

1 Running head: Influences on netball umpires' decision-making

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5 Decision-making of English Netball Superleague Umpires: Contextual and  
6 Dispositional Influences  
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22

## 23 **Abstract**

24 **Objectives.** The decisions made by officials have a direct bearing on the outcomes of  
25 competitive sport contests. In an exploratory study, we examine the interrelationships  
26 between the decisions made by elite netball umpires, the potential contextual and  
27 environmental influences (e.g., crowd size), and the umpires' dispositional tendencies –  
28 specifically, their propensity to deliberate and ruminate on their decisions.

29 **Design/Method.** Filmed footage from 60 England Netball Superleague matches was coded  
30 using performance analysis software. We measured the number of decisions made overall,  
31 and for home and away teams; league position; competition round; match quarter; and crowd  
32 size. Additionally, 10 umpires who officiated in the matches completed the Decision-Specific  
33 Reinvestment Scale (DSRS).

34 **Results.** Regression analyses predicted that as home teams' league position improved the  
35 number of decisions against away teams increased. A model comprising competition round  
36 and average league position of both teams predicted the number of decisions made in  
37 matches, but neither variable emerged as a significant predictor. The umpire analyses  
38 revealed that greater crowd size was associated with an increase in decisions against away  
39 teams. The Decision Rumination factor was strongly negatively related to the number of  
40 decisions in Quarters 1 and 3, this relationship was driven by fewer decisions against home  
41 teams by umpires who exhibited higher Rumination subscale scores.

42 **Conclusions.** These findings strengthen our understanding of contextual, environmental, and  
43 dispositional influences on umpires' decision-making behaviour. The tendency to ruminate  
44 upon decisions may explain the changes in decision behaviour in relation to the home team  
45 advantage effect.

46 **Key Words:** avoidance; reinvestment; rumination; referee; bias; pressure.

## 47 **Introduction**

48 In competitive sports, officials are required to make rapid and complex decisions,  
49 often in a highly pressured environment (Helsen & Bultynck, 2004). Moreover, their  
50 decisions often directly affect the outcome of competitions (Plessner & MacMahon, 2013).  
51 For example, during the final minutes of the 2015 Rugby World Cup quarter-final between  
52 Scotland and Australia, referee, Craig Joubert, decided to award a controversial penalty to  
53 Australia for a deliberate knock-on, resulting in a 35-34 victory for Australia, which enabled  
54 them to progress to the semi-final of the competition. Such decisions invariably attract  
55 negative evaluations by aggrieved players, coaches, spectators and the media, so the  
56 importance of consistent and impartial officiating is unquestionable (Stulp, Buunk, Verhulst,  
57 & Pollet, 2012).

58 Decision-making can be influenced by a variety of factors (MacMahon et al., 2015),  
59 such as home advantage and crowd noise (e.g., crowd noise contribution to the home  
60 advantage effect, Nevill, Hemingway, Greaves, Dallaway, & Devonport, 2016; Unkelbach &  
61 Memmert, 2010), competition level (Souchon, Cabagno, Tractlet, Trouilloud, & Maio, 2009;  
62 Souchon et al., 2016), reputation (e.g., expectation bias in gymnastics, Plessner, 1999) and  
63 time (e.g., decision accuracy and frequency throughout games, Emmonds et al., 2015; Mallo,  
64 Frutos, Juárez, & Navarro, 2012). In the current paper, we employ an exploratory approach  
65 to examine the decisions made by netball umpires and the influences of contextual and  
66 environmental factors on the number of decisions made. Moreover, we investigate umpires'  
67 self-reported tendency to reinvest in, and ruminate upon, their decisions.

68 Many researchers have focused upon the home advantage in sports – a phenomenon  
69 whereby there is an apparent advantage conferred to the home team. Four major determinants  
70 have been suggested to cause the home advantage effect namely, familiarity, territoriality,

71 travel fatigue, and crowd noise (Pollard, 2008). It has been suggested that home advantage  
72 fluctuates throughout the game. For example, in basketball, Jones (2007) demonstrated that  
73 the home advantage (difference in points scored by the home and away teams) was greatest in  
74 the first quarter. In volleyball, home teams had a greater advantage at the beginning (1<sup>st</sup> set)  
75 and towards the end of the game (4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> sets); this effect has been attributed to familiarity  
76 with the venues and crowd effects (Marcelino, Mesquita, Palao, & Sampaio, 2009). In  
77 relation to the referee's influence on the home advantage, Boyko, Boyko, and Boyko (2007)  
78 examined data from 5,244 English Premier League soccer matches involving 50 referees.  
79 They found that referees differed in their susceptibility to the home advantage effect;  
80 hypothesising this was due to variations in the referees' ability to deal with social pressure.  
81 However, Johnston (2008) replicated Boyko et al.'s (2007) approach and found no evidence  
82 of such individual differences when removing referees who only officiated a few matches. To  
83 investigate this discrepancy further, Page and Page (2010) analysed footage from 37,830  
84 national and international soccer matches across 58 competitions, between 1994 and 2007.  
85 Their analyses showed that not only did the size of the home advantage differ significantly  
86 between referees, but also, in line with Boyko et al. (2007), their decisions were moderated  
87 by crowd size – lending support to the notion that referees cope differently with the social  
88 pressure exerted by home crowds.

89         Using a video-based protocol, Nevill, Balmer, and Williams (2002) manipulated  
90 crowd noise presence (“loud” or none) and found that soccer referees made more decisions in  
91 favour of the home team, and in line with the original match referee. Unkelbach and  
92 Memmert (2010) identified the inherent limitation of testing crowd noise (“natural  
93 conditions”) versus no crowd noise (“unnatural conditions”). The authors highlighted that  
94 Nevill et al's (2002) findings merely indicate that home crowd noise biases decisions

95 compared to no crowd noise, rather than crowd noise influencing referee decisions in favour  
96 of the home team. Subsequently, Unkelbach and Memmert (2010) tested the hypothesis that  
97 louder crowd noise would lead to more yellow cards awarded compared to low crowd noise.  
98 Twenty referees viewed 56 foul scenes, in which 50% led to the award of a yellow card and  
99 50% did not. The high-volume crowd noise led to substantially more yellow cards than low-  
100 volume crowd noise. Further evidence in soccer indicates that home teams were awarded  
101 more penalties (e.g., Nevill, Newell, & Gale, 1996; Scoppa, 2008; Sutter & Kocher, 2004),  
102 and fewer yellow and red cards (Buraimo, Forrest, & Simmons, 2010) with the size of the  
103 attending crowd moderating these effects (Boyko et al., 2007).

104         The mediating effect of competition level has received scant attention, whilst stage of  
105 competition (e.g., Round 1, playoffs, finals, etc.) has yet to be investigated. Souchon et al.  
106 (2009) proposed that the level of competition is a stereotyping heuristic used by referees to  
107 form their decisions, interpreting fouls differently according to their preconceptions regarding  
108 the standard of play. Souchon et al. (2009) investigated this notion in handball (e.g., lower  
109 versus higher standard), predicting the level of competition effects would be greater for more  
110 difficult, ambiguous handball transgressions (“pushing offences”, opposed to clearer “holding  
111 back” offences) and anticipating that referees would be more lenient in higher-standard  
112 competition. They reported that referees intervened less frequently at higher levels of  
113 competition and allowed play to continue without intervention more frequently following  
114 more ambiguous transgressions (pushing offences compared to holding offences). Similarly,  
115 Souchon et al. (2016) observed that referees intervened less often when higher- level players  
116 transgressed. The authors suggested that a reduction in decisions made may be the  
117 culmination of a number of factors: referees trying to maintain the flow of a match; referees  
118 making fewer calls to maintain the game’s value as a spectacle (e.g., Mascarenhas, O’Hare, &

119 Plessner, 2006); that a greater number of fouls may be more ambiguous in high-level  
120 competition, due to the high speed of play; that greater levels of player aggressiveness may  
121 make it more difficult to identify transgressions; or that referees may assume that certain  
122 players can continue their actions despite the seriousness of the foul committed (e.g., gender  
123 stereotype and males superior physical ability, Souchon et al., 2010). In this study, we aim to  
124 examine potential changes in the number of decisions made across progressive competition  
125 rounds (perceived match importance arguably increases as the rounds progress).

126         Few researchers have focused on the effect of the competing teams' abilities on sports  
127 officials' judgements. However, Plessner (1999) examined the idea of an expectation bias in  
128 team gymnastics, where gymnasts normally perform in a ranked order, worst to best. Plessner  
129 predicted that when the same routines, placed in either first or fifth position, will score higher  
130 when the judges view them in the latter position. Forty-eight gymnastic judges, with prior  
131 expectations of coaches' rank order of the gymnasts, judged videotapes of a men's team  
132 competition. Their results supported the notion of an *ability expectation bias*, whereby, for  
133 difficult tasks (e.g., pommel horse, vault, and horizontal bar) the judges awarded greater  
134 scores when the target routines were presented fifth than if they were presented first. Findlay  
135 and Ste-Marie (2004) explored athlete reputation bias in figure skating judgments. Twelve  
136 judges evaluated performance of 14 skaters, half of whom were known to the judges. The  
137 performance of skaters with a pre-existing positive reputation were scored more highly than  
138 those of the unknown skaters. It is possible that similar unconscious biases relating to  
139 perceived athlete ability may also exist in team sports; hence, we also took the competing  
140 teams' pre-eminence (i.e., their league position) into account in this study.

141         To date, a limited body of research has investigated the effect of the match period on  
142 sports officials' decision-making. Mallo et al. (2012) assessed the soccer referees' decision

143 quality and quantity in relation to match periods. Mallo et al. reported that a greater number  
144 of incidents occurred in the last 15- minute period of matches – but the lowest referee  
145 decision accuracy (77%) was also observed during this period. They suggested that physical  
146 and mental fatigue occurs during the final stages of a match leading to impaired decision-  
147 making. Similarly, Emmonds et al. (2015) found a drop in penalty judgement accuracy in  
148 rugby league referees in the last 10 minutes of matches. Conversely, Mascarenhas, Button,  
149 O’Hare and Dicks (2009) reported that soccer referees were less accurate in the opening 15  
150 minutes of each half than they were at any other period. They attributed poorer decision-  
151 making to warm up decrements, whereby their physical warm-up was not accompanied by a  
152 mental warm up techniques. Finally, Elsworthy, Burke and Dascombe (2014) investigated  
153 decision-making demands of Australian Football referees, and reported that the number of  
154 free kicks awarded and free kick accuracy did not differ across each quarter of the match.  
155 Accordingly, in the present study, we analysed differences in the number of decisions made  
156 by netball umpires across each of the four match quarters.

157         Published reports using qualitative methods have identified several sources of  
158 pressure and anxiety for sports officials (such as game importance, Hill, Matthews, & Senior,  
159 2016; time, Morris & O’Connor, 2016; social pressure, Schnyder & Hossner, 2016). Morris  
160 and O’Connor (2016) found that National Rugby League (NRL) referees identified the time  
161 during a match as an influence on their game management strategies and decision-making  
162 ability. For example, one referee stated “certain decisions can have a greater impact at  
163 different stages in a game which can increase media scrutiny” (Morris & O’Connor, 2016,  
164 p.854). Schnyder and Hossner (2016) interviewed high-level soccer referees regarding  
165 decision-making and the difficulties they face. Several of the referees identified social  
166 pressures, including pressure from the media, teams, football associations and even

167 themselves. Hill, Matthews, and Senior (2016) interviewed seven expert rugby referees and  
168 noted that avoidance coping behaviours were regularly employed to deal with multiple  
169 stressors that influence their performance including: unfamiliarity (e.g., new situations);  
170 performance errors (e.g., mistakes that ‘harm’ players, coaches and own career prospects);  
171 interpersonal conflict (e.g., manging player hostility); game importance (e.g., when the match  
172 outcome held significant consequence for players such as a final, or for themselves such as  
173 games close to renewal of contracts) and self-presentational concerns (e.g., fear of negative  
174 evaluation by selectors, avoiding criticism that could damage their confidence and  
175 reputation). The avoidance behaviours manifested themselves as denial after performance  
176 errors, rushing or withdrawal during the game, and a lack of preparation leading into games.  
177 Similarly, overt and maladaptive changes in behaviour under anxiogenic conditions have  
178 been observed in soccer (Jordet & Hartman, 2008) in climbing (Nieuwenhuys, Pijpers,  
179 Oudejans, & Bakker, 2008), dart throwing (Nibbeling, Oudejans, & Daanen, 2012), golf  
180 (Hill, Hanton, Matthews, & Fleming, 2010), and police arrest procedures (Renden et al.,  
181 2014).

182           Decision avoidance has been described as “a tendency to avoid making a choice, by  
183 postponing it or by seeking an easy way out that involves no action or no change” (Anderson,  
184 2003, p. 139). Selection difficulty has been identified as a major contributor to decision  
185 avoidance including factors such as: reasoning; preference uncertainty; attractiveness of  
186 options; attentional focus; time limitation; negative emotion (associated with blame and  
187 regret); and conflict type (Anderson, 2003). Researchers have shown that decision averseness  
188 occurs when situations have inequitable outcomes for others – particularly when the decision  
189 maker is held accountable (Beattie, Baron, Hershey, & Spranca, 1994); and the likelihood of  
190 negative outcomes also increases negative emotions associated with such decisions (Luce,



191 Bettman, & Payne, 1997). In this study, we explored the notion that withdrawal of decisions  
192 (fewer decisions made) may be an example of decision avoidance behaviour.

193         Several theories have been proposed to explain performance decrements under  
194 pressure. A prominent example is Reinvestment Theory (Masters, 1992). Reinvestment is  
195 defined as the “propensity for manipulation of conscious, explicit rule based knowledge, by  
196 working memory, to control the mechanics of one’s movements during motor output”  
197 (Masters & Maxwell, 2004, p.208). Consequently, the use of explicit knowledge to  
198 consciously control normally automatic movements typically results in performance  
199 decrements or outright failure. Researchers have demonstrated that, when performing well-  
200 learnt motor skills or complex cognitive tasks, individuals who have a strong tendency to  
201 reinvest (as measured by the Reinvestment Scale, Masters et al., 1993) (as measured by the  
202 Reinvestment Scale) are more susceptible to poor performance under pressure (Jackson,  
203 Kinrade, Hicks, & Wills, 2013; Kinrade, Jackson, & Ashford, 2010).

204         To address potentially differential effects of reinvestment on motor skill execution  
205 and decision-making, Kinrade, Jackson, Ashford and Bishop (2010) modified the original  
206 scale to create a decision-specific version focusing on individuals’ propensity to deliberate,  
207 and ruminate, on their decisions – the Decision-Specific Reinvestment Scale (DSRS).  
208 Kinrade et al. (2010) proposed two explanations for the breakdown of decision-making under  
209 pressure. First, that conscious processing of explicit information results in poor decision-  
210 making, by interfering with normal automatic processes (Decision Reinvestment; e.g., “I’m  
211 aware of the way my mind works when I make a decision”). Secondly, ruminative thoughts  
212 (e.g., over past poor decisions) lead to poor decision-making by drawing processing resources  
213 away from the task at hand (Decision Rumination; e.g., “I remember poor decisions I make  
214 for a long time afterwards”). Kinrade et al., (2010) described rumination as a thought process

215 that typically involves repetitive negative thoughts about past events or current mood states.  
216 Higher decision reinvesters and ruminators tend to exhibit poorer working memory task  
217 performance, (Laborde, Furley, & Schempp, 2015) and poorer decision-making performance  
218 in complex tasks (Kinrade, Jackson, & Ashford, 2015). Kinrade et al., (2015) suggested that  
219 ruminative thoughts may occupy working memory capacity at a time when executive  
220 functions are already in great demand to complete the primary task. Poolton, Sui and Masters  
221 (2011) used the DSRS to examine soccer referees' susceptibility to the home advantage  
222 effect. Twenty-eight experienced referees were asked to make decisions when viewing game  
223 footage of two opposing players competing for the ball, by stating which player committed  
224 the foul. Referees that emerged as 'high decision ruminators' disproportionately made  
225 decisions in favour of the home team. We aim to explore this link further in the present study,  
226 in the context of netball officiating.

227         In order to more fully understand contextual and dispositional influences on the  
228 decision-making of netball umpires, we used performance analysis to examine decisions  
229 made by umpires during matches in the England Netball Superleague – the highest echelon of  
230 competitive netball in the UK. We explored not only environmental and contextual influences  
231 such as crowd size, but also the umpires' self-reported tendency to reinvest in, and ruminate  
232 upon, their decisions. The number of decisions made provided an overt manifestation of the  
233 observed umpires' behaviour, a technique previously used to categorise observational data  
234 into approach- and avoidance-type behaviours (Jordet & Hartman, 2008). In accordance with  
235 previous research (Anderson, 2003; Hill et al., 2016; Jordet & Hartman, 2008; Nevill et al.,  
236 2002; Poolton et al., 2011; Souchon et al., 2016), we tentatively hypothesised that umpires'  
237 decision frequency would be mediated by environmental/ contextual influences such as home  
238 team status, crowd size, match prominence, league position, and time during the match. More

239 explicitly, we predicted that, home teams in the presence of larger crowds, greater match  
240 significance, more prominent teams, and early match quarters would each be associated with  
241 lower decision frequencies (i.e., avoidance behaviour). We also predicted that a tendency to  
242 reinvest and ruminate would be associated with inhibited decision-making.

## 243 **Method**

### 244 **Participants**

245 Altogether, 15 umpires officiated in the Superleague during the 2014 season,  
246 umpiring approximately eight matches each ( $M = 8.067$ ,  $SD = 3.77$ ). From this original  
247 sample 10 umpires ( $M$  age = 39.6 yrs,  $SD = 9.38$  yrs) with a mean total years' experience of  
248 14.5 years ( $M = 14.5$  yrs,  $SD = 7.66$  yrs), qualified at international (International Umpire  
249 Award) or national level (A-award), completed the DSRS. On average, they officiated almost  
250 nine matches each throughout the season ( $M = 8.80$ ,  $SD = 2.859$ ).

### 251 **Measures**

252 **Data Acquisition.** Video footage from sixty Netball Superleague 2014 season  
253 matches was obtained. Crowd size (number of people present in the crowd) data were  
254 collected from the individual teams for their home fixtures and from England Netball for all  
255 'neutral' venues (i.e., those for which there was no home team). League table data for each  
256 round were obtained from England Netball. Approval was obtained from the lead institution's  
257 local ethics committee.

258 **Variables.** All coded variables were derived from discussions with a panel of experts  
259 (an England Netball Officiating Manager, a retired international umpire and assessor, a  
260 current national level umpire and tutor) and in accordance with variables previously shown to  
261 be pertinent with regard to sports officials' decision-making (e.g., match importance, Hill et  
262 al., 2016; Decision Rumination and the home advantage effect, Poolton et al., 2011). The

263 primary dependent variable was the number of observable decisions made (NoD), split into  
264 three subcategories: overall; those against the home team; and those against the away team.  
265 Other coded variables included: infringement type (*contact, obstruction, offside, breaking,*  
266 *out of court, and other infringement*); and sanctions imposed (*penalty pass, advantage, throw*  
267 *in, advantage goal, other sanction*). Additionally, we recorded six variables that were  
268 hypothesised to have a potential influence on umpires' decision-making: crowd size;  
269 competition round number (e.g., 1 = 1<sup>st</sup> round); league positions (of home teams, of away  
270 teams, and average; 1 = top of the league); and match quarter (e.g., Q1 = 1<sup>st</sup> quarter).

271 **Decision Specific Reinvestment Scale.** Altogether, 10 umpires completed the  
272 Decision-Specific Reinvestment Scale (DSRS, Kinrade et al., 2010), a 13-item scale,  
273 comprising two subscales (Decision Reinvestment and Decision Rumination). Participants  
274 responded to each of the 13 items using a 5-point Likert scale anchored by 0 ("extremely  
275 uncharacteristic") and 4 ("extremely characteristic"). The Decision Reinvestment subscale  
276 comprises 6 items, assessing the individual's propensity to consciously monitor their  
277 decision-making processes, with scores ranging from 0 to 24. The Decision Rumination  
278 subscale comprises 7 items, assessing tendency to negatively evaluate previous poor  
279 decisions, with scores ranging from 0 to 28. Kinrade et al. (2010) reported an internal  
280 consistency of .89 for the Decision Reinvestment subscale items and .91 for the Decision  
281 Rumination subscale items.

## 282 **Procedure**

283 The matches were analysed using digital performance analysis software (Sportscode  
284 Elite Version 9, Sportstec, Australia). A self-devised code window was designed to collect  
285 the number of observable decisions, based on arm signals and vocalisations made by the  
286 umpires during the matches. Observable decisions were infringements that were registered

287 and acted upon by the official by either a whistle blow or signalling advantage (this did not  
288 include time calls e.g., injury, blood). Also, umpires can decide not to interfere with play  
289 (Helsen & Bultynck, 2004) and these non-observable decisions were not recorded. Situations  
290 in which decisions were unclear were coded separately (accounting for 1.4% of total  
291 decisions made). Two researchers independently coded all the footage; intraclass correlation  
292 coefficients were used to test for inter and intra-observer reliability (ICC >.90 for all).

### 293 **Data Analyses**

294 Preliminary screening of all data, using univariate z-scores ( $> \pm 3.29$ ) and multivariate  
295 Mahalanobis distance values revealed one outlier from both the match and umpire data set  
296 which were removed. The data were normally distributed.

297 A repeated-measures ANOVA was completed to compare differences in the NoD  
298 made across quarters. The relationships between contextual/ environmental influences,  
299 dispositional tendencies, and decision-making were examined using two different analyses:  
300 one in which matches were treated as cases ( $n = 59$ ), and another in which umpires were  
301 cases ( $n = 15$  [all umpires] or  $n = 10$  [DSRS completer's only, accounting for 72% of all  
302 matches,  $n = 42$ ]). Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient was calculated for all  
303 bivariate combinations of the following variables in the match analyses: NoD; per match and  
304 per quarter; overall, in favour of home teams and in favour of away teams; crowd size;  
305 competitive round number; and home, and away team league positions, and their average. For  
306 the umpire analyses, bivariate correlations included total years of experience, Reinvestment,  
307 Rumination and number of games umpired. For the match-level analysis, all variables that  
308 were significantly related to NoD were entered as predictors into two stepwise multiple  
309 regression analyses and one linear regression, in which backward elimination was used in  
310 order to find a model that best explained the data. NoD, NoD Away, and NoD Home were

311 the criterion measures for each of the three models. Alpha was set at .05 for all statistical  
 312 tests. Due to the exploratory nature of the study, and accordingly tentative but directional  
 313 nature of the hypotheses, we made no correction for multiple comparisons.

## 314 **Results**

### 315 **Descriptive statistics**

316 The descriptive statistics are presented in Table 1. On average, umpires made 120  
 317 observable decisions per game ( $M = 120.41$ ,  $SE = 4.07$ ). A repeated-measures ANOVA  
 318 indicated that more decisions were made in the first quarter ( $M = 33.02$ ,  $SE = 1.14$ ) than in  
 319 the third ( $M = 29.63$ ,  $SE = 1.16$ ) and fourth ( $M = 27.72$ ,  $SE = 1.61$ ) quarters, ( $F(3, 39) =$   
 320  $4.811$ ,  $p = .006$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .270$ ). The most common infringement type was contact ( $M = 45.69$ ,  $SE$   
 321  $= 1.04$ ), and the most frequently awarded sanction was a penalty ( $M = 48.77$ ,  $SE = 1.37$ ).  
 322 Descriptive statistics revealed that DSRS scores ranged from 15 to 35 (DSRS Global  $M =$   
 323  $25.50$ ,  $SD = 6.67$ ), and Reinvestment subscale score from 7 to 16 (Reinvestment  $M = 12.8$ ,  
 324  $SD = 2.82$ ), and Rumination subscale score from 4 to 20 (Rumination  $M = 12.7$ ,  $SD = 5.42$ ).

### 325 **Match-level Analysis**

326 **Total NoD.** All match-level bivariate correlations are presented in Table 2. NoD  
 327 decreased as the average league position of the two teams increased ( $r = -.269$ ,  $p = .040$ ); that  
 328 is, the higher the positions of the two teams, the greater the NoD. Similarly, the higher the  
 329 home team league position (NB: top position in the league = 1), the greater the NoD ( $r = -$   
 330  $.259$ ,  $p = .047$ ). As the teams progressed through the competition rounds, NoD increased ( $r =$   
 331  $.266$ ,  $p = .042$ ). A backward stepwise regression was completed to identify the best predictors  
 332 for NoD (variables entered: average league position, round, and home league position). The  
 333 model that best predicted NoD included round and average team position ( $F(2, 58) = 3.919$ ,  
 334  $p = .026$ ,  $R^2_{Adjusted} = .091$ ), although, when considered individually, neither predictor

335 contributed significantly; they only approached significance (round  $p = .078$ , average team  
336 position  $p = .074$ ) (see Table 3).

337 **NoD Home.** NoD Home increased with the away team's league position ( $r = -.340$ ,  $p$   
338  $= .008$ ). A linear regression indicated that away league position was a significant predictor of  
339 NoD (Home) ( $F(1, 54) = 6.255$ ,  $p = .016$ ,  $R^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .089$ ) (see Table 3).

340 **NoD Away.** NoD Away increased as home teams' positions improved ( $r = -.424$ ,  $p =$   
341  $.001$ ). As away teams progressed through rounds ( $r = .344$ ,  $p = .008$ ) or played in front of  
342 larger crowds ( $r = .312$ ,  $p = .023$ ) the NoD against them increased. A multiple regression was  
343 run to identify the best predictors for NoD Away (variables entered crowd size, round, and  
344 home league position) using the backward method. After the exclusion of crowd size and  
345 round, home team league position was shown to best predict NoD Away ( $F(1, 48) = 7.940$ ,  $p$   
346  $= .007$ ,  $R^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .126$ ). (See Table 3).

#### 347 **Umpire Level Analysis**

348 **Total NoD.** The total number of match decisions was not significantly correlated with  
349 any of the influences. As the average league position improved the number of decisions were  
350 greater ( $r = -.573$ ,  $p = .032$ ).

351 **NoD Home.** NoD Home increased as the competition progressed (i.e. later rounds,  $r =$   
352  $-.618$ ,  $p = .018$ ) and the away team's league position became more prominent ( $r = -.603$ ,  $p =$   
353  $.022$ ).

354 **NoD Away.** As crowd size increased so did the NoD Away ( $r = .560$ ,  $p = .037$ ) (see  
355 Table 4).

356 **DSRS.** The correlations completed with the DSRS subscales include only the data  
357 from the ten umpires who completed the scale. The Rumination subscale score was  
358 significantly negatively associated with NoD Q1 ( $r = -.795$ ,  $p = .006$ ), NoD Q3 ( $r = -.709$ ,  $p$

359 = .022), NoD Home Q1 ( $r = -.717, p = .020$ ) and NoD Home Q3 decisions ( $r = -.660, p =$   
 360  $.038$ ); that is, higher Rumination subscale scores were associated with fewer decisions.

361 Reinvestment subscale scores were not significantly correlated with any NoD variables.

362 Table 1. *Descriptive statistics-by umpire*

Variable	Mean	Std Error	Range
Total number of decisions (NoD)	120.41	4.07	98.54 - 158.03
Q1	33.02	1.14	26.71 - 40.38
Q2	30.04	1.43	20.72 - 46.00
Q3	29.63	1.16	23.67 - 38.13
Q4	27.72	1.61	15.00 - 42.50
Decisions against home team (NoD Home)	59.74	1.80	43.00 - 68.57
Q1	17.80	1.19	12.14 - 27.17
Q2	13.74	0.82	8.83 - 18.42
Q3	15.04	1.16	10.00 - 23.50
Q4	13.17	1.06	5.00 - 18.56
Decisions against away team (NoD Away)	60.31	2.96	45.27 - 90.83
Q1	15.18	.784	9.33 - 22.00
Q2	16.38	1.87	7.09 - 37.16
Q3	14.39	.684	9.33 - 18.14
Q4	14.36	1.758	7.64 - 35.00
Neutral venue team match decisions	68.05	2.87	60.5 - 73
Simultaneous Match decisions	0.13	0.07	0 - 0.33
Infringements			
Contact	45.69	1.04	39-52.3
Obstruction	39.83	3.07	19-63.8
Offside	6.68	0.48	4.11-10.2
Breaking	6.21	0.62	2.2-10
Out	17.29	0.70	13.7-24
Other Infringement (n = 11)	6.07	0.41	2.56-8.44
Sanctions			
Penalty	48.77	1.37	39-61.2
Free	8.43	0.37	6.30-11.60
Advantage	35.48	2.81	21.33-62.8
Advantage Goal	9.02	0.83	3.00-16.13
Throw in	17.27	0.71	13.4-24.00
Other Penalty (n = 6)	1.43	0.34	0-4.5.00

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364 *Note.* Neutral venue team match decisions refer to the average number of decisions  
 365 against teams at neutral grounds (n = 2, final and 3<sup>rd</sup>/4<sup>th</sup> play off matches). Simultaneous



366 match decisions refer to the number of decisions whereby no clear sanction could be awarded  
367 against a specific team, and results in a toss-up.

368 Table 2.

369 *Correlational Analysis – by Match (n = 59)*

	Total NoD					NoD (Home)					NoD (Away)				
	Match	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Match	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Match	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
Round Number	.266*	.188	.173	.279*	.191	.042	.046	.045	.064	-.048	.344**	.220	.170	.276*	.256
Home League Position	-.258*	-.152	-.233	-.211	-.231	.069	-.027	.171	-.060	.129	-.424**	-.188	-.413**	-.200	-.362**
Away League Position	-.063	-.215	.069	-.116	.116	-.340**	-.285*	-.232	-.258*	-.147	.186	-.043	.266*	.052	.244
Average Team Position	-.269*	-.305*	-.139	-.273*	-.098	-.223	-.258*	-.048	-.263*	-.013	-.203	-.193	-.128	-.126	-.104
Crowd Size	.236	.205	.171	.194	.170	.025	.128	-.160	.174	-.118	.312*	.167	.337*	.099	.286*

370 Note. Q= Quarter. \*p&lt;.05, \*\* p&lt;.01.

371 Table 3.

372 *Multiple and Linear Regression Data*

		b	SEB	$\beta$	p
<b>NoD</b>					
Step 1	Constant	255.360	21.205		.000
	Average League Position	-5.160	4.685	-.175	.276
	Home League Position	-1.724	2.850	-.098	.548
	Round	1.974	1.213	.212	.109
$R^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .081, \Delta R^2 = .129$					
Step 2	Constant	253.939	20.955		.000
	Average League Position	-6.840	3.752	-.231	.074
	Round	2.122	1.181	.228	.078
$R^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .091, \Delta R^2 = -.006$					
<b>NoD Home</b>					
	Constant	135.102	6.641		.000
	Away League Position	-3.299	1.319	-.325	.016
$R^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .089, \Delta R^2 = .106$					
<b>NoD Away</b>					
Step 1	Constant	116.949	27.269		.000
	Crowd Size	.013	.027	.085	.642
	Home League Position	-3.711	2.289	-.297	.112
	Round	1.399	.971	.195	.156
$R^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .186, \Delta R^2 = .186$					
Step 2	Constant	128.369	12.000		.000
	Home League Position	-4.430	1.679	-.355	.011
	Round	1.396	.962	.195	.154
$R^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .182, \Delta R^2 = -.004$					
Step 3	Constant	140.132	8.950		.000
	Home League Position	-4.746	1.684	-.380	.007
$R^2_{\text{Adjusted}} = .126, \Delta R^2 = -.037$					

374 Table 4.

375 *Umpire data set correlations*

	Total NoD					NoD (Home)					NoD (Away)				
	Match	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Match	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Match	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
Years Exp	-.099	-.044	-.096	-.129	-.172	-.048	-.284	.390	-.304	.461	-.222	.107	-.198	.177	-.254
Number umpired	-.128	-.094	-.383	-.170	.207	.230	-.392	.564*	-.218	.633*	-.363	.625*	-.602*	.177	-.318
Reinvestment	-.221	-.088	-.252	-.124	-.218	-.081	-.346	.474	-.204	.288	-.318	.549	-.397	.061	-.313
Rumination	-.586	-.795**	-.361	-.709*	-.334	-.550	-.717*	.567	-.660*	.621	-.584	.179	-.505	.032	-.530
Crowd Size	.346	.383	.443	.202	.104	-.094	.298	-.409	.263	-.467	.560*	.100	.492	.020	.367
Round	-.152	-.095	.185	-.102	-.441	-.618*	-.101	-.281	-.209	-.488	.201	-.112	.346	.078	-.010
League Position	-.406	-.254	-.330	-.573*	-.151	-.255	-.321	.149	-.399	.250	-.324	.248	-.291	-.102	-.306
Home League Position	.136	.140	-.015	-.146	.410	.458	-.012	.375	-.004	.503	-.064	.299	-.202	-.096	.011
Away League Position	-.209	-.183	.092	-.399	-.225	-.603*	-.051	-.420	-.226	-.393	.164	-.125	.309	-.174	.070

376 Note. Q= Quarter. \*p&lt;.05, \*\* p&lt;.01

## Discussion

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In an exploratory study, we examined the influence of contextual and dispositional differences on decision-making of umpires in actual match settings. We hypothesised, based on existing literature, that environmental and contextual influences (i.e., larger crowds, more prominent teams, greater match significance, and early quarters) would be associated with lower decision frequencies. Furthermore, we predicted that inhibited decision-making would be associated with a dispositional tendency to reinvest and ruminate. In line with our hypotheses, match prominence and league position were associated with a reduction in the number of decisions. The Decision Rumination factor was linked with inhibited decision making; but contrary to our hypothesis, the Reinvestment factor was unrelated. In contrast to our hypotheses, increasing crowd size was associated with a greater number of decisions, particularly against away teams; and the number of decisions diminished throughout a match.

Our data indicated that more decisions were made in Q1 (33 decisions) than in Q3 (29 decisions) and Q4 (27 decisions), incongruent to our hypothesis and the findings by Mallo et al. (2012) and Elsworth et al. (2014). These differences could be related to physical fitness and fatigue of umpires; for example, Paget (2015) found that the distance covered by netball umpires was significantly reduced in the fourth quarter. It is possible that, if umpires are physically fatigued and not covering the same distances as they did in the early stages of a match, the fewer decisions later in the game could be those missed or avoided as a result of incorrect positioning. Multiple researchers have highlighted the link between position (distance and angle) of soccer referees and decision performance (e.g., Gilis, Helsen, Catteeuw, & Wagemans, 2008; Mallo et al., 2012; Oudejans et al., 2000; Oudejans et al., 2005). For example, Mallo et al. (2012) demonstrated referees had a lower number of incorrect decisions when the referees were positioned in the central area of the field.

401 Research in medical and military settings has shown that fatigue and physical exertion have a  
402 detrimental effect on decision-making (e.g., Kovacs & Croskerry, 1999; Larsen, 2001).  
403 However, in sport contexts, decision-making performance was shown to be unaffected by  
404 physical exertion in Australian football umpires (Elsworthy, Burke, Scott, Stevens, &  
405 Dascombe, 2014; Paradis, Larkin, & O'Connor, 2015), fatigue in English Premier League  
406 assistant referees (Catteeuw, Gilis, Wagemans, & Helsen, 2010) or physical performance of  
407 New Zealand Football Championship referees (Mascarenhas et al., 2009). Thus, it is possible  
408 the change in the number of decisions is in response to the reducing work rate of the players  
409 or level of performance. For example, Weston and colleagues (Weston, Bird, Helsen, Nevill,  
410 & Castagna, 2006; Weston et al., 2012) found that soccer referees and players high intensity  
411 running distance, ball travel, and total distance covered were correlated. However, further  
412 research is required to understand the link between player and referee physical performances  
413 and their impact on referee decision-making.

414 As suggested by Poolton et al (2011), higher Rumination subscale scores, and not  
415 Reinvestment scores, were strongly associated ( $r > .7$ ) with fewer decisions in Q1 and Q3.  
416 Notably, higher ruminators made fewer decisions against home teams during those quarters.  
417 Burke, Joyner, Pim, and Czech (2000) demonstrated that basketball officials' cognitive  
418 anxiety was higher pre-game, and at half time when compared to post-game. It is possible  
419 that prior to the start of the game, where officials arrive at the venue early and watch the  
420 teams' warm-up pre-game, and during the half-time break, there is greater potential for  
421 officials to engage in ruminative thoughts than during the smaller breaks taken between  
422 Quarters 1 and 2, and 3 and 4. To our knowledge, no researchers have investigated the timing  
423 of sports officials' decision ruminations. However, Roy, Memmert, Frees, Radzevick, Pretz  
424 and Noel (2016) explored the timing of rumination by asking hockey players to rate on a 5-

425 point scale whether they would continue to think about the play when it was over and their  
426 role in the play (past play), and how the team and individual would perform in the rest of the  
427 match (future play). Their results indicated that participants were unlikely to think about  
428 previous play after it was over, or about how the game would unfold; however, they were  
429 more likely to think about past play than future play. The authors suggested that the low  
430 rumination observed in successful field hockey players could reflect that people low in  
431 rumination do best in tasks requiring quick shifts of attention (such as dynamic team sports).  
432 Alternatively, a possible explanation might be that umpires engage in avoidance behaviours  
433 to reduce the chance of scrutiny of their decisions (Anderson, 2003). Contrary to our  
434 hypothesis, but consistent with Poolton et al. (2011), Reinvestment subscales scores were not  
435 related to the number of decisions.

436         A home advantage effect was observed; the descriptive statistics indicated that more  
437 decisions were awarded against away teams, supporting findings in soccer, that home teams  
438 were awarded more penalties (Nevill et al., 1996) and that more yellow cards were awarded  
439 to away teams (Goumas, 2014). Factors purported to contribute to the home advantage  
440 include travel (i.e. greater time and distances for the away team), referee bias, familiarity and  
441 crowd size (Pollard, 2008). Furthermore, the correlations suggested that for matches in later  
442 rounds, where there is often greater importance due to more matches influencing final  
443 placings, play-offs and finals, fewer decisions were awarded against home teams. One  
444 explanation could be that officials exhibit avoidance-type behaviours to cope with the  
445 increases in anxiety resulting from increased perceived importance. Hill et al. (2016) found  
446 that rugby referees highlighted the importance of the game as one of the stressors affecting  
447 their performance, and that some referees use avoidance coping methods (e.g., Jordet &  
448 Hartman, 2008) to manage this stressor. It is possible that umpire experience could have

449 confounded these figures, however a correlation between round and the umpires years of  
450 experience, where you might expect the most experienced umpires to officiate the latter  
451 rounds, was non-significant ( $r = .126, p = .728$ ).

452 Our results are consistent with previous research (e.g., Boyko et al., 2007; Page &  
453 Page, 2010) where increases in crowd size were associated with an increase in the number of  
454 decisions against away teams. One possible explanation is that when faced with a difficult  
455 decision, officials draw on other salient cues (e.g., crowd noise), particularly when placed  
456 under time constraints (Balmer et al., 2007). In order to reduce the complexity of a decision  
457 (Souchon et al., 2010) umpires' may use simple heuristics (Raab, 2012). For example, if two  
458 opposing players contested a ball and the umpire was unsure of the penalty decision, they  
459 may place equal weight on the auditory crowd cues as they do their visual information.  
460 Crowd noise typically favours the home team, resulting in more decisions against away teams  
461 (Nevill & Holder, 1999). This finding is reflected in our data, with larger crowd sizes  
462 associated with more decisions against away teams. Alternatively, researchers have reported  
463 that crowd noise induces a reluctance to penalise the home team (Nevill et al., 2002) (i.e., an  
464 absence of crowd noise indicates to the referee that no serious offence has been committed).

465 The number of years' experience was not associated with the number of decisions  
466 made. This may be due to the number of years' experience umpiring at Superleague level  
467 (which was not recorded) or that there was little to no difference in qualification (Hancock &  
468 Ste-Marie, 2013). Other researchers have found the referee's experience to influence decision  
469 -making. Nevill et al. (2002) found as referees experience increased, that more fouls were  
470 awarded against home players, until a peak of 16 years, where upon a decline was then  
471 observed. However, the number of games umpired was positively associated with



472 Reinvestment subscale scores. Potentially, those umpires who deliberate more on their  
473 decisions are deemed more effective and are therefore requested to umpire more often.

474 League position predicted fewer decisions against home teams when playing lower  
475 positioned away teams, and for away teams playing lower positioned home teams. This  
476 finding may be similar to the reputation bias of judges found by Findlay and Ste-Marie  
477 (2004) and Plessner (1999) whereby teams with a better performance reputation may be  
478 sanctioned less. Alternatively, it is possible that the results of this study could be explained  
479 by the differences in players (e.g., lower ability teams or less competitive matches), or  
480 players' susceptibility to pressure, and not that of the officials. Previously, researchers have  
481 reported that yellow cards against away players in soccer could be a consequence of a poorer  
482 psychological state when compared with playing at home (Bray, Jones, & Owen, 2002;  
483 Terry, Walrond, & Carron, 1998).

484 There were several limitations that need to be acknowledged. First, we had  
485 incomplete data for crowd size, resulting in six matches being excluded from the crowd size  
486 analyses. Similarly, not all umpires who officiated the season completed the DSRS and were  
487 therefore excluded from the correlational analyses. However, those who did complete the  
488 DSRS officiated 72% of the matches analysed. Second, the accuracy of decisions was not  
489 recorded, preventing insight into the performance change of umpires exposed to different  
490 contextual and environmental conditions or comparisons between those with greater or lesser  
491 disposition to ruminate. However, it was not practically possible to obtain objective  
492 assessments of every decision made by the officials across the season. We also acknowledge  
493 that rumination is often seen as a negative process (referring to passive self-critical  
494 worrisome or anxious thinking, Trapnell, & Campbell, 1999; Treynor, Gonzalez, Nolen-  
495 Hoeksema, 2003), whereas self-reflection (considered to be a motivated process aimed at

496 understanding in the self and overcoming problems and difficulties, Trapnell, & Campbell,  
497 1999; Treynor et al., 2003) on performance is an important post-game learning tool used by  
498 sports officials (MacMahon et al., 2015). Although the DSRS items refer to negative  
499 ruminative thoughts, our study design did not allow us to collect data on the types or timings  
500 of rumination/reflection. Further investigation is required to examine the relationship  
501 between rumination and performance in sports officials, with reference to the types  
502 (rumination versus reflection) and timings (before, during, and after performance) of  
503 ruminations officials' make through self-report or stimulated recall.

504 Third, we cannot isolate the influence of each potential bias using the current study  
505 design. The number of decisions umpires make may be a result of a combined effect of crowd  
506 sizes, league position, round, and time. For example, you might expect later rounds to have  
507 greater crowd sizes, which could have confounded our data. However, a correlation between  
508 round and crowd size, was not significant ( $r = .136$   $p = .326$ ). It would be beneficial to  
509 investigate these effects in isolation in a controlled environment in order to draw clearer  
510 conclusions regarding the potential influence of these factors. Furthermore, we cannot be  
511 certain that the players' performance was not affected by the same contextual, environmental  
512 or dispositional influences, leading the umpires to adjust their decision-making accordingly.  
513 Finally, we used observational data and descriptive and correlational analyses. An advantage  
514 of the use of observational data is the high external validity, making the results easily  
515 interpretable and applicable in the real world. While our approach is novel and the study  
516 presents the first empirically based analysis of netball officiating behaviour we cannot infer  
517 causality from the findings. In future, controlled experiments are required to establish any  
518 causal links that may be implied in our data. For example, future research should examine the  
519 specific crowd factors that lead to changes in decision-making behaviour such as examining

520 the impact of volume on decision-making, where crowd size has been linked to crowd noise  
521 (Hayne, Taylor, Rumble, & Mee, 2011); or investigating the semantics of crowd members  
522 (e.g., relevant or irrelevant to the decision, Bishop, Moore, Horne, & Teszka, 2014).

523 In summary, we explored putative contextual/environmental and dispositional  
524 influences on netball umpires' decision-making. We observed a home advantage effect,  
525 whereby more decisions were awarded against away teams when crowd sizes were greater.  
526 We found a reduction in the number of observable decisions made, against teams with higher  
527 status, in more important matches, as the time played in a match decreased and as a function  
528 of increasing levels of Decision Rumination. Our study presents the first empirically-driven  
529 task analysis of the demands of refereeing in netball and highlights a number of key areas for  
530 which follow-up research comprising experimental designs and manipulations may be  
531 employed.

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