Interviewee 1, Female: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 2)

“*I'd say I feel better yes, I think a bit more better in myself nothing else has changed just feeling better, I look after my body a lot more and eating as well...*”

Interviewee 5, Male: Aged 16-24yrs, (page 3)

*Healthy Body*

Research has also shown that adults who are physically active have up to a 50% reduced risk of developing major chronic diseases such as coronary heart disease, obesity, diabetes and cancer and a 20-30% reduced risk of premature death (DoH 2004). The Department for Health (2005) also suggests that almost two thirds of adults are either overweight or obese and that without clear action, these figures will rise to almost nine in ten adults by 2050. Studies have shown that having high levels of physical activity, remaining physically fit, or becoming fitter are all associated with a lower incidences of gaining weight (Drøyvold 2004, Fogelholm & Kukkonen-Harjula 2002). Furthermore, physical inactivity is a major risk factor in the development of type II diabetes and that there are higher incidents in people
who are physically inactive being diagnosed with type II diabetes (Kelley & Goodpaster 2001, Ivy, Zderic & Fogt 1999).

Once again the study’s finding cannot confirm the scientific basis upon which health related benefits occur but the study’s results indicate that active adults exercise to achieve, in-part, to achieving a healthy body in-terms of its contribution to reducing the risk of ill health ($EFB2= .696; EFB11=.693$), improved energy levels ($EFB3= .786$), improved sleep ($EFB6= .715$), improved body shape ($EFB7=.718$) or to contribution to a healthier weight ($EFB8=.747$) which were again supported by a wide range of interviewees who expressed typical physical benefit such as lessening the impact of asthma, controlling and/or losing weight and becoming more toned:

“... the asthma side of it, it helped my asthma... Oh it did absolutely swimming and by being fit and not overweight ... the exercise did help asthma it’s a medical facts...”

Interviewee 15, Male: Aged 35-44yrs (page 4)

“Well not so much about losing weight but it was the toning to make things fit ... it was more than the fact I've lost inches...I know I've lost inches, definitely I've measured. I know that dresses that were very tight two years ago now fits perfectly and that's fantastic, but I'm the same weight and I'm just more toned.”

Interviewee 1, Female: Aged 45-54yrs, (page 2)

The study’s findings support active adult’s consumption of physical activity opportunities being driven by a desire to reap the health benefits and the associated decreased risk of poor health across a wide range of illnesses. In this regard the study supports a wide range of behavioural literature which posits that the role of benefits in underpinning and/or predicting an individual’s participation in exercise act as incentives to adopt the behaviour based on an individual having a positive expectation that the benefits of the behaviour will outweigh any negative consequences (Bandura 1997b; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1975; Glanz, Rimmer & Lewis, 2002). Indeed expectations of positive outcomes or perceived benefits resulting from being physically active have been positively associated with participation (Ali and Twibell, 1995; Neuberger et al., 1994) as have the attitudes towards exercise in terms of expected outcomes and its associated value been positively linked to partaking.
physical activity (Courneya and McAuley, 1994; Dishman and Steinhhardt, 1990; Godin et al., 1987, Yordy and Lent 1993). Behavioural intentions as found in the Social Cognate Theory (figure 2.15), the Theory of Reasoned Action (figure 2.16), the Theory of Planned Behaviour (figure 2.17) and the Health Belief Model (figure 2.18) suggest that a key predictor of participation in an exercise context is an individual’s beliefs in the benefits that physical activity can confer.

When considering the study’s findings in the context of Zainuddin et al.’s (2008) social marketing consumption model, the authors suggested that consumers have made their decision to act based on the premise that consuming the service will fulfil or satisfy their functional needs, which is supported by the study with regard to the benefits that arise from exercise (0.67). The study’s findings are also consistent with Woodruff’s (1997) value hierarchy (figure 2.11) which proposes that customers purchase products and services because they believe that the outcomes of their various benefits will help them achieve their goals and purposes. In this regard the role of perceived benefits in the ‘get-vs-give’ trade-off in determining consumer behaviour has been well documented. Sheth, Newman and Gross (1991) found that functional value was one of two key influences that dominated the decision as to whether to use filtered or unfiltered cigarettes. Soutar, Lee and Jenkins (2008) indicated that functional value was a significant predictor of intentions to visits various Western Australian costal destinations. Finally, in a durable product context Sweeny and Soutar’s (2001) found that expected performance was the most important way in which customer assessed a car stereo. However, by contrast Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) indicated that the efficiency dimension was the least valued dimension in a vegetarian restaurant setting.

The study's findings indicate that the way in which the benefits-of-exercise dimension reflects consumer value suggests the need for future physical activity offerings, propositions or promises (Peattie and Peattie, 2003) to promote the immediate benefits of exercise. The study therefore offers the following definition of the ‘benefits of exercise’ consumption value in a sport and physical activity setting as ‘the improved physical and mental outcomes that arise from being physically active’.
Accepting that there has been a resurgence in the importance of providing sport and physical activity opportunities based on scientific evidence that increased levels of physical activity can bring about a range of health benefits, and that these benefits can go beyond physical health to include other positive influences relating to mental health and personal wellbeing, as a result of insights from the study policy-makers and leisure providers should ensure that new activity’s and interventions are based on emphasising and delivering the immediate benefits wanted by active adults and ensure all marketing communications consistently promote the benefits that can arise from being physically active.

In summary, the study’s findings indicated that the value active adults receive from being physically active is related, in-part, to their participation decision being based on their expectation of reaping the immediate benefits of exercise in-terms of a healthier body and a healthier mind. This understanding is both consistent with and contradicts previous research (as discussed in this section and summarised table 6.4) but never-the-less extends the existing consumer value knowledge by confirming the importance that the perceived benefits of exercise has the consumption of sport and physical activity offerings.
Table 6.4 Benefits-of-Exercise Value Dimension – summary of support, contradictions and contributions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>S&amp;PAVAL Model's support, contradictions and contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holbrook (1999)</td>
<td>Identification of ‘efficiency’ as an element of experiential value.</td>
<td>The study operationalised Holbrook’s (1999) ‘efficiency’ as the trade-off an individual makes between the outcomes of exercise and the inputs needed to exercise. The study contributed to previous research on consumer value and to the understanding of active adults’ consumption experience by the disaggregation of efficiency value from a single dimension of value into two value dimension of ‘benefits of exercise’ and ‘cost-of-exercise’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DoH (2004), DoH (2005), Droyvold (2004), Fogelholm &amp; Kuukkonen-Harjula (2002), Kelley &amp; Goodpaster (2001), Ivy, Zdanic &amp; Fogt (1999)</td>
<td>Coronary Heart Disease, Obesity, Diabetes</td>
<td>The study’s findings support active adult’s consumption of physical activity opportunities being driven by a desire to reap the health benefits and the associated decreased risk of poor health across a wide range of illnesses. The importance of the value that arises from the ‘benefits of exercise’ was evidenced by it being ranked 4th (0.67) of all 8-dimensions, with the most important items relating to either a health body or healthy mind supporting previous physical activity research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aizen (1991), Bandura (1977), Stretcher and Rosenstock (1997)</td>
<td>Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), Social Cognitive Theory (SCT), Health Belief Model (HBM)</td>
<td>The importance of the value that arises from the ‘benefits of exercise’ supports theories of behaviour change which indicated that perceived or expected benefits act as an incentive to adopt a behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nueberger et al., (1994), Ali and Twibell (1995), Gordon et al., (2006)</td>
<td>Expectation of such benefits has been positively associated with participation in physical activity.</td>
<td>The study’s findings supports previous research regarding the expectation of benefits is positively associated with participation in physical activity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 6.4 Benefits-of-Exercise Value Dimension – summary of support, contradictions and contributions cont...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>S&amp;PAVAL Model’s support, contradictions and contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Woodruff (1997)</td>
<td>The importance of the value that arises from the ‘benefits-of-exercise’ was evidenced by it being ranked 4th ($\gamma=0.67$) of all 8-dimensions indicating that active adults consumption of physical activity opportunities being driven by efficiency/functional value which supports the majority of previous consumer value research, but contradicts Sanchez-Fernandez et al., (2009).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheehy, Newman and Gross (1991a, 199b)</td>
<td>Value Hierarchy (figure 2.17) Functional value influences use of filter or unfiltered cigarettes Performance important to consumer decisions Functional value significant predictor or tourist intentions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweeney and Soutar (2001)</td>
<td>Efficiency value identified as being the least important in a service setting (vegetarian restaurant).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soutar, Lee and Jenkins (2008)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanchez-Fernandez et al., (2009)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits of Exercise</th>
<th>This study’s definition:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Benefits of Exercise</td>
<td>Based on the study’s findings the study defined the Benefits of Exercise consumption value in a sport and physical activity setting as ‘the improved physical and mental outcomes that arise from being physically active’.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2.2.5 Quality of Service Experience

In a departure from previous research on consumer value, the study operationalised the quality of service experience dimension by combining what Holbrook (1999) called ‘excellence’ and Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) termed ‘quality’ and in a sport and physical activity setting related to the factors affecting a customer’s perception or their appreciation regarding the quality of their service experience in terms of their interaction with, and experience of staff (as outlined in 3.4.1.2). The study’s findings from the quantitative strand of the investigation indicated that the quality of service experience value dimension was ranked 5th (0.62) of all 8-dimensions, with the most important items confirming role that staffs skill, knowledge and attitudes played as part of their consumption experience in terms of staff being courteous, polite and respectful (QSE3=.930), staff needed to listen to customers and understanding each other (QSE4=.923) and their needs (QSE=.921) and staff needed to be trustworthy, believable and honest (QSE5=.912). Finally, staff needed to be competent, knowledgeable and skilful (QSE1=.882) and presentable (QSE7=.795). The important role that staff played as part of an active adult’s consumption experience was also evidenced by a range of complimentary comments made during the qualitative interviews:

“Well from start to finish, the staff are always pleasant, I can’t fault that and I know some of the staff, so yes staff are pleasant ...”

Interviewee 4, Male: Aged 55-64yrs, (page 7)

Whilst another said

“Alison is excellent I always feel that I’ve done and an exercise class when she takes it, so I would say that I am probably more active now that I’ve retired than I was when I was working”

Interviewee 3, Female: Aged 65-74yrs, (page 2)

The study findings are consistent with previous research that has acknowledged the contribution staff make to delivering a positive customer experience, in a sport and physical activity context. Wei et al. (2010) identified that providing a high level of service quality was critical to increasing participation, to retaining customers and to a facilities ability to charge a premium price if services expectation are met, MacKay
& Crompton (1988) have also shown that consumer’s evaluation of their service quality experience when partaking in sport and recreational activities affects participation and finally in a retail service context Sweeney et al. (1999) identified that the quality of service was important in the creation of value perceptions. In addition to this, the importance of service experience to active adults is consistent with Rosenbaum and Montoya (2007) “social servicescape” which refers to the customer and staff interactions that take place in a consumption setting and influence the customer’s service experience. Associated research has indicated that consumers consider their social relationship with staff to influence perceptions of overall quality (Baker et al., 1992), future patronage and word-of-mouth recommendations (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002).

However, the lowly ranking of quality service experience (5th out of 8th) does not appear to support Crawford et al. (2007) position that providing a high quality service experience is a core aspect of a consumers overall participation experience. However, this may not be altogether surprising if Aftihinos et al. (2005) findings are considered which indicated that the type of facility can impact upon customers’ evaluation regarding their service quality expectations. Specifically those customers using public facilities had lower expectation regarding their service quality experience than did customers who participated at private facilities; users of private facilities were more demanding in terms of the level of service quality they received.

In-terms of Zainuddin et al. (2008) social marketing model interactions was identified as a source of value (Smith and Colgate, 2007). However, findings from this study indicated that ‘interactions’ as defined in terms of the quality of service experienced was a value dimension in its own rights, rather than impacting upon active adults consumption of physical activity, the study’s findings indicated that the quality of service experienced underpinned its consumption.

The study’s findings indicate that the way in which the quality of service experience dimension reflects consumer value suggests the need for future offerings to be based on the pivotal role staff play in ensuring a positive customer experience. The study therefore offers the following definition of the quality of service experience consumption value as the ‘factors affecting a customer perception or appreciation
regarding the quality of their service experience as experience by their interaction with and experience of staff members in terms of being polite, knowledgeable and trustworthy combined with listening and understanding their needs.

Accepting that customer-staff interactions can be considered the “glue” that underpins customer’s loyalty (Rosenbaum, 2009a) and that the social relationship or a bond that exists between customers and staff is an antecedent of customer loyalty (Athanassopoulou & Mylonaskis, 2009), policy-maker and leisure providers need to understand the implications for the recruitment and training of front-line staff. However, they also need to be mindful that the “glue” is worthless when it is “forced” onto customer (Danaher et al., 2008).

In summary, the study’s findings indicated that the value active adults receive from being physically active is related, in-part, to their participation decision being based on the fact that staff can make all the difference in providing a high quality of service experience. This understanding is both consistent with and contradicts previous research (as discussed in this section and summarised in table 6.5) but never-the-less extends the existing consumer value knowledge by confirming the importance of quality of service experience to the consumption of sport and physical activity offerings.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Support, contradictions and contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holbrook (1999)</td>
<td>Identification of ‘excellence’ as a dimension of experiential value. The study contributed to previous research on consumer value by operationalising Holbrook’s ‘excellence’ and Sanchez-Fernandez et al., (2009) ‘quality’ in terms of a single index of quality of service experience value and re-interpreted it as the customer interactions with and experience of staff and their chosen physical activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009)</td>
<td>Reinterpretation of Holbrook’s ‘excellence’ into ‘quality’ in a service setting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweeney et al. (1999)</td>
<td>Service quality plays a significant role in the creation of value perceptions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wei et al. (2010)</td>
<td>Providing a high level of service quality experience increases participation, retains customers and enables premium pricing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crawford et al. (2007)</td>
<td>High quality of service experience is a core aspect of consumers overall participation in exercise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afrin et al. (2005)</td>
<td>Type of facility (public or private) can impact upon customer’s elevation of the quality of service their experienced.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zainuddin et al. (2008)</td>
<td>Social Marketing consumption model does not identify ‘service’ experience as a source of value. The study contributed to the understanding of consumption in a social marketing context. Findings from this study indicated that ‘interactions’ as inter-operated in terms of the quality of service experienced was a value dimension in its own right, rather than impacting upon active adults consumption of physical activity, the study’s findings indicated that the quality of service underpinned its consumption.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality of Service Experience</th>
<th>This study’s definition:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Based on the study’s findings the study defined the Quality of Service Experience consumption value as the ‘factors affecting a customer perception or appreciation regarding the quality of their service experience as experience by their interaction with and experience of staff members in terms of being polite, knowledgeable and trustworthy combined with listening and understanding their needs’.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2.2.6 Cost of Exercise

Just as the ‘get’ aspects of efficiency or functional value emerged as a separate dimension, so did the ‘give’ aspects in terms of another new value dimension entitled the ‘cost of exercise’. In terms of active adults consumption experience the ‘costs of exercise’ dimension was ranked 6th of all 8-dimensions (0.60) which supports the low importance of price or the ability to pay as a determinant of physical activity lends support to Kay and Jackson (1991) findings that entrance costs to use public leisure centres had a low salience as an absolute barrier to participation and to Coatler (1993) findings that increasing prices had little impact on the overall usage levels at 4-leisure centres.

Despite the lowly importance given to the cost of exercise dimension, active adults were happy with the price of the activities offered (EFC3=.930; EFC1=.894 and EFC 2=.892), that they thought they were getting their money’s worth (EFC4=.926, EFC5=.914) and finally that the benefits they received were worth the money spend (EFC10=.713), which is similar to Soutar, Lee & Jenkins (2008) findings in a tourism context that ‘value for money’ was not an important consumption driver.

However, commentators have suggested that the costs associated with being physically active are rarely dependent upon or require a monetary exchange as is implied by the term price, Peattie and Peattie (2003) consider factors such as time, overcoming psychological barriers, effort and physical addiction (eg smoking) as more prevalent costs than money, furthermore Jackson (2005) suggested other factors such as body image concerns, limited transportation, and a lack of knowledge may be more significant and prohibiting costs than the price alone (Jackson, 2005). In this regard the study found that active adult’s perception of the types of costs or barriers they incurred as a result of exercising differed between the qualitative and quantitative strands of the investigation. The ‘active adults’ questionnaire (appendix 1) contained a range of costs such as monetary, time and effort but only monetary costs were revealed to be an important aspect of the consumption experience. This contrasted with insights from the in-depth interviews which focused on asking active adults to describe any ‘downsides’ to exercising, whilst price was not mentioned as a ‘downside’ of exercise as often as other issues its
impact was still evident. However, more frequently mentioned downsides related to the high level of commitment, discipline and effort, followed by a lack of time, injury, transport, tiredness and feeling guilty, which where typified by comments emphasising exercising is hard work such as:

“It’s the fact that you’ve got to work so hard to get any results, it would be nice if you could just go in there and just do a brisk walk for 10 minutes on the cross trainer and it be done, but I couldn’t justify that there would be no point in doing that, so it is the fact that you have got to work so hard to see any results.”

Interviewee 12, Female: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 4)

Other comments regarding how tiredness needed to be overcome:

“Basically tiredness I think, you know I have got up in the morning and I think God I’m tired you know and sometimes I think you’ve really got a push yourself right because I’m on this program all the time I really don’t want to miss out on a day but tiredness would be probably the main thing for me”

Interviewee 10, Male: Aged 65-74yrs, (page 6)

Finally the emotional guilt that can drive impact on participation:

“You can get obsessional about it and you can burn out, once you get hooked it’s hard to give yourself a day off and you can push yourself too far it’s a fine line...”

Interviewee 11, Female: Aged 25-34yrs.

The study’s findings calls into question Crawford et al. (1991) emphasis on removing ‘structural barriers’ such as price as a critical element which limits participation in leisure activities. In conceiving such constraints Crawford and Godbey (1987) points to the role of exchange theory which suggests that individuals seek to avoid costly behaviour and instead focus on maximising rewards which satisfies their needs or goals. Here ‘costs’ are in fact ‘barriers’ to participation and clearly indicate how important it is to understand the relative strengths such barriers have in predicting participation in leisure activities. However, the results from the study would suggest that the monetary costs (price) of participation in sport and physical active, whilst not being unimportant would appear to be relative rather than absolute.

When considering the limited impact entrance charges had as a consumption value it is worth bearing in mind the types of membership categories (table 5a.3) the respondents had and the distinctions they made between price and perceived value
for money. In the context of this study active adults could access the leisure centre and swimming pools of their choice by either paying cash each time they used the facilities (46.6%) or by having a direct debit or free membership (52%) which allows them to ‘swipe’ into the facilities without the need to pay any money at Reception. The perceptions of price may therefore differ between these two groups of customers, those members who simply ‘swipe-in’ may have been influenced by the fact that they are not required to ‘pay’ at the Reception, as compared by those who do need to stop at Receptions and pay before they access the facilities. However, in questioning the importance of price or the ability to pay as a determinant of physical activity places the study finding at odds with both elements of the literature which suggest that entrance cost is a major obstacle to participation (Jackson 1983, 1994), that income has a direct effect on the likelihood of participation (Farrell and Shields, 2002) and that price is barrier to participation, and that increased participation can be brought about by the use of subsidised entrance charges.

Furthermore, as the study’s findings indicate that the costs associated with being physically active are in part monetary ones but also experiential ones, this suggests that an active adult adopts a value-in-exchange perspective in terms of how much they pay for what they get but also in keeping with Grönroos’ (2008) belief of a paradigm shift which conceives value-in-exchange as a function of value-in-use (which is explored further in section 6.4). Therefore, the study’s findings indicate that the way in which the costs-of-exercise dimension reflects consumer value suggests that the need for future physical activity offerings, propositions or promises (Peattie and Peattie, 2003) needs to take into consideration both monetary and experiential costs. The study therefore offers the following definition of the costs-of-exercise consumption value as the ‘the experiential and financial inputs that need to be overcome in order to exercise such as time, commitment, tiredness, feeling guilty, effort and money’.

Insights from the study challenge the wisdom of sport and physical activity interventions which have traditionally emphasised the removal price as a barrier to participation. Instead, policy-makers and leisure providers should ensure that new activity’s and interventions are designed to minimise or overcome the full range of costs experienced by adults in order to participate in physical activity.
In summary, the study’s findings indicated that the value active adults receive from being physically active is related, in-part, to it being hard work but worth it in the end. This understanding is both consistent with and contradicts previous research (as discussed in this section and summarised in table 6.6) but never-the-less extends the existing consumer value knowledge by confirming the importance that the cost of exercising plays in the consumption of sport and physical activity offerings.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Support, contradictions and contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holbrook (1999)</td>
<td>Identification of 'efficiency' as an element of experiential value. The study operationalised Holbrook's (1999) 'efficiency' as the trade-off an individual makes between the outcomes of exercise and the inputs needed to exercise. The study contributed to previous research on consumer value and to the understanding of active adults consumption experience by the disaggregation of efficiency value from a single dimension of value into two value dimension of 'benefits of exercise' and 'cost-of-exercise'.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peattie and Peattie (2003)</td>
<td>Costs associated with physical active are rarely dependent upon monetary exchange, other cost such time, psychological barriers, effort, transportation and knowledge may be more significant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kay and Jackson (2005)</td>
<td>In terms of active adults consumption experience the 'costs of exercise' dimension was ranked 6th of all 8-dimensions (0.60) which supports a range of previous research regarding the low importance of price or the ability to pay as a determinant of physical activity. Interviewee identified typical 'downsides' of exercising as the high level of commitment, discipline and effort, followed by a lack of time, injury, transport, tiredness and feeling guilty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coalter (1993)</td>
<td>The lowly importance given to the cost of exercise dimension contradicted the leisure constraints research that suggests that price is a barrier to participation and that lower entry prices will increase participation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crawford and Godbey (1987)</td>
<td>Costs are barriers to participation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jackson (1983, 1994)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zainuddin et al. (2008)</td>
<td>The study's findings support the viewpoint that the costs associated with being physically active are in part monetary but also experiential, suggesting that an active adult adopts both a value-in-exchange and value-in-use perspective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Our findings support Zainuddin et al. (2008) suggestion that functional value, in-terms of the 'cost of exercise' are a reflector of active adult's consumption experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost of Exercise</td>
<td>This study's definition:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Based on the study findings they study defined the 'cost of exercise' value in a sport and physical activity setting as the 'the experiential and financial inputs that need to be overcome in order to exercise such as time, commitment, tiredness, feeling guilty, effort and money'.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

290
6.2.2.7 Fun & Enjoyment

In a departure from previous research on consumer value, the study operationalised both Holbrook’s (1999) ‘play’ and Sheth et al. (1991) ‘emotional’ value into a single index of ‘fun & enjoyment’ value which represented the extent to which undertaking exercise relates to, or is motivated, by fun and enjoyment related aspects of consumption in terms of a sense of joy, happiness, pleasure or delight (as outlined in 3.4.1.4). In terms of active adults fun and enjoyment value was the 2nd lowest ranked (0.58) of all the 8-dimensions, clearly indicating that the utility derived from the fun-related and emotional elements generated by the physical activity experience gave them little value. Despite the low ranking in relation to other aspects of their consumption experience physically active adults did emphasise gaining a sense of joy (PE2=.933), delight (PE3=.924), happiness (PE4=.922) and pleasure (PE1=.846).

However, the study’s findings regarding the low importance placed on the fun-related aspects of consuming exercise was a surprise and contradicts a wide range of participation literature which routinely indicates that enjoyment of exercise has been positively linked with adult physical activity (Courneya and McAuley, 1994; Horne, 1994; McAuley, 1991), physical activity stage of change (Calfas et al., 1994) and adherence to structured exercise programmes (Wilson et al., 1994). Furthermore, McDermott (2006) had previously identified that fun and enjoyment was a motivator for participating in after-school and youth activities, whilst Shariro (2003) found that consumer’s sports participation was influenced by task-orientated motives such as fun as well as social integration motives such as playing with other people. Finally, Hall et al. (2010) indicated that in the context of attending a major sporting event, emotional aspect such as having fun and being entertained were significant predictors of repeat behaviour.

In terms of consumer value literature, the study’s findings support Sanchez et al. (2006) who found that in the context of purchasing a tourism product emotional value was considered to be the least important of the 6-dimensions they identified. However, other researchers have found the opposite suggesting that emotional value is a key drive in a tourism context (Williams and Soutar, 2005; Soutar, Lee & Jenkins, 2008). Furthermore, research beyond the tourism context has also show the
high level of importance emotional value had on a consumer willingness to buy a durable product in the form of a car stereo (Sweeny and Soutar, 2001) which serves to contradict the study’s findings. Finally, with regard to Zainuddin et al. (2008) social marketing consumption model (figure 2.14) the study’s findings do not support Zainuddin et al. (2008) proposition that at the consumption stage, high levels of emotional value would be important to overcome any residual negative emotions, as the fun related element of exercise appeared to be of low importance.

The contradictory role of fun and enjoyment is clearly demonstrated in the in-depth interviews which revealed a ‘love-hate’ relationship with regard to actually enjoying exercise which may well explain why in terms of the active adult’s questionnaire this consumption value was ranked so lowly:

“I do kind of get to enjoy it even when it hurts, if you know what I mean... Sometimes I don't, sometimes I train because I have too and there are plenty of sessions like that that I don't enjoy but I do it because it has got to be done, it's just one of those thing in the day that just has to be done. Whereas there are other sessions were I love it”

Interviewee 11, Female: Aged 25-34yrs, page 2

“I can't say I immensely enjoyed it, I can't say I love doing it but it to me is all about the weight coming off and it's something I feel I have to do. I know I feel better after I’ve done it and I know it's working but it's just like going to work is something I have to do.”

Interviewee 12, Female: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 3)

Other interviewees lamented that being physically active did not come easy; instead it required enormous amounts of commitment, discipline and effort.

The study’s findings indicate that the way in which the fun and enjoyment dimension reflects consumer value suggests the need for future offerings to be based on creating and delivering a positive emotional impact on consumer behaviour. The study therefore offers the definition of the fun and enjoyment consumption value as ‘the extent to which undertaking exercise relates to, or is motivated, by fun and enjoyment related aspects of consumption in terms of a sense of joy, happiness, pleasure or delight and the relationships between customers’.
As a result of insights from the study policy-makers and leisure providers should ensure that the physical activity consumption experience is focused on arousing participant’s emotions and fun-related aspects including variables such as pleasure, delight and happiness. If active adults perceive that participation will be fun, challenging, stimulating and satisfying then they may be more inclined to attend in the first place and thereafter. For example by the ‘promotion’ of exercise opportunities including the fun-related elements, that is, they should work on creating a sense of anticipation, excitement and work on stirring emotions through a sense of fun, excitement and escapism that can be experienced (Robertson and Pop, 1999).

In summary, the study’s findings indicated that the value active adults receive from being physically active is related, in-part, to the fun-related aspects of exercising, whilst also demonstrating a ‘love-hate’ relationship. This understanding is both consistent with and contradicts previous research (as discussed in this section and summarised in table 6.7) but never-the-less extends the existing consumer value knowledge by confirming the importance that the fun and enjoyment plays in the consumption of sport and physical activity offerings.
Table 6.7 Fun and Enjoyment Value Dimension – summary of support, contradictions and contributions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Support, contradictions and contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holbrook (1999)</td>
<td>Identification of ‘play’ dimension of consumer value. The study contributed to previous consumer value research by operationalising Holbrook’s (1999) ‘play’ and Seth et al., (1991) ‘emotional’ value as a single index of fun and enjoyment and re-interpreted it as representing the extent to which undertaking exercise relates to, or is motivated by the fun-related aspect of exercise such as sense of joy, happiness, pleasure or delight.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courneya and McAuley (1994), Horne (1994), McAuley (1991), Calfas et al., (1994), McDermott (2006), Sharir (2003) and Hall et al (2010)</td>
<td>Enjoyment of exercise has been positively linked to adult’s participation in physical activity. In terms of active adults fun and enjoyment value, it was the 29th lowest ranked (0.58) of all the 8-dimensions, clearly indicating that the utility derived from the fun-related and emotional elements generated by the physical activity experience gave them little value which contradicted a range of previously research that indicated a positive association between the enjoyment and exercise. Despite the low ranking in relation to other aspect of their consumption experience physically active placed particular emphasis on gaining a sense of joy (PE2=923), delight (PE3=924), happiness (PE4=922), pleasure (PE1=846) and relaxation (PE5=752).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Williams and Sourar (2005), Sourar, Lee &amp; Jenkins (2008), Sweeney and Sourar (2006).</td>
<td>Emotional value important to consumers consumption experience. The study replicates previous contradictory consumer value findings in terms of ‘fun and enjoyment’ which revealed a ‘love-hate’ relationship with regard to actually enjoying exercise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanchez et al., (2006)</td>
<td>Emotional value has little importance to consumers consumption experiences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zainuddin et al., (2008)</td>
<td>Social Marketing consumption model suggests that the role of emotional value is high during the consumption of a social marketing service. The study’s findings contradict Zainuddin et al., (2008) proposition that at the consumption stage, high levels of emotional value will be important to overcome any residual negative emotions, as it appears that the fun-related elements of exercise is of low important to active adults.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fun and Enjoyment This study’s definition. Based on the study findings the study defined fun and enjoyment consumption value in a sport and physical activity setting as “the extent to which undertaking exercise relates to, or is motivated, by fun and enjoyment related aspects of consumption in terms of a sense of joy, happiness, pleasure or delight and the relationships between customers.”
6.2.2.8 Social Value

The study followed Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s, (2009) and others such as Sweeney & Soutar (2001) and Gallaraz & Gil (2006) decision to combined Holbrooks (1999) original categories of status and esteem into a single category called social value to represent the extent to which participation was linked to impressing others, gaining their respect and facilitating more social opportunities in terms of the notion of ‘social wellbeing’ (as discussed in section 3.4.1.3). In terms of active adults consumption experience social value was the lowest ranked of all 8-dimensions (0.50) clearly indicating that the opinions and/or impressions of others was of little value to them. Never-the-less the most important items that arose from the quantitative analysis related to how they were perceived by others (SV2= .962), feeling socially acceptable (SV1=.903), making a good impression on others (SV3=.893) and finally leading to more social opportunities (SV6=.749). An examination of the in depth interviews indicated that role of social opportunities were important, as were the positive comments from and favourable impressions made to others, one respondent indicating:

“It’s a biggy, meeting up with your friends on a regular basis specially with Golf to be honest, we always have a couple of pints after the Golf so that’s more sociable activity and enjoyment, where the squash again with friends is a good activity and if it’s an evening we’ll have a couple of pints after and if it’s in the day we have a coffee, so it very social...”

Interviewee 15, Male: Aged 35-44yrs, (page 2)

Once again the low importance placed on social opportunities as an aspect of consuming exercise was a surprise and contradicted a wide range of literature which routinely supported the link between socialising and participation. Elliott and Hamilton (1991) indicated that when deciding to participate in sport and leisure programmes, socialising was identified as the second most important factor in their decision making process, specifically selecting activities that “their friends are doing” (page 328). In a similar vein Philipp and Brezina (2002) indicated that “socializing with others” was of greater importance to African Americans participation than their Euro-American counterparts, Afthinos et al. (2005) research indicated that “opportunities to meet people” was listed as one of the most desired aspects of customer participation experience, similarly Green (2005) has also
indicated that socialising or social outcomes could be a primary motivator for partaking in sporting activities, and finally Diehl and Berg (2006) suggested that older people sought activities that provided opportunities to meet other people.

Whilst, it is clear that social aspects of participation affect customers’ consumption experiences, the study’s finding do not support the critical or pivotal role suggested by others (Afthinos et al., 2005; Diehl and Berg, 2006; Philipp & Brezina, 2002, Green, 2005). However, it is interesting to note that Hill and Green (2012) found that social opportunities only influenced participation frequency at fitness facilities and not at multi-sports facilities setting such as the 8-leisure centres used in the study. Therefore, the extent to which either being a member of or using a local authority leisure centre confers social status in terms of making a favourable impression on others must be considered with regard to the value proposition and brand values offered by other leisure providers most notably private health and fitness clubs such as Virgin Active or David Lloyds. Such providers purposefully position themselves at the expensive end of the fitness market where the ability to afford high monthly membership fee is in itself a sign of social status.

Nor is the role of social value in underpinning consumer’s purchase-making decision in other contexts clear-cut. Somewhat confusing are Melsen’s (2008) findings which support the study’s finding insofar as social value received little mention in terms of whether the trip and vacation conferred social status on the traveller, indicating that such thoughts were not important to the sampled tourists’ perceptions of value but when compared to Sanchez et al. (2006) research who found in the same context of purchasing a tourism product that social value was perceived to be the most important factor. When considering the study’s findings in-terms of Zainuddin et al. (2008) social marketing consumption model (figure 2.14), social value was anticipated to be low across all three consumption phases which was confirmed when investigated in a well-women’s health-care setting was found to be less important that other self-orientated (emotions and functionality) value dimensions (Zainuddin et al., 2011). However, in a sport and physical activity context, it is possible that social value is more important at the pre-consumption stage (Zainuddin et al., 2008) when individuals are still deciding which provider to use i.e. either a local authority facility or a private health and fitness club. If so, the role of social value occurring
earlier in the consumption process is at odds with Zainuddin et al. (2008) social marketing consumption model which suggests that customers will seek only low levels of social value at the pre-consumption stage.

The study’s findings indicate that the way in which the social value dimension reflects consumer value suggests the need for future offerings to be based on providing suitable socialising opportunities and offering opportunities for friendship between customers. The study therefore offers the following definition of the social value consumption value as “the active manipulation of one’s consumption to make a favourable impression on others, receive appreciation from others, gaining the respect of others and facilitating more social opportunities”.

Given that prior research both indicates that customers seek social opportunities through sport and physical activity (Afthinos et al., 2005; Diehl and Berg, 2006; Philipp & Brezina, 2002, Green, 2005), as a result of the study’s insights, policymakers and leisure providers can now base their service provision on offering opportunities for friendship, reducing social isolation by creating a sense of belonging (Steptoe and Butler, 1996), enhancing community wellbeing as “…cultural 'gateways' to alternative lifestyles” (Driscoll & Woods, 1999) and contributing to community regeneration (DCMS, 2000). In this regard, leisure providers may need to consider their own brand position and what this means to both existing customers and potential new customers with regard to their ability to improve the delivery of social spaces and socialising opportunities at their facilities and as a consequence not missing opportunities to positively impact upon customer retention, secondary spend by not providing appropriate social opportunities.

In summary, the study’s findings indicated that the value adults receive from being physically active is related, in-part, to aspects of social value such as making new friends and impressing others. This understanding is both consistent with and contradicts previous research (as discussed in this section and summarised in table 6.8) but never-the-less extends the existing consumer value knowledge by confirming the importance that social value plays in the consumption of sport and physical activity offerings.
### Table 6. 8 Social Value Dimension – summary of support, contradictions and contributions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Support, contradictions and contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holbrook (1999)</td>
<td>Identification of ‘status’ and ‘esteem’ dimensions of consumer value. The study contributed to previous consumer value research by operationalising Holbrook’s (1999) ‘status’ and ‘esteem’ as a single index of ‘social value’ and re-interpreted it as being linked to impressing others, gaining their respect and facilitating more social opportunities in terms of the notion of ‘social wellbeing’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elliot and Hamilton (1991), Philipp and Berrua (2002), Aflakio et al., (2005), Green (2005), Dehl and Berg (2006).</td>
<td>Socialising with friends and others is an important aspect of participating in sport and physical activity. Whilst, it is clear that social aspects of participation affect customers’ consumption experiences, the study’s finding contradicted the critical or pivotal role suggested by previous research and supports Hill and Green (2012) assertion that social value is influenced by the type of facility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hill and Green (2012)</td>
<td>Sport and physical activity can contribute to social inclusion and enhancing community wellbeing. Socialising only important at fitness facilities and not multi-sports facilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanchez et al., (2006) Melson (2008)</td>
<td>In tourism setting social value important versus not important. The study’s findings support Melson (2008) findings that social value was not important in a tourism setting and contradicts Sanchez et al., (2006) finding that in the context of purchasing a tourism product social value was perceived to be the most important factor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zainuddin et al., (2008) Zainuddin et al., (2011)</td>
<td>Social Marketing consumption model suggests that the role of social value low during the consumption of a social marketing service. The study supports the Zainuddin et al., (2008; 2011) findings that social value is of low importance during the consumption of a social marketing initiative but questions that in a sport and physical activity context, it is possible that social value is more important at the pre-consumption stage than previously thought.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Social Value**

This study’s definition: Based on the study’s the study defined social value in a sport and physical activity setting as “the active manipulation of one’s consumption to make a favourable impression on others, receive appreciation from others, gaining the respect of others and facilitating more social opportunities.”
6.2.3 Summary
The S&PAVAL Model contributes to, and extends, the exiting consumer value knowledge by identifying the consumption values that underpin active adult’s consumption of physical activity. The study’s findings indicate that the value adults receive from being physically active relates to their expectations regarding the physical environment within which their activity occurs (physical environment – ambiance and physical environment – surroundings), their belief in both the immediate and long-term benefits associated with being physically active (altruistic value and the benefits of exercise), the quality of their interactions with staff (quality of service experiences), an appreciation of both monetary and non-monetary costs (costs of exercise), their enjoyment of exercise and the fun related elements of exercising (fun & enjoyment value) and finally their ability to make new friends and at the same time impress others (social value). Whilst, Holbrook’s (1994, 1999) typology included 8 categories of value and Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s, (2009) model proposed a more streamlined and tractable set of 6- value dimensions, the finding of this study in the form of the S&PAVAL Model should not be viewed as re-creating Holbrook’s (1994, 1999) typology, but should be viewed as an extension of Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s, (2009) ‘efficiency’ and ‘aesthetics’ dimensions as shown in table 6.9.

Table 6.9 S&PAVAL Dimension Comparison

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency</td>
<td>Benefits of Exercise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>Costs of Exercise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Value</td>
<td>Quality, Service Experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play</td>
<td>Social Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetics</td>
<td>Fun &amp; Enjoyment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic Value</td>
<td>Physical Environment – surroundings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical Environment – ambiance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3 The Role of Social-demographic Modifying Factors

6.3.1 Introduction
The study’s second research question focused on identifying what influence, if any, social demographic factors such as gender, age and social economic status had upon
the consumption values underpinning participation in sport and physical activity offerings. Prior to the study's investigation, consumption values has not been examined using such modifying factors, consequently their affect on consumer consumption experiences was unknown. The findings of this study therefore represent a significant contribution to the understanding of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting and offer hither-to unknown insights with which to design exercise offerings that can effectively attract adults into becoming physically active, benefiting themselves and society alike.

With regard to sport and physical activity participation an understanding of the impact of gender, age or social economic status is important because participation rates are marked by a range of gender, age and social class inequalities. Over the past 20-years the sport and physical activity participation base has not widened and participation inequalities have not narrowed despite public policy being focused on promoting ‘sport for all’ and extending participation amongst a range of ‘targeted social groups’ (Fahey et al., 2004; Sport England, 2009; Sport Scotland, 2006; Sports Council for Wales, 2005). It is expected that exercise adoption is likely to be increased by the use of targeted social marketing campaigns (DoH 2004; Stead et al., 2006; Gordon et al., 2006), the study’s findings can therefore be used to enable policy-makers and leisure services providers to design more effective methods of engaging ‘hard-to-reach’ groups by focusing on emphasising the relevant experiential aspects of consuming physical activity.

6.3.2 Gender
Research indicating that boys are more physically active than girls (Loucaides, Plotnikoff and Bercovitz, 2007) and that men participate more than females in some form of physical activity is not disputed (Sport England, 2009; Sport Scotland, 2008; Sports Council for Wales, 2005). Nor is the fact that gendered participation first becomes apparent during school years (Dwyer et al., 2006) with the gap between male and female participation widening as individuals get older (Fahey et al., 2004; Sport England, 2009; Sport Scotland, 2006; Sports Council for Wales, 2005). The study’s findings indicated that a statistically significant difference existed between men and women with regard to 5 of the consumption values found to underpin
participation in sport and physical activity. Somewhat surprisingly men placed a higher importance on the physical environment within which exercise occurs (physical environment - ambiance and surrounding), the quality of service experience they received and intrinsic factors such as social and altruistic value, than did women. The remaining consumption values (cost-of-exercise, benefits-of-exercise and fun & enjoyment) did not differ with gender.

Much of the research on gendered participation has focused on women’s constrained participation in leisure activities based-on the assumption that the participation gap between men and women is caused by the conflict between what a woman wants to participate in and the various responsibilities and demands they experiences which serve to constrain that participation (Henderson et al., 1996). Whilst research indicates that men’s participation rates exceed that of women’s, suggesting that gender would appear to be an enabling factor for men, Shaw and Henderson (2005) noted that very little research has been conducted using male gender or masculinity as analytical concepts. The same can be said for consumer value research, where the role of gender in modifying consumption values is still largely unknown. In terms of social value, these results contradict the findings of the MINTEL (2000) report which noted that participation in sport and physical activity was important to young mums in terms of maintaining social contact with others.

However, despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in the mean scores between males and females was extremely small, the effect size calculated using eta squared ranged from a low of 0.004 indicating that only 0.4% of the variances relating to this statement was explained by gender to high of 0.028 or 2.8% (Cohen, 1988). Whilst accepting the identified gender differences are statistically significant, caution must be noted regarding the practical differences given the low effect size.

6.3.2 Age
Age is a key determinant of sport and physical activity participation, there is a general consensus that participation declines with increasing age. In terms of the types of constraints experienced an idealised composite graph (figure 2.8) illustrated
that young people’s leisure is less constrained in terms of time but limited by cost, a lack of partners and opportunities. Whilst the passage into middle-age is associated with a reduction in these types of constraints, it is associated with greater time constraints due to work and family commitments (Jackson, 2005). However, in older-age both time and cost constraints reduce but are replaced by difficulties with health, skills and isolation.

The study’s findings indicate that the four of the consumption values identified as underpinning participation in sport and physical activity did not differ with age (benefits of exercise, quality of the service experience, altruistic value and fun & enjoyment). However, just as constraints to leisure changed over the life course (Jackson, 2005) a number of statistically significant differences existed between age groups with regard to the costs-of-exercise, physical environment (ambiance and surroundings) and social value consumption values.

The age profile of the respondents are illustrated in table 5a.1 and illustrated in figure 6.2 below:

![Figure 6.2 Active Adults Age Profile](image)

The study’s findings indicated that the cost of exercise was a significantly more important factor within in the consumption experience of older groups (65-69yrs and 75-79yrs) compared to younger adults aged 25-29yrs, 30-34yrs and 35-39yrs. This
appears to be at odds with Jackson (2005) suggestions that young people’s leisure is limited by cost and in older-age cost constraints are reduced.

With regard to social value or the need to make a good impression on others, this was significantly more important to both younger adults (15-19yrs and 20-24yrs) and older adults (75-79yrs) consumption of physical activity than to those who were middle aged (40-44yrs, 45-49yrs and 50-54yrs). Finally, in-terms of the physical environment (ambiance and surroundings) within which exercise occurred this was significantly more important to adults’ age 20-24yrs than to adults aged 35-39yrs.

However, once again despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in the mean scores between the various age groups was extremely small, the effect size, calculated using eta squared ranged from a low of 0.025 indicating that only 2.5% of the variances relating to this statement was explained by age to high of 0.05 or 5% (Cohen, 1988). Whilst accepting the identified age differences are statistically significant, caution must be noted regarding the practical differences given the low effect size.

6.3.4 Social Economic Status
There is a strong relationship between social class and adult participation rates in sport and physical activity. Research indicates a number of key issues; firstly that the social class of participants is skewed towards those from a professional background and that inactivity levels are highest in low-income groups (Royal College of Physicians, 2004; Health & Social Care Information Centre, 2009) and secondly that the disparities between social classes have not become any less marked over recent years, those denoted as ‘professionals’ are still about three times more likely to participate in physical activity than those classified as ‘Unskilled Manual’ (GHS 2002). The social economic backgrounds of the questionnaire respondents are in table 5a.2 and are illustrated in graph 6.3below.

The study’s findings indicated a number of statistically significant differences existed between the different social groups with regard to six of the consumption
values (physical environment – ambiance, physical environment – surroundings, quality of service experience, cost of exercise, fun & enjoyment and social value).

In terms of the physical environment (ambiance and surroundings) within which exercise occurred, this was considered more important to adults from lower social classes (eg semi/unskilled manual and casual/low skilled & OAP’s) and less important to higher social classes (eg higher and intermediate managerial). With regard to the quality of service experience this was also considered more important to lower social classes (eg skilled manual semi/unskilled manual) and least important to intermediate and higher managerial. The cost of exercise was considered to be more important to lower social classes eg casual/low skilled & OAP’s and semi/unskilled manual and of least important to intermediate managerial, supporting the Wanless Review (2003) which indicated that poverty can negatively impact upon access to physical activity facilities. The fun-related aspect of exercising in terms of fun and enjoyment value were more important to lower social classes (eg skilled manual and semi/unskilled manual) and least importance to intermediate managerial and finally with regard to social value this was more important to lower social classes (eg skilled manual semi/unskilled manual) and least important to social classes eg intermediate and higher managerial.
Determining the link between social class and exercise participation is complex, compounded by few studies reporting the moderating impact of participant from different socio-economic backgrounds (Foster et al., 2005), however there is evidence to suggest that white, middles class, female are more likely to engage in health behaviour change interventions (Marmot, 2005) compared to those who are economically disadvantaged (Hillson et al., 2007; Eyler et al., 2002). The complexity of the debate is extended further when reviewing the difficulties experienced by physical activity interventions that have specifically targeted disadvantage groups. Despite targeting inactive individual’s who lived in areas of poor-health, Dawson et al. (2006) found that their ‘walking the way to health’ intervention attracted mainly affluent and well educated individuals, similarly Yancy et al. (2006) intervention was ineffective in recruiting either ethnic or low-income populations despite these being the primary target market.

In-line with the complexity of the debate, the study’s findings indicate a difference in the sport and physical activity consumption values from the lower social classes [C2/D/E] to those in the higher classifications [A/B]. Lower classed participants place a higher importance on the physical environment both in term of its surrounds and ambiance, more importance on the quality of the service experience, the costs associated with exercising, the fun-related aspect of exercising and appeared to seek greater social value from exercising.

The study’s findings also indicated that two consumption values did not differ with social class, that of the benefits of exercise and altruistic value. The finding that altruistic value did not vary with social class contradicts a number of ‘lost letter’ studies; Nettle et al. (2011) indicated that fewer lost letters were returned from poor areas of Newcastle (UK) than from rich areas and Holland et al. (2012) indicated that in London (UK) letters dropped in the poorest areas had a 91% lower chance of being retuned than letters dropped in the wealthiest suburbs indicating that those living in poor neighbourhoods were less inclined to behave altruistically than wealthier people. By contrast Piff et al. (2012) found that wealthy individual (students) were less likely to behave altruistically than less wealthy individuals.
However, once again despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in the mean scores between the various social status classifications was extremely small, the effect size, calculated using eta squared ranged from a low of 0.002 indicating that only 0.2% of the variances relating to this statement was explained by age to high of 0.041 or 4.1% (Cohen, 1988). Whilst accepting the identified social class differences are statistically significant, caution must be noted regarding the practical differences given the low effect size.

6.3.5 Summary
In summary, the study’s findings regarding the role of social-demographic modifying factors indicated that the value adults receive from being physically active does differ with gender, age and social class. This understanding both contributes to and extends the existing consumer value knowledge by confirming that the consumption value underpinning participation in sport and physical activity are modified by social demographic factors (as discussed in this section and summarised in table 6.10). However, caution must be noted regarding the practical differences given the low effect size.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S&amp;A/PA Consumption Value</th>
<th>Modifying Factor &amp; Significance</th>
<th>Support, contradictions and contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Physical Environment – ambiance (.765) | **Gender:**  
- More important to Men  
- Most important adults age 20-24 yrs  
- Least important to adults aged 35-39 yrs  
**Social Status:**  
- More important to lower social classes [D/E]  
- Least important to higher social classes [A/B] |
| | The study *contributes* to previous research on consumer value by representing the first examination of gender, age and social status as it pertains to the consumption values that underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity in general and specifically the physical environment – ambiance value dimension. |
| Physical Environment – surroundings (.680) | **Gender:**  
- More important to Men  
- Most important adults age 20-24 yrs  
- Least important to adults aged 35-39 yrs  
**Social Status:**  
- More important to lower social classes [D/E]  
- Least important to higher social classes [A/B] |
| | The study *contributes* to previous research on consumer value by representing the first examination of gender, age and social status as it pertains to the consumption values that underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity in general and specifically to the physical environment – surroundings value dimension. |
| Altruistic Value (.666) | **Gender:**  
- More important to Men  
- No significant differences  
**Social Status:**  
- No significant differences |
| | The study *contributes* to previous research on consumer value by representing the first examination of gender, age and social status as it pertains to the consumption values that underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity in general and specifically to the altruistic value dimension.  

Findings *contradict* a number of “lost letter” studies - Nettle et al., (2011) indicated that fewer *lost* letters were returned from poor areas of Newcastle (UK) than from rich areas. Holland et al., (2012) indicated that indicating that those living in poor neighborhoods were less inclined to behave altruistically than wealthier people. Piff et al., (2012) found that wealthy individual (students) were less likely to behave altruistically than less wealthy individuals. |
| Benefits of Exercise (.665) | **Gender:**  
- No significant differences  
**Age:**  
- No significant differences  
**Social Status:**  
- No significant differences |
| | The study *contributes* to previous research on consumer value by representing the first examination of gender, age and social status as it pertains to the consumption values that underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity in general and specifically to the benefits-of-exercise value dimension. |
Table 6. 10 Social-demographic Modifying Factors – summary of significant findings, contributions and contradictions cont…

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S&amp;PA Consumption Value</th>
<th>Modifying Factor &amp; Significance</th>
<th>Support, contradictions and contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Quality of Service Experience (821) | **Gender:**  
  - More important to Men  
  **Age:**  
  - No significant differences  
  **Social Status:**  
  - More important to lower social classes [C2/D]  
  - Least important to social classes [A/B] | The study contributes to previous research on consumer value by representing the first examination of gender, age and social status as it pertains to the consumption values that underpin adult's participation in sport and physical activity in general and specifically to the quality of service experienced value dimension. |
| Cost of Exercise (599) | **Gender:**  
  - No significant differences  
  **Age:**  
  - More important to older groups (65-69yrs and 75-79yrs)  
  **Social Status:**  
  - More important to lower social classes [D/E]  
  - Least important to intermediate managerial [B] | The study contributes to previous research on consumer value by representing the first examination of gender, age and social status as it pertains to the consumption values that underpin adult's participation in sport and physical activity in general and specifically to the cost-of-exercise value dimension.  
  Findings support the Wandless Review (2003) that poverty can negatively impact upon access to physical activity facilities. Findings contradict Jackson (2005) who suggests that in older age cost constraints are reduced. |
| Fun & Enjoyment (584) | **Gender:**  
  - No significant differences  
  **Age:**  
  - No significant differences  
  **Social Status:**  
  - More important to lower social classes [C2/D]  
  - Least important to intermediate managerial [B] | The study contributes to previous research on consumer value by representing the first examination of gender, age and social status as it pertains to the consumption values that underpin adult's participation in sport and physical activity in general and specifically to the fun & enjoyment value dimension. |
| Social Value (503) | **Gender:**  
  - No difference  
  **Age:**  
  - More important to younger adults (15-19yrs and 20-24yrs) and older adults (75-79yrs)  
  - Least important to middle aged (40-44yrs, 45-49yrs and 50-54yrs)  
  **Social Status:**  
  - More important to lower social classes [C2/D]  
  - Less important to social classes [A/B] | The study contributes to previous research on consumer value by representing the first examination of gender, age and social status as it pertains to the consumption values that underpin adult's participation in sport and physical activity in general and specifically to the social value dimension.  
  Findings contradict the findings of the MINTEL (2000) report which noted that participation in sport and physical activity was important to young mums in terms of maintaining social contact with others. |
6.4 The Multi-dimensional Nature of Consumer Value in a Sport & Physical Activity Setting.

6.4.1 Introduction

The study’s third research question focused on identifying whether consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting was uni- or multi-dimensional, which prior to the study’s investigation was unknown. The findings of this study therefore represent a significant contribution through proposing that the multi-dimensional nature of consumer value may be better conceptualised as a value continuum rather than being conceived as either value-in-use or value –in-exchange.

Traditionally, marketers have believed that market choices and consumer preferences are driven by utilitarian value (Chiu et al., 2005), with consumers as rational beings who make choices that maximise utility whilst being constrained by price and income (Sweeney et al., 1999). Therefore the functional nature of value has long been the most prominent conceptualisation where-by ‘value’ is considered to be a cognitive trade-off between benefits and scarifies, typified by research streams that have focused on the consumers’ quality-price perceptions (Monroe 1979, 1990; Zeithamal, 1988). Many authors have argued that the cognitive trade-off is too simplistic with Mathwick et al. (2001) considering it ‘narrow’ and Sweeney et al. (1999) as ‘summarised’ given the numerous tangible and emotional costs/benefits that must be allowed for when understanding the consumption experience (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986). Consumer research has now evolved from such functional focus regarding the cognitive aspects of decision-making to include intrinsic aspects, so that the ‘thinking and feeling’ dimensions of an object or experience can be seen to be valued for its own sake (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). Figure (2.10) illustrated the various approaches to consumer value, which the literature variously categories as either being either uni-dimensional also sometimes referred to as value-in-exchange or multi-dimensional also referred to as value-in-use.

The study’s findings are broadly consistent with other researchers who have identified that multiple value dimensions impact on both choice, purchase decisions and consumption in a number of different of service-settings such as golf holidays (Petrick and Backman, 2002), cruising (Petrick, 2004), attending festivals (Lee,
Patrick and Crompton, 2007), adventure tourism trips (Williams and Soutar, 2005), vegetarian dining (Sanchez-Fernandez et al., 2009) and women’s health care (Zainuddin et al., 2011). Furthermore, the study findings supports the experiential view proposed by Holbrook and his colleagues, that an active adult’s behaviour should not be viewed from a solely rational standpoint and that both the cognitive and affective components play an important role in explaining the consumption of health behaviours. However, the study raises question regarding the simplicity of value being conceived as an ‘either or’ concept based on value-in-exchange as a function of value-in-use (Grönroos, 2008) and instead reaches beyond such a conceptualisation to propose new and emerging notion of value as a continuum or kaleidoscope or being elemental.

6.4.2 Holbrook’s Typology in a Sport and Physical Activity Setting.
Holbrook (1994, 1999) proposed a typology of consumer value based on three dichotomies (figure 2.16). The first dichotomy is ‘extrinsic vs. intrinsic’, the second is ‘self-orientated vs. other orientated’ and lastly the third is ‘active vs. reactive’, Figure 6.4 illustrates the relationships between the eight sport and physical activity consumption values in terms of Holbrook’s (1999) typology.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-orientated</th>
<th>Extrinsic</th>
<th>Intrinsic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Benefits of Exercise</td>
<td>Fun and Enjoyment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Costs of Exercise</td>
<td>Physical Environment - ambience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Re-active</td>
<td>Quality of Service Experience</td>
<td>Physical Environment - surroundings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other-orientated</td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Social Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Re-active</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6. 4 Holbrook’s (1999) Typology in a Sport and Physical Activity Setting.

Holbrook’s (1999) typology defined extrinsic value in terms of efficiency, excellence, status, esteem and intrinsic value in terms of play, aesthetic, ethic, spirituality, whilst Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) adaptation of Holbrook’s
typology defined extrinsic aspects of value as efficiency, quality and social value with play, aesthetic and altruistic value forming the intrinsic aspects of value. Based on the study’s finding, extrinsic value dimensions were defined in terms of the costs and benefits of exercise (efficiency), quality service experience (quality) and social value and the intrinsic dimensions were defined in terms of the physical surroundings (aesthetics), fun and enjoyment (play) and altruistic value.

The study’s findings indicate that in a sport and physical activity setting, the role of intrinsic aspects of value would appear to be more important than extrinsic aspects as three of the top 8-dimensions were intrinsic dimension: ranked 1st was physical environment – ambiance (0.77), whilst physical environment – surrounding (y=0.68) was ranked 2nd and altruistic value (0.67) was 3rd, with the final intrinsic element fun and enjoyment (0.58) was ranked 7th. By contrast, extrinsic dimensions of value appear to have a lesser impact, of the 8-dimensions identified benefit of exercise (0.67) was ranked 4th, quality service experience (0.62) ranked 5th, costs of exercise (0.60) ranked 6th and social value (0.50) was ranked 8th and last. The study’s findings are consistent with Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) who indicated that the intrinsic categories of play, aesthetics and altruistic value were more reflective of consumer value in a service context than were the external dimensions of efficiency, quality and social value.

The second of Holbrook (1999) dichotomies is ‘self-orientated versus other orientated’ which views value as something for one’s own sake (self-orientated) verses an aspect of consumption positively evaluated on the basis of how other respond (other-orientated). Holbrook’s (1999) typology defined self-orientated value in terms of efficiency, excellence, play and aesthetics with other-orientated aspects being status, esteem, ethics and spirituality, more recently Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) defined the self-orientated aspects of value to be comprised of efficiency, quality, play and aesthetics, whereas other-orientated aspect were social and altruistic value. Based on the study’s findings self-orientated dimensions of value in a sport and physical active setting were the costs and benefits of exercise (efficiency), quality service experience (quality), fun & enjoyment (play) and the physical surroundings (aesthetics) and the other-orientated dimensions were identified as social and altruistic value.
Figure 6.4 indicates that value in a sport and physical activity setting appear to be ‘self-orientated’ in nature, with physical environment – ambiance (0.77) being ranked 1st, physical environment – surrounding (0.68) was ranked 2nd, benefit of exercise (0.67) was ranked 4th, quality service experience (0.62) ranked 5th, costs of exercise (0.60) ranked 6th and finally fun & enjoyment (0.58) being ranked 7th. With regard to other-orientated value whilst altruistic value (0.67) was ranked 3rd but social value (0.50) was ranked 8th and last.

The final of Holbrook (1999) dichotomies is ‘active verse reactive’ which views value as either the use of some product by its user (active) verses the a consumption experience whereby an object affects the person (reactive). Holbrook’s (1999) typology defined ‘active’ in terms of efficiency, play, status, ethics and ‘reactive’ in terms of excellence, aesthetics, esteem and spirituality. However, both Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) and the study combined both status and esteem to form social value and ethics and spirituality to form altruistic values. Therefore, in terms of the unaffected dimensions, active aspects of value are costs and benefits of exercise (efficiency), fun & enjoyment (play) and in terms of reactive aspects quality service experience (quality) and the physical surroundings (aesthetics).

Accepting that a direct comparison of Holbrook’s (1999) active verse reactive aspect of consumer value is not possible in sport and physical activity setting, a partial comparison omitting both social and altruistic value indicated that reactive dimensions were more important than active aspects with physical environment – ambiance (0.77) being ranked 1st, physical environment – surrounding (0.68) was ranked 2nd and quality service experience (0.62) ranked 5th, compared to benefit of exercise (0.67) being ranked 4th, costs of exercise (0.60) ranked 6th and finally fun and enjoyment (0.58) being ranked seventh, despite the act of being physically active requiring the consumer to participate with the facility rather than just react.

In summary, figure 6.4 illustrated the relationships between the 8 consumption values identified by the study in terms of Holbrook’s (1999) typology and reveals that value in a sport and physical activity setting appears to be ‘self-orientated’, ‘reactive’ and motivated by a mixture of both intrinsic and extrinsic factors.
6.4.3. Continuum or Kaleidoscope of Value

For the purposes of this research, the two dimensions of ‘benefits of exercise’ and ‘cost of exercise’ were deemed to represent the traditional economic or value-in-exchange conceptualisation, whereby consumers assess the relevant benefits and costs in terms of a quality-price trade-off, with the remaining 6-dimensions equating to the value-in-use concept. Following Sheth & Uslay (2007) call for marketers to use of the value creating paradigm to “reach beyond value in exchange and even value in use” (p. 303) to think about other types of value scrutiny of the EFA data provided some very interesting and original insights that shed light on consumer perceptions. Using the % of variance extracted as a proxy of customer perceived importance, the economic or value-in-exchange conceptualisation of value explained 43.2% of total variance, whilst the remaining 6 factors were considered to represent value-in-use and account for the remaining 29.7% of the variance, which questions Grönroos’ (2008) belief of a paradigm shift which conceives value-in-exchange as a function of value-in-use. In this regard, figure 6.5 illustrates that the value-in-exchange and value-in-use consumption factors may be better conceptualised as a value continuum, anchored at opposite ends rather than as one perception of value (value-in-exchange) being conceptualised as only a function of the other (value-in-use).

![Figure 6.5 Towards a Value Continuum](image)

Further analysis of the CFA standardised loading analysis (also as a proxy of importance) further supported a new conceptual understanding of value as a continuum, as a single entity that relates all the different value dimensions as if there is no distinction between dimensions presently conceived as either value-in-use or value-in-exchange. The continuum of value (figure 6.6) shows that different items of the different value dimensions were considered to be important in underpinning adult’s consumption of physical activity. The item with the highest standardised
loading was SV2 ‘exercising improves the way I am perceived by others’, however the overall ‘social value’ dimension to which it contributed was considered to be the least important by active adults (table 5a.21). Similarly, five of the value dimensions were represented in the of the top-10 items and of the 18-items that had a standardised loading of 0.90 or over were represented by all of the different value dimensions with the exception of ‘benefits of exercise’. In contrast to Grönroos (2008), the study’s analysis would appear to indicate that the value of a sport and physical activity experience is an amalgam of different value dimensions.
Figure 6. 6 Continuum of Consumer Value
The study’s finding also suggest second new conceptualisation where value may be better conceptualised as kalidasscope of constantly changing value dimensions dependent upon the setting (figure 6.7).

![Figure 6. 7 Kaleidoscope of Consumer Value](image)

A kaleidoscope of value allows for the relative importance of the different value dimensions to change depending upon the context and setting. Not dissimilar in nature to Sheth et al. (1991) model which posit that value dimensions are likely to change over time and change according to context, which means they rank differently among different experiences and different consumers. However, knowledge of the likely contribution of each value dimension in any choice situation would offer valuable marketing information.

6.4.4 Elemental Value
Further understanding of value as something other than either ‘value-in-exchange’ or ‘value-in-use’ (Sheth & Uslay, 2007) was provided by the insights of active adults who were asked in a series of in-depth interviews to describe something they considered to be valuable. Insights from these interviews revealed that customers viewed value in a number of different ways, some of which were consistent with ‘value-in-exchange’ and ‘value-in-use’ but for others value appear to have an elemental value to, in the sense of being inborn or resembling a force of nature in
power and effect, typical examples that appeared to have an elemental nature to them were:

“Value means to me making friends really, I’ve made some really good friends through this and that means a lot to me...”

Interviewee 2, Female (Aged 65-74)

“Well I’d say my family is valuable and friendship and having good friends you know people to call on, I’ve got a support of family getting away from everything else that is valuable...”

Interviewee 4, Male (Aged 55-64)

“Value is something that you keep close, I suppose that my friends I like to keep them close and stuff like that ...”

Interviewee 6, Male (Aged 55-64)

Whilst, in general interviewees found it difficult to articulate what value meant to them on these occasions, some responses were akin to ‘beauty is in the eye of the beholder’, however, others provided examples such as health and family relationships.

6.4.5 Summary
The study’s findings illustrated the multi-dimensional nature of consumer value in a by showing that different value items and dimensions contribute to the understanding of value in sport and physical activity setting and can be conceived as either a continuum or as a kaleidoscope (as discussed in this section and summarised in table 6.11). A continuum, viewed in terms of a single value entity that relates to all the different value dimensions as if there is no distinction between dimensions, which are presently conceived as either value-in-use or value-in-exchange. Or as a kaleidoscope of value that allows for the relative importance of the different value dimensions to change depending upon the context and setting.
Table 6.11 The Multi-dimensional Nature of Consumer Value in a S&PA Setting – summary of significant findings, contributions and contradictions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Support, contradictions and contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holbrook (1999)</td>
<td>The study findings contribute to the understanding of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting by identifying that multiple value dimensions impact upon adult’s consumption and supports the experiential view proposed by Holbrook (1999).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patrick and Backman (2002), Patrick (2004), Lee, Patrick and Crompton (2007), Williams and Coutts (2005), Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s (2009), Zannuddin et al., (2011)</td>
<td>The study’s findings are consistent with other researchers who have identified that multiple value dimensions impact on both choice and purchase decisions in a number of different service-settings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holbrook’s Typology</td>
<td>Value is a multi-dimensional and experiential construct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- ‘extrinsic vs intrinsic’</td>
<td>The study’s findings indicate the role of intrinsic aspects of value would appear to be more important than extrinsic aspects as three of the top 8 dimensions were intrinsic dimension. The study’s findings are consistent with Sanchez-Fernandez et al., (2009) who found that the intrinsic categories were more reflective of consumer value in a service context than were the external dimensions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- ‘self-orientated vs other-orientated’</td>
<td>The study’s findings indicate that value appears to be ‘self-orientated’ in nature.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- ‘active vs reactive’</td>
<td>A direct comparison of Holbrook’s (1994, 1996, 1999) active versus reactive aspect of consumer value was not possible, but a partial comparison (omitting both social and altruistic value) indicated that ‘reactive’ dimensions are more important than active aspects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuum of Value</td>
<td>Value is a multi-dimensional and experiential construct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheih &amp; Uslay (2007) - called for marketers the use of the value creating paradigm to “reach beyond value in exchange and even value in use” (page 303)</td>
<td>The study findings contribute to the understanding of consumer value by re-conceptualising value as a continuum in terms of a single value entity that relates all the different value dimensions as if there is no distinction between dimensions which are presently conceived as value-in-exchange being conceptualised as a function of value-in-use. In contrast to Gronroos (2008) the study’s analysis would suggest that the consumption values underpinning a sport and physical activity experience is an amalgam of different value dimensions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.11 The Multi-dimensional Nature of Consumer Value in a S&PA Setting – summary of significant findings, contributions and contradictions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Support, contradictions and contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kaleidoscope of Value</td>
<td>Sheth &amp; Usday (2007) - called for marketers the use of the value creating paradigm to “reach beyond value in exchange and even value in use” (page 303)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sheth et al. (1991) - value dimensions are likely to change over time and change according to context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The study findings contribute to the understanding of consumer value by re-conceptualising it as kaleidoscope value which changes dependent upon the setting. The findings of the study’s analysis are similar in nature to Sheth et al., (1991) suggestions that value dimensions rank differently among different experiences and different consumers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elemental Value</td>
<td>Sheth &amp; Usday (2007) - called for marketers the use of the value creating paradigm to “reach beyond value in exchange and even value in use” (page 303)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The study findings contribute to the understanding of consumer value by re-conceptualising value and neither ‘value-in-use’ or ‘value-in-exchange’, but instead as elemental value in the sense of being inherent or resembling a force of nature in power and effect, examples of which would be valuing personal health and family relationships.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.5 S&PAVAL Model and the Facilitator Framework

6.5.1 Introduction

Competition was one of the key social marketing elements discussed in the literature review (section 2.3) because of its influence on the adoption of a healthy behaviour in general and specifically partaking in sport and physical activity opportunities, and because it offers insights into the range of options that compete with being physically active and often prevents an individual from becoming physically active (Andresasen, 2002; Hastings, 2003). Because social marketing deals with voluntary behaviour the traditional focus has been on examining those competitive factors that constrain or act to deter an individual from either becoming or being physically active such as inertia, free choice - individuals have the freedom to choose between being physically active or remaining a couch potato and apathy (Jackson 1988, 2005; Raymore et al., 1993). Based on the study’s findings the S&PAVAL Facilitator Framework (figure 6.8) is proposed based on Raymore’s (2002) facilitator concept which serves to illustrate the enabling potential the S&PAVAL consumption values can have to minimising or overcoming constraints to participation.

6.5.2 S&PAVAL Facilitator Framework

Within the realms of leisure studies, a factor that restricts or limits participation is termed a barrier or a constraint (Jackson, 1988). Much of the research on leisure constraints is predicated on the basis that a reported barrier or constraint has a direct and negative link on level of participation. Crawford et al. (1991) hierarchy of constraints model (figure 2.5) argued that leisure participation is dependent upon overcoming or negotiating through a sequence of constraints they termed intrapersonal, interpersonal and finally structural (Jackson et al., 1993; Shaw et al., 1991; Kay and Jackson, 1991; Scott, 1991). By contrast Raymore (2002) suggested that instead of conceiving participation as being limited by ‘constraints’ it may be more beneficial to acknowledge the resources that encourage or facilitated participation (figure 2.7), specifically that participation occurs as a result of it being facilitated, whilst non-participation lacks the necessary facilitators. Furthermore, that the connection between facilitators, constraints and behaviour could be better
understood in terms of the expectancy for success and the value of the outcomes (Raymore, 2002; Wigfeild and Eccles, 2000).

6.5.2.1 Creating Leisure Preferences
The first stage of the ‘facilitator framework’ (figure 6.8), is about creating a ‘leisure preference’, therefore the most important factors to overcome are an individual’s lack of interested, apathy and general inertia. At this stage, Raymore (2002) considered intrapersonal facilitators “individual characteristics, trait and beliefs that enable or promote the formation of leisure preferences” (p. 42) to be of most assistance. In this context three of the S&PAVAL consumption values could be important physical activity facilitators as they can all help shape an individual beliefs about exercise, firstly both the benefits of exercise and altruistic consumption values could be important facilitators as they both promote the short- and long-term benefits of exercise. Therefore, sport and physical activity opportunities based on emphasising the range of benefits that can be gained in the short-term such as a healthy body and healthy mind and the implications for exercising not for today but for tomorrow in terms of the deferred benefits such as longer-term avoidance of
Figure 6.8 S&PAVAL Facilitator Framework
ill-health and having more independence in later life may be more beneficial at overcoming a lack of interest, inertia or apathy. Furthermore, the cost of exercise should also be considered at this stage both in framing an individual’s beliefs regarding the costs of exercise such as commitment and hard work. Here, sport and physical activity opportunities need to be mindful of these barriers and give serious consideration to accommodating them into the design of their activities and marketing messages.

6.5.2.2 Creating Compatible Participation Opportunities

The next stage of the ‘facilitator framework’ (figure 6.8) is about ensuring participation opportunities are ‘compatible’ by creating that social relationships enable participation rather than restricting it. Therefore the most important factors to overcome are a lack of partners, friends and family who are not sporty. At this stage Raymore’s (2002) considered interpersonal facilitators “those individual or groups that enable or promote the formation of leisure preferences” (p. 43) to be most helpful. Therefore, both fun and enjoyment and social value could be important physical activity facilitators as they both focus on the interactive nature of physical activity and the contribution that having fun and making new friends has. Therefore, sport and physical activity opportunities should be based on emphasising participation as being fun, social and actively encourages friend and family, not only to overcome childcare issues, but also to satisfy the need for participation to seen as an acceptable social activity.

6.5.2.3 Ensuring Participation

The third and final stage of the ‘facilitator framework’ (figure 6.8) needs to ensure actual participation as an outcome by ensuring the standards, prices and customer care experienced at the facilities does not put-off someone who is new to sport and physical activity. At this stage, Raymore (2002) considered structural facilitators “social and physical institution, organisation or belief systems of a society that operate external to the individual” (p. 43). In this regard the remaining three consumption values could be considered as important physical activity facilitators, plus the monetary elements of the cost of exercise. Firstly, the physical environment (ambiance and surrounding) consumption values as they emphasise the importance
placed on the environment within which physical activity occurs. Providers should therefore give careful consideration to the participation servicescape in terms of ensuring the overall ambiance of the facility making it comfortable to exercise in (lighting, temperature, decoration, signage and background music). Finally, with regard to the quality of service experience, if an individual’s participation is sufficiently facilitated to attend a leisure centre or swimming pool, the contribution of staff to delivering a positive physical activity experience cannot be underestimated.

6.5.3 Summary
The S&PAVAL Facilitator Framework (figure 6.8) will enable leisure providers to target new interventions at specific points along the pathway to ensure that resources are appropriately targeted opportunities to participate maximised and are part of a co-ordinated and sustainable participation pathway. The ‘facilitator framework’ is both consistent with and contradicts previous research (as discussed in this section and summarised in table 6.12) but never-the-less extends the existing leisure constraints and consumer value knowledge by confirming the utility of viewing the S&PAVAL consumption values as facilitators of participation.
**Table 6. 12 S&PAVAL as Facilitators of Participation Framework**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S&amp;PAVAL Consumption Values as Facilitators of Participation Framework</th>
<th>The facilitator framework contributed to previous research on consumer value by:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creating Leisure Preferences</td>
<td>Representing the first examination of Raymore's (2002) facilitator construct as it pertains to the consumption of sport and physical activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jackson et al., (1993)</td>
<td>Intrapersonal constraints exist such as an individual’s not being interested, general apathy and inertia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raymore (2002)</td>
<td>Intrapersonal facilitators “individual characteristics, traits and beliefs that enable or promote the formation of leisure preferences” (page 42).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating Compatible Participation Opportunities</td>
<td>Extends the existing leisure constraints and consumer value knowledge by illustrating the enabling role of S&amp;PAVAL consumption value in minimizing or overcoming constraints to participation and confirming the utility of the S&amp;PAVAL consumption values as facilitators of participation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jackson et al., (1993)</td>
<td>Interpersonal constraints exist such as a lack of partners, friends and family who aren’t into sport and physical activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raymore (2002)</td>
<td>Interpersonal facilitators “those individual or groups that enable or promote the formation of leisure preferences” (page 43).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensuring Participation</td>
<td>Contributed to existing leisure constraints and consumer value knowledge by identifying the types of value that will be important at creating compatible participation opportunities by overcoming a lack of partners, friends and family who aren’t sporty as social value and fun &amp; enjoyment value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jackson et al., (1993)</td>
<td>Structural constraints exist such as a lack of money, time and local facilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raymore (2002)</td>
<td>Structural facilitators “social and physical institution, organisation or belief systems of a society that operate external to the individual” (page 43).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contributed to existing leisure constraints and consumer value knowledge by identifying the types of value that will be important in ensuring participation by ensuring the standards, prices and customer care experienced at the facilities does not put-off new participants as the physical environment (ambiance and surroundings), quality of service environment and the monetary elements of the cost-of-exercise consumption value.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.6 S&PAVAL Model as ‘Triggers’ of Behaviour Change

6.6.1 Introduction
Behaviour change theories was the second social marketing element discussed in the literature review (section 2.5) as they were considered important to the adoption of healthy behaviours in general and specifically partaking in sport and physical activity opportunities, because of the insights they offered regarding social marketing central tenet of influencing behaviour to bring about a voluntary adoption of a healthy behaviour or a voluntary cessation of an unhealthy behaviour (Andresasen, 2002; Kotler, 1972). The study findings indicate there are three triggers: the want, the will and the inclination.

6.6.2 S&PAVAL Model and' The Want'
In a similar vein, SCT (Bandura, 1997) also contributes to our understanding of how to create the want to engage in physical activity by indicating that key drivers of exercise adoption are outcome and efficiency expectations. Efficiency outcomes are an inactive individual’s self-efficacy or belief in their own ability to become physically active, self-efficacy is considered the single most critical factor that determines a individual propensity to change behaviour (Bandura, 1986) as high levels of self-efficacy being a positive predictor of adults participation (McAuley et al., 2003; 2000).Outcome expectation are beliefs that becoming physically active will lead to a specific outcome and beliefs about how other people will respond if they become more active (Bandura, 2004). The S&PAVAL consumption value suggest that increasing outcome and efficiency expectations can be achieved by using the benefits-of-exercise and altruistic value to emphasise the belief that the benefits of becoming physical activity outweighs any negative consequences, which can be minimised by the use of the cost-of-exercise consumption value. Finally, as illustrated in figure 6.10, creating a positive peer group attitude can be achieved through the use of social value.
Even though adults know that exercise is good for them they may not adopt a healthier lifestyle if there are environmental obstacles such as few local facilities which limits opportunities and excessive personal and work-related time demands. Therefore, physical activity needs to be underpinned by providing fit-for-purpose facilities (physical environment - ambiance and surroundings), by affordable charges (cost-of-exercise) and by providing the elements that they cannot or would find difficult to produce themselves, such as encouraging instructors, teaching to swim or inducting on equipment in the fitness suite (quality of service experience).

6.6.3 S&PAVAL Model and ‘The Will’

The TPB (Ajzen, 1991) contributes to the understanding of how to create the will to engage in physical activity by indicating that the likelihood will be increased if the individual believes that its consumption will be pleasurable and not harmful, that its consumption will lead to positive outcomes and not negative ones and most importantly that their peer group would approved on them being physically active, emphasising the need to create a positive attitude towards becoming physically active. Creating a positive attitude can be achieved by using the benefits-of-exercise, altruistic value and fun and enjoyment consumption values to ‘sell’ the benefits and positive outcomes, whilst making a favourable impression on others and gaining the
respect of their peer group could be achieved through the use of social value as illustrated in figure 6.9.

Furthermore, the importance placed by active adults on their physical environment (ambiance and surrounding) within which exercise occurs is also an important element of the TPB because even when individuals have an intention to participate in physical activity, they also need personal control over or access to the appropriate skills, resources and opportunities (Rhoades and Cournya, 2003).

6.6.4 S&PAVAL Model and ‘The Inclination’
The HBM (Strecher and Rosenstock, 1997) also contributes to our understanding of how to create the inclination to become physically active by establishing a key predictor is the belief in the benefits of being physically active, because an individual’s behaviour is based on taking positive health action to avoid negative health outcomes. Therefore, the likelihood of participation can be increased if individuals trust and believe that being physically active will reduce the risk of becoming ill, through the use of the benefits-of-exercise consumption value as well
as altruistic value to emphasise the perceived benefits and the cost-of-exercise consumption value to mediate the perceived barriers (as illustrated in figure 6.11) as it is important that the benefits of the being physically active surpass the negative effects of continuing to be inactive.

Finally, according to the HBM individuals undertake a cost-benefit analysis to assess whether the benefits of a new behaviour are sufficient to maintain that behaviour as opposed to reverting to their old behaviour (Strecher and Rosenstock, 1997) which supports the importance active adults placed on achieving the immediate and longer-term benefits that arise from being physically active (benefits-of-exercise value and altruistic value) as desired outcomes.

Figure 6. 11 S&PAVAL Consumption Values and ‘the Inclination’

6.2.6 Summary
In summary, the study’s analysis of the various behaviour change theories ‘triggers’ of the want, the will and the inclination, indicated that increasing knowledge of the benefits associated with being physical active could be an effective way to in increasing participation (Gordan et al., 2006). Therefore, consumption values best suited to ‘trigger’ as behaviour change are those that emphasise the benefits that will result from becoming physically active (benefit-of-exercise and altruistic value). These insights (as discussed in this section and summarised in in table 6.13) contribute to the existing consumer value by integrating the S&PAVAL consumption
values with key behavioural concepts model and concepts. Furthermore, existing consumer value knowledge is extended by recognising that for consumers to forgo an unhealthy behaviour, they must receive an equivalent (or superior) benefit from the healthy behaviour in order to motivate and sustain that behaviour (Andreasen, 2002).
Table 6. 13 S&PAVAL Consumption Values as Behaviour Change ‘Triggers’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S&amp;PAVAL Consumption Values as Behaviour Change ‘Triggers’</th>
<th>The ‘trigger’ framework contributed to previous research on consumer value by:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Representing the first synthesis of key behaviour change theories (TPB, SCT and HBM) as they pertain to the consumption of sport and physical activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Extends the existing behaviour change and consumer value knowledge by illustrating the role of S&amp;PAVAL consumption values can have in ‘triggering’ participation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Support, contradictions and contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ajzen (1981)</td>
<td><strong>Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB):</strong> indicates that consumption must be pleasurable and not harmful, consumption must lead to positive outcomes and not negative ones and peer group approval important. <strong>Contributes to the existing consumer value by integrating the S&amp;PAVAL consumption values with the TPB to gain an understanding that benefits-of-exercise, altruistic value and fun &amp; enjoyment consumption values to ‘sell’ the benefits and positive outcomes, whilst making a favourable impression on others and gaining their respect of their peer group achieved through the use of social value.</strong> Supports the importance placed by active adults on the physical environment (ambiance and surroundings) within which exercise occurs as individual need personal control over access to the appropriate skills, resources and opportunities (Rhoades and Comnya, 2005).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bandura (1997)</td>
<td><strong>Social Cognitive Theory (SCT):</strong> indicates that key drivers of exercise adoption are outcome and efficiency expectations. <strong>Contributes to the existing consumer value by integrating the S&amp;PAVAL consumption values with the SCT to gain an understanding the outcome and efficiency expectations can be achieved by using the benefits-of-exercise and altruistic value to emphasise the belief that the benefit of consuming physical activity outweighs any negative consequences, which can be minimised by the use of the cost-of-exercise consumption value. Creating a positive peer group attitude can be achieved through the use of social value.</strong> Supports the importance placed on by providing fit-for-purpose facilities (physical environment - ambiance and surroundings), by affordable charges (cost-of-exercise) and by providing the elements that they cannot or would find difficult to produce themselves eg encouraging instructors, teaching to swim or inducing on equipment in the fitness suite (quality of service experience) to overcome environmental obstacles such as few local facilities which limits opportunities and excessive personal and work-related time demands.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strecher and Rosenstock (1997)</td>
<td><strong>Health Belief Model (HBM):</strong> indicates an individual’s behaviour is based on taking positive health action to avoid negative health outcomes. <strong>Contributes to the existing consumer value by integrating the S&amp;PAVAL consumption values with the HBM to gain an understanding that the likelihood of participation increased if individuals trust and believe that being physically active will reduce the risk of becoming ill. Therefore, the benefits-of-exercise and altruistic consumption values can emphasise the perceived benefits and the cost-of-exercise consumption value to mediate the perceived barriers.</strong> Supports the importance active adults placed on achieving the immediate and longer-term benefits that arise from being physically active (benefits-of-exercise value and altruistic value) as desired outcomes as part of a cost-benefit analysis to assess whether the benefits of a new behaviour are sufficient to maintain that behaviour as opposed to reverting to their old behaviour.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.7 S&PAVAL Model from Value Exchange to Value Creation

6.7.1 Introduction
The concept of exchange was the third social marketing element discussed in the literature review as it was considered important to the adoption of healthy behaviours in general and specifically partaking in sport and physical activity opportunities, because if an adult is asked to exchange an unhealthy behaviour for a healthier one the exchange concept underpins their perception of the value they will receive as a result of adopting such a behaviour (Andreasen, 2002; Kotler, 1972).

However, all-too-often social marketing interventions involving health or social problems such as increasing adult’s participation in sport and physical activity have adopt a paternalistic approach and can be perceived by some adults as ‘telling them how best to behave’ for the betterment of themselves and/or society. Here the value is created by the organisation and then delivered to an ill-informed and passive customer. However, if the value offering favours societal over individual benefits, an individual may be less inclined to change behaviour due to low perceived personal benefit (Russell-Bennett, and Zainuddin, 2009).

Too overcome such short-comings Andreasen (2012) has suggested the need to restructure the focus of social marketing away from GD-logic to the domain of service logic (Vargo and Lusch, 2004) where value is created ‘in use’ between two parties (i.e. consumer and organisation) and is not embedded and therefore ‘exchanged’ (Vargo and Lusch, 2008). Zainuddin et al. (2011) and Andreasen (2012) have both emphasised the importance of understanding the value offering to be exchanged and argued that policymakers and leisure service providers need to know what ‘it’ is that customers value from their consumption experience in order for ‘it’ to be included into the design and implementation of campaigns aimed at enticing and motivating individuals to become more physically active.

6.7.2 S&PAVAL Value Creation Framework
The study’s findings of the 8-consumption values which underpin participation in a sport and physical activity setting is a significant contribution towards understanding Andreasen’s (2012) and Zainuddin et al.’s (2011) ‘it’. Furthermore, these
consumption values can be used to formulate enticing physical activity campaigns that motivate more adults to become physical active by understanding how through a service provider’s interaction with its customers value can be co-created at various stages in the consumption experience (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004). In this regard the S&PAVAL Value Creation Framework is proposed that draws on the study’s findings combined with extending and integrating previous value creation frameworks.

The proposed value creation framework (as illustrated in table 6.14) builds on the strengths of existing value creation frameworks and specifically tailors value creation to a sport and physical active context, rather than as a conceptual framework applicable to both goods and service (Smith and Colgate, 2007) or focused on generic social marketing intervention context (Russell-Bennett et al., 2009). The ‘value creation framework’ combines the 8-consumption values identified by the study as underpinning adult’s participation in sport and physical activity (physical
Table 6. 14 S&PAVAL Value Creation Framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Value</th>
<th>Physical Environment</th>
<th>Physical Environment</th>
<th>Atmosphere Value</th>
<th>Beneﬁts of Exercise</th>
<th>Quality of Service Experience</th>
<th>Cost of Exercise</th>
<th>Fun &amp; Enjoyment</th>
<th>Social Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;fit for purpose facilities&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;fit for purpose facilities&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;fit for purpose facilities&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;for tomorrow not today&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;healthy body, health mind&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;staff can make all the difference&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;it's hard work but it's worth it in the end&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;fun-related aspects of exercise&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;make new friends and impressing others&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Lighting</td>
<td>- Cafe atmosphere</td>
<td>- Cafe atmosphere</td>
<td>- Feeling welcome</td>
<td>- Fitness and health</td>
<td>- White collar and hard work</td>
<td>- Value for money</td>
<td>- Sense of joy</td>
<td>-比修smile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Temperature</td>
<td>- Fitness decor</td>
<td>- Fitness decor</td>
<td>- Availability</td>
<td>- Personalised meal</td>
<td>- Un shackled and affordable</td>
<td>- Value for money</td>
<td>- Sense of joy</td>
<td>-比修smile</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Marketing Communications:
- "Managing expectations"

- Focus on ensuring leaflets and websites should contain actual images of the facilities to help inform customers and manage their expectations.
- Focus on emphasizing the long-term benefits of engaging in exercise, including being active to enjoy family and later life.
- Focus on emphasizing the immediate benefits of engaging in exercise, such as healthy body and health mind values.
- Focus on the provision of highly qualiﬁed staff who are available to assist customers achieve their desired goals.
- Focus on the fun-related aspect and experiences of exercising. Ensure positive experiences of high quality叶lets and easy to navigate websites.
- Focus on clearly positioning the exercise offering needs to help customers identify peers, social groups and task-making elements of exercising.

Physical Activity Offering:
- "promise and propositions"
- "Solving problems"

- Deliver suitable environment will be provided eg facilities and syndrome such as cleanliness in the fitness suite, temperature in the pool, levels of cleanliness and car parking.
- Deliver equipment in good working order to the customers eg treadmills or swimming pools. Where facilities or equipment are out-of-service, customers are informed of this and repairs are affected quickly.
- Deliver sessions that provide the long-term benefits of engaging in exercise such as improving mental health and reduced risk of ill-health through speciﬁc age classes and activities that strengthen cardiovascular and GIP health.
- Deliver sessions that provide the immediate beneﬁts of engaging in exercise such as feeling better and improved body shape through sessions such as yoga and pilates sessions, nutritional and weight loss classes.
- Deliver customer-entertained interactions put the customer at the heart of organizational systems such as booking and paying for activities. Customers are in control of mistakes, which are rectiﬁed in a timely manner and rebooked accordingly.
- Deliver fun-related aspects of exercise and making the customers feel better about themselves.
- Deliver socialising opportunities to address social anxiety and or isolation by allowing customers to express themselves to others through their exercise experiences.

Customer Involvement:
- "Empower customers around their needs"
- "full participant"

- Empower customers by seeking their opinion regarding the physical environment customers comment and surveys. Feedback must be in place to enable feedback to be given about and suggestion regarding improvements to the physical environment.
- Empower customers by tailoring their consumption of exercise to a) their belief in the beneﬁts and b) their experience of these beneﬁts.
- Empower customers by providing the elements that they cannot or would ﬁnd difﬁcult to produce themselves eg encouraging instructors, teaching to swim or inducing equipment in the ﬁtness suite.
- Empower customers by reducing the economic and psychological cost minimized and the level of personal investment required to engage and consume exercise.
- Empower customers by enabling them to jointly create the experience that is suited to their particular situations eg ﬂexible, customizable and accessible needs to be offered.
- Empower customers by considering the perception of social space and publicizing involvement opportunities.
– ambiance, physical environment – surroundings, altruistic value, benefits of exercise, quality services experience, cost of exercise, fun and enjoyment and social value, with three major sources of value (marketing communications, physical activity offering and customer involvement) as illustrated in table 6.15.

Marketing communications represents what Smith and Colgate (2007) termed ‘information’. The remaining two sources are adaptations of Russell-Bennett et al., (2009) typology, namely that service has been replaced by physical activity offering and co-creation has been re-interoperated as ‘customer involvement’.

Table 6.15 Sources of customer Value

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sources</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information</td>
<td>Information</td>
<td>Information</td>
<td>Marketing Communications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product</td>
<td>Service</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sport &amp; Physical Activity Offering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>Environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ownership - possession transfer</td>
<td>Co-creation</td>
<td></td>
<td>Customer Involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Mandate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Whilst sources of value such as interactions and the environment have previously been identified by Smith and Colgate (2007) and Bennett- Russell et al. (2009) based primarily on ‘value chain’ activities (Porter, 1985), the finding of this study evidenced these source of value as dimensions of value in their own right, the essential essence of ‘interactions’ being quality of service experience value and the physical environment – ambiance and surroundings value representing the purchase or consumption environment. Therefore, these items do contribute to the S&PAVAL Value Creation Framework but as consumption values and not as sources of value.
6.7.2.1 Marketing Communications

Information was the first source of value identified by Smith and Colgate (2007) which they considered created value through “activities associated with advertising, public relations and brand management (such as through packaging, labelling or instructions)” (p. 15). In terms of creating value in a sport and physical activity setting this has been re-conceived by this study as relating to the marketing communication function and the information it conveys to help manage customer’s expectations of what being physically active means. In this regard, findings from this study suggest that marketing communications can be used to promote both the immediate health and wellbeing benefits of exercise such as improved mental outlook, feeling good and improved body shape (benefits of exercise value) as well as the benefits associated with the longer-term such as avoidance of ill-health and the achievement of more independence in latter life (altruistic value).

Similarly, marketing communications can contribute to a positive emotional experience by ensuring communication channels such as the website are easy to navigate and that information such as timetables and class schedules are both easy to understand and are accurate (fun and enjoyment value). In addition to this value can also be created by marketing messages emphasising the provision of highly qualified staff who are available to assist in achieving customers goals (quality of service experience value) and by using customer testimonials to help customers identify social groups and friend-making element of the exercise experience (social value). Furthermore, given the importance placed on the physical environment within which exercise occurs, consideration should be given to the use of actual images of the facilities to avoid over promising and then disappointing customers by under delivering when the aspirational images used to promote facilities bear little resemblance to the actual facilities (physical environment - ambiance and surroundings value). Finally, marketing communications can also help customers to make less stressful and risky decision to engage in being physically active by providing information to ensure a more informed decision regarding the price of activities or the times facilities are available (cost of exercise value).
6.7.2.2 Physical Activity Offering

Service was the second source of value identified by Russell-Bennett et al. (2009) which they considered created value “in terms of the benefits and needs they meet though core and supplementary service” (p. 5). In terms of creating value in a sport and physical activity setting this has been re-conceived by this study as relating to the physical activity offering as a propositions or promise (Peattie and Peattie, 2003) that has the ability to solve customer problems. Often the physical activity offering is not clearly defined or explicitly expressed; in this regard findings from this study suggest that offerings such as working-out in the gym, swimming or attending an aerobic class can be based on fulfilling promises and solving problems by emphasising the experiences and outcomes which appear to be highly valued by active adults.

Therefore, ‘physical environment – ambiance and surroundings’ value can be created by ensuring a suitable environment within which to exercise is provided, specifically that features and attributes of the physical environment such as music in the fitness suite, temperature in the pool, levels of cleanliness and accessible car parking should all be prioritised. In addition to this, facilities should ensure that the equipment provided to customers such as treadmills or swimming floats are in good working order and where facilities or equipment are out-of-service, customers are informed of this and repairs are affected quickly.

Altruistic value can be created by offering activities and sessions that focus on delivering the long term benefits (being active to enjoy family and later life and focus on solving future problems such as decreased independence and mobility) such as age specific classes, activities that strengthen core stability and GP referral sessions. Whereas ‘benefit-of-exercise’ value can be created by offering activities and sessions that focus on delivering the short term benefits (feeling better and improved body shape,) such as yoga and pilate sessions, nutritional and weight loss classes. With regard to ‘quality of service experience’ value this can be created if offerings focus on ensuring that interactions between staff are customer-orientated, polite, professional and that organisational systems such as booking and paying for activities are also customer-centric rather than organisational-orientated. Furthermore, where mistakes are made customers are informed of this, they are
rectified in a timely manner and customers are recompensed accordingly. In terms of ‘cost of exercising’ value this can be off-set by ensuring offerings address barriers such as a lack of time, interest or money by offering a range of membership or entrance prices and by offering activities at appropriate times. In addition to this offerings need to focus on solving the problem that exercise is hard work and leave the participation feeling tired. And finally, with regard to ‘fun and enjoyment’ value this can be created if the offering is based on delivering the fun-related aspects of exercise such as gym challenges or charity events, it is especially important that offerings make the customer feel better about themselves. Finally, social value can be created by allowing customers to express themselves to others through their exercise experience and focusing on solving issues of social exclusion and/or isolation by providing socialising opportunities.

6.7.2.3 Customer Involvement

Co-creation was Russell-Bennett et al. (2009) fifth source of value which they considered ranged from “joint problem-solving to the development of a personalised service” (p. 5). When consumers interact with an organisation or its offerings, the ability to customise offerings, maximise consumer involvement and tailor the experience to the consumer’s needs is only limited by the organisation’s resources and policies. Therefore, co-creation of value is an important perspective or mindset (Vargo & Lush, 2004) that elevates the customer beyond being a passive recipient of firm created value, to instead being an integral element ‘empowering them around their needs’ (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004) and helping them to become ‘full participators’ (Bateson, 1983). However, results from the study suggested that in a sport and physical activity setting ‘customer involvement’ was considered to be more appropriate given the high levels of customer involvement or participation that is required to being physically active.

Whilst, it is accepted that levels of customer involvement or participation in a service experience varies depending upon the service setting (Bateson, 1983), in order to be physical active, adults are responsible for their own exercise frequency, for attending the leisure centre which takes time and effort, for following the prescribed exercise routines, and finally have the freedom to alter their exercise routines, meaning that
active adults have to pro-actively work to co-create the value outcomes they desire. Therefore, active adults have a vital role to play in creating their own service and value outcomes because unless they do involve themselves, the service provider cannot effectively deliver the service or value outcomes on their behalf. Active adults must therefore be a ‘full participator’ (Bateson, 1983) and undertake the exercise for themselves (internal exchange), they cannot opt for an external exchange and have someone else exercise for them. Therefore, value outcomes from being physically active cannot be created without the customer’s active involvement, without the organisation empowering them to become ‘full participator’, their inputs are essential and together with staff and instructors they co-create value outcomes.

To create ‘physical environment – ambiance and surrounding’ value customers opinions regarding the physical environment must be sought through feedback mechanisms such as customer comments and surveys. Furthermore, processes must be in place to enable customers to raise concerns about and suggestions regarding improvements to the physical environment. With regard to creating both ‘altruistic’ and ‘benefits of exercise’ customers must believe in the benefits and be able to tailor their engagement and consumption of their physical activity to experience these benefits, for example through being able to access knowledge staff to tailor their exercise programmes, to be able to choose from a range of flexible membership/pricing options and the ability to access a variety of activities such as the fitness suite, swimming and aerobics.

In-terms of creating ‘quality of service experience’ value this can be achieved by identifying and then providing the elements that customers cannot or would find difficult to produce themselves such as knowledge and encouraging instructors, or developing customer skills such as teaching them to swim and inducting them on how to use the equipment in the fitness suite all focused towards underpinned their exercise consumption. With regard to creating ‘cost of exercise value’ both the economic and psychological costs of exercising need to be minimised, economic costs could be reduced by offering a range of membership or entrance prices. Psychological costs such as the level of personal investment in-terms of risk or the effort needed to evaluate different providers also needs to be reduced in order to make less stressful and more informed decisions regarding engaging and consuming
exercise. To create ‘fun and enjoyment’ value customers must be able to enjoy their exercise, therefore the opportunity to jointly create the experience that is suited to their particular situation such as fun, excitement and escapism needs to be offered. Finally, to create ‘social value’ consideration needs to be given to the provision of social spaces and a variety of socialising opportunities such as customer social events, gym challenges and participation in charity events.

However, in such a highly participator service active adults must recognise the significance of their role and the need to attribute some of the credit to themselves but also by contrast active adults are also partly responsible for detracting from their own satisfaction and the level of value they receive (Bitner et al., 1997). If customers fail to involvement themselves in- and contribute to- suggesting service improvements this may result in lower value creation, similarity by using the facilities irresponsibly this could lead to poor levels of cleanliness or vandalism resulting in low value creation.

6.7.3 Summary
The findings of this study have contributed to the development of a proposed S&PAVAL Value Creation framework which translates the mindset of value creation and co-creation of value into the sport and physical activity service setting for the first time. The importance of such a framework as discussed in this section and summarised in table 6.16, outlines actions that can have a positive impact on the ability to customise offerings, maximise consumer involvement, and tailor the experience to the consumer’s needs to create something they value. Policymaker and leisure service providers cannot underestimate the importance of both understanding and delivering what customers value from their exercise consumption experience (Zainuddin et al., 2011; Andreasen 2012) and the relevance of value creation and the domain of service logic (Vargo and Lusch, 2004) embed itself in a social marketing context.
Table 6. 16 S&PAVAL Value Creation Framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S&amp;PAVAL Value Customer Creation Framework</th>
<th>The value creation framework contributed to previous research on consumer value by:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Representing the first examination of value creation and co-creation of value into the sport and physical activity service setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Extends the existing consumer value knowledge by re-conceptualising sources of value in a the sport and physical activity service setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Identified Smith and Colgate (2007) and Russell-Bennett et al. (2009) ‘environment’ source of value as two of the S&amp;PAVAL consumption values - physical environment – ambiance and physical environment – surroundings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Identified Smith and Colgate (2007) and Russell-Bennett et al. (2009) ‘interaction’ source of value is the S&amp;PAVAL consumption value – quality of service experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Outlines actions that can have a positive impact on the ability to customise offerings, maximise consumer involvement, and tailor the experience to the consumer’s needs to create something they value</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Marketing Communications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Smith and Colgate (2007)</td>
<td>Information &quot;activities associated with advertising, public relations and brand management (such as through packaging, labelling or instructions&quot; (page 15) The study re-conceived ‘information’ as relating to the marketing communication function and the information it conveys to help mange customer’s expectations of what being physically active means. In this regard the framework advocates the use of marketing communications to:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– promote the benefits that arise from being physically active (benefits of exercise value and altruistic value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– create a positive emotional experience by ensuring communication channels are both easy to use, understand and are accurate (play and enjoyment value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– deliver messages that emphasis highly qualified staff are available to assist in achieving customers goals (quality of service experience value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– use customer testimonials to help customers identify with like minded user groups (social value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– the use of actual images of the facilities to avoid over promising and then disappointing customers by under delivering when the inspirational images used to promote facilities bear little resemblance to the actual facilities (physical environment - ambiance and surroundings value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– provide customers with information to ensure an informed decision regarding the factors such as the price of activities or the times facilities are available (cost of exercise value)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

341
Table 6. 15 S&PAVAL Value Creation Framework cont…

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Support, contradictions and contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Physical Activity Offering</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russell-Bennett et al. (2009)</td>
<td>The study re-conceived ‘service’ as relating to the physical activity offering as a propositions or promise (Peattie and Peattie, 2003) that has the ability to solve customer problems. In this regard the framework advocates the use of the physical activity offering to:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service “In terms of the benefits and needs they meet through a service” (page 5)</td>
<td>- ensure environment within which exercise is provided is fit-for-purpose (physical environment – ambiance and surroundings value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- offer sessions that focus on delivering the immediate and long term benefits (benefit-of-exercise and altruistic value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- focus on ensuring that interactions between the organisation and customers are at all times customer-centric (quality of service experience)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- address barriers such as a lack of time, interest or money by offering a range of membership or entrance prices and by offering activities at appropriate times (cost-of-exercise)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- deliver the fun-related aspects of exercise such as gym challenges or charity events (fun &amp; enjoyment)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- allow customers to express themselves to others through their exercise and provide socialising opportunities (social value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Customer Involvement</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russell-Bennett et al. (2009)</td>
<td>The study re-conceived ‘co-creation’ as relating to the high levels of customer involvement or participation that is required to being physically active and the specifically to empower customers around their needs (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004) and help them to become full participants (Bateson, 1983). In this regard the framework advocates the use of customer involvement to:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Co-creation” “joint problem-solving to the development of a personalized” (page 5)</td>
<td>- customers to raise concerns about and suggestion regarding improvements to the physical environment (physical environment – ambiance and surroundings value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- access to knowledge staff to tailor their exercise programmes to achieve their desired benefits ((benefits of exercise value and altruistic value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- providing the elements that customer cannot or would find difficult to produce themselves eg fitness suite induction or teaching them to swim (quality of service experience value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- minimise economic and psychological costs of exercising by exchange information regarding the price of activities or the times facilities are available (cost of exercise value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- enable customers to enjoy their exercise by jointly create the experience that is suited to their particular situation (fun &amp; enjoyment value)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- organise social events, gym challenges and participation in charity events (social value)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.8 Summary

This chapter has discussed the study’s findings in the context of the literature. It has been structured by the three research questions outlined in introduction this thesis (chapter 1) and before moving on to discuss the S&PAVAL Model in terms of the three key social marketing concepts of competition, the exchange concept and behaviour change posited to have a greater influence upon the adoption of health behaviour such as participation in sport and physical activity.

The first section of the chapter (6.2) discussed the domain of customer value through the S&PAVAL Model (figure 6.1) and the 8-consumption values (physical environment – ambiance, physical ambiance – surroundings, altruistic value, benefits of exercise, quality of service experience, cost of exercise, fun and enjoyment and social value) which underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity. The S&PAVAL Model represents the first examination of the value construct as it pertains to the consumption of sport and physical activity opportunities, of particular note was the disaggregation of ‘aesthetic value’ into two of Bitner’s (1992) servicescape dimensions (physical environment - ambiance and physical environment - surroundings), which articulated the importance of the participation servicescape in terms of ensuring the overall physical environment of the facility is focused towards ensuring it is comfortable to exercise in. In addition to this two other new value dimensions emerged from our existing understanding of efficiency/functional value namely the ‘benefits of exercise’ which related to the range of immediate benefits or positive outcomes associated with being physically active such as improved physical and mental wellbeing and the ‘cost of exercise’ consumption value which related to the experiential and financial inputs that need to be overcome in order to exercise such as time, commitment, tiredness, feeling guilty, effort and money.

The second section of the chapter (6.3) discussed the modifying factors of gender, age and social economic status and their impact on active adult’s consumption values. Prior to the study’s investigation, consumption values had not been examined using such modifying factors, consequently their affect on consumer consumption experiences was unknown. Somewhat surprisingly, the study’s
findings indicated that men placed a higher importance on the physical environment within which exercise occurs (physical environment - ambiance and surrounding), the quality of service experience they receive and intrinsic factors such as social and altruistic value, than did women. The remaining consumption values (cost-of-exercise, benefits-of-exercise and fun & enjoyment) did not differ with gender. The study’s findings also indicated that the four of the consumption values found to underpin participation in sport and physical activity did not differ with age (benefits of exercise, quality of the service experience, altruistic value and fun & enjoyment), but differences did occur with regard to the costs-of-exercise, physical environment (ambiance and surroundings) and social value consumption values. Finally, the study’s findings indicated a number of statistically significant differences existed between the different social groups with regard to six of the consumption values (physical environment – ambiance, physical environment – surroundings, quality of service experience, cost of exercise, fun & enjoyment and social value). However, determining the link between social class and exercise participation is complex, compounded by few studies reporting the moderating impact of participant from different socio-economic backgrounds (Foster et al., 2005).

The third section of the chapter (6.4) discussed the study’s finding that that multiple value dimensions impacted upon adult’s consumption which whilst being consistent with the experiential view proposed by Holbrook (1999), prior to the study’s investigation was unknown. The relationship between the S&PAVAL consumption value and Holbrook’s (1999) typology were identified as being ‘self-orientated’, ‘reactive’ and motivated by a mixture of ‘intrinsic’ and ‘extrinsic’ factors. The section then discussed three emerging extensions to the traditional conception of value as either a ‘value-in-exchange or as a ‘value-in-use’ into be better conceptualised as a continuum of value, as a kaleidoscope of value or as inherent value. The continuum of value clearly showed that the different items of the different value dimensions were considered to be important in underpinning their physical activity, where-as the kaleidoscope or value allowed for the relative importance of the different value dimensions to change depending upon the context and setting and finally that value would appear to have an elemental dimension to it.
The fourth section of the chapter (6.5) discussed a proposed S&PAVAL Facilitator Framework which serves to illustrate the enabling role of S&PAVAL consumption value in minimising or overcoming constraints to participation based on Raymore’s (2002) facilitator concept. The framework identified the types of value that will be important to a) creating a leisure preference by overcoming a lack of interest, apathy and general inertia as altruistic value, benefits-of-exercise, and the non-monetary aspects of the cost-of-exercise consumption value, b) creating compatible participation opportunities by overcoming a lack of partners, friends and family who aren’t sporty as social value and fun & enjoyment value and c) ensuring participation by ensuring the standards, prices and customer care experienced at the facilities does not put-off new participants as the physical environment (ambiance and surroundings), quality of service environment and the monetary elements of the cost-of-exercise consumption value. The facilitator framework represents the first examination of Raymore’s (2002) facilitator construct as it pertains to the consumption of sport and physical activity and extends the existing leisure constraints and consumer value knowledge by illustrating the enabling role of S&PAVAL consumption value have in minimising or overcoming constraints to participation and confirming the utility of the S&PAVAL consumption values as facilitators of participation.

The fifth and penultimate section of the chapter (6.6) discussed the integration of S&PAVAL consumption values as ‘triggers’ for behaviour change in terms of creating the want, the will and the inclination. In response to TPB (Ajzen, 1991) suggestion that consumption must be pleasurable and not harmful, consumption must lead to positive outcomes and not negative ones and the importance of peer group approval, through the use of benefits-of-exercise, altruistic value and fun & enjoyment consumption values to ‘sell’ the benefits and positive outcomes was proposed, in addition to which making a favourable impression on others and gaining the respect of their peer group achieved through the use of social value. In response to SCT (Bandura, 1997) it was proposed that the key drivers of exercise adoption as outcome and efficiency expectations, could be triggered by using the benefits-of-exercise and altruistic value to emphasise the belief that the benefits of consuming physical activity outweighs any negative consequences, which can be minimised by the use of the cost-of-exercise consumption value. Furthermore, creating a positive
peer group attitude can be achieved through the use of social value. Finally, in response to HBM (Strecher and Rosenstock (1997) suggestion that an individual’s behaviour is based on taking positive health action to avoid negative health outcomes, therefore the likelihood of participation increases if individuals trust and believe that being physically active will reduce the risk of becoming ill, through the use of the benefits-of-exercise consumption value as well as altruistic value to emphasise the perceived benefits and the cost-of-exercise consumption value to mediate the perceived barriers was proposed.

The final section of the chapter (6.7) discussed how to create value into the design and implementation of campaigns aimed at enticing and motivating individuals to become more physically active by understanding how value can be co-created, exchanged and consumed. A S&PAVAL Value Creation Framework (table 6.16) was proposed which represented the first examination of value creation and co-creation of value into the sport and physical activity service setting and extended the existing consumer value knowledge by re-conceptualising sources of value in a the sport and physical activity service setting. Whilst Smith and Colgate (2007) suggested 5 sources of value and Russell-Bennett et al. (2009) suggested 6, the study proposed three source of value (table 6.15) based on re-conceiving Smith and Colgate (2007) ‘information’ as relating to the marketing communication function and the information it conveys to help mange customer’s expectations of what being physically active means, Russell-Bennett et al. (2009) ‘service’ as relating to the physical activity offering as a propositions or promise (Peattie and Peattie, 2003) that has the ability to solve customer problems and finally Russell-Bennett et al. (2009) ‘co-creation’ as relating to the high levels of customer involvement or participation that is required to being physically active and the specifically to ‘empower customers around their needs’ (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004) and help them to become ‘full participators’(Bateson, 1983). The study rejected Smith and Colgate (2007) and Russell-Bennett et al. (2009) ‘environment’ as a source of value in favour of the physical environment – ambiance and physical environment – surroundings consumption values and Smith and Colgate (2007) and Russell-Bennett et al. (2009) ‘interaction’ as a source of value in favour of the S&PAVAL consumption value – quality of service experience. The framework outlines actions that can have a positive impact on the ability to customise offerings, maximise consumer
involvement, and tailor the experience to the consumer’s needs to create something they value.

Now that the both the quantitative and qualitative findings have been discussed in the context of the literature, appropriate conclusions from this research will be drawn in the next chapter.
Chapter 7 Conclusions

7.1 Introduction

In concluding this thesis, it is helpful to review the previous chapter’s content in order to consolidate and unify this research before drawing conclusions, identifying the thesis’s theoretical, methodological and managerial contribution, acknowledging the research’s limitations and discussing avenues for future research.

Physical inactivity has been recognised as one of the 21st Century’s contemporary public health issues (WHO, 2009). Given the prevalence of inactivity among the adult population, it is anticipated that the greatest public health benefits will come from decreasing the number of individual’s living a sedentary lifestyle. The physical inactivity status-quo is not therefore acceptable, as Henry Ford once said ‘if we keep on doing what we have always done, we will always get what we have always got’. It is therefore essential that new thinking, from a different perspective is needed to readdress the general participation apathy and inequalities that exist (Fahey et al., 2004; Sport England, 2009; Sport Scotland, 2006; Sports Council for Wales, 2005).

This research is central to this ‘new thinking’. Sport England (2004) suggested that the adoption of exercise by adults needs to be brought about in ways that motivate adults to want to be more active and to want to integrate physical activity into their daily lives. In answering this challenge, this thesis adopted a social marketing perspective which viewed participation in sport and physical activity in the same way.
as any other consumer behaviour, here physically active adults are consumers and exercise is an offering in an already crowded market place, where value expectations influence an individual’s health related behaviour intentions.

In this regard, the introductory chapter indicated how the study’s rationale was based on wanting to explore ‘why some adults live and breathe sport and embrace physical activity throughout their lives, whilst to others it has no value or significance at all’ in order to increase the number of adults who are sufficiently active to make a meaningful gain to the health of the nation. Specifically, this study was guided by three research questions:

- What are the consumption values that underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity?
- What influence, if any, do social-demographic (age, gender and social class) factors have upon consumption value in a sport and physical activity setting?
- Is consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting uni- or multi-dimensional?

The literature reviewed in Chapter 2 indicated that the antecedents and determinants of an individual’s participation in sport and physical activity have been considered from a range of academic perspectives. Accordingly theories and models from the fields of leisure studies, behavioural psychology and consumer behaviour were reviewed in order to gain a better understanding of how the social marketing principles of competition, exchange and voluntary behaviour change influenced adult’s participation in sport and physical activity. Whilst these topics seem disparate, a significant commonality was identified through the various expectancy-value conceptualisations that underpinned the importance placed on valued outcomes and their positive association with predicting the occurrence of a healthy behaviour. From a social marketing perspective the notion of exchange underpinned the expectancy-value process, to facilitate a voluntary exchange there needs to be a value proposition that induces action and/or motivates effort from the consumer (Dann, 2008; Kotler and Lee, 2008; Andreasen, 2002). In a similar vein, Jackson et al. (1993) introduced the expectancy-value process into the hierarchical constraints model in the form of the ‘balance position’ and finally with-in the behaviour change
theories examples of the expectancy-value construct are evident in the ‘perceived benefits’ variable of the HBM (Strecher and Rosenstock, 1997) and in terms of the TPB how much individuals value those outcomes ultimately influences their behavioural intentions (Ajzen, 1991). Based on the literature reviewed, customers perceptions of the value of their participation outcomes was identified as a key driving force underpinning the desire to engage in a particular behaviour. Accordingly the need to better understand consumer value and the consumption values that underpin adults participation in sport and physical activity was identified as a gap in the literature as no specific research existed representing an important research opportunity.

Following on from this, chapter 3 specifically reviewed the existing consumer value literature, in order to further explore the domain of consumer value and to underpin the development of a preliminary Sport & Physical Activity Value (S&PAVAL) conceptual framework, which was based on Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) empirical adaption of Holbrook’s (1999) typology. The method chapter then outlined how the preliminary S&PAVAL conceptual framework was used to gather primary data from both a qualitative strand using in-depth interviews (n=20) and a quantitative strand using the S&APVAL scale (n=1058), which was guided by the scale development (Churchill, 1979, Anderson and Gerbing, 1988) and survey design (De Vaus, 2002) literature. The target population was physically active adults who were members of the Bridgend County Borough Council’s leisure membership scheme called the ‘BridgeCard’.

Once both the quantitative and qualitative data collection was completed, data analysis proceeded independently according to their respective strands. The quantitative analysis chapter (5a) outlined how a range of statistical techniques were used to assess the psychometric properties of the scale and reveal the consumption values that underpinned adult participation in sport and physical activity. The analyses highlighted there were 8-consumption values: Physical Environment – ambiance (0.77); Physical Environment – surroundings (0.68); Altruistic Value (0.67); Benefits of Exercise (0.67); Quality of the Service Experience (0.62); Cost of Exercise (0.60); Fun & Enjoyment (0.58); and Social Value (0.50). In addition to this
an analysis of variances (ANOVA) was used to identifying a range of gender, age and social economical status differences in the consumption value of physical active adults. The qualitative analysis chapter (5b) utilised Thompsons’s (1997) ‘Hermeneutical Framework’ in order to identify and understand relevant insights from the “texts” or stories from the 20 in-depth interviews. Each interview was listened to and re-listened to, each transcript was read and re-read and they were assessed and re-assessed in terms of the consumers overall and individual interpretations.

Next chapter 6 discussed the analysed data in the context of the literature, the three research questions presented in the introductory chapter were used to structure the discussion before moving on to discuss the S&PAVAL Model in terms of the three key social marketing concepts of competition, the exchange concept and behaviour change. In terms of the original research questions, the S&PAVAL Model was presented, defined and discussed in terms of its contribution towards understanding what ‘it’ is that adults value from being physically active (Zainuddin et al., 2011; Andreasen, 2012). Next, original insights from the first examination regarding the impact of the modifying factors such as gender, age and social economic status on consumption value were presented and finally after discussing the multi-dimensionality of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting, original insights gained from this study suggested that value may be better conceptualised as a ‘continuum’ which questioned the simplicity of value being conceived as an either (value-in-exchange) or (value-in-use) concept were discussed. In terms of the three key social marketing concepts, a number of conceptual frameworks were presented which illustrated the ‘facilitating’ roles S&PAVAL consumption values can have in either minimising or overcoming constraints to participation (Raymore’s, 2002), the integration of S&PAVAL consumption values as ‘trigger’s for behaviour change (Ajzen, 1991; Bandura, 1997; Strecher and Rosenstock, 1997) and how value can be ‘co-created’ through the S&PAVAL value creation framework (Smith and Colgate, 2007) all of which contributed to a deeper and more meaningful understanding of customer value theory in general and consumer value in a sport and physical activity context in particular. Having summarised the content and rationale of the thesis, the theoretical, methodological and managerial implications of this research, its limitations and outlining opportunities for future research can now be considered.
7.2 Theoretical Contributions

Academic research is based on and expected to make significant and original contributions to the extant knowledge in a selected field. In order to make such a contribution, Finn (2005: 14) considers that doctoral research should “work at the boundaries of knowledge, and [should be] characterised by a contribution to the conceptual or theoretical development of a research discipline.” The boundary of knowledge this thesis contributes to is a deeper and more meaningful understanding of consumer value theory in a sport and physical activity setting guided by Zainuddin et al. (2011) and Andreasen’s (2012) call for the need to know what ‘it’ is that customers value from their consumption experience in order for ‘it’ to be included into the design and implementation of health-related campaigns. It is only through this route that policy-makers and service provider will be able to design products, services and offerings aimed at enticing and motivating individuals to become more physically active that add value and make sense in individual’s everyday life (Holt, 2003).

Despite the importance of value as an incentive for customers to perform desired behaviours (Zainuddin et al., 2011; Kolter and Lee, 2008) there is little research that considers value or value creation from within a sport and physical activity context or from an active adult’s perspective. This section describes the conceptual and theoretical contributions to the existing consumer value knowledge which have arisen from the first examination of the value construct as it pertains to the consumption of sport and physical activity offering:

- Firstly, one of the key theoretical contribution this thesis makes is the creation of the original S&PAVAL Model, which now provides the social marketing field with a consumer value scale which has been informed by both theoretical and empirical considerations, which has identified and then defined the dimensions of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting, which is discussed in section 7.2.1.

- The study makes a second original contribution to achieving a deeper and more meaningful understanding of customer value theory by offering the first
examination of gender, age and social status as it pertains to consumer value theory which revealed that the value adults receive from being physically active differs with gender, age and social economic status, which is discussed in section 7.2.2.

- A third significant contribution is made through a marked departure from previous research, the study proposes that the multi-dimensional nature of consumer value may be better conceptualised as a value continuum rather than being conceived as either value-in-use or value –in-exchange, which is discussed in section 7.2.3.

- The final key theoretical contribution this thesis makes is the development of the S&PAVAL Consumption Process Model (figure 7.1), which represents this thesis re-conceptualisation of the consumption process in a sport and physical activity setting which consolidates and synthesizes the three distinct literature strands (leisure studies, behavioural psychology and consumer behaviour) through the common perspective of the 8-consumption values as facilitators to participation (section 6.5), as triggers for behaviour change (section 6.6) and finally as a basis for value creation (section 6.7), which is discussed in section (7.2.4)

7.2.1 Dimensions of Consumer Value in a Sport and Physical Activity Setting
In contributing to a deeper and more meaningful investigation into consumer value theory, this is the first study that both identifies and then defines the dimensions of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting, which has been informed by both theoretical and empirical considerations. In this regard the original model, the S&PAVAL Model (figure 6.1 reproduced below) provides conceptual and empirical evidence of a validated construct of adult’s sport and physical activity consumption experience from their perspective, represents a significant contribution towards understanding what ‘it’ is that adults value from being physically active (Zainuddin et al. (2011) and Andreasen (2012), thus filling an identified gap in the literature.
The 8-consumption values which underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity, which have been defined as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7.1 Defining the S&amp;PAVAL Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical Environment – ambiance:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘the ambiance conditions, such as lighting, smell, air quality, temperature and music that create a pleasant environment in the minds of physically active adults’ and within which to exercise’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Environment – surroundings:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘the surrounding such as signage, facility décor, cleanliness, car parking and service excellence that create a pleasant environment in the minds of physically active adults’ and within which to exercise’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic Value:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wider factors than the immediate health related benefits of exercise to factors such as being fit, active and health to avoid ill-health, prolonging life as a result of being physically active for individual and family reasons, to achieve more independence in later life and to avoid unnecessary cost to others’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits of Exercise:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘the improved physical and mental outcomes that arise from being physically active’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Quality of Service Experience: ‘factors affecting a customer perception or appreciation regarding the quality of their service experience as experience by their interaction with and experience of staff members in terms of being polite, knowledgeable and trustworthy combined with listening and understanding their needs’.

Cost of Exercise: ‘the experiential and financial inputs that need to be overcome in order to exercise such as time, commitment, tiredness, feeling guilty, effort and money’.

Fun & Enjoyment: ‘the extent to which undertaking exercise relates to, or is motivated, by fun and enjoyment related aspects of consumption in terms of a sense of joy, happiness, pleasure or delight and the relationships between customers’.

Social Value: “the active manipulation of one’s consumption to make a favourable impression on others, receive appreciation from others, gaining the respect of others and facilitating more social opportunities”.

7.2.1.1 Physical Environment – ambiance and surroundings
The study contributed too and extended previous research on consumer value by operationalising Holbrook’s (1999) ‘aesthetics’ not in terms of beauty but in terms of the physical environment or servicescape within which the physical activity is performed, delivered and consumed (Bitner, 1992). In doing so, the study’s findings confirmed the importance of aesthetic value to the consumption experience of active adults through the emergence of two separate value dimensions which disaggregated aesthetic value into two of Bitner’s (1992) servicescape categories physical environment (ambiance) which was ranked highest of all 8-dimensions (0.77) and physical environment (surroundings) which was ranked ranked 2nd highest (0.68). The study’s findings are a timely contribution to the emerging debate which considers the servicecape as an opportunity for interaction and value co-creation (Edvardsson et al., 2008; Grönroos & Raval, 2011) by presenting empirical evidence confirming that the servicescape concepts are a key dimensions of consumer value rather than simply as factors that impact upon consumer’s decisions to stay, explore, spend money, return or avoid places.
7.2.1.2 Altruistic Value

The study contributed by furthering knowledge regarding the hitherto limited examination of altruistic value in general and specifically its role with a sport and physical activity setting by following Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) and operationalised Holbrook’s (1999) ‘spirituality’ and ‘ethics’ as a single index of altruistic value and re-interpreted it as representing the extent to which undertaking exercise related to, or was motivated by, wider factors than the immediate health related benefits of exercise. The study’s findings suggest that altruistic value emerged as an important reflector of active adult’s consumption experience being ranked 3rd highest (0.67) of all 8-dimensions. Whilst, aspects of active adults altruistic consumption behaviour were consistent with their consideration for others in-terms of their family and the desire for greater independence in later life, other aspects related to personal gains such as to be healthy for themselves and wanting to avoid ill-health, which whilst contradicting ‘traditional altruistic motivations’, were consistent with definitions of ‘weak’ or ‘conditional’ altruism which encompass an element of personal interest or personal benefit (Edwards & Braunhaltz, 2000; McCann, Campbell & Entwistle, 2010).

7.2.1.3 Benefits of Exercise

The study operationalised Holbrook’s (1999) ‘efficiency’ as the trade-off an individual makes between the outcomes of exercise and the inputs needed to exercise and in doing so contributed to previous research on consumer value and to the understanding of active adults consumption experience by the disaggregation of efficiency value from a single dimension of value into two value dimension of ‘benefits of exercise’ and ‘cost-of-exercise’. The study’s findings provide empirical support for active adult’s consumption of physical activity opportunities being driven by a desire to reap the health benefits with the most important items relating to either a health body or healthy mind. The study’s findings indicate that functional value, in-terms of the ‘benefits of exercise’ is an important reflector of active adult’s consumption experience and supports previous consumer value research which has identified the role of functional value in-terms of product performance being important to consumer decisions (Sweeny and Soutar, 2001), in the decision to use of filter or unfiltered cigarettes (Sheth et al., 1991) as a significant predictor or tourist
purchase intentions Soutar, Lee and Jenkins (2008) and in the consumption of a social marketing intervention Zainuddin et al. (2008).

7.2.1.4 Quality of Service Experience
The study contributed too and extended previous research on consumer value by operationalising Holbrook’s ‘excellence’ and Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) ‘quality’ in terms of a single index of quality of service experience value and re-interpreted it as the customers interactions with, and experience of staff and their chosen physical activity. The value that arises from the quality of service experience to active adult’s consumption experience was evidenced by the quality of service experience value being ranked 5th (0.62) of all 8-dimensions, and related to staff being courteous, polite and respectful, staff listening to customers and understanding their needs, staff being trustworthy, believable and honest, being competent, knowledgeable, skilful and presentable. The study findings supports the majority of previous consumer services research, which indicates that service quality plays a significant role in the creation of value perceptions (Sweeney et al.,1999), that high level of service quality experience increases participation, retains customers and enable premium pricing (Wei et al., 2010) and the type of facility (public or private) can impact upon customer’s elevation of the quality of service their experienced (Afthinos et al., 2005) but given the low ranking contradicted Crawford et al. (2007) assertion that high quality of service experience is a core aspect of consumers overall participation in exercise.

7.2.1.5 Cost of Exercise
The study operationalised Holbrook’s (1999) ‘efficiency’ as the trade-off an individual makes between the outcomes of exercise and the inputs needed to exercise and contributed to previous research on consumer value and to the understanding of active adults consumption experience by the disaggregation of efficiency value from a single dimension of value into two value dimension of ‘benefits of exercise’ and ‘cost-of-exercise’. The study’s finding support Zainuddin et al. (2008) suggestion that functional value, in-terms of the ‘cost of exercise’ is a reflector of active adult’s consumption experience. In terms of active adults consumption experience the ‘costs of exercise’ dimension was ranked 6th of all 8-dimensions (y=0.60) with interviewees
identifying typical ‘downsides’ of exercising as the high level of commitment, discipline and effort, followed by a lack of time, injury, transport, tiredness and feeling guilty. The low ranking of ‘cost of exercise’ supports a range of previous research regarding the low importance of price or the ability to pay as a determinant of physical activity, which indicates that costs associated with physical active are rarely dependent upon monetary exchange, with other costs such as time, psychological barriers, effort, transportation and knowledge may be more significant (Peattie and Peattie, 2003; Kay and Jackson, 1991; Jackson, 2005; Coatler, 1993). However, the lowly importance given to the cost of exercise dimension contradicted the leisure constraints research that suggests that price is a barrier to participation and that lower entry prices will increase participation (Crawford and Godbey, 1987; Jackson, 1983, 1994). Finally, the study’s findings that the costs associated with being physically active are in part monetary but also experiential, suggesting that an active adult adopts both a value-in-exchange and value-in-use perspective Grönroos (2008).

7.2.1.6 Fun & Enjoyment
The study contributed to previous research in consumer value by operationalising Holbrook’s (1999) ‘play’ and Seth et al. (1991) ‘emotional’ value as a single index of ‘fun and enjoyment’ and re-interpreted it as representing the extent to which undertaking exercise relates to, or is motivated by the fun-related aspect of exercise such as sense of joy, happiness, pleasure or delight. In terms of active adults fun and enjoyment value. It was the 2nd lowest ranked (y=0.58) of all the 8-dimensions, clearly indicating that the utility derived from the fun-related and emotional elements generated by the physical activity experience gave them little value which contradicted a range of previously research that indicated a positive association between the enjoyment and exercise (Courneya and McAuley, 1994; Horne, 1994; McAuley, 1991; Calfas et al., 1994; McDermott et al., 2006; Hall et al., 2010).

7.2.1.7 Social Value
The study contributed to previous research in consumer value by operationalising Holbrook’s (1999) ‘status’ and ‘esteem’ as a single index of ‘social value’ and re-interpreted it as being linked to impressing others, gaining their respect and
facilitating more social opportunities in terms of the notion of ‘social wellbeing’. In terms of active adults consumption experience social value was the lowest ranked of all 8-dimensions (y=0.50), indicating that the opinions and/or impressions of others was of little value to them. Whilst, it is clear that social aspects of participation affect customers’ consumption experiences, the study’s finding contradicted the critical or pivotal role suggested by previous research in terms of socialising with friends and others is an important aspect of participating in sport and physical activity (Elliot and Hamilton, 1991; Philipp and Brezina, 2002; Afthinos et al., 2005; Green, 2005; Dehl and Berg, 2006) and that sport and physical activity can contribute to social inclusion and enhancing community wellbeing (DCMS, 2000; Driscoll, 1999; Steptoe and Butler, 1996). However, the low importance placed on social value questioning the extent to which either being a member of or using a local authority leisure centre (Hill and Green, 2012) confers social status in terms of making a favourable impression on others and raising the spectre that in a sport and physical activity context, it is possible that social value is more important at the pre-consumption stage than previously thought (Zainuddin et al., 2009).

7.2.1.8 Summary

In spite of the importance and relevance of value to both commercial and social enterprise alike, defining and measuring consumer value has proved elusive to many organisations (Lindgreen and Wynstra, 2005), this research has contributed to clarify the concept within a sport and physical activity setting. The current study indicates that in a sport and physical activity context 8-consumption values have been identified which contributes to the existing knowledge on value in several ways. The results have illustrated the nature of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting and extended our understanding beyond the functional or rational price-quality relationships by recognising the importance of the hedonic or experiential aspects of value. These finding are broadly consistent with other researchers who have identified that multiple value dimensions impact on both choice and purchase decisions in a number of different service-settings (Petrick and Backman, 2002; Petrick, 2004; Lee, Patrick and Crompton, 2007; Williams and Soutar, 2005; Sanchez-Fernandez et al., 2009; Zainuddin et al., 2011).
However, the study’s 8-consumption values do not re-created Holbrook’s original typology and are better viewed as an extension of Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s, (2009) ‘efficiency’ and ‘aesthetics’ dimensions as indicated in table 6.17.

Table 6. 17 S&PAVAL Dimension Comparison

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency</td>
<td>Benefits of Exercise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Costs of Exercise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>Quality, Service Experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Value</td>
<td>Social Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Play</td>
<td>Fun &amp; Enjoyment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetics</td>
<td>Physical Environment – surroundings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical Environment – ambiance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruistic Value</td>
<td>Altruistic Value</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) considered efficiency to include the get-versus-give aspect of consumption and included monetary costs, time and effort related to the experience of using vegetarian restaurants. However, this study’s results indicated that, in a sport and physical activity setting, the benefits of exercise such as improved physical and mental wellbeing offer a separate consumption value to the costs of exercising such as time, money and effort. Furthermore, this study’s re-interpretation of ‘aesthetics’ in terms of the servicescape concept (Bitner, 1992) as the physical environment within which the physical activity occurred, would support Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s, (2009) belief that ‘aesthetics’ is a key aspect of value in the consumption experience. In this study, two separate consumption values were identified, disaggregating this value into two components: Physical Environment – surroundings (e.g. physical elements such as signage and decor) and Physical Environment – ambiance (e.g. sensory elements such as temperature, light, smell, sound etc.).

The creation of the original S&PAVAL model identifies and then defines the dimensions of consumer value in a sport and physical activity setting as discussed in this section and summarised in table 7.2. In doing so, the model provides the social marketing field with a consumer value scale which has been informed by both theoretical and empirical considerations and contributes to a deeper and more meaningful investigation into customer value theory.
Table 7. 2 S&PAVAL Model Theoretical Contributions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S&amp;PAVAL Model</th>
<th>The S&amp;PAVAL Model contributed to previous research on consumer value by:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Representing the first examination of the value construct as it pertains to the consumption of sport and physical activity opportunities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Identifying 8-consumption values that underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Defining the consumption value that that underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Physical Environment – ambiance | • Re-conceptualized Holbrook’s (1999) “aesthetics” in terms of Bitner’s (1992) servescapes and identified two separate value dimensions which disaggregated aesthetic value into two of Bitner’s (1992) servescapes categories: ambient conditions remained “physical environment – ambiance” value and the sign, symbols and artefacts category remained “physical environment – surroundings” value. |
|---------------------------------| • Contributed insights into the emerging debate which views the servescapes as an opportunity for interaction and value co-creation (Edvardsson et al., 2008; Venhoos and Ravald, 2011) and supports the use of the various servescapes concepts as a key dimension of consumer value. |
| Physical Environment – surroundings | • Physically active adults have high level of aesthetic value expressed in term of their physical environment – ambiance was ranked highest of all 8-dimensions (0.77) and physical environment – surroundings was second highest (0.68). |

| Altruistic Value | • Contributed to the limited examination of altruistic value in general and specifically it’s role in a sport and physical activity setting. |
|                 | • Altruistic value emerged as an important reflector of active adult’s consumption experience being ranked 3rd highest (0.67) of all 8-dimensions in terms of ‘work’ or ‘conditional altruism’ (Brehmhalh, 2000; McCann, Campbell & Entwistle, 2010) which encompass an element of personal interest or personal benefit. |

| Benefits of Exercise | • Re-conceptualised ‘efficiency’ as the trade-off an individual makes between the outcomes of exercise and the inputs needed to exercise and identified two separate value dimensions which disaggregated efficieny value from a single dimension of value into two value dimensions of ‘benefits of exercise’ and ‘cost of exercise’. |
|                      | • Ranked 6th of all 8-dimensions (0.60) the lowly importance given questions leisure constraints research that suggests that price is a barrier to participation and that lower entry prices will increase participation (Crawford and Godfrey, 1987; Jackson 1983; 1994). |

| Cost of Exercise | • Operationalized Holbrook’s ‘excellence’ and Sanchez-Fernandez et al., (2009) ‘quality’ in terms of a single index of quality of service experience value and re-interpreted it as the customers interactions with, and experience of staff and their chosen physical activity. |
|                  | • Ranked 5th (β=0.62) of all 8-dimensions which questions assertions that high quality of service experience is a core aspect of consumers overall participation in exercise Crawford et al., (2007). |

| Quality of Service Experience | • Re-conceptualized Holbrook’s (1999) ‘play’ and Sethi et al., (1991) ‘emotional’ value as a single index of ‘fun and enjoyment’ and re-interpreted it as representing the extent to which undertaking exercise relates to, or is motivated by the fun-related aspect of exercise such as sense of joy, happiness, pleasure or delight. |
|                              | • Ranked 2nd lowest (0.50) of all the 8-dimensions, clearly indicating that the utility derived from the fun-related and emotional elements generated by the physical activity experience gave them little value which contradicted a range of previously research that indicated a positive association between the enjoyment and exercise (Courneya and McAuley, 1994; Home, 1994; McAuley, 1991; Colfass et al., 1994; McDermott, 2006; Shaniro, 2003; Hall et al., 2010). |

| Fun & Enjoyment | • Re-conceptualized Holbrook’s (1999) ‘status’ and ‘esteem’ as a single index of ‘social value’ and re-interpreted it as being linked to impressing others, gaining their respect and facilitating more social opportunities in terms of the notion of ‘social wellbeing’. |
|                 | • Lowest ranked of all 8-dimensions (0.50) indicating that the opinions and/or impressions of others was of little value to them which contradicted the critical or pivotal role suggested by previous research in terms of socialising with friends and others as an important aspect of participating in sport and physical activity (Elliot and Hamilton, 1991; Philipp and Breeze, 2002; Affihino et al., 2003; Green, 2005; Dahd and Berg, 2006). |
7.2.2 The Role of Social-demographic Modifying Factors

Prior to the study’s investigation, consumption values has not been examined using socio-demographic modifying factors of gender, age and social class, consequently their affect on consumer consumption experiences was unknown. The findings of this study therefore represent a significant contribution to the understanding of consumer value in general and specifically in a sport and physical activity setting by revealing that the value adults receive from being physically active do differ with gender, age and social class. With regard to sport and physical activity participation an understanding of the impact of gender, age or social economic status is important because participation rates are marked by a range of gender, age and social status inequalities. Over the past 20-years the sport and physical activity participation base has not widened and participation inequalities have not narrowed despite public policy being focused on promoting ‘sport for all’ and extending participation amongst a range of ‘targeted social groups’ (Fahey et al., 2004; Sport England, 2009; Sport Scotland, 2006; Sports Council for Wales, 2005). Therefore, the study offers hither-to unknown insights with which to design exercise offerings that can effectively attract adults into becoming physically active, benefiting themselves and society alike.

The study’s findings indicated that a statistically significant difference existed between men and women with regard to 5 of the consumption values found to underpin participation in sport and physical activity, with men placing a higher importance on the physical environment within which exercise occurs (physical environment - ambiance and surrounding), the quality of service experience they receive and intrinsic factors such as social and altruistic value, than did women. The remaining consumption values (cost-of-exercise, benefits-of-exercise and fun & enjoyment) did not differ with gender. In-terms of age, the study’s findings indicate that the four of the consumption values did not differ with age (benefits of exercise, quality of the service experience, altruistic value and fun & enjoyment). However, just as constraints to leisure change over the life course (Jackson, 2005) a number of statistically significant differences existed between age groups with regard to the costs-of-exercise, physical environment (ambiance and surroundings) and social value consumption values. With regard to social status the study’s findings indicated
a number of statistically significant differences existed between the different social
groups with regard to six of the consumption values (physical environment –
ambiance, physical environment – surroundings, quality of service experience, cost
of exercise, fun & enjoyment and social value). In-line with the complexity of the
debate, the study’s findings indicate a difference between participants from lower
social classes [C2/D/E] to those in the higher classifications [A/B]. Lower class
participants placed a higher importance on the physical environment both in terms of
its surrounds and ambiance, more importance in term of the quality of the service
experience, the costs associated with exercising, the fun-related aspect of exercising
and appear to seek greater social value from exercising.

The study findings revealed that the value adults receive from being physically active
differs with gender, age and social class as discussed in this section and summarised
in table 7.3, making a second original contribution to achieving a deeper and more
meaningful understanding of customer value theory by offering the first examination
of gender, age and social status as it pertains to consumer value theory.
Table 7. Social-demographic Modifying Factors Theoretical Contributions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modifying Factors</th>
<th>The study contributed to previous research on consumer value by:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>representing the first examination of gender, age and social status as it pertains to the consumption values that underpin adult’s participation in sport and physical activity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>More Important to Men</th>
<th>No Difference</th>
<th>Least Important to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical Environment – ambience</td>
<td>Benefits of Exercise</td>
<td>Physical Environment – ambience to 35-39yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical Environment – surroundings</td>
<td>Cost of Exercise</td>
<td>Physical Environment – surroundings to 35-39yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Altruistic Value</td>
<td>Fun &amp; Enjoyment</td>
<td>Cost of Exercise to 25-29yrs, 30-34yrs and 35-39yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quality of Service Experience</td>
<td>Social Value</td>
<td>Social Value to middle aged (40-44yrs, 45-49yrs + 50-54yrs)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Most Important to</th>
<th>No Difference</th>
<th>Least Important to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical Environment – ambience to 20-24yrs</td>
<td>Benefits of Exercise</td>
<td>Physical Environment – ambience to 35-39yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical Environment – surroundings to 20-24yrs</td>
<td>Quality of Service Experience</td>
<td>Physical Environment – surroundings to 35-39yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cost of Exercise to older groups (65-69yrs + 75-79yrs)</td>
<td>Fun &amp; Enjoyment</td>
<td>Cost of Exercise to 25-29yrs, 30-34yrs and 35-39yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social Value to younger adults (15-19yrs + 20-24yrs) and older adults (75-79yrs)</td>
<td>Social Value</td>
<td>Social Value to middle aged (40-44yrs, 45-49yrs + 50-54yrs)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Class</th>
<th>Most Important to</th>
<th>No Difference</th>
<th>Least Important to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical Environment – ambience to lower social classes D/E</td>
<td>Benefits of Exercise</td>
<td>Physical Environment – ambience to higher social classes A/B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical Environment – surroundings to lower social classes D/E</td>
<td>Cost of Exercise</td>
<td>Physical Environment – surroundings to higher social classes A/B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quality of Service Experience to lower social classes C2/D</td>
<td>Social Value</td>
<td>Quality of Service Experience to higher social classes A/B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cost of Exercise to lower social classes D/E</td>
<td>Fun &amp; Enjoyment</td>
<td>Cost of Exercise to higher social class B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fun &amp; Enjoyment to lower social classes D/E</td>
<td>Social Value to to lower social classes C2/D</td>
<td>Fun &amp; Enjoyment to higher social class B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social Value to lower social classes C2/D</td>
<td>Social Value to higher social classes A/B</td>
<td>Social Value to higher social classes A/B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.2.3 Towards a ‘Continuum of Value’

The study results have illustrated the multi-dimensional nature of consumer value in a sport and physical activity context and have extended our understanding of value in this setting beyond the functional or rational price-quality relationships by recognising the importance of the hedonic or experiential aspects of value. These finding are broadly consistent with other researchers who have identified that multiple value dimensions impact on both choice and purchase decisions in a number of different service-settings such as golf holidays (Petrick and Backman, 2002), cruising (Petrick, 2004), attending festivals (Lee, Petrick and Crompton, 2007), adventure tourism trips (Williams and Soutar, 2005), vegetarian dining (Sanchez-Fernandez et al.’s, (2009) and women’s health care (Zainuddin et al., 2011).

However, in answering Sheth & Uslay (2007, p. 303) call for marketers to use the value creating paradigm to ‘reach beyond value in exchange and even value in use’ and to think about other types of value, insights gained from this study question the simplicity of value being conceived as an either (value-in-exchange) or (value-in-use) concept (Grönroos, 2008), instead the value-in-exchange and value-in-use consumption factors may be better conceptualised as a value continuum and this is where another significant contribution to furthering our theoretical understanding of consumer value can be found. Further understanding of value as something other than either ‘value-in-exchange’ or ‘value-in-use’ (Sheth & Uslay, 2007) was provided by the insights from active adults who were asked to describe something they considered to be valuable. Insights from these interviews revealed that customers viewed value in a number of different ways, some of which were consistent with ‘value-in-exchange’ and ‘value-in-use’ but for others value appear to have an elemental value to, in the sense of being inborn or resembling a force of nature in power and effect.

7.2.4 Consumption of Consumer Value in a Sport and Physical Activity Setting

The study offers the S&PAVAL Consumption Process Model (figure 7.1), which represents this thesis re-conceptualisation of the consumption process in a sport and physical activity setting. This is considered an original contribution to knowledge because it is the first time academic research has unified the three previously discrete
literature streams (behaviour change theory, leisure constraints theory and consumer value theory) through the common perspective of the 8-consumption values identified as underpinning adult’s participation in sport and physical activity. The model is based on the study’s empirical findings and the insights gained from the use of the S&PAVAL consumption values as facilitators to participation (see S&PAVAL model as facilitator, section 6.5), as triggers for behaviour change (see S&PAVAL model as triggers, section 6.6) and finally as sources of value creation (see S&PAVAL model as value creators, section 6.7), to illustrate the process that customers undergo when consuming a sport or physical activity offering.

The S&PAVAL Consumption Process Model is based on Zainuddin et al. (2008) research which indicates that consumers of a social marketing intervention experience value at three stages of the consumption process which in turn leads to satisfaction, the creation of behavioural intention and outcomes which form the foundations of a sustained behavioural change (figure 2.13).
Figure 7.1 S&PAVAL Consumption Process Model.
However, the S&PAVAL consumption values are influenced by a combination of the three sources of value (marketing communications, sport & physical activity offering and consumer involvement) as discussed in section 6.7 and illustrated in the S&PAVAL Value Creation Framework. The following sections now turn to a brief explanation of each consumption stage in the consumption process model, starting with the mental pre-consumption stage, followed by the consumption stage and then the mental post-consumption stage (Zainuddin et al., 2008; Grönroos, 2005).

7.2.4.1 Mental Pre-consumption Stage
Grönroos (2005) suggest that it is often difficult to determine when the consumption process starts and finishes, in this regard Grönroos (2005) proposes that a ‘mental pre-consumption’ exists that starts before any interaction with the service provider. At this stage consumers are physically inactive, they may be considering whether to partake in exercise or they “wouldn’t be caught dead doing that” (Chick and Dong, 2005, p. 170). Here the priority is to use the various consumption values as facilitators, triggers and sources of value to create and support a behavioural intention to engage in physical activity.

Leisure preference can be facilitated through both the benefits of exercise and altruistic consumption values as they promote the short- and long-term benefits of exercise and can therefore help to shape individual beliefs about exercise. Next is the need to facilitate compatible participation opportunities to overcome the lack of partners, friends and family who aren’t sporty, through the use of both the fun and enjoyment and social consumption values which focuses on the interactive nature of physical activity and the role having fun and making new friends plays can be used to ensure that social relationships enable participation rather than restricting it. Similarly, the benefits-of-exercise, altruistic value and fun & enjoyment consumption values can be used to ‘trigger’ positive attitudes towards becoming physically active whilst making a favourable impression on others and gaining their respect of their peer group could be triggered through the use of social value (Ajzen, 1991). Whereas outcome and efficiency expectations can be triggered using the benefits-of-exercise and altruistic value to emphasise the belief that the benefits of consuming physical activity outweighs any negative consequences, which can be minimised by
the use of the cost-of-exercise consumption value (Bandura, 1977). Finally, the likelihood of participation can be triggered if individuals believe that the benefits of being physically active to surpass the negative effects of continuing to be inactive through the use of benefits-of-exercise consumption value as well as altruistic value to emphasise the perceived benefits and the cost-of-exercise consumption value to mediate the perceived barriers (Strecher and Rosenstock, 1997). Therefore the dimensions of value that will be important at this stage of the physical activity consumption process are altruistic value, benefits-of-exercise, cost-of-exercise, fun & enjoyment and social value. All of which can be emphasised by using the marketing communication source of value to convey and help customers manage their expectation of what being physically active means.

The S&PAVAL mental pre-consumption stage is consistent with Zainuddin et al. (2008) who suggests that consumers are likely to want high levels of both functional and emotional value at this stage, functional value to ensure the service does what it claims to do and emotional value as consumers may have negative feelings such as fear or anxiety, especially if they are unfamiliar with the service. However, in contrast to Zainuddin et al. (2008) the S&PAVAL mental pre-consumption stage also emphasises altruistic value and social value as being important at this stage, as exercising for tomorrow and not today, in other words engaging in physical activity to accrue the deferred benefits in later life (altruistic value) and creating a supportive peer group (social value) are considered important at this stage.

In this regard, findings from this study suggest that marketing communications can be used to promote both the immediate health and wellbeing benefits of exercise such as improved mental outlook, feeling good and improved body shape (benefits of exercise value) as well as the benefits associated with the longer-term such as avoidance of ill-health and the achievement of more independence in later life (altruistic value). Similarly, marketing communications can contribute to a positive emotional experience by ensuring communication channels such as the website are easy to navigate and that information such as timetables and class schedules are both easy to understand and are accurate (play and enjoyment value). In addition to this marketing communication can be used to provide customer testimonials to help
customers identify per, social groups and friend-making element of the exercise experience (social value). Finally, marketing communications can also help customers to make less stressful and risky decisions to engage in being physically active by providing information to ensure a more informed decision regarding the factors such as the price of activities or the times facilities are available (cost of exercise value).

7.2.4.2 Consumption Stage

The types of value that active adults experience during their consumption of physical activity were identified in terms of the S&PAVAL Model which is comprised on 8-consumption values: physical environment – ambiance, physical environment – surroundings, altruistic value, benefits-of-exercise, quality of services experience, cost-of-exercise, fun & enjoyment and social value. At this stage consumers preference or desire has been established but factors such as a lack of money, time or access to suitable facilities limit participation or as Chick and Dong (2005) would say “I don’t have the time or money to do that” (p. 170). Here the priority is to use the various consumption values to support and embed participation.

The importance placed on the physical environment (ambiance and surroundings) with-in which exercise occurs by active adults can be seen as both a facilitator and a trigger. As a behaviour trigger adults need to have personal control over or access to the appropriate skills, resources and opportunities (Rhoades and Cournay, 2003), so even though adults know that exercise is good for them, they may not adopt a healthier lifestyle if there are environmental obstacles such as few local facilities which limits opportunities, here the trigger is the provision of fit-for-purpose facilities and the facilitator is ensuring the servicescape provided is conducive to exercising. In isolation, affordable charges (cost-of-exercise) can facilitate participation, however when combined, the cost-of-exercise, benefits-of-exercise and altruistic value dimension act as a behaviour trigger when an individual undertakes a cost-benefit analysis to assess whether the benefits of a new behaviour are sufficient to maintain that behaviour as opposed to reverting to their old behaviour (Strecher and Rosenstock, 1997) which supports the importance active adults placed on
achieving the immediate and longer-term benefits that arise from being physically active as desired outcomes.

The contribution of staff to delivering a positive consumption experience cannot be underestimated; here the quality of service experience value dimension can be a behavioural trigger by providing a customer care experience that does not put-off someone who is new to exercise and can facilitate exercise by providing the elements that individuals can not or would find difficult to provide for themselves, for example encouraging instructors, teaching to swim or inducting on equipment in the fitness suite. Social Value and Fun and Enjoyment value dimensions are important facilitators as they focus on the interactive nature of physical activity and emphasises the role having fun and making friends plays in supporting participation by overcoming any reticence friends and families may have regarding physical activity, so that participation can seen as a socially acceptable activity.

The S&PAVAL Consumption Process Model supports Zainuddin et al. (2008) who suggest that high levels of functional value will be experienced at the consumption stage as consumers have made their decision to act primarily based on the premise that consuming the service would fulfil or satisfy their functional needs, as indicated by the importance placed on the benefits-of-exercise consumption value. The study’s findings indicate that physically active adults also have high levels of aesthetic value expressed in terms of the physical environment within which they participate (ambiance 0.77, surroundings 0.68), and they also experience relatively high levels of altruistic value (0.67) with regard to the long-term benefits that arise from exercise. In contrast to Zainuddin et al. (2008) findings, the role of altruistic-based motivation for engaging in physical activity was highly valued and the emotional aspects in terms of fun-related elements appeared to be of less importance.

It is anticipated that all three sources of value will have a role to play during the consumption phase. The marketing communication function in terms of the information it conveys to help manage customer’s expectations of what being physically active means such as to promote both the immediate and longer-term benefits of exercise, ensuring communication channels are easy to navigate and that information is easy to understand and are accurate. The physical activity offerings
such as working-out in the gym, swimming or attending an aerobic class can be based on fulfilling promises and solving problems by delivering the experiences and outcomes which are highly valued by active adults. Customer Involvement in terms of the processes that enable the customer to raise concerns about and offer suggestions regarding service improvements through feedback mechanisms such as customer comments and surveys, by teaching customers new skills to support their exercise consumption and by enabling them to tailor their memberships to suit their needs.

### 7.2.4.3 Mental Post-consumption Stage

At this stage consumers are physically active and are in an informed position to review and evaluation their experiences, here the priority is to use the consumption values to ensure repeat behaviour, thus achieving a sustained behavioural change, based on whether the participation outcomes created the requisite value in order to become sufficiently ‘valued’. A feedback loop in also incorporated to denote the experiential nature of consumption, that it is dynamic in nature and inclined to change overtime (Holbrook 1994, 2005; Ulaga, 2003). According to Zainuddin et al. (2008) once a service or intervention has been consumed and the experience completed the importance of functional value diminishes due to the customers functional needs having been fulfilled. However, given the importance active adults have placed on achieving the immediate and longer-term benefits that arise from being physically active (benefits-of-exercise value and altruistic value) as desired outcomes, contrary to Zainuddin et al. (2008) the S&PAVAL Consumption Process Model proposes that functional value in terms of the benefits-of-exercise remains an important post-consumption consideration as individuals undertake a cost-benefit analysis to assess whether the benefits of a new behaviour are sufficient to maintain that behaviour as opposed to reverting to their old behaviour (Strecher and Rosenstock, 1997). If a customer reflects on their decision and felt that they have performed a socially-responsible act, they may experience high levels of altruistic value (Zainuddin et al., 2008).

Zainuddin et al. (2008) suggests that social status or influence will not have much, if any, significance at this stage. However, Grönroos (2005) has indicated that a
‘mental post-consumption’ occurs which extends beyond the actual consumption experience of being physically active into associated memories and conversations that may last for sometime after the actual consumption. The study, therefore proposed that both social value and fun & enjoyment consumption value would be important contributors to Grönroos (2005) mental post-consumption in-terms of storytelling linked to making a favourable impression on others, gaining their respect and facilitating more social opportunities (social value) and recounting both the fun-related aspects of exercising and also the ‘love-hate’ relationship (fun and enjoyment).

Therefore the value dimensions that will be important at this stage of the physical activity consumption process are altruistic value, benefits-of-exercise, fun & enjoyment and social value. The model suggests that marketing communication and customer involvement are the two key sources of value at this stage, marketing communications in terms of customer relationship management (CRM) techniques to keep the customer awareness higher and to send vouchers or offers to entice repeat behaviour and customer involvement though the provision of social events such as gym challenges and charity events.

7.2.4.4 Summary
The development of the original S&PAVAL Consumption Process Model consolidates and synthesizes the three distinct literature strands (behaviour change, constraints to leisure and consumer value) through the common perspective of the 8-consumption values as facilitators to participation as triggers for behaviour change and finally as a basis for value creation as discussed in this section and summarised in table 7.5. In doing so, this model represents this thesis final theoretical contribution through the re-conceptualisation of the consumption process in a sport and physical activity setting.
Table 7.4 S&PAVAL Consumption Process Model Theoretical Contributions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S&amp;PAVAL Consumption Process Model</th>
<th>The study contributed to previous research on consumer value by:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Re-conceptualisation of the consumption process in a sport and physical activity setting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Bridges and unifies the three distinct literature strands (behaviour change, constraints to leisure and consumer value) through the common perspective of the 8-consumption values as facilitators to participation (section 6.5), as triggers for behaviour change (section 6.6) and finally as a basis for value creation (section 6.7).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Manual Pre-consumption | - Integrates Grouws (2005) concept of the 'mental pre-consumption'. |
|                       | - Identified that the types of value that will be important at this stage of the physical activity consumption process are altruistic value, benefits-of-exercise, cost-of-exercise, fun & enjoyment and social value. |
|                       | - Integrates Facilitators of Participation: |
|                       |   - Leisure Preferences (Intrinsic): lack of interest and general apathy toward being physically active can be overcome using the benefits-of-exercise and altruistic consumption values to shape an individual's beliefs about exercise. |
|                       |   - Compatible participation (Interpersonal): overcome a lack of partners, friends and family who aren't sporty by the use of both the fun & enjoyment and social consumption values to ensure that social relationships enable participation rather than restricting it. |
|                       | - Integrates triggers for behaviour change with S&PAVAL Consumption Values: |
|                       |   - Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991): consumption must be pleasurable and not harmful, consumption must lead to positive outcomes and not negative ones and peer group approval important = benefits-of-exercise, altruistic value and fun & enjoyment consumption values to 'sell' the benefits and positive outcomes, whilst making a favourable impression on others and gaining their respect of their peer group achieved through the use of social value. |
|                       |   - Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) (Bandura, 1977): key drivers of exercise adoption are outcome and efficiency expectations, can be achieved by using the benefits-of-exercise and altruistic value to emphasise the belief that the benefits of consuming physical activity outweigh any negative consequences, which can be minimised by the use of the cost-of-exercise consumption value. Creating a positive peer group attitude can be achieved through the use of social value. |
|                       |   - Health Belief Model (HBM): an individual's behaviour is based on taking positive health action to avoid negative health outcomes, likelihood of participation increased if individuals trust and believe that being physically active will reduce the risk of becoming ill = benefits-of-exercise consumption value as well as altruistic value to emphasise the perceived benefits and the cost-of-exercise consumption value to mediate the perceived barriers. |
|                       | - Integrates Sources of Value Creation: |
|                       |   - Marketing communications can be used to promote both the immediate health and wellbeing benefits of exercise such as improved mental outlook, feeling good and improved body shape (benefits of exercise value), as well as the benefits associated with the longer-term such as avoidance of ill-health and the achievement of more independence in latter life (altruistic value). Can also provide customer testimonials to help customers identify peer, social groups and friend-making element of the exercise experience (social value). |
**Consumption**

- The types of value that active adults experience during their consumption of physical activity were identified in terms of the study’s empirical findings and the insights gained from the use of the S&PAVAL consumption values.
  - **Integrates Facilitators of Participation:**
    - **Leisure Preferences (Intraperonal):** Lack of interest and general apathy toward being physically active can be overcome using the benefits-of-exercise and altruistic consumption values to shape an individual’s beliefs about exercise.
    - **Compatible participation (Interpersonal):** Overcome are a lack of partners, friends, and family who aren’t sporty by the use of both the fun & enjoyment and social consumption values to ensure that social relationships enable participation rather than restricting it.
  - **Integrates triggers for behaviour change with S&PAVAL Consumption Values:**
    - **Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991):** Supports the importance placed by active adults on the physical environment (ambience and surroundings) within which exercise occurs as individual need personal control over or access to the appropriate skills, resources and opportunities (Rhoades and Couvy, 2003).
    - **Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) (Bandura, 1997):** Supports the importance placed on by providing fit-for-purpose facilities (physical environment - ambience and surroundings), by affordable charges (cost-of-exercise) and by providing the opportunities that they cannot or would find difficult to produce themselves eg encouraging instructors, teaching to swim or inducing on equipment in the fitness suite (quality of service experience) to overcome environmental obstacles such as few local facilities which limits opportunities and excessive personal and work-related time demands.
    - **Health Belief Model (HBM):** Supports the importance active adults placed on achieving the immediate and longer-term benefits that arise from being physically active (benefits-of-exercise value and altruistic value) as desired outcomes as part of a cost-benefit analysis to assess whether the benefits of a new behaviour are sufficient to maintain that behaviour as opposed to reverting to their old behaviour (Stecher and Rosenstock, 1997).
  - **Integrates Sources of Value Creation:**
    - **Marketing communication and the information it conveys to help manage customer’s expectations of what being physically active means such as to promote both the immediate and longer-term benefits of exercise, ensuring communication channels are easy to navigate and that information is easy to understand and accurate.**
    - **The Physical Activity Offering:** Such as working-out in the gym, swimming or attending an aerobic class can be based on fulfilling promises and solving problems by delivering the experiences and outcomes which appear to be highly valued by active adults.
    - **Customer Involvement:** In terms of the processes that enable the customer to raise concerns about and suggestion regarding service improvements through feedback mechanisms such as customer comments and surveys, by teaching customer new skills to support their exercise consumption and by enabling them to tailor their memberships to suit their needs.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mental Post-consumption</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Integrates Grouros (2005) concept of the 'mental post-consumption'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The types of value that will be important at this stage of the physical activity consumption process are altruistic value, benefits-of-exercise, fun &amp; enjoyment and social value.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The study proposes that both social value and fun &amp; enjoyment consumption value are important contributors to Grouros (2005) mental post-consumption in terms of storytelling linked to making a favourable impression on others, gaining their respect and facilitating more social opportunities (social value) and recounting both the fun-related aspects of exercising.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The study proposes that functional value in terms of the benefits-of-exercise remains an important post-consumption consideration based on the importance active adults have placed on achieving the immediate and longer-term benefits that arise from being physically active (benefits-of-exercise value and altruistic value) as desired outcomes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- <strong>Integrates Sources of Value Creation:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The model suggests that <strong>marketing communication and customer involvement</strong> are the two key sources of value at this stage, marketing communications in terms of <strong>customer relationship management (CRM) techniques</strong> to keep the customer awareness higher and to send vouchers or offers to entice repeat behaviour and customer involvement though the provision of social events such as gym challenges and charity events.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.3 Methodological Contributions

Whilst research into consumer value is well established, this thesis represents the first examination of the value construct as it pertains to the consumption of sport and physical activity opportunities and in contrast to previous consumer value research adopted a mixed method research design, specifically a converging parallel protocol which was comprised of consecutive quantitative and qualitative strand. This was considered the most appropriate approach given research problem and the nature of the information that was desired. Social marketing and the measurement of consumer value is heavily influenced by positivist methodologies and the use statistical models to infer significance to various dimension of value, as Woodruff and Gardial (1996) has noted, “measuring customer value is rooted in the use of qualitative data-gathering techniques” (p. 158). In line with calls from a number of prominent authors as Hastings (2007) and Kotler et al. (2002) the study acknowledged the importance of adopting ‘softer’ methodologies aimed at gaining real-world consumer insights, mindful of Sweeney, Soutar, Whitely and Johnson, (1997, p.109) comments that the qualitative stage should “explore the ideas and opinions that diverse groups of people have about consumption value.”

The S&PAVAL Model represents an important step forward in the measurement of consumption values, not only because it has resulted from empirical testing but because it has also incorporated qualitative data from in-depth interviews. The concurrent use of qualitative techniques alongside quantitative ones, in-terms of using both a closed question approach of the S&PAVAL scale and an interview approach which was outside of the confines of a Likert scale has enabled the study to produce a richer and more helpful model for those tasked with providing sport and physical activity opportunities. Undertaking in-depth interviews with active adults regarding their physical activity consumption experiences proved to be a useful approach, especially given that exercise offerings are generally a proposition or exchange of promises rather than a physical product (Peatie and Peatie, 2003). Conducting interviews with active adults who were regular customers meant that they were familiar with the research setting and this allowed the interviews to be “conversation with a purpose” (Berg 2004, p. 75) with customers who were more
than willing to share their exercises experiences which provided insights into the nature and scope of consumer value and about things that are of value to them. Furthermore, by interviewing active adults this enabled different levels of meaning to be explored which related to the holistic consumption experience.

7.4 Contributions to Practise

Understanding and being able to skilfully apply the S&PAVAL Model to the design of products, services and offerings that entice and motivate individuals to become more physically active is the boundary of management practise this thesis contributes too (Finn, 2005). The S&PAVAL consumption values are new and essential resource needed by practitioners operating in the sport and physical activity sector if they are to bring about a significant improvement in the health of the population by increasing the proportion that are sufficiently active. The adoption of a customer value mindset therefore represents a positive step forward for sport and physical activity delivery as Havitz (2000: p.46) wrote:

“If I have a quarrel with leisure researchers, it is that we focus heavily on the nature of leisure and recreation for individual participants (as we should), but that we too often stop short of meaningfully discussing implementation related issues”

Consumer value theory represents one method of both determining and delivering-on the needs of a community. In this regard some clear recommendations for practise have emerged from this study’s findings based on understanding value from a multi-dimensional or experiential perspective.

7.4.1 Sport and Physical Activity Offering

Zainuddin et al. (2011) and Andreasen (2012) have both emphasised the importance of understanding the value offering to be exchanged and argued that policymakers and leisure service providers need to know what ‘it’ is that customers value from their consumption experience in order for ‘it’ to be included into the design and implementation of campaigns aimed at enticing and motivating individuals to become more physically active. The S&PAVAL Model is a significant contribution
towards understanding what ‘it’ is that adult’s value from being physically active, allowing policy-makers and leisure providers to present physical activity opportunities to both new and existing audiences that add value and make sense in individual everyday life (Holt, 2003).

It stands to reason that if such opportunities are unrelated to what ‘it’ is that consumer’s value, they will fail (Zainuddin et al., 2011; Andreasen, 2012). Therefore, in terms of the physical activity propositions and promises (Peattie and Peattie, 2003), all-too-often the offering is not clearly defined or explicitly expressed; practitioner can now base their propositions on emphasising the experiences and outcomes which are highly valued by active adults, such as the physical environment with-in which physical activity occurs, the benefits of exercise, the role of altruistic motivations in the decision to become physically active. The ways in which these categories reflect and extend consumer value suggests the need for future propositions to give careful consideration to the participation servicescape (physical environment: ambiance and surround consumption values) as the study’s findings indicated that the value adults receive from being physically active is related, in-part, to their expectation of fit for purpose facilities in terms of their physical environment being conducive in terms of making it comfortable to exercise in with regard to lighting, temperature, decoration, signage and background music.

The value adults received from being physically active was also partly related to participation decision being based on both altruistic motivation in terms of accruing the deferred or long-term benefits of exercise and on their expectation of reaping the immediate benefit of exercise in term of a healthier body and healthier mind. Practitioners therefore need to promote both the short-term benefit such as improved mental outlook, feeling good and improved body shape (benefits of exercise consumption value) as well as the benefits associated with the longer-term such as avoidance of ill-health and the achievement of more independence in later life (altruistic value).

With regard to the costs associated with being physically active, the ways in which this dimension reflects consumer value suggest that the need for future physical activity offering, proposition or promises (Peattie and Peattie, 2003) needs to take
into account consideration of monetary cost but also experiential one too. The study’s findings indicated that the costs associated with being physically active are financial ones, suggesting that in keeping with Grönroos’ (2008) belief of a paradigm shift which conceives value-in-exchange as a function of value-in-use, an active adult adopts a value-in-exchange perspective in terms of how much they pay for what they get. Furthermore, improvements to service design need to be based on the emotionally charged hedonically orientated aspects of service design which emphasises the relationship, dialogue and interaction between the organisation and the customer in terms of the quality of service experience and the fun-related elements of consuming physical activity.

7.4.2 Value Creation
Consumer value creation is a central marketing concept which has been under investigated in general (Hunt, 1999) and not at all within a sport and physical activity setting. In this regard, the S&PAVAL Value Creation Framework and S&PAVAL Consumption Process Model both represent significant and groundbreaking advancements regarding understanding how, through a service providers interaction with its customers, value can be co-created at various stage of the consumption experience (Russell-Bennett et al., 2009; Zainuddin et al., 2008) by translating the mindset of value creation and co-creation of value into the sport and physical activity setting for the first time. Whilst the adoption of a customer value mindset represents a positive step forward for sport and physical activity delivery, it also represent a departure from the traditional role of management which has concentrated on the efficient use of resources to create products and services which offer a value proposition to their customers. Managers need to be aware of the limitations of viewing value in such uni-dimensional terms (value-in-exchange) in favour of the new paradigm of viewing customer value being based on the concept value-in-use and role customers have in creating their own value (Grönroos, 2008). Here, co-creation of value elevates the customer beyond being a passive recipient of the firm created value, to instead being an integral element (Vargo and Lusch, 2008), management are limited to providing a platform for customers to interact and co-create value, but it is the customer who co-creates their own value. Therefore the utility of applying marketing techniques and management theories ground in
traditional GD-logic is limited in favour of the domain of service logic (Vargo and Lusch, 2008).

Accepting that creating consumer value is subjective to the customer and that the organisation cannot therefore undertake this task on their own, the S&PAVAL Value Creation Framework extends consumer value knowledge by identifying three major sources of value, marketing communication, physical activity offering and customer involvement and outlines actions that can contribute to the co-creation of customer value. Firstly, managers should use their ‘marketing communication’ function to disseminate marketing message that help manage customer’s expectations regarding what being physically active means by emphasising the immediate and deferred health benefits of exercise, by using actual imagery of facilities, by adopting customer relationship management (CRM) techniques and ensuring communication channels offer positive emotional experiences. Secondly, as outlined above managers should see their ‘physical activity offering’ in terms of its ability to solve customers’ problems. Finally, value outcomes from being physically active cannot be created without the customer’s involvement, without the organisation empowering them to become ‘full participator s’ (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004; Bateson, 1994), active adults inputs are essential and together with staff and instructors are able to co-create value outcomes.

7.4.3 Market Segmentation
The days of mass (or undifferentiated) marketing where a single offering will effectively satisfy all or at least many consumers no longer exists. Markets, including the sport and physical activity sector, are now capable of being broken down into smaller more homogeneous consumer groupings (or segments) requiring different product, service or experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Many organisations have recognised this and are moving to an increasingly customised approach, in this regard the S&PAVAL Model combined with hither-to-unknown insight regarding the impact of the modifying variables of gender, age and social status both extends practitioners current understanding of sporting behaviours and attitudes and enable them to conduct more precise market-segmentation analysis.
In terms of customer insight, currently practitioners have access to Sport England’s nineteen sporting segments which have been developed based on using attitudinal segmentation, which indicates each segments distinct sporting behaviours and attitudes, in order to help practitioner understand the nations’ attitudes and motivations regarding why they play sport and why they do not. Each segment has been assigned a ‘pen portrait’ as an accessible way to understand the segments characteristics where are described within the context of sporting activities and levels of participation but also provides information on media consumption and communication channels, social capital, health indicators including obesity and engagement in the wider cultural sphere. The data which underpins each segment is primarily taken from the 'Active People’ survey (Sport England, 2011) and the Mosaic tool from Experian to link each segment to the Electoral Roll thereby enable the classification to be applied to all adults irrespective if they responded to the ‘Active People’ survey (Technical report – Sport England market segmentation) and is based on the principle that within tightly defined lifestyle and lifestage groups people do display similar traits.

By fully comprehending how gender, age and social class modify the S&PAVAL Model extends practitioners current understanding of sporting behaviours and attitudes, and then can be used to develop more effective target communications through an understanding of what messages adults will identify with in order to embrace encourage, and maintain a physically active lifestyle. Only the ‘benefits-of-exercise’ consumption value was unaffected by gender, age or social class, meaning this can be a universal message that practitioners can use generically across genders, all age and social classes. By contrast, the modifying variables would suggest the need for specific messages when targeting other ‘hard-to-reach’ groups. When targeting adults from lower social classes practitioners should note the importance of the value received from being physically active is in-part related to their expectations that the environment with-in which they exercise would be clean, warm, well lit and inviting (physical environment – ambiance and surroundings) indicating for the first time to practitioners that ensuring and then emphasising such facility attributes may encourage participation from this segment. In terms of targeting young adults (16-
24yrs) into becoming physically active, practitioners should note that the value received from being physically active relates, in-part, to aspect of social value such as making new friend and impressing others, which again may be attributes worth emphasising. Finally, the S&PAVAL Model now enablse practitioners to engage in value based segmentation with regard to gender, age and social class, segmentation based on consumer consumption values that indicate to practitioners the outcomes and/or experiences the product or service has to satisfy.

7.5 Limitations
Limitations which exist with-in all research should not be ignored (DeVellis, 1991), but instead acknowledge and discussed openly. The potential limitations of this research will now be discussed in terms of those that relate to the S&PAVAL Model and those that are concerned with the research methodology. The context of this research, local authority managed sports centres and swimming pools in the South Wales area serves to limit the generalisability of the findings beyond these boundaries (as illustrated in figure 1.5).

Similarly, whilst, the population sample of active adults who were members of the BridgeCard scheme, facilitated the investigation into the consumption value
underpinning adults participation on sport and physical activity, but is again limiting as this sample interacted with the same service provider, albeit it using different facilities within the county borough. There remains a possibility that increasing the number of questions (items) beyond a certain level may negatively impact upon the accuracy and reliability of responses.

The final measurement model had 50 remaining items which is quite large compared to other consumer value scales, for example Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2009) had 24-items. Furthermore a number of the questions were very similar in nature especially relating to the Physical Environment – surroundings where 4 of the 5-item related to ‘signage’:

A13 The signage in the facility is large enough to be seen .946
A15 The signage in the facility makes it easy to find your way .933
A14 The signage in this facility is easy to be understood .945
A12 There is sufficient signage in the facility .920
A16 The decoration in the facility are appropriate .772

With regard to ‘benefit-of-exercise’, pairs or combination of the question could possibly have been replaced by a single question:

EFB 5 Exercising improves my mental outlook .859
EFB 9 I exercise to achieve a mind and body balance .784
EFB 15 I exercise to improve my everyday wellbeing .720

EFB 4 Exercising makes me feel good .807
EFB 3 Exercising boost my energy level .786

Similarly with ‘cost-of-exercise’:

EFC3 I am happy with the price of the Centre’s activities .930
EFC1 The Centre’s activities are reasonable priced .894
EFC5 The Centre offers good value for the price I pay .914
EFC4 The Centre makes me feel that I am getting my money’s worth .926
In this regard, research that provides guidance on the optimal item pool size has the potential to provide valuable insights.

From a methodological perspective opportunities exist for the S&PAVAL scale to be developed. Firstly, whilst the model produced an acceptable fit, a number of fit indices could be improved, index such as GFI (goodness-of-fit) was susceptible to sample size (Anderson and Gerbing, 1984; Bollen, 1990; Hu and Bentler, 1998 Netemeyer et al., 2003) which in the study’s case was large (n=1058). Similarly the CFI (comparative fit indices) was sensitive to different estimation models (Hu and Bentler, 1998) which raises the question of potential under estimation of MLE or vice versa. Secondly, the item pool used to operationalising Holbrook’s (1999) ‘aesthetics’ in terms of the physical environment or servicescape which did not include aspect relating to facility cleanliness and car parking which are elements of the sportscape concept. However, insights from the in-depth interviews suggested that these aspects were important and should be included in any future scale.

7.6 Future Research

The research focused upon a particular service setting, in one particular geographical area. Whilst it seems reasonable to suggest that these findings will extend to similar service settings, this needs to be researched empirically. The S&PAVAL Model provides a platform for scholars who may wish to broaden the scope of research into the consumption values that underpin participation in sport and physical activity by looking to replicate the research finding beyond the current local authority leisure centre and swimming pool context into participation that occurs in different setting such as private health club and local sports clubs. The ability to replicate the study’s empirical findings would be an important step to developing a robust and generalisable scale and understanding of the consumption values underpinning adult’s participation in sport and physical activity. It is only by validating the study findings in different settings can ‘generalisations’ be made as Leone and Schultz (1980) note:

“replication is the key to generalization for without it, in the broadest sense, we have no corroboration of research results. We are left with one-shot
studies that represent historical facts. Only by extending findings to other data sets do we perceive the generality of marketing relationships” (p. 15).

Such research would allow the validation of the value dimensions identified by this research in other sport and physical activity settings, but only if such research also replicates the same procedure, the same exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factory analysis (CFA) methods are used.

Currently practitioners have access to Sport England’s nineteen sporting segments which have been developed based on using attitudinal segmentation, there exists the potential for value-based segmentation based on the S&PAVAL Model to both challenge and advance Sport England ‘pen portraits’ which would help to give practitioners as rounded and understand into the attitudes, motivations and value outcomes that impact upon why adults either engage in sport and physical activity or are not inclined to do so.

The S&PAVAL Model also provides an opportunity for longitudinal studies with the same context of local authority managed leisure centres and swimming pools. Such replicated research would be able assess the relative stability or important of the different S&PAVAL consumption values over time or to determine if they vary in relation to management or marketing activities. It would also be interesting to see how the S&PAVAL dimensions are relevant to those adults who are not inclined to be physically active. In this regard the value dimensions can become customer acquisition tools.

7.7 Summary

The S&PAVAL Model demonstrates that the consumption values underpinning adults’ consumption of physical active relates not just to their expectation regarding the physical environment within which their activity occurs but also to the immediate and longer-term benefits that arise from being physically active which represents a significant step forward towards understanding what ‘it’ is that customers value (Zainuddin et al., 2011; Andreasen, 2012). It may be that participation levels in
physical activity could be increased if providers adopt a view of value as articulated by the consumer and use the S&PAVAL consumption values to formulate enticing physical activity campaigns that motivate more adults to become physically active by understanding how value can be created at various stages in their consumption experience (Prahalad & Ramsawamy, 2004).
References


Business In Sport and Leisure (BISL) [www.bisl.co.uk](http://www.bisl.co.uk)


Psychological Methods, 1, 16-29.


Finn, J. (2005), Getting a PhD. Abingdon: Routledge.


Guest, Greg; Bunce, Arwen & Johnson, Laura (2006). "How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and variability”. Field Methods, 18(1), 59–82.


Havlena, W. J., & Holbrook, M. B. (1986). The varieties of consumption experience:


Micceri, T. (1989). The unicorn, the normal curve and other improbable creatures.


426


Appendices
Appendix 1 – Active Adults Questionnaire

Customer Survey

This survey is being undertaken by the Healthy Living Department as part of an ‘Active Adults’ research project in conjunction with the University of Glamorgan. Every effort has been made to protect participant’s anonymity. Any information which may have some identifying factors will be processed in accordance with Data Protection Act (1988). In completing this questionnaire you are consenting to the data being used for the purpose for which it is supplied. All answers will remain anonymous for the purpose of the resulting report.

ABOUT YOUR EXERCISE ROUTINE

Please tell us about where and when you exercise...

Q1: Please tick which one of our facilities you use most often? (tick only one)

- Bridgend Recreation Centre
- Garw Valley Leisure Centre
- Maesteg Sports Centre
- Maesteg Swimming Pool
- Ogmore Vale Leisure Centre
- Pyle Swimming Pool
- Pencoed Swimming Pool
- Ynysawdre Pool & Fitness Centre

Q2: Please tick the activity that you participate most in? (tick only one)

- Fitness Suite
- Swimming
- Aerobic Classes
- Other

Q3: In the last 4-weeks, how many times have you exercised? (tick only one)

- 5+ times
- 3-4 times
- 1-2 times
- None

ABOUT EXERCISING AT ONE OF OUR FACILITIES

The following sets of statements relate to your feelings about exercising at one of our Pools or Leisure Centres. For each statement, please show the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement. Circling a 7 means that you strongly agree, and by circling a 1 this means that you strongly disagree. If you don’t know, or have no feelings please tick the box provided. There are no right or wrong answers – the number you circle simply shows your perception regarding different aspects of how we deliver our services.

Q4: Thinking about the staff you meet whilst using our facilities, would you say that...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Don’t know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The staff are competent, knowledgeable and skilful employees</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The staff are approachable and easy to contact</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The staff are courteous, polite and respectful</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The staff listen to me and we understand each other</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The staff are trustworthy, believable and honest</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The staff make every effort to understand my needs</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The staff are neat, clean and presentable</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The activities I use are always provided on time</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q5: Thinking of the exercise you do, would you say that...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Don't know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exercise helps improve my health</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise helps me to reduce the risk of ill health</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise boosts my energy level</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise makes me feel good</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise improves my mental outlook</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise helps me to sleep better</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise has improved my body shape</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise helps me to reach and maintain a healthy weight</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I exercise to achieve a mind and body balance</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise gives me a sense of achievement</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise will help me achieve more independence in later life</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise makes me feel exhausted...but is worth it in the end</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I hate exercising but I know it's good for me</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise helps me relax from a tense and stressful life</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I exercise to improve my everyday wellbeing</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q6: Thinking about the cost of using our facilities, would you say...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Don't know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Centre's activities are reasonably priced</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Centre offers good services for the price</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am happy with the price of the Centre's activities</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Centre makes me feel that I am getting my money's worth</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Centre offers good value for the price I pay</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The price was the main factor affecting my decision to exercise</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The price charged for the Centre's activities is high</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The benefits I receive from exercising are worth the time I spend getting to and from the Centre</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The benefits I receive from exercising are worth the effort I have put in</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The benefits I receive from exercising are worth the money I have spent</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q7: Thinking about why you exercise, would you say that...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Don't know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exercise helps me to feel socially acceptable</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise improves the way I am perceived by others</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise makes a good impression on other people</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise gives me social approval</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many people that I know also exercise</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise gives me more social opportunities</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>6 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Q8: Thinking about why you exercise, would you say that...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Don't know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exercising gives me pleasure</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercising gives me a sense of joy</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercising makes me feel delighted</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercising gives me happiness</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel relaxed when I exercise</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy meeting people when I exercise</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy trying new things when I exercise</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Q9: Thinking about the facility you use, would you say that...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Don't know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The temperature in the facility is comfortable</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The air quality in the facility is good</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The background music/sound is appropriate</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The smell in the facility is pleasant</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The lighting in the facility is adequate</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The lighting in the facility is easy on eyes</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, the ambient condition in the facility makes it comfortable to exercise in</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The facility layout makes it easy to get to the activity you are looking for</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The facility layout makes it easy to get to the changing rooms and toilets</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, the facility's layout makes it easy to get to where you want to go</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The interior wall and floor colour schemes are attractive</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is sufficient signage in the facility</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The signage in the facility is large enough to be seen</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The signage in this facility is easy to be understood</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The signage in the facility makes it easy to find your way</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The decorations in the facility are appropriate</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Q10: Thinking about why you exercise, would you say that...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Don't know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I consider being fit, active and healthy is important</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be fit, active and healthy for myself</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be fit, active and healthy for my family</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be fit, active and healthy to avoid ill-health</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be fit, active and healthy to avoid unnecessary costs to the Health Service</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be fit, active and healthy to achieve more independence in later life</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**ABOUT YOU**

Please tell us about yourself.

**Q11:** What is your Gender:
- Male [□]
- Female [□]

**Q12:** What is your Age:
- 15-19 [□]
- 20-24 [□]
- 25-29 [□]
- 30-34 [□]
- 35-39 [□]
- 40-44 [□]
- 45-49 [□]
- 50-54 [□]
- 55-59 [□]
- 60-64 [□]
- 65-69 [□]
- 70-74 [□]
- 75-79 [□]
- 80-84 [□]
- 85-89 [□]
- 90+ [□]

**Q13:** Which Bridge Card Membership do you have?
- All-in-One (Full, Con, Staff, Family, Corporate) [□]
- Timezone [□]
- Relax & Splash (Full, Con, Staff, Family, Corporate) [□]
- Swim80 [□]
- GP Referral or Revive-a-Life [□]
- Access-to-Leisure [□]
- Booking Card [□]
- Pay & Play [□]
- I don’t have a Bridge Card [□]

**Q14:** What is your Ethnic Group:
- White: [□]
- British [□]
- Irish [□]
- Any other WHITE background: [□]
- Mixed: [□]
- White & Black Caribbean [□]
- White & Black Asian [□]
- White Asian [□]
- Any other MIXED background: [□]
- Asian & Asian British: [□]
- Indian [□]
- Pakistani [□]
- Bangladeshi [□]
- Any other ASIAN background: [□]

**Q15:** What is your Religion:
- Christian [□]
- Buddhist [□]
- Hindu [□]
- Jewish [□]
- Muslim [□]
- Sikh [□]
- None [□]

**Q16:** Disability:
- Are you registered disabled? [□]
- Yes [□]
- No [□]
- If “yes” what does your disability relate to?
- Your sight [□]
- Your hearing [□]
- Your speech [□]
- Your mobility [□]

**Q17:** How would you describe your job?
- Higher managerial, administrative or professional [□]
- Skilled manual worker eg plumber or electrician [□]
- Intermediate managerial, administrative or professional [□]
- Semi and unskilled manual worker eg labourer or window cleaner [□]
- Supervisory or clerical and junior manager, administrative or professional [□]
- Casual, low grade workers, pensioners or dependant on the welfare state [□]

**Q18:** My postcode is: [□] [□] [□] [□] [□] [□] [□] [□] [□] [□]

**Thank you for your time and patience in completing this survey**
Appendix 2 – Exemplar Active Adults Interview No.1

Interviewee 1: 21.09.11
Female: Aged 45-54yrs

PJK: My first question is can I ask you to outline in a typical week or a fortnight how much exercise do you actually do, what is it in the gym or in the pool?

Interviewee 1: I do 2 to 3 sessions of a Aquafit and I’m trying to do another two sessions of swimming and other that is just walking, so I walk my Mums dog at least once a day, but other than that No, that’s it

PJK: I’d say that's quite a lot actually

Interviewee 1: Well no, it's only recently when did I start about 5/6 weeks before the schools broke-up, we came to the Aquafit first and loved it, so I decided to come to every sessions. It's not always the three because I can't always make a Thursday evening but I do the Monday and Wednesday regular and then any extra sessions

PJK: So was there anything special that happened two or three months ago…

Interviewee 1: Yes weight, my weight I was going on a cruise and I’ve got some very posh frocks and the ones I wanted to take didn't fit. Someone were only bought Christmas time for the last one, so I thought I’ve got to really push and dieting doesn't really work, so I well I thought exercise and swimming is easy isn’t, you know you are exercise most parts and I don't like the gym, hum so swimming is about the easiest one for me and with the Aquafit you’ve got the best of both worlds

PJK: Were you active when you were younger at school

Interviewee 1: Never all I've ever done is walk, I've got to walk because I don't drive

PJK: You don’t drive

Interviewee 1: No, so I've never been active
So could I just asked you to summarise and describe the reasons why you exercise what would you say

Interviewee 1: Basically because it is toning me up which is very important at the moment, not so much the weight loss but the toning and I’ve definitely feel a million times better for it the feel good factor after is well worth doing. And I’ve got obviously bits and pieces of problems top never in my shoulder and neck hurts occasionally and swimming is the only thing I can do with that that not going to make it any worse

PJK: You said one of your motivations is to lose weight for the cruise.

Interviewee 1: Well not so much about losing weight but it was the toning to make things fit, so obviously a lot of the fat tends to muscle so you don’t actually lose a huge amount of weight, but it was more than the fact I’ve lost inches.

PJK: And you feel that you have.

Interviewee 1: I know I’ve lost inches, definitely I’ve measured. I know that dresses that were very tight two years ago now fits perfectly and that’s fantastic, but I’m the same weight and I’m just more toned.

PJK: When you say that you feel better I know what you mean, but how could you explain it … do you sleep better

Interviewee 1: No I don’t sleep very well anyway, so it hasn’t affected that. I don’t know it’s just a nice switch off time, it’s time for just me, I don’t have to think about anyone else, no it just good I just really feel good.

PJK: Fantastic, my next question is, we may have covered it can you describe what role of physical activity plays in your life… for example are your friends also active or are other members of your family physically active

Interviewee 1: No not particularly
PJK: Would they can considered you a little bit strange

Interviewee 1: No, no

PJK: How have they reacted to your recent exercise…

Interviewee 1: Hum, Mum thinks it brilliant she went to the gym and Viv obviously is very approving, nobody been negative, they have all said how much better I’m looking and that has boosted me

PJK: Your cruise has come and gone and you are still planning to exercise, is there any motivation you have now that the cruises gone, you know looking forward

Interviewee 1: No just in keeping off and getting back to cloths that fit and cloths that I want to wear rather than thinks in there because they fit

PJK: If you were speaking to a friend that was inactive and I’d asked you to try and persuade them to join, or come for swim or to the Aquafit class, what you say would be the main advantages you could tell them to say that this is a good idea

Interviewee 1: Well, I’m trying to persuade my sister because she does have a big weight problem but she’s too embarrassed to come into the pool, that a bit difficult that is, so she’ll probable got to the gym to train rather than the pool. But as far as my friends and family, they can see how much I’ve lost and they can see how much better I am for it, so I would use myself as an example of what can happen.

PJK: Now I do a lot of exercise and you do a lot of exercise are there any downsides is there anything you actually don't like about exercising, but you still do it

Interviewee 1: I would say the heat in that changing room when you come out, you’re absolutely baked by the time you come out, you come out nice and fresh and by the time I’ve come through and dried my hair, ugh, but it’s still worth it. You can do anything about that
PJK: Do you sometimes feel is still sweating after you’ve showered…

Interviewee 1: Yeh, sometimes is uncomfortable but what the heck, you go out in the cool and have a nice walk home and its gone again.

PJK: So if I were to ask you what a perfect visit to Bridgend Rec, what would look like, so if you could tell it was perfect, how would you describe it…from coming from the car park back to the car park….

Interviewee 1: That hard because I'm quite happy as it is …

PJK: Are you regularly service quickly at Reception…

Interviewee 1: Always yes and the girls are so polite, of course I've known a lot of the staff for donkeys years because I've been coming since it opened, the kids were young when it opened…

PJK: What about the recent changes to the new changing rooms…

Interviewee 1: I didn't like the first, to be honest, but no now I think it's fine

PJK: Just a little bit warm

Interviewee 1: Which okay, you’ve got babies in there so it has to be adjusted for everyone doesn’t it…

PJK: I must admit I did specify different hair dryers but those were the ones turned up…

Interviewee 1: That's okay because they do the job, the get it to dine enough and there are sockets there and people can bring their own hair dryers. More often than not I prefer to go out with it wet anyway… not so much in the winter obviously…

PJK: You said there were a couple of Aquafit on a Thursday night that you can't make, so can I ask you to think of the day or a time when you were planning to come to exercise but for some reasons you didn't what reasons…
Interviewee 1: Well it would usually be Thursday night because if Viv’s not there to bring me down I don’t particular want to walk down in the rain, in the daytime it doesn't matter but not to walk home in the nights, And eight o’clock I fine a little late to be honest, the 8-9pm class and its late for a lot of people to be honest …

PJK: So ideally that class coming in the early would be better ….so really it's just your ability to access the Centre, I don’t know your circumstances

Interviewee 1: I don't work so I've got plenty time in the day

PJK: In summary is there anything the Centre could do to make your visit any better when you come for the poolside activities, is anything I suggest to me, you know the ladies in the changing talk about this and that…

Interviewee 1: No they don’t complain to be honest, I’m impressed. The only thing I’d say is perhaps some water, a water fountain in the changing rooms or on the poolside. It would be nice just to have some cold water when you come out of the Pool. I don't always remember to bring my water bottle so I tend to pinch Viv’s.

PJK: As a service we are keen to try and provide our customers with value but it's very difficult, it’s a bit like ‘beauty being in the eye of the beholder’, so my question to you is can you describe something in your life that you consider to be valuable. It doesn't have to relate to sport or physical activity …is there anything that you consider valuable …

Interviewee 1: Probably the family yes, people and family…

PJK: My next question is what does value mean to you, because if I'm trying to provide it to customers I need to understand it, is there anything you can say to help m. So you think of value in terms of people, people that are close to you.

Interviewee 1: Yes
PJK: You didn’t in instinctively think about it terms of money

Interviewee 1: No, no that's not ever, no that didn’t come into it

PJK: Can I ask which membership card that you have us…

Interviewee 1: It either the swimming and Aquafit one whatever that is, is it the Relax ’n’ Splash or the Time Zone I'll need to check… I wouldn’t use any of the dry side activities to be honest, so it's the daytime card.

PJK: With regard to walking the dog, do you do that because you have to walk the dog or do you do that because you enjoyed walking…

Interviewee 1: Oh we enjoy walking, the poor dog gets dragged out four or five times more a week than he needs to

PJK: How do you compare your enjoyment between being in a centre like this and being outside with the dogs

Interviewee 1: I would say now it's more of the social part of it, you are speaking to different people, who ever your next to in the pool you’re having a little chat, it’s about speaking to different people, I know we get the same when we walk the dog we do speak to dog walkers and whatever and its nice just to have a little bit of interaction and a bit of a laugh

PJK: A bit of a laugh…is that as important as the exercise to you…

Interviewee 1: No, not really but it does help the extra enjoyment.

PJK: Have you made any connection or friends from Aquafit, do you go out to lunch

Interviewee 1: Oh no, we just acknowledge people in the changing room and very often know we're in the same spot in the pool and so we now get to chat. I know when I used to go for my swim I used to go for only the swim before the kid broke-up from school before I decided that the Aquafit would be good, because I wouldn’t swim
for the whole summer holidays. There are a couple of chap that swim at the same time as me and there's one silly man who come in and likes to do is exercise on the steps and it block-up two people swimming area. This one chap I swim with he swims at the very deep end and swim a little bit lower, and another guy comes in and a few women. The women tend to stand and do one width and then they stand and talk and do another width. I’m not a good swimmer but I like to feel as if I got something out of it, and I go in and see this guy and he’s there again, no appreciation for anyone else not all, no thought at all that other people want to swim, he’ll do maybe a width and then go back to it and then another width and then he’ll go. Why he doesn’t go into the Hydro Pool because that’s what it for…

PJK: I know yes we’re public leisure Centre so everyone is entitled to use it the way that they want to

Interviewee 1: That the think everyone is entitled to use it the way that they want, so long as they are not a problem to anyone, well we just swim around him.

PJK: Have you thought that one of the reasons you are exercising its just for yourself or do you every think I’m doing this for my family doing it to keep yourselves healthier in general…

Interviewee 1: Not really, no

PJK: Know you’ve got the bug, do you think you will keep it…

Interviewee 1: Yes, I think so yes. As I say with the BridgeCard obviously if I was paying each session it would be no-way, it would be once or twice a week and that would be the end of it. So the card has definitely encouraged me to do more. When I was paying on play and play I think 2 or 3 times a week that would definitely be it.

PJK: So do you look it to how much you pay for your card, say £20 a month and say I must come to 2 or 3 times to make my card worth …
Interviewee 1: No

PJK: No, so you are coming to the three sessions that are convenient to you

Interviewee 1: Yes, I only come to the ones that are convenient. I also came yesterday but something cropped up, so I decided not to. No I enjoy it, it’s good.
Appendix 2 – Exemplar Active Adults Interview No.13

Interviewee 13: 24.10.11
Male: Aged 45-54yrs

PJK: So as I say this is all about you being a physically active adult, can I start off by asking you to outline a typical week what exercise you undertake, is it always in the fitness suite, the leisure centre or do you walk or ride outside

Interviewee 13: OK yeah, generally the main bulk of it is in the fitness suite, I got at least three times a week, up in the referral gym and yeah I use all the facilities and I’m usually there for about an hour and a half by the time I’ve finish what I have done. In between times yeah I’m generally sort of not in the way of running and jumping and all that malarkey but know if I need to come to town I’ll walk to town, I live in Broadlands which isn't too bad I can walk up and down the hill which is good for you, so where I can if I don't need to use a car or any form of transport then I’d much rather walked to get to where I need to get to, to do whatever I need to do

PJK: You sound very health conscious or aware of …. is there a background to that

Interviewee 13: Yeah I’m aware of it, I’ve come into this is really from GP referral, which is an excellent scheme if somewhat short, but I’m overweight, 48 now, so I’ve got a bit of high blood pressure and also a bit of cholesterol as well and that’s down to lifestyle as well because I reached the stage where I was comfort eating as well, so I recognised all that but I just needed something to sort of help me and to boost me forward. I’ve had a rough couple of years in general, I've been in and out of work which hasn’t helped a lot you know the financial situation everyone is in I'm in sales and salespeople are always the first to go, so I been in the last two years I been made redundant and not had a contract renewed and I’m out of work at the moment, so yes coming to the gym during that helps in several ways firstly in getting back to active and fit and since I started this time I've actually lost two stone which is really good and Stewart who runs the GP gym he has my name in lights, I’ve been in the latest GP referral newsletter I’m on it you
know. so yes this time I've done the GP referral before this is my third time of doing it…

PJK: So when you went to the doctors and they said they were not going to give you tablets or medication we’re actually going to prescribe you to the gym, did you find that a shock the first time…

Interviewee 13: No, no I think it's the right thing to do because I can understand the benefits of doing it, the benefit of doing is that of course you can reduce your medication or come off it completely and the whole idea behind it is to get people away from going to doctors, so the savings they can make, many years ago I used to work for the NHS so I've been around a bit, so I know the costs I used to work with the medical surgical budget I didn’t deal with the drug budget but I know it runs into billions and I think in some cases there is nothing that you can do, but what I like about the GP referral it is sort of like a help-yourself thing and the benefits from it are ideal and this time more than the last two times each times, each time I've done I've gained benefits from it…

PJK: What would you say those benefits were ….

Interviewee 13: Well what I like about it is that I'm engaged with the staff this time so my training programme has changed from when I started to now and also I've made serious progress which I'd done before, and I've come into this quite late because the first time I did it that was about two years ago, so I was in my mid-40s, up until that point I had done anything serious in regard to fitness at all…

PJK: So what going a back to school time…

Interviewee 13: Well the last time I did anything as serious was when I left school and I joined the Royal Air Force and I did six weeks basic training and that's the fittest I've ever been I'll be quite quite candid about that and that's 31 years ago, and since then I've just followed the ever popular couch potato root and you know it's just settled into things married etc… and all the other bit and pieces that come with it which means biscuits and burgers and stuff like
that, but this time I’ve made a good effort at it and it's been, it's not only the physical benefits is the mental benefits as well, which has been useful because I've made good progress down there and it's something else for me to do in the week, obviously at the moment my main focus is to get re-employed but there is a way of dealing with that, you can't look day in and day out because it's quite soul destroying and the great thing is that I've got something I can do, come down here talk to the guys, talk to some of the people that are in their but everyone who work here and everyone who uses the gym are quite friendly all chat which is great, so it's a bit of release and obviously the benefits of exercise the release of endorphins and all that side it is good, so it’s something else as well for me to do with my day…

PJK: Do you think when you hopefully get a new job and are re-employed that this has given you enough to maintain it, because perhaps after the first time you didn't maintain it after the GP, do you think you're there now…

Interviewee 13: Yes yeah, I think this time more than ever because this one I've made the biggest improvements, I made improvements on the other times definitely and what I found interesting as well …maybe this year or the year before you ran the scheme whereby you can have a months, you can come and use the gym for a month for a reduced rate…

PJK: Yeah six weeks for the price of four

Interviewee 13: I did that and what surprised me was I could still maintain that level, because when I first started the very first time years ago I was in a heck of a messed afterwards but then this was in between one of the others, I came here and I retained some of that fitness which was pleasing, but this time in particular to use the phrase ‘I’ve gone for it’ in a big way and I’ve really gained some serious benefit from it you know and also I can see the improvement I've made from when I started to now I can do certain things in distance quicker than I could when I started
PJK: Do you set yourself little targets or do they come naturally ....

Interviewee 13: I do like to try...

PJK: You’re a salesman’s of course you like targets....

Interviewee 13: You’re right I do, but it’s only on a couple of pieces of equipment I do that and the key to it I find is engaging with the staff and then changing my program or getting advice and concentrating on getting the technique right with what I'm doing so I can get the most benefit out of it as opposed to just going in there and slogging. I’ll be quite honest with you Paula there are some times when I go in there and I go in there and I do my session I haven’t really pushed myself very hard but you get days like that you know but at least I come down there and go through it and burn calories which is great. The other side to it is I haven't really changed my eating habits per sa what I've done is cut out the comfort eating bit of it, although I still have a few chocolate biscuits...

PJK: We’re still human you know …

Interviewee 13: Yes you can't have a cup-of-tea at night without a chocolate biscuit but I don't have that so much I just changed slightly what I eat, generally I'm someone who can eat healthy food but also I'm not fussy eater if you shove food in front of me I’ll eat it. I’m not a fussy eater I've seen people in work and other places that are fussy and that's not me and again I think that comes back from being in the services because you've got two choices eat or not, you tended just eat whatever it was you just eat it, so that was some fine from that point of view, so yes I just changed it slightly so I don't eat quite so much I don't have so much of the comfort eating now which was the thing…

PJK: That’s a difficult cycle to break…

Interviewee 13: Yes, yeah it can be because I had got to stage ‘the sod-it stage’ you know and I’d think I’ll have, it but earlier when the children younger, particularly, it was the waste so you know you go to
McDonalds and stuff and you’ve forked out god knows how much for the food and they eat half of it and you know

PJK: And now it 5p for the bag as well...what sort of role does physical activity play in your life, have you encouraged your family to be active, do you come from an active family...

Interviewee 13: No were not an active family okay and I wasn’t part of an active family really pro se, because I’ve never been an outdoor sort of person I’ve always been an indoor person, so were not overly active obviously we've seen the great benefit this time and I’ve encouraged my wife to come down, I did get her on the GP referral she came down a week ago but she hasn't been since but that's a combination of things, she’s not particularly well at the moment she got a vertigo like, it’s not vertigo but it’s a vertigo like disease and we’re not quite sure what it is, so she's going through loads of different tests to try to find out what it is...

PJK: So if you were out and about with the family and perhaps other members of the family are inactive, there’re not adverse to it, but not inclined to be active and I asked you to try and persuade them to take that first step and come to the gym was sort of messages would you be giving them to say...

Interviewee 13: Well yes I think the great thing is, what makes it easy for me with regards to the family are two things really, my immediate family my wife's and my children is the benefit that they seen with me of losing 2 stone of the last couples and the fact that I'm definitely fitter and fitter than I was and they see me coming back from the gym, again I get little bit of ribbing but that they can see the benefits from it, so I don't really have to do a lot to convince them that it's something they should do. I’ve suggested to my daughter why don’t we come down and do a Zumba fitness or something she said I’m not go with you because all my friends do that, which is a shame because I’d really like to that and you know I do in a happy sort of teasing way, my son is in University in Swansea and he uses the gym and of course there is that father-son competition, so I mentioned to him last week about my rowing and managed to do 1200m in under five minutes which he

Physical Environment
Cost of Exercise
Social Value
Altruistic Value
Fun and Enjoyment
Value Concept
Benefits of Exercise
Quality of Service Exp

449
doesn't believe but I think really is hacked off about it

PJK: What because you can't do it…

Interviewee 13: Yes because he can do it, even though he's 19…

PJK: Technique on the rower is king…

Interviewee 13: I know, but I know he doesn't do,

PJK: He'll go hell for leather and you won't go as far as if you do the long strokes. Now given the amount of exercise that you do and obviously you're enthusiastic about exercise and so am I, are there any downside are there any things that about exercise you don't like yet you still come

Interviewee 13: Yes, again I think the key to it is engaging the staff and getting your program changed on a regular basis, because it's easy to come down do your training and go home and you’re not watched all the time you don't have to push yourself and I think the good thing in way my approach to it all is not to come and hammer myself completely every time I could do it and lose a lot more weight and get fit I understand that but what the end goal for that, I'm not a professional sportsman, I don't need to be at a peak level of fitness for any particular reason other than to have a good healthy life, so that's the way I look at it and there are some days that I'm really up for it and there are other days when I'm not and I think you just need to take it in that context I’m not a professional sportsman I come down here for the exercise it gets the blood pumping around the body and lose weight. I’m seem to have stalled on the weight lose I’m around about 16 1/2

PJK: That is to be expected…

Interviewee 13: And it waivers there and I'll gain a couple of pounds and I'll lose a couple of pounds, at the moment I still haven't beyond that, I'd love to get, my weight for my height should be 10 stones but I'd look like death warmed up at 10 stone, but if I could lose, it would be nice to lose another what five stone but how I'm going
to get that is beyond me at the moment but even if I could lose another couple of stone

PJK: You sound if you are becoming obsessional…

Interviewee 13: Almost yes but I think the key to it from me is to keep coming and exercise even if I don’t lose any more or I lose a stone in a year I’d still be happy with that and that’s to keep myself active, what I’m doing now as well Paula, I’m looking at people my age because next year it’s my birthday in a month and next year I’ll be 50, so you know I have to say that because I don’t believe it myself I don’t feel it you know and I’m reaching a stage in life now that rings are starting to go south, that’s right and things drop off memory and all the other bits. Funnily enough when I walk around town I look at people and say 10-15 years older than me and they got mobility scooter or they’ve got a walking stick and they are obese and no I don't want to be like that. Now another good example for me is my father-in-law when I very first started the GP referral a couple years ago and I talked him into doing it, he went cold turkey on cigarettes which is good he worked in Dolgellau I don't know whether you know it , he took to it like a duck to water really, I think because he worked in a quarry so he was physically active sort of guy and in that respect and it's good for him and he still comes down the gym now and that's to 3 years later, he’s 67 and maybe a year or so ago he ran a couple of half marathon so you know he’s really taken to it quite well, he comes down here and he does all right I’m mean he doesn't lose…he gain a little bit of weight when he finished work so…

PJK: Are you trying to future proof yourself…

Interviewee 13: Well yeah in a way, but I think you gain the benefit because the other little benefits of I’ve seen from it if the fact I’ve gained a little bit more flexibility now compare to when I started, the great thing is I can look when I started this and then I can look where I am now and it’s little things like stupid things like getting on to the rower now I used a bit of a problem because I’ve got tired handsprings anyway and I used to have a little bit of a problem getting into the straps but now it’s not a major issue I can get into
the easy and I find them a little bit more flexible which is nice and also I walk a bit quicker now.

PJK: What on the treadmill or off it …

Interviewee 13: Normally around town, I walk a bit quicker now and again the great thing for me is going through Broadlands were I've walking up the hill is a great gauge for me, I’m still a bit breathless when I get to the top there a gradual slope which is a bit of a killer but you know it's a lot easier for me now.

PJK: And that's how you’ve noticed that you've had a practical improvement.

Interviewee 13: Yes a practical improvement is important, I used to get home from walking up the hill get to the house and I’d be out of breath for a bit and a bit sweaty but now I'm fine also when I come to the gym I don't use the car so walked down and I walk back.

PJK: That a nice warm up and cool down.

Interviewee 13: Yeah it also gets me into the mental swing of it because there are mornings where I just think I'll give it a miss.

PJK: Oh I know we all get those particularly it’s so dark you both end of the day.

Interviewee 13: Yeah I know that is a bit of a thing but you've got keep it going and it is a little bit about self-discipline.

PJK: Now given that you do think about when you when you are going to come to train and we all a live busy life can I ask you to think about a day or time that you had planned to come to exercise and you couldn't, now what sort of things would occur that would stop you from come.

Interviewee 13: Well for me in my current circumstance it would be interviews etc..., but last week I only came twice and I was due to come last week and I had an interview and then my son rang me because his
car had broken down, so I was going to come last week because the
week was a bit skewed to me because I normally come Monday
Wednesday and Friday; this week now I can't do today because
there were other thing I had to do in town this morning, so what I'm
going to do it Tuesday Wednesday Friday which is great The great
thing about the referral gym is you've got the time scales that you
can do it I can't do Monday evenings but I'll be able to do tomorrow
morning and I could either do Wednesday morning or Wednesday
evening and then do the Friday you know throughout the week there
is enough time for me to schedule it so it's really too much of a
problem, although there are certain times have to stick to with that
as opposed to the coming down to the gym at anytime. Yeah so last
week I couldn't come down more than twice for various reasons and
circumstances I had to go and do what I needed to do but I don't
beat myself up about it, because that bad, I think if you start to do
that you really are getting into you are getting into obsessive
behaviour; yes I am enjoy coming here and doing the activities and I
know I'm keeping myself fit and fitter but at the end of the day it’s
not the be all and end all of my life it’s something I do, and I think
taking this forward I want to maintain it and carrying on and do it at
least 2 to 3 time a week if my circumstances allow and also with the
with the popularity of the equipment allows, because I know after
Christmas you won’t get in there for love or money

PJK: Well hopefully it will be busy…

Interviewee 13: Which is great for you but you know…

PJK: Well sometimes yes and no, because if there is a capacity to the
gym and you bring more in people in the top than we do also
experience quite a lot of people dropping at the bottom because of
those types of frustration, so it’s not always in our best interest to
sell sell sell our best interest is to retain, to sell high-value and retain
those high-value customers, unless of course we have the ability to
build another gym which just at the moment we don't

Interviewee 13: Well I know that the referral gym used to be, I used to work with
the council's, that the GP referral gym used to be a Bar
PJK: Yes it used to be

Interviewee 13: I know that I'd had a drink in there before

PJK: I think it’s a better use of it at the moment. I think the GP referral could easily fill the downstairs gym if we had somewhere else to put the other gym. Can I just ask you to think about when you do visit the centre, I would like to ask you describe what you consider to be a perfect visit and if we did everything right for you from front door in and out Reception all the way down in and out, what would that feel like for you, I accept that we may not deliver at the moment…

Interviewee 13: No, I’ll be honest I think you do, I find Reception staff are always quite friendly and approachable, there are times when they are a little bit busy and I understand that, I happen to be very easy-going person Paula so I’m very understood, I very rarely lose my temper, with anyone apart from my wife, for anything you know and I find staff are pretty helpful and you can sometimes a little chat with them. I do that and I walked round to the gym and the GP referral staff are great because you know them all by first name etc… and yeah you know I do the key card and I go and do what I need to do and the great thing is as well I can ask them if I need help for various bit of equipment and as I said to you early about getting the technique right, so I find every time I come it works out fine for me, friendly, helpful you know approachable and it’s just easy to do here and I don’t have any issues with any of the staff

PJK: Do you use the changing facilities here or do you come change and go home changed ….

Interviewee 13: No I come changed and then go home to change so I don’t actually have to use the changing facilities at the moment, I think that will change because all obviously the ultimate aim is to get back into some sort of employment I suppose!

PJK: Or win the lottery…
Interviewee 13: Yes or winning the lottery that would be ideal but with my luck I’d properly win the with £20 million lottery with me and 20 million others, so we’d get a pound each…!

PJK: At least you would get your stake back!

Interviewee 13: So at the moment it works out fine, but yes when I get back into work I will have to use the changing facilities…

PJK: If I were to give you the gift of being able to recommend to me one or two changes or improvements as to how you experience the Centre would there be anything you would recommend to me, so say look that focus on this, if you've got a few quid to do XYZ why don't you or have you thought of…

Interviewee 13: I’ll be honest I don't really think so because of the times I come, obviously because I can at the moment, which tends to be around about 10 o'clock midmorning it’s not too bad because it’s relatively quiet. I think you handled the summer period well when the kids were off I think you handled that quite well, you know the way that you do things you have a queue for swimming etc, although I think if you were looking at an improvement you could actually signpost that little bit better, I do remember waiting in the queue for swimming but one of the staff actually asked me whether I was going to the gym and just come round, so apart from that I think it works relatively well, I don't see there being no issues it’s be very easy and straightforward I come in, I show the card, I go to the gym and I stagger out an hour and a half later.

PJK: When you're exercising do you actually enjoy it…

Interviewee 13: Yes and no! Yes I enjoyed bits of it…

PJK: What bits would you say you enjoy as opposed to not enjoy…

Interviewee 13: I like to think I’ve done well, one of the things I do enjoy is I aim to try and beat my time on the rower, when I'm halfway through it I want to stop it to be quite honest and I’m out of breath which
isn’t too good but yeah it comes back to the key of speaking to staff and asking them to change it. I’m at the stage that I may need to speak to the staff because it’s getting a bit boring, there are parts of it that are, but I’m of a mind to come in and do this and there are parts of it that I do enjoy doing and there are parts of it which I don’t particularly enjoy doing. The bikes I do them but the trouble is that you a slip the back and fore on the seats they are such a pain in the backside, I’m not that keen on the bikes but I do it because I know I get benefit from it at the end of the day.

PJK: One of the things is that if you only do one exercise, for example just run, you only develop a certain number of muscles whereas actually you need to develop counter muscles as well, otherwise you go wobbly.

Interviewee 13: Yes I get good variety. I actually have two programs one that just concentrate on my leg and the other one that concentrates on the chest and back, so there is a variation between the two and they are similarities because there a certain bit of equipment like the running machines and bike that you do both, but I use all of the facilities within the GP referral gym I use the power plate, the weights, the cross trainer in the different programs…

PJK: So there is quite a bit of variety in their…

Interviewee 13: Yes yes.

PJK: One of the things the service is keen to provide for our customers is a service that they value and they value it so they want to come back, it is a welcoming environment and you want to come here, one of the difficulties we have is trying to understand what our customers understand value to be and what you consider to be valuable, so my closing question to you is can you describe something in your life that you consider to be valuable and what does value mean to you. We know what cleanliness is whether it is clean or dirty, we know what fixed or broken equipment is but if we are to provide a valuable service …
Interviewee 13: Well what is it that I value, what value more than anything else in life because I think that is what we are talking about is family above all, no matter what, it doesn't matter what I do in life I'm a dad and husband and that how identified with, so I think from my own a point of view dealing with life as I do in those terms I think what I value or his valuable from what you're giving hear is the opportunity to remain fit, the opportunity to elongate my life, because you gain the benefit from that, I've got all the other bits and pieces I’m articulate, I’m reasonably confident sort of guy and I have an outgoing personality and I'm an optimistic, the glass is always half full there is light at the end of the tunnel and we will come out of the recession and whenever that happens it happens. I think the great thing that this has done for me is just to help me improve my outlook, so I’ve improved my appearance but losing the weight etc and feeling better in myself but there probably a very good opportunities here because I have got very good doctors over in Riverside …

PJK: Over in the new surgery …

Interviewee 13: Yes, I’ve been there for 20 years and we’re going to review my medication and there is a good chance that I’m going to come off both, which is ideal and it’s just a question of me maintaining that and I think what I find is the value I get from coming here is obviously to my improved general fitness and the great thing is that staff are helpful and encouraging and are not sort of pushy to such an extent I think they hit the right sort of tone.

PJK: Given that your most recent motivation was through the GP, did you need that instruction from the doctor to say go to the gym because it doesn't appear through-out your life you don't didn't seem to have had a self motivation is important…

Interviewee 13: No what I think what it is is the encouragement, I've never been one for physical activity even as a youngster I've never really liked it, never really took to it at the school, it was the school that did it, the head of PE was Clive Shells an international rugby player a complete pain in the backside the other guy Peter Jones who I now know because he is the head teacher of my son’s
school and I get on really well with them, they were just the same back in the 70s, those awful days of cross-country runs and stuff there was no encouragement there, so from that point I never really liked physical exercise very much, but when I started to do this a couple years ago, I think I reached the realisation at that stage of my life whereby I knew you have to do a little bit of something to help yourself the first time I did it that's what change my appetite towards it, I didn't mind it so much, I didn't mind being out breath and the getting sweaty, at least now I can see real benefit from it, saying that I’d seen it when I was younger when I was I was watching some program on the TV and there was a thing about boxing, I must have been 14 or 15 and for some reason then I started for a couple of weeks I started to do 10 press-ups and sit-ups every night, and I got better at it and then I stopped. I though cricky I can't do this because get fit you the odd thing a teenage boy thinks about and I stopped. But again when I did my basic training with the Air Force I was 17 and you had to do a mile and a half run in under 12 minutes which I didn't do the first time, and the same situation as in school we had to do, so you just did and you got ran around and got ‘beasted’ is the phrase back then by the PTI and I remember I had to do an extra mile and a half run but on the second one I didn't think I was going any quicker but I actually did it in a much much quicker time and that realisation of the improvement was noted, but I never followed up after that you know because I didn't have too, so in some respects yes I needed to be pushed sometimes to do this sort of stuff but also more importantly you need to be encouraged, you need to come to the right environment and that's the key with the GP referral, you’re encouraged to do it and you go in there with a variety of people, there’s some of which who are 20 years older than me which is quite old now but they get stuck in and they do what they need to do and that's what I like about I’ve got the encouragement to do it and now what I want to do is just to continue it, as I said to you earlier I'm not coming at it from the viewpoint of what even like my father-in-law he ended up doing, he just want to give it a go and ended up running a marathon, I don't really want to do that I'm not interested in that I don’t like runner anyway. I just want to try maintain it to keep a general level of fitness so I’m in a position whereby I am
The goal of losing five stone if I do this for the next 5-6 years there’s a good possibility I’ll achieve that or at least get somewhere close to it which would be ideal you know. As I said 15 and 16 years from now I’m going to be 65 …

PJK: But that’s not game over, not these day we must be looking at 80-90 surely. I’m only halfway through my life …

Interviewee 13: Well yeah when I was younger someone who was 70 they were considered quite ancient but now my dad is 30 years older than me and he still finely he’s still going around, in fact I told him about the referral and was nagging him to do it, he lives in Porthcawl, and what he's done is next door has a little treadmill in their garage and he’s walking on that and he lost just a little bit of weight just by doing that and again I think when you are getting older you’re got to try a little bit more to keep your mobility going because it's easy to fall into, I can understand it because I’ve suffered from back pain about 10 years ago because I had a trapped nerve, and I can net never forget how old that made me feel and I remember thinking cricky is this what old age is going to be like and I think now I even see no it’s not going to be like that, you don't have too hammer on about the fitness thing…

PJK: It’s the new generation of pensioners who are quite sprightly…

Interviewee 13: Yeah, yeah quite sprightly, well there that guy who ran the marathon at 100 years old…he’s off his head!

PJK: Fantastic! On that note will conclude thank you very much.