Integrated Marketing Communications, Strategies, and Tactical Operations in Sports Organizations

IGI Global

Integrated Marketing Communications, Strategies, and Tactical Operations in Sports Organizations

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A volume in the Advances in
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IGI Global
DISSEMINATOR OF KNOWLEDGE

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MISSION

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This chapter responds to how companies decide their sports sponsorship strategy. Initially, a theoretical review was carried out on the actual research to date on the subject, which led to fieldwork that combined quantitative and qualitative techniques. In the first place, the managers and executives of 40 Spanish companies were surveyed. In the qualitative phase, discussion groups and in-depth interviews were carried out. The results obtained have been divided into findings for large companies and SMEs, respectively. The main finding has confirmed that sponsorship has basically a strategic motivation at its onset and an economic one in its execution.

    Veronica Baena, Universidad Europea de Madrid, Spain
    Marina Mattera, Universidad Europea de Madrid, Spain

This chapter conducts an in-depth study regarding European football clubs' marketing strategies and brand management approaches in order to evaluate customers' perceived ethicality and how consumers value corporate social responsibility

activities. Specifically, the case of European football clubs is evaluated during the 2013-2018 period. The evolution of the value of the top 20 football teams in 2013 were considered as they are the most valuable ones, and most renowned in terms of worldwide supporters and revenues. Furthermore, the success of the top three teams, Manchester United, FC Barcelona, and Real Madrid FC, were studied. The findings highlight how European football clubs should incorporate corporate social responsibility into their marketing strategy, combining it with their own players' approaches, in order to increase their value and reputation.

Section 2
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Chapter 3

This chapter explored the characteristics of Chinese athletes' self-presentation and para-social interaction on social media using Goffman's self-presentation and para-social interaction theories. With the policies consciously supporting sport promotion in China, how to balance the commercialization and national glories, even the entertainment part is the linchpin of this. A content analysis of 552 Weibo posted by 10 male Chinese table tennis athletes was conducted. Results found that many Weibo posts are about interactivity (33%), especially with their teammates or coaches. Athletes also tend to be more personal on social media by posting amusing or emotional tweets. All showed that they present themselves as more of a marketing one but still under the frame of "the whole nation system." Only a few Weibo were promotional (9%), indicating that the potential of achieving market objectives has not come to athletes' full awareness. Suggestions are athletes enhance the relationship with fans so as to enlarge the influence of themselves and the sport per se.

Chapter 4

Sport events have become a key element in revitalizing tourism and a valuable instrument for city marketing managers. This is true not only for mega-events but also for medium and small-size events. This chapter focuses on two editions of the

same sport event as an example of how it can be used for these purposes. The authors have chosen the Spanish Swimming Master Championship celebrated in the city of Pontevedra in 2011 and 2015. The choice of the city is justified by its concern about celebration of sport events during the last decade as a means of promoting the city and increasing tourism.

Chapter 5

Y. X. P. Phua, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore
H. K. Leng, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore

In 2008, the inaugural Formula One SingTel Singapore Grand Prix was held as the first night-time race in the history of Formula One Grand Prix. The purpose of this chapter is to provide readers with a better understanding of how the F1 Singapore Grand Prix markets itself. The chapter begins by examining the history behind motor sports racing events in Singapore. This is followed by a review of the marketing activities of the F1 Singapore Grand Prix. The last section describes an analysis of spectators' blogs. The analysis suggests that the marketing of the event had been successful as there was a high level of awareness of the event. However, the analysis also indicated that there were spectators who were more interested in the concerts held in conjunction with the race. In 2014, there was a change in title sponsor from Singtel to Singapore Airlines. This chapter provides an update on the marketing of the event post 2014 from an earlier version published in Strategies in Sports Marketing: Technologies and Emerging Trends.

Chapter 6

Marta Massi, Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, Italy
Chiara Piancatelli, SDA Bocconi School of Management, Italy
Piergiacomo Mion, SDA Bocconi School of Management, Italy

This chapter focuses on the relatively recent phenomenon of the creation of museums by football clubs and discusses the role of football club museums as "branding platforms." The authors review the case of Mondo Milan, an innovative museum founded in 2014 by A.C. Milan, to illustrate how the development of football club museums represents a marketing strategy aimed at boosting the club brand and broadening the club customer base. The analysis of the case—supported by an interview with the Marketing and B2C Sales Director of Mondo Milan—shows how football club museums represent an opportunity not only for generating revenue but also for attracting new market segments that can engage in the history and values of the club and enhancing their brand awareness and image.

Section 3
Experience and Behavior in Sporting Events

Chapter 7

Veronica Baena, Universidad Europea de Madrid, Spain

This chapter attempts to provide a better understanding of the impact that sport marketing is having on achieving customer engagement. To accomplish this goal, the case of the Real Madrid F.C., estimated at having over 200 million supporters worldwide, is analyzed. Moreover, the team is among the top three clubs of the world in terms of followers and engagement on social media. As regards brand value, the Real Madrid F.C. is worth more than any team in the world. The combination of the aforementioned factors made the Real Madrid F.C. the appropriate brand to choose for this study, representing a leading organization in sports, business, and marketing. A number of methods were used to collect data for this study; specifically, information about the team was gathered by repeatedly browsing its website, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram accounts, and apps. Data from interviews published in business press and posts were also compiled. Additionally, a focus group was conducted to discuss the customer engagement of Real Madrid's fans.

Chapter 8

David Parra Camacho, Universidad Católica de Valencia, Spain
Juan Manuel Núñez Pomar, Universidad de Valencia, Spain
Josep Crespo Hervás, Universidad de Valencia, Spain

Sporting events can be important stimulators of the cities that host them. The aim of this chapter is to find the relationship established between the residents' perception of the negative impacts associated with the holding of three sporting events in the same city and the degree of satisfaction with their hosting them. A total of 567 subjects in Valencia (Spain) were interviewed. A questionnaire composed of nine items about possible negative impacts and an indicator of overall satisfaction with the celebration of the event was used for this work. The results showed that the residents' perception of the possible waste of taxpayers' money associated with the construction of event facilities showed a significant prediction in explaining the degree of satisfaction with the holding of sporting events.

This chapter discusses traditional and online atmospherics as a sport marketing strategy. Though with traditional retail roots, atmospherics have emerged as a strategy that may be utilized in the physical, online, and mobile sport environments. A comprehensive review of major traditional and sports atmospheric variables, online atmospheric variables including augmented and virtual reality, and applications to sport are discussed. In addition, the spectator experience cycle is introduced with atmospheric correlations. The purpose of the chapter is to explain why traditional and online atmospherics are important to the sport industry and to demonstrate how sport marketers may use physical, online, or mobile atmospherics to enhance spectator experience, increase loyalty, impact attitude, consumer choice, and impact purchase behavior. In addition, the chapter is meant to emphasize the importance of atmospherics to ultimately achieve sport promotional/marketing objectives. Finally, future research directions are recommended.

This chapter examines the intenion of attending a sporting event using a cognitive-affective model. By using a survey at an international event, the authors show that emotions have a direct effect on satisfaction and an intermediary effect on the expectation disconfirmation and satisfaction and finally disconfirmation and satisfaction on the intention of attending the sport event. These results suggest that the organizers of sport events should pay special attention to emotional management before and during the activity.

To effectively market the major international sports, those sports are identified along with their special characteristics. Further, widely available official ranking information about the best nations and individuals at those sports are located so that the special features of each ranking system can be creatively used to arouse spectator and sponsor interest. The three primary sources of recognition are identified: the International Olympic Committee, which recognizes 122 sports; SportAccord (also known as GAISF), which recognizes those plus another 21 sports; while Wikipedia lists those plus another 26 widely played sports for a total of 169. The immense popularity of the up-and-coming e-sports (electronic sports) strongly suggest opportunities for marketing. The 108 sports with ratings systems are covered in the sequence—36 object sports, 59 independent sports, 9 combat sports, and 4 mind sports—followed by the special implications that present themselves for effective marketing. Marketing guidance is then presented for the 61 sports without a rating system. Links to all 169 sports are identified, providing a wealth of individual and team information along with the official ratings. References, internet links, and definitions of all key terms are listed at the end of this chapter.

Preface

The importance and professionalization of management in sports organizations continue to be on the rise in recent decades. Likewise, the academic literature concerning this area of research has grown up. In this sense, several factors explain the increased focus on sports management. Firstly, the general public's interest in wellness keeps growing, leading to an increased demand for sports services. In this context, sports services offerings have surged and the professionalization of the sector is required in order to provide higher quality standards. Secondly, the average budget of sports services companies has dramatically increased. Some college stadiums in the United States are larger and offer better facilities than many clubs in Spain's prestigious La Liga. Lastly, sports managers are increasingly professionalized since the strategies, techniques and tactics approached by other business sectors cannot be per se applied to the sports industry. In this context, the direct extrapolation of common techniques used in other sectors is hindered by the specificities of the sports industry.

Considering all of the above, the main purpose of this book is to update readers on the latest academic and professional breakthroughs in strategic and tactical sports management. The author expects this work to help new sports managers develop their skills with regard to this business sector with a high demand for qualified professionals. In many chapters, this book also targets professional sports managers interested in learning the latest trends with regard to measurements, strategies and applications of new and relevant advances in the sports industry. Finally, the author hopes that researchers on sports management approach this book as a tool to learn the latest methodological and conceptual innovations.

This book consists of 11 chapters organized in three sections titled as follows: 1) Communication and Corporate Social Responsibility, 2) Management Applied to Sports Companies and Events, and 3) Experience and Behavior in Sporting Events. Each section tackles the challenges faced by sports management from three different perspectives.

The first section is devoted to the impact of corporate social responsibility and sponsorship communication actions. Social responsibility in business is not limited to companies which offer products and services unrelated to the sports industry. In the sports industry, sports companies assess the possible benefits derived from the aforementioned actions in order to reach and influence their target audience. However, only in the last decade, CSR has begun to receive attention from the academic discipline of sport management. Even if sponsorship is an advertising communication technique that has been receiving significant attention, research is still scarce with regard to sponsorship management (especially from the perspective of the sponsored party).

The first chapter is titled "Decision Factors in the Strategy of Sports Sponsorship in Spain" and examines the sponsorship from a strategic approach. Most studies on sports sponsorship assess its effectiveness and performance. However, research on the strategic choice of a sponsorship from the perspective of the sponsored party is rather scarce. This work examines the extant literature with regard to this area of knowledge and then performs a qualitative analysis involving 40 relevant companies in Spain. Results reveal different incentives and goals for small and large companies.

The second chapter, "Golden Medals: The Impact of Individual Social Responsibility on Sports Corporate Reputation," examines two qualitative studies analyzing the different perceptions of sports fans with regard to the effects of corporate social responsibility actions taken by the most significant La Liga clubs in recent decades: Real Madrid and Barcelona. Results show that professional sports clubs and competitions boast dedicated resources to approach specific CSR programs in order to raise public awareness with higher, improved effectiveness compared with companies operating in other business sectors.

The second section examines the management of sports companies and events mostly from a marketing perspective. These events have dramatically developed in the last decade and they are not limited to major sporting events, this significant expansion also includes small and medium-sized local events which impact the image of the city and the local and regional economies through the effects of tourism. In this sense, fans and tourists are drawn to pre and post-event attractions such as the museum of Italy's A.C. Milan.

The third chapter, "Self-Presentation, Interaction, and Marketing of Chinese Athletes on Social Media: A Study of Men's National Table Tennis Team," aims to examine how the Weibo social network approached by athletes and the resulting interactions with their fans impact sports development, sponsorship and the image of athletes. Authors conclude that Chinese athletes have not yet developed interaction and communication strategies in order to promote sports and brands through social media.

The fourth chapter, "City Marketing Using Sport Events: The Case of Pontevedra and Two Editions of the Spanish Swimming Master Championship," analyzes marketing management with regard to a small event across two editions. Authors highlight how the sporting event serves as a political and economic strategy to differentiate the local tourist offering. In this sense, defining the profile of the expected event visitors is key to reach the objectives of the city.

The fifth chapter, titled "An Update on the Marketing of the F1 Singapore Grand Prix Post 2014," provides an update on the marketing of the event post 2014 based on an earlier version published in Strategies in Sports Marketing: Technologies and Emerging Trends. This chapter examines the different marketing actions with regard to said sporting event assessing the change of the sponsor from Singtel to Singapore Airlines, the history of the event and the media resonance through an analysis of the blogs of the audience.

The sixth chapter, "Boosting Football Club Brands Through Museums: The Experience of Mondo Milan," explores the case of the A.C. Milan official museum. Authors analyze this brand communication strategy as a marketing communication tool developed to boost the brand, making supplementary income, attracting new market segments, and retaining and expanding the customer base.

The last section of this book is titled "Experience and Behavior in Sporting Events." The last four chapters of the book approach the challenges associated with the experience of consumers of sporting event and services and the behavior of the audience.

The seventh chapter, "Getting Supporter Engagement in Sports: The Role of Digital and Mobile Marketing in the Real Madrid F.C.," focuses on assessing the impact of the marketing strategy of Real Madrid football club through an analysis of the communication strategy on social media, websites, mobile apps, focus groups and newspapers. Authors reveal new avenues for marketing actions and highlight the importance of digital and mobile marketing in order to retain and attract fans.

Chapter 8, "Relationship Between Satisfaction and Social Perception of the Negative Impacts of Sporting Events," examines the relationship between the perception of the negative impacts related to the celebration of sporting events and the level of satisfaction of the residents of the city hosting said events. Authors report that residents' perceptions with regard to the economic investment in sporting events and facilities serve as reliable predictors of the level of satisfaction associated with the celebration of sporting events.

Chapter 9, "Sport Atmospherics' Influence on the Event Experience," assesses the environment of the sporting event and its impact on customer experience, both online and physically. The main purpose of this chapter is to analyze the customer

experience cycle and the atmospheric correlations. In this sense, the impact of the atmospheric factors on the sports industry and sports marketing professionals is also examined.

Chapter 10, "The Intention of Attending a Sporting Event Through Expectation Disconfirmation and the Effect of Emotions," proposes a model of consumer behavior based on the disconfirmation of expectations with regard to sporting events, that is, the level of positive or negative satisfaction drawn from the difference between what was expected and what is received. In general, the literature suggests a direct relationship between disconfirmation, which is the satisfaction and loyalty within a cognitive affective model, and intention. The sample used in this empirical analysis was identified through 637 participants attending a sporting event.

Finally, Chapter 11, "The Marketing Implications of Up-and-Coming Sports and of Official International Sports Rating Systems," identifies, diversifies and shares information regarding the different characteristics of the main international sports. It is worth noting the focus on eSports. This chapter includes marketing recommendations for 61 sports which do not offer a ranking system while also identifying links to 169 sports, providing a considerable amount of individual and team information as well as the respective rankings.

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Acknowledgment

Thank you for investing your time and attention in this book. I hope it is useful to you as a practical guide for developing, implementing, and evaluating sport marketing strategies.

This book was not only inspired by colleagues; it was also directly written by their active involvement in its development.

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Section 1

Communication and Corporate Social Responsibility

Chapter 1
Decision Factors in the Strategy of Sports Sponsorship in Spain

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ABSTRACT

This chapter responds to how companies decide their sports sponsorship strategy. Initially, a theoretical review was carried out on the actual research to date on the subject, which led to fieldwork that combined quantitative and qualitative techniques. In the first place, the managers and executives of 40 Spanish companies were surveyed. In the qualitative phase, discussion groups and in-depth interviews were carried out. The results obtained have been divided into findings for large companies and SMEs, respectively. The main finding has confirmed that sponsorship has basically a strategic motivation at its onset and an economic one in its execution.

INTRODUCTION

The bridges between company and sport are becoming more numerous. The latest trends in human resources are focused on moving leadership capacity from the dressing-room to the board room, bringing the spirit of sacrifice of a long-distance runner up to the career of a professional, or the tactics of a cyclist squad-team to the building of a multi-disciplinary team. However, traditionally the main link between business and sport has been sponsorship. An effective way to transfer sports values to a brand.

Its origins go back to the classical world when Greek merchants customarily collaborated economically with the athletes, with the aim of forging links and increasing their commercial relationships. Centuries later, and since the second industrial revolution, modern sponsorship has been growing in parallel with the implementation and development of advertising and promotion. Since the end of the nineteenth century, the modern Olympic games, rowing competitions, and Formula One racing have had trademark activities associated with them.

In fact, in just over a century, sports sponsorship has evolved substantially from a basic concept of brand exposure to sophisticated branding strategies and emotional relationships with various audiences. In recent years, the decline in conventional advertising, the saturation of audiences, or today's multi-screen life have encouraged many companies to redistribute their investment in media, and back communication formulas based on experience and conversation. In this way, sponsorship as a relationship vehicle has had to reinvent itself, so that today has become a communicative trend worldwide that grows year after year. According to the US consultancy firm Internacional Events Group (IEG) study "What Sponsors want & where dollars will go in 2018" global investment in sponsorship has grown from $43.1 billion in 2008 to $65.8 billion in 2018.

Like music, culture or social action, sport is a scenario that allows brands to establish friendly, non-invasive contacts which bring social value to the public. In this sense, sport is an opportunity for strong emotional involvement, attracting the attention of a large public. For a long time in Spain, programmes that have led the annual media rankings with the highest audiences are sporting ones. The leadership of the press is dominated by sports newspapers, and athletes are in an overwhelming majority of Spain's most famous and appreciated "top" personalities.

However, investment in Spain has not followed the same path as the global trend. The crisis has punished investment in almost all channels of advertising; sponsorship has also suffered a drastic decline in the last eight years. But the recession has led the communications and marketing departments to reconsider their strategies, analyse their investments and pursue efficiency. This has led to an advancement and improvement in the knowledge of those responsible for sponsorship in companies.

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In this context, investment has evolved from the mere pursuit of brand awareness to the pursuit of deeper and more multi-faceted objectives such as: being the axis of brand positioning, the association of values, the strengthening of corporate culture, a generator of relationships, a revenue source and acting as ambassador in new commercial territories.

Different sports properties such as clubs, federations, competitions, events, athletes from many disciplines, can be the best partner for large multi-national companies, and also SMEs, to achieve their communicative goals, from local to international milestones. Institutional programmes such as "Spain Compete", tax breaks or events of exceptional interest, as well as private initiatives, try to channel funds from business into sport.

From this necessary dialogue between business and sport arises a purpose, namely, to investigate and answer those questions that help a better understanding of the factors that lead to an optimum approach of an updated and renovated sponsorship.

BACKGROUND

When developing this research, it is important to briefly review the basic concepts of sports sponsorship as a contact space between advertiser brands and consumers.

Basic Concepts About Sponsorship

According to Meenaghan (2001), sponsorship is a communication technique that differs from advertising in that consumers: a) have a very favourable view of sponsorship, b) consider sponsorship as more humane and more supportive than advertising, and (c) sponsorship is a more subtle and indirect form of communication with an ability to generate long-term image benefit versus a simple short-term sales increase.

As Maxwell and Lough (2009) recall, sports sponsorship was initially seen as a form of advertising without saturation. However, nowadays, given the substantial number of companies involved in sponsorship deals, "the landscape of sports marketing has evolved into a replica of the saturated advertising environment seen in traditional media" (pp. 190).

In this sense, sponsorship has also become a territory saturated with brands. Therefore, in recent years strategies and actions have been sophisticated when implementing sponsorships. In the words of Jensen and Cornwell (2017) "Today, brand marketers are increasingly seeking opportunities that allow their brands to break through the clutter and stand alone atop the multitude of other sponsors of events and other sponsored properties" (pp.408).

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Objectives of Sponsorship Today

Hidalgo, Poblete, Vasquez and Baeza (2014) develop in the article "Effect of image transmission in Sports Sponsorship in Chile" a great journey about the objectives that brands have traditionally sought in relation to sponsorship. The central issues are improving the image, increasing knowledge, increasing brand preference, improving sales or offering hospitality opportunities. In addition, there are now sponsorship initiatives that include internal audiences as a recipient of the action with the aim of improving the corporate culture, alignment with the values of the company and productivity (Sawatari, 2013; Ladousse, 2009) clearly in tune with the trends indicated by the consultant Edelman in his studies on trust (2018) in organizations where they place the employee at the center of the strategy.

Lough and Irwin (2001) introduced the concept of sponsorship life cycle, raising it as a measure of how, as sports properties mature, so do the objectives of their sponsors. The sponsorship lifecycle begins with goals of image and visibility on the part of sponsors of less mature sports properties, and progress towards more market-related goals such as increasing sales and market share in sponsors of more mature sports properties.

Bruhn and Holzer (2015) went deeper into sponsorship's theoretical construct and argue that it has been largely evaluated with respect to image (Woo-Young, Youngjin & Minjung, 2014; Walker, Hall, Todd & Kent, 2011), personality (Lee & Cho, 2008), or associations of a general nature (Pracejus & Olsen, 2004).

Finally, Greenhalgh and Greenwell (2013) claimed that to increase the likelihood of a sponsorship proposal being accepted and supported, "sports marketing professionals need to understand the objectives that a potential sponsor is trying to achieve through a sponsorship" (pp.102).

The Relationship Between Sponsor and Sponsored

Cousens, Babiak and Bradish (2006) pointed out that the interaction between the parties benefit both the company and the sporting organisation because they work to achieve common goals, beyond the individual ones. They also emphasised that interaction is not limited to negotiation but rather to key agreements, such as assessment methods, management and interaction expectations, duration of the relationship and the mutual benefits of the partnership.

Approaching the field of sponsorship operation and implementation, Farrelly (2010) suggested that sports sponsorship be conceived as a B2B mutually beneficial

relationship between a sponsor and a sport or a sports-person. Cousens, Babiak and Bradish (2006) argued for a holistic approach that gave sponsorship relationships consideration not only with respect to the tangible assets available to firms, such as media exposure, signage or the presence of logos on T-shirts, but also to intangible assets and the ability of both parties to successfully manage, as well as expand, the sponsorship agreement within a dynamic global sports industry.

Cousens, Babiak and Bradish (2006) developed a structure to evaluate inter-organisational relationships that occur between sports organisations and their sponsors. These exchange relationships are qualified as essential for the achievement of both the parties' objectives. To achieve this, they used relational marketing and its characterising principles, namely, long-term relationships and the willingness of both parties to help each other through inter-organisational links. However, they stressed that their application to the context of sponsorship had generally failed, due to the limitation of its vision being focused on traditional assets and proposals.

Douvis, Sarli, Kriemadis and Vrondou (2015) also underlined that research on the decision-making process in terms of sponsorship is scarce and, as researchers do not agree, there is an abundance of opinion on the subject, indicating that little research has been undertaken on the process of selection, and the development of sponsorship, as seen by both parties: the sponsor and the sponsored.

The Need to Constantly Investigate the Evolution of Sponsorship

O'Reilly and Lanfrance Homing (2013) pointed out that there is little research on the implementation of sponsorship, and reiterated that a key aspect of it is known as activation, which refers to the additional investment made by the sponsor, beyond the amount paid to take over the sponsorship rights. This figure is customarily considered as a ratio of the additional investment to the sum cost of the rights. In their study, these researchers sought to answer the following three questions: a) what leads to effective activation of sponsorship? b) what are the best activation tactics? and c) how much should be spent on activation to achieve the desired results?

Misener and Doherty (2014) also emphasized the fact that sponsorships are a critical resource for non-profit sports organisations that are increasingly experiencing great pressures to generate funding beyond their traditional sources of income. They recalled, citing Daellenbach, Davies and Ashill (2006), that there had been a lack of attention to the nature of the relationships between these two participants. Hence, they considered it important "to understand the nature of the relationship between non-profit sports organisations and sponsors" (pp.493).

Previous Studies on Sponsorship in Spain

Modern and professional management in sports organizations came to Spain with the 21st century. Until then, Spanish sports clubs had extremely simple organizational structures. As of the year 2001, the clubs begin to sophisticate their marketing and sponsorship areas, importing professionals from other sectors. Although the whole field of sport has been professionalized, until a few years ago (Sanahuja & Blay, 2015) it could be said that Spanish sports clubs were some distance from the Anglo-Saxon avant-garde in terms of sports management, today everything seems to indicate that There is increasing proximity between what happens in the countries of southern Europe and the United States.

This lack of professionalism until a few years ago, the lack of a strong consultancy sector in the field of sports marketing and a certain distance from the university to the world of sponsorship, have made it possible until 2015 to have a rigorous and deep study In Spain on this subject. Does this mean that there has been no precedent or investigation in Spain about sports sponsorship? Of course not. From the academy, different doctoral theses have emerged that have analyzed issues or specific areas in relation to sponsorship such as the automobile sector (Torres, 2008), effectiveness (Barreda, 2009), the relational perspective (Femenía, 2012), the impact with the major international events (Recio, 2016) or comparisons with other countries (Beltrán, 2016). In addition, some consultants such as Havas Sport & Entertainment or SPSG have developed studies limited to Spanish territory whose public part has allowed to know the most notorious brands associated with sports.

Objectives of This Investigation

In view of this theoretical and observational scenario, this research intends to present a useful, public and rigorous first approach to the state of sponsorship in Spain. Therefore, the following specific objectives are proposed:

- Find the motivations that lead companies to choose sponsorship as a communication tool.
- Define the goals that these companies emphasise when activating a sponsorship.
- Describe the linkage of the sponsorship with the strategy of the company.

These objectives were explored within the range of differences that exist in the practice of sponsorship between large Spanish multinationals and SMEs.

MATERIALS AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology used in the study was initiated with a theoretical approach that served as a reflection platform for field work, consisting of qualitative interviews and quantitative questionnaires.

As a starting point, a theoretical literature review produced relevant data and results from previous studies on the topic. Furthermore, the theoretical conclusions have been analysed on an empirical basis; to comply with an empirical evaluation, the methodology design was based on relevant statistical and mathematical analysis techniques to comply with the objectives. Under this approach, the research combined quantitative and qualitative techniques, hereunder justified and summarised in the following images:

Quantitative Stage

In the preliminary stage, a questionnaire was used as a study tool as proposed by Sierra (1994; pp.304); it consists of observing facts and events transmitted through the participants' very own words. Moreover, it allows the study area to be broadened and allows for a considerable number of questions to be included. The questionnaire that was put together was aimed at professionals in charge of sponsorship, communication and marketing; as a structured questionnaire, it comprised 10 questions that served as a link between specific objectives and the reality of the observed sample (Sierra, 1994; pp.305).

The universe was made up of Spanish companies or those that operate in Spain and which carry out sports sponsorship as part of their communication and marketing strategies. According to Infoadex, in 2014 there were 264 companies that invested in sponsorship. It is conceded however that there may be organisations whose sponsorship investment may not be reflected in the Infoadex report. The sample that

Figure 1. Methodological development of research

was selected was drawn from two distinct groups. An initial sample was made up of 100 large national companies with a turnover worth more than 50 million Euro, whereas a subsequent sample comprised 20 national firms that generated turnovers or had budgets worth less than 50 million Euro. Both cases did not involve probabilistic samples, and as such, the degree of error cannot be gauged; these were the criteria established by the researchers and have served to define the interest groups in the study (Morales, 2012).

The selection of 100 large companies was based on three objective sources as follows:

- The 2014 Infoadex Study.
- Reports on brands associated with sport: SAI (Sponsorship Awareness Index) published by SPSG Consulting and *Top 5 de Territorios Deportivos* belonging to Havas Sports & Entertainment.
- Sponsorships of sport properties (clubs, events, federations, or competitions) at a wholly professional level.

The SMEs were selected as a sample indicative of intent and were useful in terms of their visibility and track record in the field of sponsorship. The sample size was limited to ten companies, mainly due to their inevitable heterogeneity and the general difficulty that is experienced in obtaining responses from this type of organisation. Our attention is drawn to the fact that total "representativeness" cannot be drawn from this sample. Notwithstanding this, it may be a reasonable surveying method or approximation to SMEs practices.

The questionnaire comprised ten questions and an average of fifteen minutes was estimated to be necessary to answer them. There were also other questions about quality control or identification, including turnover to ascertain the size of the company[1]. The answers to the questions were organised into categories that were necessarily chosen by each respondent (Sierra, 1994; pp. 307) and in some of them more than one option was allowed.

The field work was carried out from April 20 to June 16, 2015. In that period, 120 companies were contacted via e-mail with an invitation to complete the questionnaire; the persons targeted were selected professionals and in case of doubt telephone contact was made. After the field work period, analysis was carried out based on statistical processing platforms for each of the two samples (large company and SME).

Of the total of companies contacted, 30 large companies and 10 SMEs answered our request. Additionally, eigth large companies partially completed the questionnaire and were hence discarded from participating in the study. A further 14 companies refused to participate for assorted reasons. The remaining 48 large companies gave

no response to our questionnaire request and made no comments in this regard. Despite difficulties encountered in obtaining responses a representative level of 11.5% was obtained. All in all, the companies that participated were:

Of the total, nine companies belong to the agri-food and beverage industry, eigth to the financial services industry, five to the automotive industry, three to distribution, two to textiles, two to energy, while the rest correspond to a range of industries including transport, technology, construction and capital goods.

Qualitative Stage

This function of this stage is to make comparisons with the findings of the quantitative stage as well to offer prospective analysis and description in relation to those sponsorship management methods conducive to more efficient performance. In keeping with our main study objectives, a universe was defined as professionals

Table 1. Large companies

ASEFA	BBVA
CAIXA POPULAR	CARNICAS SERRANO
COCA-COLA	CONTINENTAL TIRES SPAIN
EL CORTE INGLÉS	ENDESA
EUSKALTEL	EXPORTACIONES ARANDA
GAES	GRUPO GIMENO
GRUPO VICHY CATALÁN	HERBALIFE
IBERDROLA	IBERIA
IBEROSTAR	INGESPORT SL (Go Fit)
PERFUMERÍAS AVENIDA	KIA IBÉRICA
LEVANTE WAGEN	MAHOU SAN MIGUEL
MAPFRE	NGS
IDILIA (Nutexpa)	PELAYO SEGUROS
QUADIS	SANTANDER
TELEPIZZA	VOLVO CAR

Table 2. SMEs

CAIXA ALMASSORA	CAFÉ CANDELAS
ELECTROCASH	FRIGORÍFICOS DEL MORRAZO S.A.
FUNDACIÓN TRINIDAD ALFONSO	GIOSEPPO
KELME	MUTUA LEVANTE
NEVIR S.A.	SAVIPECHO, S.L.

Figure 2. Distribution by productive sectors of the sample
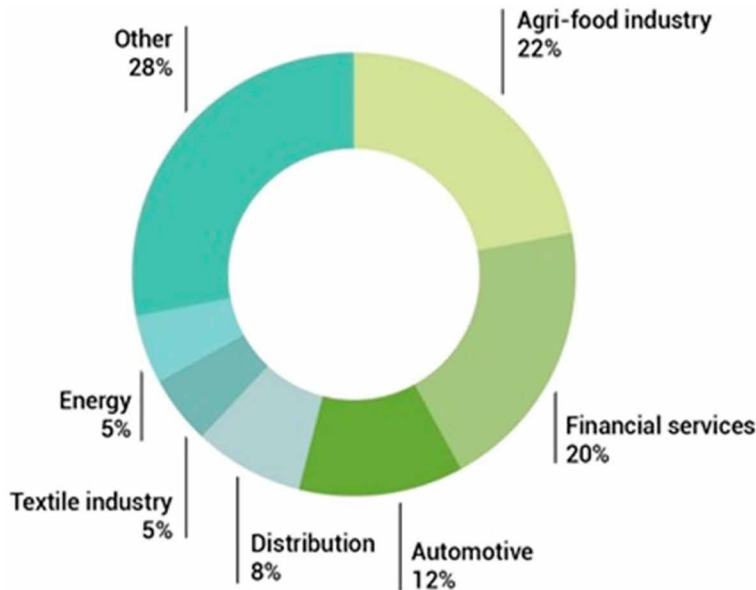
who have daily and direct "hands on" involvement in the field that was of interest to us. With their input, a sample of convenience, considered to be representative of the universe of this study, was established.

Furthermore, the sample was defined as non-probabilistic and it is conceded that it may lead to bias in the sample choice process; however, this type of sampling is the most appropriate for qualitative studies which seek to delve more deeply into the information obtained, rather than paying more attention to attaining high statistical representativeness; in this sense, its non-probabilistic nature is justified.

When selecting the sample, greater emphasis was given to experience and knowledge of sport sponsorship. Following from this, a strategic or convenience-based sampling process was chosen whereby the choice of sampling units meet subjective criteria, in accordance with the objectives of our research. Under this approach, a *Panel of Experts* made up of recognised professionals in sport sponsorship was selected.

Table 3. Members of panel of experts

Carlota Castrejana	CSD Consultant
Fco. Javier Mancebo	Director of Research at Havas Sport & Entertainment
Iván Beltrán	Marketing Manager at Club Amics del Bàsquet Castelló
Luis Villarejo	Communication Manager at CSD
Sebastián Cebrián	General Director of Association Dircom

The panel undertook debate and reflection sessions in the quantitative phase by using a direct observation technique: the interview.

The semi-directed open interview was carried out in accordance with the qualitative approach used in empirical discourse research. This is in line with Ortí (1990) who offered an empirical approach to social realities based on the deep comprehension of the significant and the interpretation of motivation in social actors, thereby revealing their internal orientation. Simultaneously, this approach is useful in: "capturing, contextualising and interpreting, within specific cultural constructs, the basic attitudes and motivations of different social groups".

In designing the whole questionnaire procedure as well as deciding on the questions to be asked, it was essential to adopt a work methodology based on creativity, observation and seeking out knowledge. By drawing on these three premises, a questionnaire was elaborated; its aim was to obtain reliable and sufficient information from which conclusions could be drawn.

Following the guidelines for questionnaire design by Iñaki de Miguel (1997), our approach to language use combined the researcher's perspective with that of interviewee; it was essential that the language style had to be clear and direct. There had to be simplicity in the way the questions were written, yet they had to target specific points of interest. "The essence of scientific knowledge is all about revealing what lurks under the appearance of reality, the deliberate and misleading veneer of reality, under which we find a latent flow of true behaviour, of what is really happening. Without a shred of doubt, it goes without saying, we are referring to human behaviour which is not free from the prejudices and veneers aimed at hiding its true nature. We can advance hence, through a terrain fraught with uncertain logic".

The set of conflicting findings drawn from the quantitative and qualitative stages have led to final conclusions that have synthesized the factors in decision-making when sports sponsorship strategies are considered in Spain.

RESULTS

The field work results contributed to the overall study results. One must bear in mind that information was obtained from each group selected, large companies on the one hand and SMEs on the other; the same applied to each methodology used and hence results were obtained for both the quantitative and qualitative stages respectively.

Large Companies

The choice of sponsor was equally divided; there were proactive companies that scanned the market for an option while there were others that opted for a tailor-made solution and evaluated proposals from different promotors.

Should no proposal meet their needs, the strategy of waiting for one to appear, was slightly greater than the option of creating the company's own sponsorship platform: 54% compared to 46%. Once a sponsorship decision was made, in most cases, companies continued to scan the market; a significant 21% preferred to focus on the sponsorship proposal and went back to scanning the market as agreement periods approached their termination.

In a sponsorship decision, the most influential assessment was made by the department in charge (53%) and it was neither the owner's, nor board of director's, nor the consulting firm's preference. The primary motivation in a sponsorship decision was the question of corporate identity and image, followed by turnover. Tax incentives were not determinant when adopting a sponsorship but they were nonetheless considered. Similarly, when it came to defining objectives in a sponsorship process, two aspects were notable: "strengthening corporate image and brand position" (31%), followed by "generating business opportunities" (19%).

Regarding the efficacy and security levels of the sponsored companies, sponsors show a first preference for events (28% / 29%), competitions (21% / 24%) and clubs (20% / 20%). Federations are perceived as the least efficient, while sports stars are perceived as prone to carrying the highest risk. Large companies overwhelmingly avoided preferring male-dominated sports.

Figure 3. The activity (or activities) that your company has sponsored in recent years was/were decided on the basis of ?? (Large companies)

For other reasons (Which?) 11%

For the most part, as a result of our company having searched for options in the sponsorship market 43%

For the most part, as a result of our company having searched for options in the sponsorship market 46%
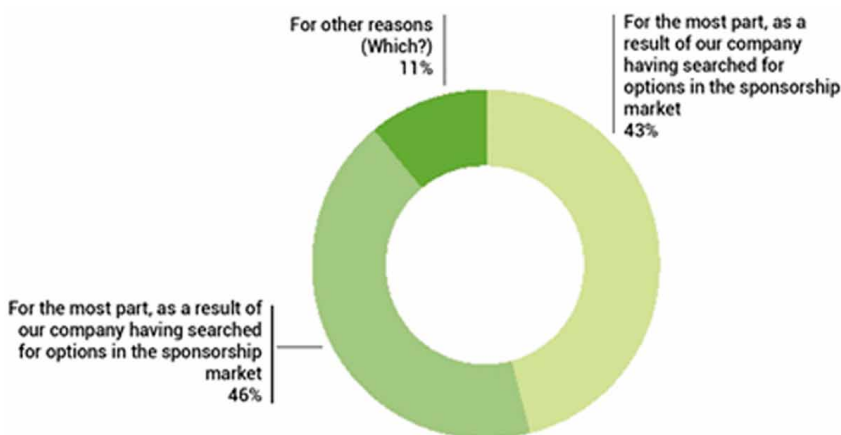
Figure 4. What is you company's main motive in deciding to invest a sporting sponsorship? (Large companies)
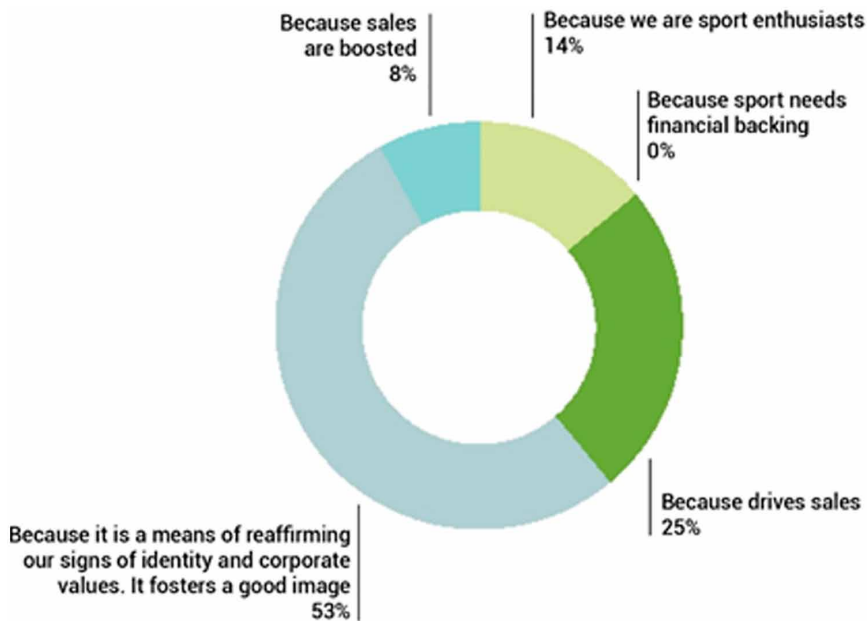
Figure 5. What are the main objectives in deciding upon your company's current sponsorship? (Large companies)

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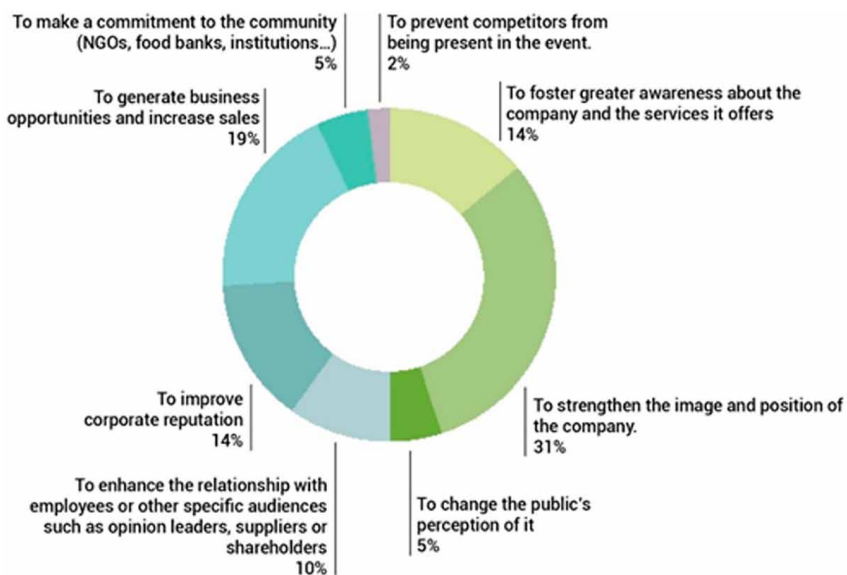
Figure 6. Which organisatiosn and activities do you think are better suited to lowering risk in your company's sponsorship? (Large companies)
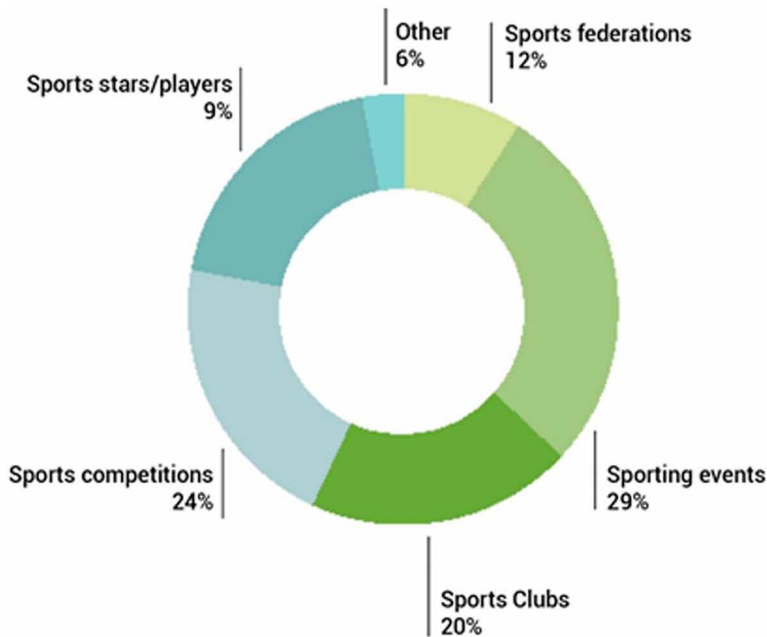
Sponsorship is mainly integrated in the marketing strategy (57%) or to a lesser extent, the general company plan (18%). In only 11% of cases was it linked to a communication plan.

SMEs

SMEs normally select their sponsorship option after receiving proposals from various promotors; there were no instances of them taking the initiative to create or promote a sponsorship option.

In deciding on sponsorship, the assessment with the greatest influence was that given by the owner or board of directors (58%). The main motive in making the decision was its connection with the organisation's identity and image, followed by its passion for a given sport. Fiscal incentives are not determinant but are nonetheless considered when deciding to participate in sponsorship; notwithstanding this, a noteworthy 40% have never considered it.

In relation to spelling out objectives, three main points stood out: "strengthening corporate image and brand position" (31%), "generate business opportunities" (19%) and "enhance the visibility of the company" (19%).

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Figure 7. How is your company's sponsorship integrated in its communication, marketing or CSR Policies? (Large companies)
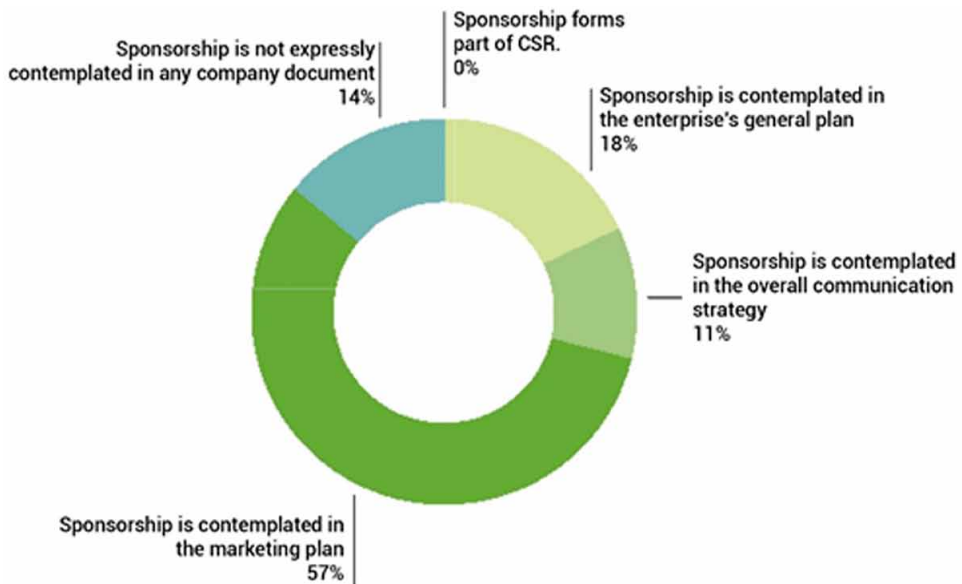
Figure 8. The activity (or activities) that your company has sponsored in recent years was/were decided on the basis of ??... (SMEs)
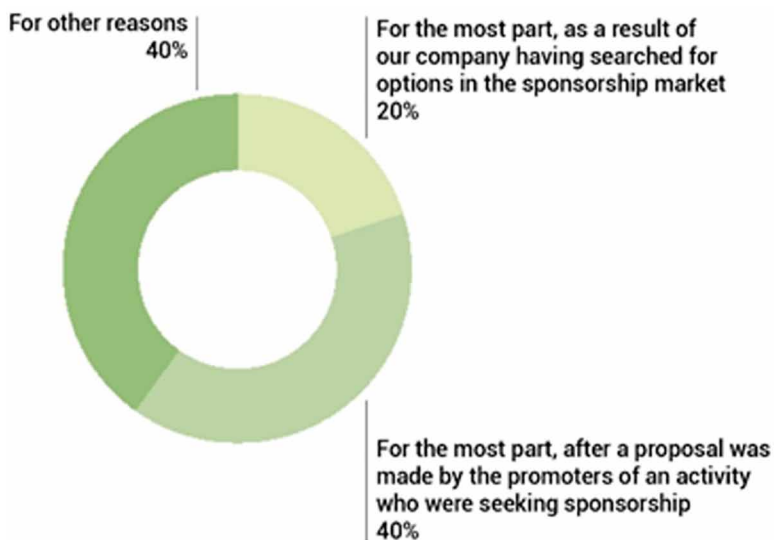
15

Figure 9. What is you company's main motive in deciding to invest a sporting sponsorship? (SMEs)

To make a commitment to the community (NGOs, food banks, institutions...) 5%

To prevent competitors from being present in the event. 2%

To generate business opportunities and increase sales 19%

To foster greater awareness about the company and the services it offers 14%

To improve corporate reputation 14%

To strengthen the image and position of the company. 31%

To enhance the relationship with employees or other specific audiences such as opinion leaders, suppliers or shareholders 10%

To change the public's perception of it 5%
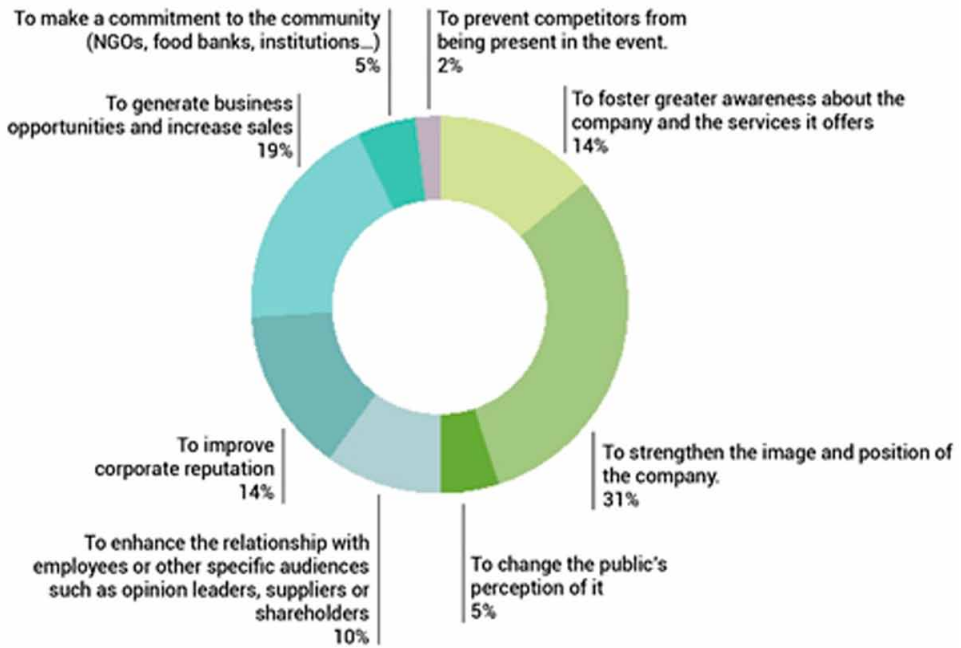
Figure 10. Which organisatiosn and activities do you think are better suited to lowering risk in your company's sponsorship? (SMEs)
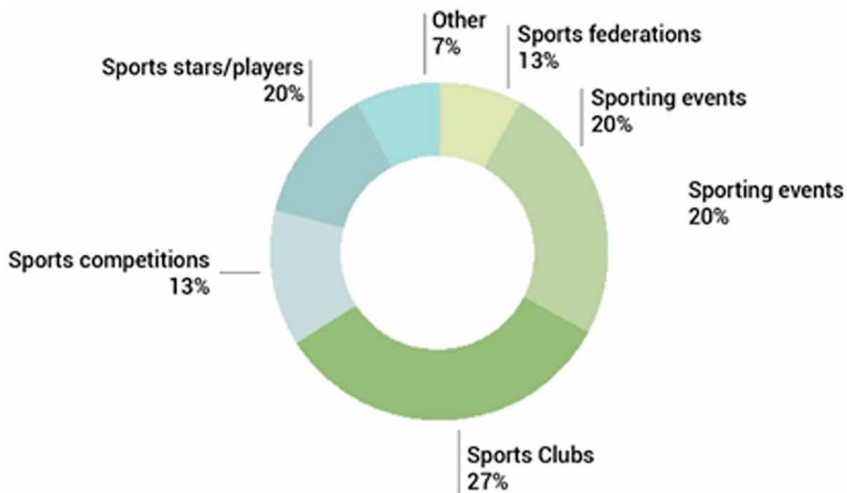
Other 7%

Sports stars/players 20%

Sports federations 13%

Sporting events 20%

Sporting events 20%

Sports competitions 13%

Sports Clubs 27%

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In relation to the efficacy and security levels of the sponsored entities, SMEs have a first preference for clubs (33% / 27%), followed by events (25% / 20%) and in third place, competitions (13% / 13%). Federations are perceived as less efficient, while the option of sports stars are perceived as prone to higher risks.

SMEs companies overwhelmingly avoided a preference for male-dominated sports; however, 30% of SMEs stated they do so as these are the options that are more often made available. Sponsorship is integrated in the general company plan (40%) or in its marketing strategy (40%).

On the other hand, the panel of experts analysed data from the in-depth interviews and made the following reflections. Deciding about sponsorship is a relevant issue. Castrejana affirms that it is "quite interesting and necessary to pin-point where the decision is made, who decides about the sponsorship". In this regard, Cebrián celebrates that "the decision regarding a sponsorship is made by the department in charge. Conversely, should this matter be decided upon the owner's preferences, it would really make no sense. If owners are intelligent, specialists need to be contracted to help them define and work on priorities".

In relation to taking the initiative to create sporting events should no sponsorships adjust to a company's needs, Beltrán concludes: "In modest sport settings it is very unlikely that a company will take the initiative to contact a club; it's the club itself that must constantly be on the lookout for sponsorship options. Therefore, visibility is so important". Along similar lines, Mancebo points out: "The result for active sponsorship search seems to be a rather high percentage. In my view, there are far

Figure 11. How is your company's sponsorship integrated in its communication, marketing or CSR Policies? (Large companies)
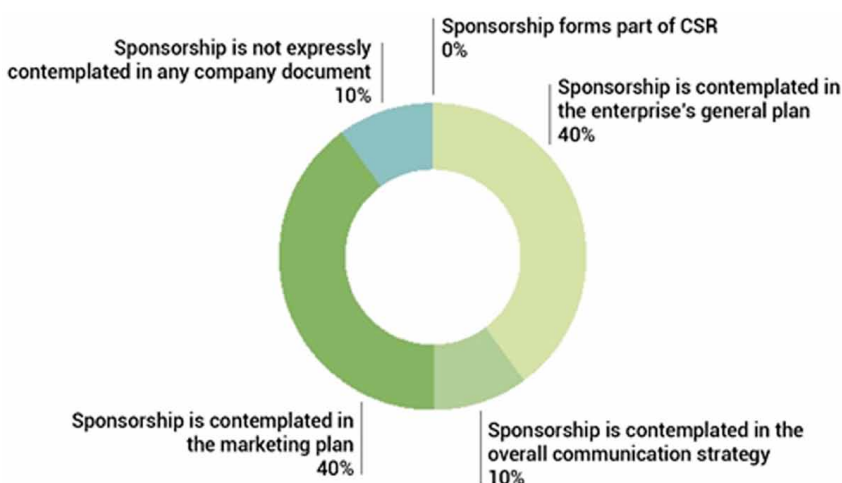
more companies that simply wait for a sponsorship proposal from a sport entity to emerge instead of designing their own sponsorship platform. In my experience, in Spain there would be no more than five sponsorship initiatives expressly undertaken by companies".

Another question that caught the experts' attention was the influence of tax breaks when it came to making sponsorship decisions. Villarejo stresses that "it's extraordinary that many companies are unaware of or show no interest in tax incentives". Mancebo reacts to this affirmation confirming that "in large companies they do indeed know about tax breaks and in fact such decisions are often made in their financial departments, as normally happens for events that have nationwide interest." Beltrán highlights however that in SMEs there is a general lack of awareness of tax incentive programmes.

The unbending preferences of certain sports properties has also generated debate and criticism. Mancebo points out "the rather high percentage showing a marked preference for sponsoring clubs, because when you commit to a club or a sports star, you are linked to their performance and sporting achievements; the possibility that the team may go down to second division, even lose, etc. There's always a risk, but the exception is when you are with the larger clubs". Cebrián highlights that "to me, the evaluation given for federations is highly significant. Specific cases in these kinds of organisations may have affected the rest and this perception may have its origin in mistaken past practices".

Regarding the question about preference for male-dominated sports, Beltrán concurs with the rest of the panel experts: the result is challenged in the sense that "the response given as not preferring male-dominated sports is all about political correction. It does not reflect what actually happens".

CONCLUSION

In the light of the analysis underpinned by a theoretical framework, and in view of the results set forth herein, several conclusions can be drawn in relation to the objectives established in the study.

Motivations of Sponsorship

The first objective revolved around gauging companies' motivations when making a sponsorship choice as a communication tool. We discovered that the choice of sponsorship usually come as a response to a sporting entity's proposal and not as much as a brand's own initiative. The decision is backed by the department in charge of this area. In the process, consultant specialists intervene, though in some cases,

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their activities have been challenged on the grounds of intrusiveness and unfair competition in the industry.

The main reason this technique is promoted, is the need to establish a differentiated identity, as well as clear brand positioning, even though the desire to generate business cannot be overlooked. Visibility or exposure remain on a secondary plane. For large companies, events and competitions are the most feasible modes of sponsorship. Federations are the least efficient sporting properties, a perception that may be greatly put down to recent cases of questionable management.

Sponsorship Goals

Regarding the decision to invest in a sponsorship, the evaluation with biggest influence came from the department in charge of this matter (53%) and not the owners' preference or that of the Board of Directors and neither the assessment of a consulting firm. The foremost reason in deciding about sponsorship was the role played by corporate identity and the image projected by the organisation, while sales was the secondary one. On the other hand, taxation incentives are not determinant factors when considering a sponsorship but the pros and cons in this area are nonetheless weighed up. Similarly, when it comes to identifying objectives in developing a sponsorship, two aspects are highlighted: "strengthening corporate image and brand position (31%) and "generating business opportunities" (19%). In relation to the efficacy and security of the sponsored entities, the sponsors' preferences were in the first place: events (28% / 29%), followed by competitions (21% / 24%) and club sponsorships (20% / 20%).

In relation to defining what are the objectives put in place by companies in embarking upon a sponsorship, the research shows that even though there may be a whole host of reasons for large companies, most of them based on strategic considerations. Such companies' investment in sponsorship is geared at attaining specific business objectives and to achieve them, specific departments are created; it also entails an activation plan that has been previously designed, even though companies with questionable criteria persist.

Corporate Strategy and Sponsorship

The last objective examined in this study was to describe the connection between sponsorship and the evaluation by a company. The sponsorship in big companies is mainly integrated in the marketing strategy (57%) or to a lesser extent in the general plan of the company (18%). Only 11% they link to the communication plan. In SMEs, sponsorship is integrated into the plan of the company (40%) or in the Marketing strategy (40%).

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Finally, it can be stated in a synthetic way that currently the large Spanish companies have an advanced methodology when it comes to making decisions in this area. Sponsor from a strategic point of view, linking your investment to objectives, creating specific departments and previously designing an activation plan, although companies still survive whose criteria - as some participating experts affirm - are questionable. On the other hand, it is evident that there is a gap in the management of sponsorship between large companies and SMEs. The latter undertake projects in this area in a more tactical or personalistic way. They do not have specialized departments and do not usually use agencies.

One of the future challenges will be to continue with these studies on sponsorship to progressively build trust among SMEs, so that they assume that this formula of communication between brands and consumers is able to achieve objectives strategically. The Spanish sport that is out of the big spots and competitions will thank you. They need the involvement and investment of private companies to survive in the market and compete in the field

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Branding: The process involved in creating a unique name and image for a product in the consumer's mind, mainly through advertising campaigns with a consistent theme. Branding aims to establish a significant and differentiated presence in the market that attracts and retains loyal customers.

Corporate Image: The public mindset regarding an organization.

Identity: This is the sum of the history, culture, and project of the organization: its essence.

Reputation: The recognition the stakeholders have of the organization.

Sports Sponsorship: Relationship involving the provision of resources from the sponsor to the sponsored in search of achieving mutual benefit, business and marketing objectives through promotion and communication strategy.

ENDNOTE

[1]   According to the EU, a SME is one that has less than 250 employees and whose annual turnover does not exceed 50 million euro or whose annual balance sheet does not exceed 43 million euro.

Chapter 2

Golden Medals:
The Impact of Individual Social Responsibility on Sports Corporate Reputation

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ABSTRACT

This chapter conducts an in-depth study regarding European football clubs' marketing strategies and brand management approaches in order to evaluate customers' perceived ethicality and how consumers value corporate social responsibility activities. Specifically, the case of European football clubs is evaluated during the 2013-2018 period. The evolution of the value of the top 20 football teams in 2013 were considered as they are the most valuable ones, and most renowned in terms of worldwide supporters and revenues. Furthermore, the success of the top three teams, Manchester United, FC Barcelona, and Real Madrid FC, were studied. The findings highlight how European football clubs should incorporate corporate social responsibility into their marketing strategy, combining it with their own players' approaches, in order to increase their value and reputation.

INTRODUCTION

Global society has become increasingly more aware of firm's actions in terms of social accountability, including not only environmental matters but also social problems. Among these, we find social inequalities, analphabetism, poverty, lack of access to clean water, waste disposals, pollution endangering human life, and a large etc. Accordingly, corporate social responsibility (CSR) has become increasingly prevalent in the sports industry. In 2018, this is even more relevant considering it is the year that the World Cup was disputed in Russia, an event followed by approximately 3.4 billion viewers worldwide (Roxborough, 2018) and increasingly more relevant across media elements (TV, social media, traditional media, etc.). The exposure of information, such as the corruption scandals involved in the Russian organization and FIFA, caused certain companies not to sponsor the event due to ethical differences (e.g. Johnson & Johnson).

This shows the commitment some firms have towards their involvement in sports, aside from sports clubs and their franchises. Considering football is one of the most global sports and the influence it can have in all social classes, the impact of the firms operating in this sector is significantly more relevant. Nelson Mandela's averment that sport can change the world holds much ideological sway and is becoming more and more relevant as the spread of information and actions is ever more global.

In addition, former United Nation Secretary-General Kofi Anan once commented that he was interested in the power of football to teach lifelong lessons about playing against other rivals, not enemies (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). That is, sport can spread understanding and tolerance through the introduction of new cultural values in fan and many other ways. In particular, literature has identified a positive association between the efficiency of a firm and the way it invests in CSR to create and enhance a sustainable competitive advantage (Jones, Felps & Bigley, 2007).

Implementing CSR actions is also positively associated with corporate brand awareness (Mattera, Baena & Cerviño, 2014), and brand love (Baena, 2016; 2017a). We can then argue that sports CSR takes the perspective that teams are members of society, who are expected to support the communities in which they operate (Mazodier et al., 2016). Nevertheless, little academic attention has been paid to the relevance of supporters' awareness of the responsible initiatives implemented by their clubs, and how these initiatives help develop an emotional attachment between supporters and the team.

Specifically, previous literature has identified a positive association between investing in business efficiency and investing in corporate social responsibility (CSR) to create and enhance a sustainable competitive advantage (McGuire et al, 1988; Shepard et al, 1997; Buchholtz et al, 1999; Quazi & O' Brien, 2000; Jones et al, 2007; among others). However, in many cases it has been identified that a lack

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of appropriate diffusion of this information can mislead consumers or undermine the efforts conducted in terms of their real corporate social responsibility efforts. Consequently, it is deemed essential to conduct marketing actions specifically oriented towards notifying all the firm's stakeholders regarding their CSR policies and activities (Mattera, Baena & Cerviño, 2014).

According to the above discussion, it is also important to denote that the firm shall first hold strong ethical values related to CSR activities upon which their strategies are based. In the event this does not happen, consumers will view the corporate marketing activities as a way of masking the image and reputation, without any true substance, commonly referred to as "greenwashing" (Lyndenberg, 2002). In the sports sector, and especially in football, this is especially true as the club's brand is one of the most important assets. Therefore, sports managers need to concentrate their efforts on managing this key business asset. However, strategic brand management has only become a key issue in the last decade (Blumrodt, Bryson, & Flanagan, 2012).

In an attempt to contribute Literature, and based on Blumrodt et al. (2012), the present chapter conducts an in-depth study about two of the most relevant European Football club to analyze its brand management approach and evaluate their fans' perceived ethicality and how supporters value CSR activities. Specifically, the case of Real Madrid F.C. and Barcelona F.C. (also named Barça) is analyzed. We have focused on these football teams as they are two of the most successful sports teams in terms of worldwide supporters. With this objective in mind, we have structured the paper into various sections. The first one analyzes provides a Literature Review and discusses the role of CSR in sports. Subsequently, the marketing strategy implemented by Real Madrid and FC Barcelona through CSR actions is addressed, as well as its effectiveness in terms of customer commitment and loyalty. The final section sets out the conclusions, limitations and further research avenues.

BACKGROUND

The foundations for a successful commercialization is a strong brand. In sports, branding could be defined as a long-term relationship between the sponsor and the sponsee, in which both are equivalent and have a brand status (Adjouri & Stastny, 2006). This partnership is based in trust where both partners have a high common identification and pursue common strategic goals.

Sport is becoming increasingly commercialized and sport entities have become more professional over the years. While North American sport organizations have traditionally led this development, the European ones are catching up (Bauer, Sauer and Schmitt, 2005). Nowadays, sports brands all over the world have as a major objective becoming globally recognized, especially in the case of professional

football clubs (Chanavat & Bodet, 2009). Furthermore, the internationalization of sports results as a consequence from the maturation of traditional markets in Western Europe and North America. That is, many brands particularly spots brands have transcended geographically by focusing on the global appeal of the sport.

Under these conditions, sports marketing is necessary to the businesses growth and survival (Ratten & Ratten, 2011). More specifically, many sports teams have been focusing on international branding efforts by building a global fan base and implemented relationship marketing programs designed to appeal to their most avid fans. This is especially true in soccer teams, which have turned into corporations where they share their wealth with their stockholders. Although ticket revenue used to be the number one source of income, now it has been declining due to the emergence of other source of income such as merchandising, broadcasting rights and season combined tickets (Kaynak, Salman & Tatoglu, 2008). In other words, among the evolution of diverse highly competitive sports, football clubs have started to think global and tackle an audience beyond where they compete. In this sense, literature coincides in emphasizing Manchester United as the pioneer in the football sports industry in terms of expanding their marketing and brand to other markets and regions (Hill & Vincent, 2006).

More specifically, in order to expand the image and commercialization of a specific sports entity, it is important to have strong brand equity, which engages sports fans and to which diverse individuals can relate. The reason behind this rationale is that brand consists of four dimensions: i) brand awareness; ii) brand image; iii) perceived quality; and iv) brand loyalty (Keller, 1993). In each of those dimensions the consumer, in this case sports fan, feel identified with the brand in one way or another. Furthermore, having strong brand implies that customers maintain a favorable brand through age, have high brand-names awareness, and perceive that a brand is of high quality. Therefore, they all are loyal to it (Chavanat & Bodet, 2009). This holds especially true in the case of sports, as fans tend to maintain their choice of teams for a specific sport through life.

In addition, the tendency towards using online tools to view sports, learn facts and obtain information have been significantly growing in the past few years. In 2018, with the Football (Soccer) World Cup, it was estimated that in the US even though the national team did not participate, an estimate of 7.7 million Americans streamed the qualifying game between Argentina and Iceland. Compared to figures for 2010 and 2014 World Cups, which were 1.5 and 3.2 million viewers respectively, the growth is at an exponential rate (Walton, 2018).

Achieving Supporters' Commitment Through Social Causes

Literature has emphasized the importance of showing strong brand for sport organizations as this may help them to enhance their competitive positioning in the marketplace. In essence, it is the development of this effective "brand" that allows sport entities to maximize their financial efficiency when interacting with consumers and stakeholders. Moreover, knowing what affects brand awareness and brand positioning constitutes a potential management tool for developing both marketing strategies and their operational components (Chavanat & Bodet, 2009). In short, brand has become a primary area of emphasis in the sport marketing literature (Cooper, 2010), as well as understanding the specific factors driving the four dimensions of brand equity in the case of sports brands.

According to the above arguments, it is also worth mentioning that sports fans are becoming more conscious and demanding of their team's commitment with society. This is consistent with Blumrodt, Bryson and Flanagan's (2012) results, which confirmed a positive impact of clubs' engagement in humanitarian programs, and show that the club's supporters expect a serious involvement in society from their sport brand.

Based on the above arguments, we can argue that the club's commitment to social causes becomes a factor to take into account when building sports brand. In particular, during recent years, professional sports clubs and sports associations have become more involved with social causes, creating their corporate social responsibility actions and strategies. For instance, in the United States, the Green Sports Alliance was created by professional teams from the Pacific Northwest, in collaboration with the Environmental Protection Agency (James, 2011). According to the International Olympics Committee (2013), sports have a significant role in society and organizations that are in this industry should embrace and promote their social responsibility. Also, in the case of sports teams, considering they are individual companies and represent various stakeholders' interest, they have a need for Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) measures and strategies. In this case, CSR translates into some of the following actions:

1. Ensuring corporate values are shared, respected and promoted by all the members of the organization and its supporters.
2. Employing the best people for the job (players, coaches, etc.) based on skills and qualifications (not basing judgment on age, race, social class or other).
3. Always respecting and encouraging fair play.
4. Having clear equipment guidelines (protecting players from injuries, setting an example for followers or fans).

5.   Being transparent in decision-making, accounting procedures and especially in disciplinary actions.
6.   Show that through health and fitness a better quality of life can be accomplished.
7.   Using sustainability as a standpoint for the development of the sport's engagement.
8.   Focusing on community benefit (could be a potential source of new players).
9.   Promoting heroes and heroines (players with exemplary behavior) as role models for supporters and society in general.

Moreover, individuals playing sports at a competitive level can play a significant part in shaping youngsters' future as they constitute a role model, an example of what some children wish to accomplish in the near future. Then, there is a high responsibility that relies in the way these individuals act, whether they play an individual or a team sport.

Sports Marketing Based on Social Commitment

By engaging in CSR actions, these sports icons can set a path to be followed by children of all ages. Additionally, regarding how CSR translates in the sports industry, firms that incorporate the abovementioned elements may gain more supporters and get a better image in the eyes of society in general. In particular, the former President of the International Olympics Committee, Jacques Rogge, mentioned that sports do not have a power on its own, they depend on people who play and follow it, creating a movement that has the power to improve the values of the society we live in *(2003)*.

Having said that, it is worth mentioning that Babiak and Wolfe (2013) have evidenced that CSR is becoming institutionalized in professional sport agents (clubs, sponsors, etc.). Findings also identified the internal resources and external pressures that served as the drivers of these changes. Complementary to this contribution, it was previously explored socially responsible activities around mega-sport events, specifically analyzing the Super Bowl event (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006). It was also shown that sport executives delivered their community outreach efforts during the event through an altruistic and strategic perspective.

Moreover, other authors have assessed CSR from a marketing perspective in sports. For instance, Landreth Grau and Garretson Folse (2007) evaluated cause-related marketing in the sports industries, which involved contributing to non-profit organizations, informing their consumers about it and translating those contributions into higher sales. Other authors explained that cause-related marketing can only be sustainable over time if CSR activities contribute to the bottom line and sport executives include CSR in the overall corporate strategy (see, e.g., Irwin et al., 2003; Lachowetz & Gladden, 2002; Lachowetz & Irwin, 2002; Roy & Graeff, 2003).

Incorporating Social Causes to Sports Companies' Culture

However, contributing to social causes voluntarily it is not only relevant for sports organizations. It is equally important for them to ensure that the firm and anyone who represents it (i.e. players) comply with legal requirements (Carroll, 1979). That is, if a player engages in illegal activities, even if he is individually responsible, his bad reputation reflects on the sports brand, thus damaging the sports' reputation and image (Smart & Rechner, 2007).

Considering professional sports organizations hold a high profile in the communities where they are based, each team is dependent on those social contexts for their own commercial success (Extejt, 2004). This holds especially true in the case of European Football clubs, as football is the most widespread watched, played and followed sport in the world, being European Championships and Teams regarded as the best teams in where players from all over the world wish to play (FIFA, 2013).

Due to the arguments abovementioned, almost all professional teams participate in philanthropic activities (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006). Particularly, Sheth and Babiak (2010) conducted a study through using a mixed-methods approach (i.e. survey and a qualitative content analysis of responses to open-ended questions) to assess how professional sport executives define CSR, and the priorities teams have regarding their CSR activities. It was concluded that the professional sports industry focuses on many approaches, including philanthropic activities and ethical behaviors. Additionally, the authors argued that executives consider CSR to be a basic component of their business strategy and that there are a number of elements to take into consideration, mainly: philanthropy (altruistic giving), an emphasis on the local community, partnerships, and ethical concerns.

More recently, Sheth and Babiak (2010) identified there is a need for a greater understanding of a definition of CSR in the sports industry, together with the relationship between CSR practices and sports team's success (matches won, championships won, etc.). Based on the above discussion, it was herein determined that there was a need for a greater understanding of the relationship between CSR practices and sports team's success (Sheth & Babiak, 2010). In this context, both Real Madrid and FC Barcelona have achieved a greater success thanks to their CSR initiatives (e.g. FC Barcelona helped Messi when he was a child and had a hormone deficiency but great potential as a football player; later on, Messi became an excellent football player, one of the most valued in the world).

More specifically, based on the evidence gathered from the top Football Clubs, it is understood that there is a cause-effect relationship between the sports brand identity, shared values and community with their consumers (sports fans). By combining the club's internal culture and values with those shared with the community (and a noble purpose or corporate philanthropy), the sports brand can create a solid structure.

This structure has the power to translate CSR actions into success. For instance,, supporting players that later on become the greatest figures in the club's history (i.e., Messi), or contributing to schooling of children in impoverished areas (namely Africa, Latin America, etc.) leads to strong linkages between fans and the team.

Figure 1 shows the interactions between the different elements that determine sports industry's agents brand identity (Mattera and Baena, 2014). In the case of sports marketing and building sports brands based on social commitment, it has been evidenced that the noble purpose, shared values & community and internal culture & values represent the basis for the Brand Identity model. This is complemented by the capabilities and the personality. As a result, by having a strong commitment with social causes, the sports brand can create a solid basis for their brand identity model. This has a constant feedback with the rallying cry and aspirational self-image, representing both what the society needs and what the consumer wants to show to society as they embrace and wear the brand.

Moreover, as the brand is established linked to these strong social values, and the eagerness to contribute to the community, there is a need for a specific marketing plan to transfer this information to consumers and the general public. An effective marketing strategy, combined with effective communication, achieves strong sports consumer (fan)'s support of the brand, thus building the brand reputation. Additionally, by engaging in social causes, through effective communication the brand can learn

Figure 1. Sports brand management and marketing model

the social interests of the fan, thus designing their social commitment and corporate strategy accordingly, and tackling the specific elements that interest him. Figure 1 summarizes this discussion.

METHODOLOGY

As stated, the present paper attempts to evaluate customer's perceived ethicality and how consumers value corporate social responsibility activities. To achieve this goal, data sources about the football teams which were part of the Forbes top 20 Most Valuable Soccer Teams in 2013 and 2018 were analyzed. Within those, the ones that are considered for the purpose of this study are the most valuable football clubs as well as being the sport franchises in the world in 2018, which are: Real Madrid, FC Barcelona (also known as Barça) and FC Manchester United.

The main reason for using this method is the existence of a host of reliable secondary research that has been conducted by specialist management consultancy firms and scholars. This data is not only reliable and regularly updated, but is comprehensive in its coverage of the rapidly evolving and changing soccer industry (Söderman & Dolles, 2004). More importantly, the complexity and unpredictability of markets akin to the soccer industry make it imperative to resort to qualitative and subjective interpretation of existing reliable marketing data (Gummesson, 2005). It is also worth mentioning that prior literature on soccer frequently used databases derived from secondary sources (Baena, 2017b).

Considering the study carried out by Mattera and Baena (2014) in which they evaluated in depth FC Barcelona and Real Madrid, it was of interest to determine the evolution that those two teams had had during the 5 years following the study, as well as any changes in other European Football teams and their CSR approaches. The evaluation was carried out following Forbes annual list of the most valuable football clubs, the actions, strategies and corporate policies undertaken during these years, the individual players' attitudes and commitments to society and the overall chanve in corporate value, as well as the variations in the ranking.

In Table 1 it is evidenced the variations in ranking of the most valuable football clubs, together with the variation of their value between 2013 and 2018. As it is portrayed, the top 3 teams remain being Real Madrid, Manchester United and FC Barcelona, although the composition of the first, second and third place has changed, as well as their value. Manchester United has seen an increase of 16, 58% during the 5 year period, raising their position to the number 1 on the ranking, with a total revenue of 850 million USD. FC Barcelona rose by 39,80% in its value, which

Table 1. The most valuable football clubs in 2013 vs. 2018

Rank 2013	Rank 2018	Variation	Football Team	Country	Value ($M) 2013	Value ($M) 2017	% change 2013-2017	Revenue ($M)
1	3	-2	Real Madrid	Spain	3,300	3,580	8,48%	688
2	1	+1	Manchester United	England	3,165	3,690	16,58%	850
3	2	+1	Barcelona	Spain	2,600	3,635	39,80%	688
4	6	-2	Arsenal	England	1,326	1,932	45,7%	572
5	4	+1	Bayern Munich	Germany	1,309	2,083	59,12%	657
6	13	-7	Milan	Italy	945	802	-15,13%	238
7	7	0	Chelsea	England	901	1,845	104,77%	523
8	9	-1	Juventus	Italy	694	1,258	81,26%	379
9	5	+4	Manchester City	England	689	2,083	302,32%	650
10	8	+2	Liverpool	England	651	1,492	129,18%	523
11	10	+1	Tottenham Hotspur	England	520	1,058	103,46%	377
12	16	-4	Schalke 04	Germany	498	629	26,30%	249
13	12	-1	Borussia Dortmund	Germany	436	808	85,32%	315
14	18	-4	Internazionale	Italy	401	537	32,4%	238
15	N/A	N/A	Lyon	France	368	N/A	N/A	N/A
16	N/A	N/A	Corinthians	Brazil	358	N/A	N/A	N/A
17	20	-3	Napoli	Italy	330	379	14,84%	158
18	N/A	N/A	Hamburg	Germany	300	N/A	N/A	N/A
19	N/A	N/A	Marseille	France	285	N/A	N/A	N/A
20	N/A	N/A	Newcastle United	England	263	N/A	N/A	N/A

contributed to position the club as number two, rising one position compared to its previous rank in 2013; while Real Madrid's value rose by 8,48% however this was not sufficient to help the club remain at the top and dropped to the third position in the ranking.

In addition, the three teams are the only European Football clubs that are present in the 10 most valuable teams in overall sports, which solidifies their position among society, as shown in Table 2.

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Table 2. 10 most valuable teams in 2018

Ranking	Sport Team	Value(US$)
1	Dallas Cowboys	$4.80 billion
2	Manchester United	$4.12 billion
3	Real Madrid	$4.09 billion
4	Barcelona	$4.06 billion
5	New York Yankees	$4.00 billion
6	New England Patriots	$3.70 billion
7	New York Knicks	$3.60 billion
8	Los Angeles Lakers	$3.30 billion
8	New York Giants	$3.30 billion
10 (tie)	Golden State Warriors	$3.10 billion
10 (tie)	Washington Redskins	$3.10 billion

Elegibility of the Clubs

Taking into account that all clubs have a high involvement with their global followers, and a strong orientation towards their social commitment, it is of interest for academia and practice to evaluate the actions undertaken by Real Madrid FC, FC Barcelona and Manchester United in order to become the three most valuable brands in the European sports industry. All three teams are highly successful and can attract the interest of fans, investors and the best players in the world.

From a sports perspective Real Madrid is one of the most successful football clubs in the world. Specifically, as of 30 April 2018, the team has won 33 "Ligas" (national league trophies), 19 "Copas del Rey" (Spain's national cup), 13 European Championship titles, 3 Intercontinental Cup trophies, 4 European Super Cups, 3 FIFA World Cups, and 6 FIFA Club World trophies, among others. Due to this exceptional number of titles, Real Madrid was named "FIFA Club of the Century" in 2002. Real Madrid F.C. is allowed to wear a multiple–winner badge on their jersey during UEFA Champions League matches as the club has won more than five European Cups. Additionally, on 23 December, 2000 Real Madrid was named the FIFA Club of the 20th century. More recently, it received the FIFA Order of Merit. The Real Madrid F.C. has truly capitalized upon the importance of branding and as such has developed the ability to market in a way not seen anywhere else in the world of soccer, including one of his players, Cristiano Ronaldo, whose Facebook Page is the one that has the largest number of followers.

FC Barcelona, on the other hand, is the club with the largest combined number of followers and ranks at the top in terms of number of interactions and impact, which

is due to the messages sent by the club, transparency and solid base it generates through its players. This is the reason why it continues to rank as the number one in 2018 as well as it did in 2013.

The case of Manchester United, who closes the top 3 in 2018 as well as it did in 2013 (see Table 3) in the case of social media followers, it has seen a dramatic increase although not as high as the other two. This can be explained by the impact of individual players' following base, as FC Barcelona and Real Madrid's players typically have larger fan bases than those of Manchester United. The impact of Cristiano Ronaldo's outing from Real Madrid still is not evident, and it remains to be seen the impact it can have on the brand's social media and fan base.

Based on the abovementioned facts, Real Madrid, FC Barcelona and Manchester United were considered as the basis for this research.

Data Gathering Process

Information about the teams herein studied was gathered from December 2012 to July 2018 by repeatedly browsing the teams' web site, evaluating the hypes that have caused the changes in each team's reputation, value and overall perception of society. In doing so, there were several factors that came to light as a result of the different situations and actions that clubs undertake. Comments posted on social media and

Table 3. Social media top 10 ranking 2013 vs. 2017

Rank	Team	Number of Followers 2013	Number of Followers 2018
1	Barcelona	60.6 M	145 M
2	Real Madrid	49.8 M	141 M
3	Manchester United	34.5 M	88.4 M
4	Chelsea	20.2 M	59.5 M
5	Los Angeles Lakers	19.6 M	29.4 M
6	AC Milan	17.2 M	
7	Arsenal	16.8 M	50.6 M
8	Chicago Bulls	9.7 M	
9	Bayern Munich	8 M	46.8 M
10	New York Yankees	7.3 M	

articles published in specialized newspapers were also considered. Additionally, one exploratory focus group was conducted to discuss the customer engagement of each of the team's fans.

As noted by Jackson and Shaw (2009), the use of non-probability samples is particularly relevant to marketing research. Literature has also highlighted the benefits of using young people as a sample to explore customer engagement (Hayes et al, 2006), as they represent future earners and spenders (Ross and Harradine, 2011). During the focus group[1], participants were immersed in a discussion regarding Barcelona and Real Madrid's social responsibility actions. All students except two actively practiced sports and followed European football competitions yet every one of the students in the focus group knew of at least two social initiatives conducted by each of those clubs, FC Barcelona, Manchester United and Real Madrid. Also, the students acknowledge that it is very important for firms to commit to social causes, and in doing so, to promote their actions so that others can follow their example. In the case of FC Barcelona, Manchester United and Real Madrid, they mentioned that both of the Spanish leading clubs and one of the top British teams had set an example for other football teams to engage in social activities. Additionally, it was outlined the importance of marketing for sports companies, especially in this case, as it serves as a tool to promote firms' commitment to the community, whether locally, nationally or internationally; which according to the students surveys, shows a more trustworthy company, enhancing the image and the brand.

In general, they were aware of most of the initiatives that both clubs have set up in practice, based on TV advertisements, social media, comments from the players, and comments from the journalists in newspaper articles or during games. Furthermore, during 2018, clubs became under further scrutiny form the general public as the World Cup brought additional attention to the events surrounding the sport, and the corruption scandals that arose from the events' organizations. Because of this, understanding the actions carried out through many years, and the consolidation of the social responsibility approach of individual teams, becomes increasingly more relevant.

With respect to socially responsible actions, the development of CSR programs is a relatively new phenomenon in many sport entities. For instance, the football teams playing in the Bundesliga (German league) have only begun to develop CSR initiatives since the beginning of the twenty-first century (Reiche, 2013). Nevertheless, these social activities are carried out directly by the team, without the creation of a charitable foundation per se (Baena, 2017b). In particular, only a few teams have their own foundation to help people and fight against inequality), while others contribute to joint-efforts as explained in the yearly UEFA Social Responsibility Report (UEFA, 2018).

Among them, the Foundation Real Madrid is the one with the larger number of followers on Facebook with over 4.5 million followers [retrieved on July 17, 2018]. Moreover, in Spain, more than 10,000 people have benefited from nearly 150 projects developed by the Foundation through its Social Sport Schools. Around the world, the team's Foundation has opened more than 400 Social Sport Schools in 70 countries with more than 80,000 direct beneficiaries. In short, the Foundation's main goal is to encourage values inherent in sport, and use the latter as an educational tool. Consequently, in 2007 it received a commendation from the COE (Spanish Olympic Committee) in recognition of "its extraordinary social work". The foundation has also been awarded with the *International Award for Solidarity in Sport*, for the "School united by the peace of football (Israel and Palestinian Territories" program, as well as the *Corporate Social Responsibility Award from the Football is More Foundation*, which was created by S.D. Prince Constantin von und zu Liechtenstein to promote development and peace through football. More recently, the European Club Association (ECA) awarded the Real Madrid football club the prize for the *Best Community and Social Responsibility Program 2014.*

In addition to the causes the clubs support through their strategic social responsibility programs, many also raise to the challenge of contributing when *force majeure* situations arise. Such is the case of the terrorist attacks that took place in 2017 in the city of Manchester, which caused significant damage to the community and specifically to the victims of the suicide bomb attack. At the time, Manchester United, together with the other top club in the city, Manchester City, joined forces to donate one million pounds to the victims, considering their clubs are "at the heart of (their) local communities in Manchester, and it is right that (they) present a unified response to this tragedy. The money will help, of course, but the work of the two clubs and their respective foundation and community scheme can build on the fantastic spirit that Mancunians have shown in the immediate aftermath" (Molloy, 2017).

Furthermore, the Manchester United has diverse social approaches, and its foundation supports a variety of projects. This is for instance, the case of i) Girls Development and empowering women through talent clubs to raise the importance of female football; ii) nourishment and health programs to improve the wellbeing of local communities; iii) supporting disability sport initiatives promoting equal sport and physical activity opportunities; and iv) supporting youth in entrepreneurships (including workshops challenges or certificates), among other social initiatives. However, the most outstanding element that Manchester United has created is their page on justgiving, a social crowdfunding platform where individuals can create

fundraisers for the causes they are interested in supporting, in combination with the club's foundation (Justgiving, 2018). This has proven to be a highly effective way to engage with their stakeholders, as they can learn first-hand the areas they are most interested in, and gather support directly from the fans, increasing the diffusion of information and sharing of their socially responsible actions.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Being global and well-known is the major objective of sport brands in general and professional football clubs in particular (Chanavat & Bodet, 2009). In fact, the transfer of soccer star David Beckham to Real Madrid, which was mainly explained by brand considerations, serves as an example for the growing importance of marketing aspects in the management of professional sports teams. We can then say that sport organizations have to be progressive service seller in order to successfully compete with other leisure offers (Bauer, Sauer & Schmitt, 2005). However, only recently has case research been used to extend the understanding of relationship marketing in sports (Stavros & Westberg, 2009).

To cover this gap, the present study qualitatively explores how European football clubs should incorporate CSR into their marketing strategy through the evaluation of consumer's perceived CSR values and ethicality. Our findings highlight that professional sport teams and leagues have unique resources at their disposal in order to put into practice specific CSR programs and raise awareness in the general public with greater impact than organizations operating in other industries. Among these resources, those which stand out are: donating tickets, usage of their facilities for events (stadiums, arenas, etc.), access to media and social media, vendors, sponsors and support of professional staff (lawyers, accountants, trainers, experts in kinesiology, etc.).

In particular, concerning Barcelona FC, their actions with Lionel Messi, the agreements they have with UNICEF, and many other initiatives show how the firm's CSR actions result in a variable for brand enhancement, as well as alleviating social problems. The case of Lionel Messi shows not only an act of good faith but also how this event constituted a significant marketing element for the firm. Specifically, FC Barcelona first heard about Messi when this young Argentinian was barely 12 years old. He was a significantly better football player than any other child yet he had just been diagnosed with a growth hormone deficiency (GHD). Though the disease had a cure, it was too expensive for Messi's family, and without it his future as a professional football player was doubtful.

When FC Barcelona's coach at the time saw Messi playing, he saw he had a lot of potential, so the club offered to pay for the treatment if Lionel moved to Barcelona from his hometown in Rosario (Argentina). Not only Messi was cured from his GHD but also he was the third youngest player ever who played for Barça's top-team and the youngest to play in Spain's Prime national league (*La Liga*). Additionally, the FC Barcelona Foundation signed an agreement with UNESCO in 2007 to combat racism and violence in sport. In the framework of this alliance various awareness campaigns have been developed, with the participation of FC Barcelona players, like the one launched in 2011 called 'Put Racism Offside', starring Messi, Piqué and Keita. Thanks to this arrangement it has also been achieved that football clubs belong to ECA (European Clubs Association) include anti-racist clauses in their players' contracts.

Related to Real Madrid FC, participants in the focus group highlighted that one of the many initiatives the team has through the "Real Madrid Foundation" is the creation of schools in Latin-America and India, which support the development of young athletes. This Foundation recently received the Corporate Social Responsibility award from the Football is More Foundation, which was created by S.D. Prince Constantin von und zu Liechtenstein to promote development and peace through football. In addition, Real Madrid uses sport to reach out to demographic groups in risk of social exclusion through its Foundation. In doing so, an ever-growing network of academies in youth centers, penitentiary centers were created throughout Spain to achieve the insertion of these groups into society, and make society aware of the situation these groups are in. Particularly, in penitentiary centers the Foundation aims to facilitate the reinsertion of inmates into society through the practice of football or basketball, and promoting the development of positive values and competences, such as team work, the acceptance and respect for established rules, and respect for one's fellow man, among others.

Real Madrid Foundation also facilitates the social integration of immigrant children and their families through the joint practice of football and complimentary education programs. In short, as published in Real Madrid official web page,

the Foundation's main goal is to promote values inherent in sport, and to use the latter as an educational tool, both in Spain and the rest of the world. It uses the universal nature of Real Madrid CF to make the rest of the world aware of the importance of teaching values and promoting charitable causes. Therefore, events such as benefit matches, the Foundation's annual Gala, or benefit concerts are organized in which it instills values to be emulated by society. This Foundation exists thanks to the collaboration of different offices of the government services and thanks to the generous support it receives from the patronage and sponsorship of national and international companies, as well as the donations from thousands of Madridistas (Real Madrid supporters) who wish to strengthen their bond with Real Madrid.

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Last but not least, participants in the focus group considered Manchester United to be a highly involved club in social aspects, and giving back to society, which in turn can affect the view individuals have of this brand. The club's foundation carries out significant work, with specific projects to develop underprivileged youths, increase equality and empower youngsters. Additionally, the club has collaborated with diverse organizations such as the Manchester United Supports Trust to set up regular donation and collection points for food, to support the Manchester South Central Foodbank. This is an initiative highly valued by the fans, particularly in the city, because of the contribution the club is making to the region.

However, the club does not only support the regional stakeholders, but takes on a global vision, supporting different causes and allowing the fans to provide their interests and raise awareness on issues concerning Manchester United fans around the world. What is more, the global perception of the club is positively affected by the impact of player's attitudes. One such example was Juan Mata, one of the team's top midfielders, whose decision in 2017 to donate 1% of his earnings to charity, encouraged other members of the team, such as Jose Mourinho, the team's coach, to join in donating part of their salary to social causes. These are set to help improve the conditions of individuals living in India, many of whom are devoted fans of the Manchester United club, thus showing the impact of the club's social responsibility actions worldwide.

Moving forward, the present analysis has revealed new insights from how CSR and sports brands are related in practice. The examples from Real Madrid, Manchester United and FC Barcelona can serve as a standpoint for other sports teams, especially in the case of European football, to engage in social commitments and use these as a basis for their marketing strategy. In doing so, they will not only create significant benefits for the communities that they collaborate with, but also position the sports brand as a socially-committed one, which holds stronger value for fans compared to other brands.

Given the evaluation of all team's rankings in 2013 and in 2018, the evolution shows there is a high relevance in social actions to increase or maintain the value of these type of organizations. Moreover, as shown in this work, having a noble purpose and internalizing social commitment into the sports firm's culture and values adds greater meaning to the brand identity model. It also creates a strong link between fans and other stakeholders and the sports brand, which ensures a long lasting relationship consumer/fan-sports club. Therefore, through this study, managers working in the sports industry can use these clubs as examples-to-be-followed; consider social commitment as a valuable input in their corporate strategy, as well as in their marketing strategy.

In sum, we hope this research serves as a basis for further investigations, observing the gradual development of the most important sports clubs start to adopt social responsibility strategies.

Limitations and Direction for Future Research

A first limitation of this study is its focus on the Real Madrid FC, FC Barcelona and FC Manchester United. Additionally, the results of this research have been obtained by a qualitative approach. It should oals be noticed that due to the e difficulty to reach all population subject to the research, a convenience-sampling method has been chosen; thus, generalization is not possible.

Based on the above limitations, further research in this area can be conducted in different directions. A first research in this area could be take the same study protocol and apply it to other sports teams and sport categories (baseball, basketball, etc.). By doing so, comparative studies might be carried out. In addition, the obtained results reveal that some teams saw a dramatic change in the ranking of the most valuable football clubs. Since the objective of this research was to evaluate the successful approaches, the reasons why some teams lost value or dropped dramatically in the ranking were not discussed. However, it would be of interest to academia and practice to evaluate the impact of CSR, or lack of it, in this phenomenon.

Lastly, the understanding obtained from such investigations would be useful for the development of CSR dimensions in sport marketing, as well as for the formulation of sport industry practices. Therefore, we also propose it as a further research avenue.

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ENDNOTE

[1] A non-probability sample of 13 undergraduate students was selected on the basis that they are potential followers of sport teams. As noted by Jackson and Shaw (2007), the use of non-probability samples is particularly relevant to marketing research. Literature has also highlighted the benefits of using young people as a sample to explore customer engagement (Hayes et al., 2006), as they represent future earners and spenders (Ross & Harradine, 2011).

Section 2

Management Applied to Sports Companies and Events

Chapter 3
Self-Presentation, Interaction, and Marketing of Chinese Athletes on Social Media:
A Study of Men's National Table Tennis Team

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ABSTRACT

This chapter explored the characteristics of Chinese athletes' self-presentation and para-social interaction on social media using Goffman's self-presentation and para-social interaction theories. With the policies consciously supporting sport promotion in China, how to balance the commercialization and national glories, even the entertainment part is the linchpin of this. A content analysis of 552 Weibo posted by 10 male Chinese table tennis athletes was conducted. Results found that many Weibo posts are about interactivity (33%), especially with their teammates or coaches. Athletes also tend to be more personal on social media by posting amusing or emotional tweets. All showed that they present themselves as more of a marketing one but still under the frame of "the whole nation system." Only a few Weibo were promotional (9%), indicating that the potential of achieving market objectives has not come to athletes' full awareness. Suggestions are athletes enhance the relationship with fans so as to enlarge the influence of themselves and the sport per se.

INTRODUCTION

The development of social media "has a profound impact on sports industry" (Pegoraro, 2010, p. 501). This impact also shows out in the image presented by athletes. Athletes pose their photos of training, daily life and interact with fans and friends (Du, 2014). A study found that Twitter provided a platform for athletes to present a "multi-faceted" self (Sanderson, 2013). Pegoraro (2010) concluded that most athletes' tweets are related to their daily lives; fans and athletes could use Twitter for social and para-social interaction (PSI) (Frederick, Lim, Clavio, Pedersen & Burch, 2014). It not only helps to strengthen the interaction with fans but also enhances their influences (Sanderson, 2011).

As Twitter's typical social media platform counterpart, Sina Weibo itself has become a part of athletes' image project (Guan, 2017). Sina Weibo is one of the most influential social media applications in China. By the end of 2010, the number of Weibo users reached 50 million and then embraced an explosive growth. According to *the 39th China Internet Development Statistics Report*, when WeChat, QQ and other social applications continue to develop, Sina Weibo still occupies 37.1% utilization (CNNIC, 2017). The dissemination of sports news is not confined to traditional media (Zhang, 2013) but widely spread on social media through interaction with athletes and fans. During the 2016 Summer Olympics held in Rio de Janeiro, Weibo became an important stage for sports news, athletes-fans interaction, sponsorship and promotion. According to the official data released by Sina, the amount of interaction[1] on the Weibo reached 61.9 million on the opening day of Rio Olympics, and the total amount of reading[2] of related topics amounted to 10 billion. Sun Yang, Zhu Ting, Zhang Jike and other athletes were mentioned the most. Also, a series of stickers and memes became popular. Fu Yuanhui, a swimmer, used "*Hong Huang Zhi li*" during an interview, or a kind of power that is mighty enough to manipulate the universe, to describe her hard work, which became a hit on the internet. The image of athlete has set out on the road to stardom.

However, there are few studies on the active use of Weibo by Chinese athletes and the interaction between athletes and fans. After the Rio Olympics, the national table tennis team members such as Zhang Jike and Ma long, gained a large number of fans through posting tweets or doing the live broadcast and TV shows. In 2017, a table tennis competition was named as "The Marvellous 12" (Di Biao Zui Qiang Shi'er Ren) rather than the traditional name of "Chinese Trials for the WTTC 2017 Table Tennis". The former coach Liu Guoliang called it a strategy to catch more attention of young people, more importantly, adding some weight to the brand of National Table Tennis Team. The phenomenon of the national men's table tennis team using social media for impression management thus is prominent and merits studies. This research, using Goffman's self-presentation and the para-social interaction theory,

analyzes the contents of tweets posted by male Chinese table tennis athletes. The purpose of this research is to explore how athletes act as the active users of Weibo to present themselves and manage their image, and also examine the interaction between athletes and fans in the new media environment. With the development of communication technology and the change of sports industry environment, social media is closely related to sports promotion. This study not only helps to further understand the image or impression management of athletes, but also discusses how to change the mode of sports communication, how to engage more Chinese people into sports and improve the participation of fans, how to promote athletes as endorsers of brands and how to promote the popularity of sports as an industry.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The image of athletes in the era of social media has garnered much attention from numerous scholars (e.g., Du, 2014; Gregory, 2009; Hambrick, Simmons, Greenhalgh & Greenwell, 2010; Pegoraro, 2010; Wang & Shi, 2012). The notion of self-presentation has been utilized in the research of self-image construction of athletes (e.g., Emmons and Mocarski, 2014; Gregory, 2009; Sanderson, 2014), while most scholars in China pay attention to how athletes are portrayed in traditional media texts (e.g., Luo, 2013; Wang & Shi, 2012; Liu, Zhang & Cui, 2016).

Self-Presentation Theory

Self-presentation traces back to Erving Goffman (1959), who compares people to performers, expressing their identity through messages to display the most credible image to audiences. Goffman (1959) noted that the individual in the social context will symbolize their behaviors and shape their own image, which may contain a multitude of presentation strategies that a person seeks to manage through a revolving process of interpreting audiences, goals, and contexts. When an individual is in front of others, he or she has tended to "present" himself to be in accordance with the social values. There are differences between individual-self and social-self. Goffman (1959) emphasizes the performance of people under social interaction. As a social role, performance is not merely "an extension of the performer's characteristics in the expression" (Goffman, 1959, p. 68), but often associated with the performer's job. Xiao and Huang (2010) conducted an experiment and found that in the social context, an individual's self-presentation would change with the attitude of others.

With the advent of the internet and online communication, research of self-presentation turned to social media. People choose to post photos and self-modified descriptions on their personal pages to build the image of themselves (Buffardi &

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Campbell, 2008). There is a difference between the self-presentation in the network society and in the real society (Sha, 2014). On the Internet, people could present themselves more strategically (Ellison, Heino & Gibbs, 2006). Michikyan (2014) argues that the self-presentation on the network is complex and dynamic. The analysis revealed that people reported presenting their real-self more than their ideal-self and false-self on Facebook.

Social Media and Self-Presentation

Social media has been the biggest buzz on Web 2.0 in recent years. Mayfield (2007) explored the definition of social media in his e-book *what is social media*. He believed social media should be understood as a group of new kinds of online media. Later, Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) defined social media as "a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0 and that allow the creation and exchange of user-generated content (UGC)" (p. 61). Social media enables the rapid spread and sharing of information in the crowd, changing the way of communication. The exponential growth of celebrities' Weibo usage has given celebrities themselves more exposure to the public and made them more popular (Wang, 2012). Researchers also analyzed the social value which celebrities demonstrated through the contents they posted on Weibo (Wang, 2012). Wang and Zhang (2012) also studied celebrities' influence on the group of young adults and their microblog marketing. They found the microblog marketing largely depends on Weibo's communication features and operation mechanism.

In this context, people are afforded more control over their self-presentation (Chen, Lai, Dong, Fu & Yue, 2013). Young people present themselves through photo walls, self-descriptions, posts on social media such as MySpace and Facebook (Michikyan & Subrahmanyam, 2012). Banczyk, Krämer, and Senokozlieva (2008) summarized the self-presenting behaviors that often appear on social networks, including personal page names, avatars, photo shoots, and information disclosure. Mazur and Kozarian (2010) analyzed 124 blogs and found that most adolescent and emerging adult bloggers choose to present themselves to others in a flattering and upbeat manner, with the tendency to publish emotional content such as self-description, daily activities, social, and love relationships. When it comes to motivations and strategies that influence self-presentation on social networks, five aspects were proposed: amusing, self-expression, recreation, communication, and self-improvement. Different motivations affect self-presentation (Jung et al., 2007). Sun and Wu (2012) constructed a model of a self-presenting path on Facebook and found that self-presentation was driven by three motivating forces: the need to socialize with others, the trusting intention of others and the perceived self-control. They also found that more specific or

concrete personality traits lead to better Facebook self-presentation. Human et al. (2012) found if an individual is more active in self-presentation, he or she could leave a more accurate and true personality impression.

Para-Social Interaction Theory

Horton and Wohl (1956) defined Para-social Interaction as a one-sided relationship between media users and the "persona" in the mass media, such as characters or stars on television. Media users in para-social interaction imagined interpersonal relationships in the same way they communicate with real friends. The emergence of para-social interactions is usually accompanied with predictions of users' feelings, behaviors, and attitudes to the "persona" in the media (Perse & Rubin, 1989). Media users take the "persona" as a real person to communicate, but the information is often controlled and generated by the "persona" (Cohen & Perse, 2003). Cohen (2004) studied audiences and their favorite TV characters and found that para-social interaction has the same psychological processes as daily intimate relationships.

The theory of para-social interaction is widely used in media research. The earliest studies mostly focused on the television characters. Perse and Rubin (1989) found that soap opera audiences would create a personal impression on characters based on their own interpersonal relationship system. Park and Lennon (2004) claimed that there is a positive correlation between impulse buying and the para-social interaction between audience and the host. Studies also examined how individuals engage in para-social interaction. Scholars found that anxious-ambivalent were the most likely to have para-social relationships with television characters, while avoidants were the least likely to develop para-social interactions (Cole & Leets, 1999). Then, Chen (2014) conducted a research on the complex process of forming para-social relationships on YouTube and found that the phases of para-social developments are managed by digital-self images. In recent years, domestic scholars have explored more about the para-social interaction on Weibo. Mao (2014) examined the para-social interaction model on Weibo. The analysis revealed that the specialty of Weibo, compared with other mass media, was that the para-social interaction on it can be positive and either negative. From the perspective of communication effects, Ma (2014) suggested that para-social relationships on Weibo are vulnerable. "Once the true image of public figures contrary to the constructed image, the audience will decide whether the para-social interaction should continue" (Ma, 2014, p.78).

In the area of sports communication, scholars found that the social media provided the audience a medium to express emotions, thus enabling the audience and the sport's characters to develop virtual interpersonal relationships (Weiss, 1996). Sanderson and Emmons (2013) studied the case of baseball player Hamilton and found that

the symbiotic relationship between athletes and fans is marked by turbulence, rather than a straight course. Sun (2010) noted that personality also affects the para-social relationship between athletes and fans. Frederick et al. (2012) found that the social interaction and quasi-social interaction of athletes on Twitter are equal. Other scholars examined the relationship between para-social relations and sports fandom and found that the higher the level of fandom is, the more likely they develop para-social relations with their favorite athletes (Earnheardt & Haridakis, 2009).

Athletes and Image Project

Athletes rely a great deal on their public image for promotion. More and more scholars began to explore athletes self-use of social media. Twitter, as Sina Weibo's typical social media platform counterpart, offers a platform for athletes to construct themselves (Gregory, 2009) and enables the interaction between them and sports fans (Sanderson, 2014). Du (2014) proposed that athletes need to pay more attention to the all-round use of social media. Researchers did empirical studies in this respect. Emmons and Mocarski (2014) found that social media weakened the public's stereotypical impression of athletes. Based on Goffman's self-presentation theory, Smith and Sanderson (2015) studied how athletes, from golf, tennis to soccer etc., self-presented on Instagram, a picture-sharing social networking site. Through content analysis, Hambrick et al. (2010) determined six uses: interactivity, diversion, information sharing, content sharing, promotional, and fan-ship when online self-presenting. Pegoraro (2010) studied tweets of 49 athletes and found that the content they post was related to their daily life and that many athletes interacted directly with fans. Twitter as a communication technology, has become the intermediary of social interaction between athletes and fans (Kassing & Sanderson, 2010).

Besides, many scholars in China pay attention to the image of athlete and brand effect brought by it. Studies focus on how media shape the image of athletes. Within the environment of new media, Chinese athletes' media images have transmitted from simply "competitive people" to multi-role "social people" (Luo, 2013, p.114). Wang and Shi (2012) studied the interviews with athletes published by the State Sports General Administration, finding that the image of athletes changed from a national-honor representative to an individual. Liu et al. (2016) raised six dimensions of professional athletes' brand image, that is, fan relationship, athletic style, morality, social responsibility, external image and competing level. They (Liu, et al., 2016) believed that "athletes" value depends more on the audience's subjective perception rather than just the competition results (p. 44).

Most of the research analyzes the athletes' image from the perspective of media text, ignoring the athletes as the active role of the self-image presentation. The construction of self-image of Chinese athletes on Weibo has been seldom discussed.

Hence, this study fills the gap by exploring the features of Chinese athletes' self-presentation and their image on Weibo with self-presentation theory. Based on the above literature review, the author proposes the following research questions:

RQ 1: What are the characteristics of the images that Chinese athletes present on Weibo?
RQ 2: How is the interaction between Chinese athletes and fans?

METHODOLOGY

To answer the above questions, a content analysis was conducted for this study. Content analysis is widely applied in studies on mass communication, especially ones related to social media. Scholars used content analysis to study how Twitter affects consumer behavior (Hornikx & Hendriks, 2015), users who are concerned about health on Twitter and Weibo (Zhang, Wang & Wang, 2015), and user recommendation mechanism (Qin, et al. 2013). In addition, content analysis is also used for sports-related research. For instance, the audience's satisfaction with sports events (Greenwell, Lee & Naeger, 2007) and the evolving features of Olympic coverage (Sun & Xiao, 2015). Frederick (2012), Hambrick and Simmons (2010), Smith and Sanderson (2015), Pegoraro et al. (2010) also selected content analysis to examine tweets that athletes posted.

Sampling

In selecting the tweets for analysis, the author found that since the Rio Olympics, athletes have been more active on Weibo. After Rio 2016, the members of National Table Tennis male team became "superstar" on social media, especially Zhang Jike, who has something of a bad-boy image with the wild tattoo, which attracted millions of girl fans. Xu Xin, Zhang Jike, Wang Hao and Ma Long started to post tweets more frequently, did live stream on social media or participated in TV shows as invited guests. These landed them more endorsements and business cooperation. For example, Zhang Jike advertised Kia cars and a television campaign for Coca-Cola.

However, athletes from Chinese table tennis team are under greater pressure to get medals for the country in "the whole nation system" (*ju guo ti zhi*). Especially given that Chinese table tennis is considered as a national sport in our country, the general public participation is higher than other sports. The official data of Sina Weibo also shows the popularity of the members of the National Table Tennis Men's Team is higher than that of other athletes during the Rio Olympics. Thus, the commercialization and entertainment of them is a prominent phenomenon.

Therefore, this study took Chinese table tennis male team as an example. Tweets of 10 athletes from the National Table Tennis Men's Team during a whole year from August 5, 2016 (the opening of the Rio Olympics) to August 5, 2017, was sampled. The 10 athletes were chosen according to their number of followers, the number of tweet readings and frequency of posting tweets on Weibo.

Altogether 552 Weibo posts by these 10 Pingpang players were collected. All athlete tweets were collected on February 23, 2018. Automatic tweets sent by Weibo, such as birthday wishes, were removed. After cleaning the data, a total sample of 552 was content analyzed (Zhang Jike = 50, Ma long = 90, Fan Zhendong = 59, Xu Xin = 51, Zhou Yu = 75, Lin Gaoyuan = 44, Fang Bo = 54, Wang Chuqin = 60, Yan'an = 37, Zhu Linfeng = 32).

Coding

Each tweet was coded according to the following five variables: athlete, the date of the tweet, the number of followers, the tweet topic (dedicated athlete, interactivity, personal life, promotional, diversion) and interactivity (social, para-social interaction). The five categories of tweet topics are derived from three previous studies: Hambrick et al.'s (2010) study on professional athletes' use of Twitter, Smith and Sanderson's (2015) research on athletes' self-presentation on Instagram and the research examining social interaction of athletes on Twitter (Frederick et al., 2012). Based on the above research, the researcher made some adjustments and combinations for the purposes of the present study. The five categories of tweet topic are dedicated athlete, interactivity, personal life, promotional and diversion (Table 1).

Interactivity is an independent coding variable. When a tweet is coded as Interactivity, the coder will continue to investigate the types of interaction which includes social interaction and para-social interaction. Based on Frederick et al.'s (2012) exploration of relationship promotion by athletes on Twitter, this study divided interactivity into social and para-social interaction (Table 2). This study also explored with whom athletes were engaged in interaction, including athletes (other table tennis players and coaches), fans, other users (non-sport related users or celebrities).

Considering the complexity of the content of tweets, more than one category may be presented in one tweet. Thus, only the most primary feature was coded.

The researcher and another coder randomly selected 20% of the total samples to be familiar with the coding manual and discussed until two coders reached an agreement on all the rules. Then the two coders coded the rest separately. The inter-coder reliability was: (1) athletes' name (Cronbach's α=1.0), (2) the date of the tweet

Table 1. The categories of tweet topic

Categories	Definition	Derivation	Example
Dedicated Athlete	Tweets that shows athletes' training and work for their sports, including expressing enthusiasm and determination.	Smith & Sanderson (2015)	Fan Zhendong: "进入封闭训练……世锦赛再见!" (starting confined training……see you in World Championships)
Interactivity	Tweets that containing athletes' direct or indirect interaction with other users	Hambrick et al. (2010)	Ma Long:"大家分析一下我和高远的阵容谁是地表最强阵容@Eric-林高远" (Let's see whose line-up is the most marvelous. @Eric-Ling Gaoyuan)
Personal Life	Tweets that tells about athletes' daily life which has nothing to do with sports, including traveling, family life or personal hobby	Frederick et al. (2012)	Ma Long:"很开心在自己人生的世界地图中又解锁一座新国,卢森堡..." (So happy to unlock a new country in my personal map of the world, Luxembourg…)
Promotional	Tweets that containing sponsorships, public services, advertising and other individual honors, which have motive to get promotional incentives	Hambrick et al. (2010)	Zhang Jike:"我教练女儿的同学,大家用爱心帮助这个小天使共度难关吧" (This is a friend of my coach's daughter. Please help her through difficulties with love.)
Diversion	Tweets that containing entertaining information for having fun, mostly indicated as feeling expression, posting stickers or taking selfies	Hambrick et al. (2010)	Zhou Yu:"人在囧途3[开心] 北京·北京南站" (Lost on Journey3[happy] Beijing South Railway Station)

Table 2. Interactivity

Categories	Definition	Derivation	Example
Social interaction	Social interaction was defined as a direct response with another user, especially indicated in a tweet with an "@" symbol	Frederick et al. (2012)	Zhou Yu:"博哥睡觉姿势千变万化出发@A方博睡着啦[偷笑][偷笑]" (Various sleeping postures @ Fang Bo [titter] [titter] [titter])
Para-social interaction	Para-social interaction was defined as a tweet without any direct response to any user	Frederick et al. (2012)	Ma Long:"很高兴这次来香港[噢耶]感谢所有的球迷们[给力]你们的热情我们都感受到了[鼓掌]谢谢啦[拍照]" (So happy to be in Hong Kong[yeah] Thanks to all fans and your warm welcome really impressed me.)

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(α=1.0), (3) tweet topic (α=0.84), (4) interactivity (α=0.87) and (5) interactive objects (α=1.0). An overall inter-coder reliability was 0.94. All data are input into SPSS17.0 for further data exploration.

RESULTS

RQ1 asked what the features of the images that athletes present on Weibo. To answer this question, the author examined 552 tweets. The number of followers was also recorded (Table 3).

The following revealed the result in each category. Many of the Weibo fell into the interactivity category (33%), which means athletes emphasize interaction with others. Diversion had the second highest number of tweets. Athletes pose relaxing and entertaining content such as funny sticks videos. Personal life had the next highest number of tweets, which was slightly higher than the category of sports (17%). Only a few tweets were promotional (9%), indicating that athletes actively promote themselves by participating in public service activities or advertising.

Results showed about a third (33%) of the tweets are about interactivity. Athletes communicate directly with other users using Weibo as a medium like Yan An's tweet (Figure 1), or indirectly interact with fans like Xu Xin (Figure 2). When carrying

Table 3. Athletes' general data and tweet theme

Athletes	Follower[34]	Interactivity	Diversion	Personal Life	Dedicated Athlete	Promotional	Total
Zhang Jike	8,873	18	4	9	9	10	50
Ma Long	3,193	35	12	11	13	19	90
Xu Xin	1,230	14	11	11	12	3	51
Fang Bo	522	15	13	10	11	5	54
Fan Zhengdong	487	24	11	8	12	4	59
Zhou Yu	257	30	14	16	12	3	75
Lin Gaoyuan	58	11	15	9	8	1	44
Yan An	45	14	8	5	6	4	37
Wang Chuqin	32	10	14	24	12	0	60
Zhu Linfeng	20	11	13	7	1	0	32
Total		182	115	110	96	49	552
Percent		33%	21%	20%	17%	9%	

Figure 1. A screenshot of Yan'an's Weibo Tweet[5]
Source: Sina Weibo

Figure 2. A screenshot of Xu Xin's Weibo tweet[6]
Source: Sina Weibo
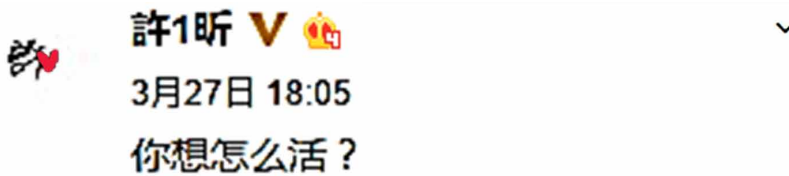
out Pearson's correlation using SPSS Statistics, the author found the number of followers is significantly correlated with promotional tweets (p= .065<0.1). And there was no significant correlation (p = .521>0.1) between the number of fans and interactive tweets.

To answer RQ2, the author further coded the 182 tweets in the category of interactivity to determine what type of relationship was promoted by each athlete. Specifically, social tweets accounted for 68% of the sample, while para-social tweets accounted for 32% of the sample. In order to better understand the individual interaction of athletes, the author calculated the amount of each athlete's social interaction and para-social interaction (Table 5). As for the object engaged in interaction, athletes (other table tennis players and coaches) are the most ones that athletes are interacting with (*n*=112, 62%), followed by fans (*n* = 58, 32%). There were also a few interactions with other Weibo users, mainly singers or celebrities (*n* = 12, 6%) (Table 4).

Table 4. Object of interaction

	athletes	**fans**	**Other users**
Quantity	112	58	12
Percentage	62%	32%	6%

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Table 5 Individual athlete tweets

Athletes	social%	Para-social%
Zhang Jike	72%	28%
Ma Long	60%	40%
Xu Xin	50%	50%
Fang Bo	67%	33%
Fan Zhengdong	75%	25%
Zhou Yu	80%	20%
Lin Gaoyuan	55%	45%
Yan An	79%	21%
Wang Chuqin	50%	50%
Zhu Linfeng	82%	18%
Total	68%	32%

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine athlete's self-presentation on the social media. The combination of sports and new media means that athletes use social media to actively shape their own image, which is an integral part of sports brand building and promotion. This study also tried to explore the relationship between athletes and fans based on the para-social interaction theory. After the Rio Olympic Games in 2016, the national "ping-pong fever" originated on Weibo created the brand effect of National Table Tennis Team, and may pave the way for the future sports reform. Therefore, the goal of this study was to shed lights on this phenomenon and discuss the marketing strategies from the athlete perspective.

The findings suggest that interaction is the most important reason that Chinese athletes use Weibo, which was in line with Hambrick et al.'s (2010) conclusion. Social media provide an interactive platform for athletes (Sanderson, 2013), also a performing stage. With the social media, athletes are even more convenience to make strategies of image-building and adjust or change it according to fans' expectation and their comments. This helps athletes to show the iconic image. All the elements on social media form a stage Goffman called in the self-presentation theory. In addition, the social interaction tweets outnumbered the para-social tweets. Among the 10 athletes, 8 athletes' percentage of social interaction was higher than that of quasi-social interaction. And 6 athletes' split of percentage was higher than 20%. This result contrasted with the findings of Frederick et al. (2012) that "athletes promote both social and para-social relationships relatively equally" (p. 92). This

may be attributed to the variety of athletes. All the subjects sampled in this study are athletes in the table tennis team; it still remains to be seen if the athletes from other sport show the same result. The features of Chinese sports may also affect the result. When looking at the person athletes interact with, coaches and other athletes accounted for the largest percentage, indicating that athletes paid more attention to the direct communication with other players inside the team. Such interactions are not one-way and often receive direct responses. Chinese table tennis team emphasizes more on team spirit under "the whole Nation System". The members are all training or even living together. The familiarity between them and frequent interaction with each other may result in an increase in the number of social tweets.

Interestingly, this social interaction inside the team formed the "theater" Goffman said. Each athlete in the "theater" has its own distinctive image and characteristics. Fans can not only get information through the content posted by athletes, but also understand more about the personality and hobbies of their favorite athletes in such conversations of them with others. It as well contributes to the branding of National Table Tennis Team. Personality is one of the strategies of self-presentation. The clear personal trait which is more outstanding in interactions contributes to better self-presentation on social media (Sun & Wu, 2012). However, the para-social interaction between athletes and fans is much less than that between team members. It suggests that athletes should further strengthen their interaction with fans, in order to attract more young fans and increase public participation and promotion of the sport.

Furthermore, the interaction between athletes and others is characterized by a relatively relaxing and entertaining content, indicating that athletes tend to show the funny side of themselves. Diversion reflects a very wide range of contents, including selfies, funny videos, facial expression stickers, and self-ridicule. Athletes' tweets on sports or competition were slightly less than that of entertainment and personal life but still, occupy a certain proportion. Instead of sharing information or results of competition like traditional media, athletes' tweets on sports tend to express emotion like determination or passion before or after the game. Wang Chuqin's tweet: "Congratulations to the Chinese team [like] [Like] Very exciting and back to training" was an example. These features indicated that athletes tend to show content that reflects their individual charisma, through which fans feel closer to athletes, rather than the distant image merely in the playing field. It was consistent with Luo's (2013) findings that Chinese athletes' media images have transmitted from simply "competitive people" to multi-role "social people".

Contrary to other tweet themes, only 9% of the tweets were promotional, wherein athletes posted information about public welfare activities and other advertisements. At present, Chinese athletes still make less use of Weibo for their own publicity and marketing. The main promotional content was to re-post the live links of the national table tennis team's campaign publicity, lacking the promotion of personal image. The

data also illustrate that there is a positive correlation between the number of fans and the amount of promotional content. Athletes who have a larger group of fans show a clearer advertising, thus the promotional use of Weibo do relate to the increasing of athletes' popularity. The lack of promotional tweets is not surprising given the current situation of sports communication in China. Athletes have not been using Weibo for a long time, most of whom still use it for amusement and entertainment purposes and are not fully aware of publicity. However, as an important platform in the new media age, Weibo played an irreplaceable role in promoting information and constructing an image. Athletes or their teams should make better use of Weibo to adapt to the new sports environment and create their own brand image.

CONCLUSION

To conclude, this study explored the features of athletes' self-presentation and para-social interaction on social media. The study found that tweets of athletes are very interactive on social media, supporting the founding of Kassing and Sanderson (2010). Chinese athletes who living in "the Whole Nation System" presented strong collective consciousness to interact with teammates. When interacting with each other, they emphasized their role in the team. Also, athletes tend to post entertaining content and show their personality characteristics, which was different from athlete's self-presentation in 1980's or 1990's. With the changes of the sports environment and the characteristics of social media, sports communication has not only focused on the number of medals and national honors but more on the construction of sports brands and the promotion of sports programs. These features illustrated that the role of athletes has changed to more of a marketing role, but they still must stay inside "the Whole Nation System". New media has provided a good platform for this transition and has also brought opportunities for sports promotion. However, Chinese athletes still lack awareness to use strategies of interaction and clearer personality, so as to market themselves and the sport. There is still room for sports promotion and branding in China.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This study still has limitations: (a) In the sample selection, this study took the Chinese table tennis men's team as an example and the athletes were selected based on the popularity and activity of the athletes. Though some of them can reflect the use of

Weibo of Chinese athletes, the characteristics of Chinese Table Tennis Team would not be generalized the results to professional athletes from other sports. Thus, future studies could explore professional athletes in other sports. (b) A tweet is a combination of text and photograph. This study focused on the text of the tweet and neglected how athletes present themselves by posting photographs or videos. (c) The two selected angles of this study are the tweet theme and interactivity, emphasizing the athletes' active role as a content generator in the process of information dissemination. But how about the interactions fans may have with athletes? Fans may send critically or hate messages which may affect the para-social interaction. A future study may further examine the development of the para-social relationship from the perspective of fans.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Hong Huang Zhi Li: A popular Chinese slang that means a kind of power that is mighty enough to manipulate the universe.

Marvelous 12: A name of the game "Chinese Trials for the WTTC 2017 Table Tennis."

Para-Social Interaction: A term used to describe the one-way interaction between audience and a persona in the media.

Self-Presentation: A term used to describe that people would intentionally shape their own image before public or on the internet.

Theater: A metaphor used by Goffman to describe the place where people manage their image.

User-Generated Content (UGC): A mode that content is produced by ordinary users on the internet.

Whole Nation System (*Ju Guo Ti Zhi*): The general name of Chinese national management system for sports, where the national sports administrative agency mobilizes resources, facilities, and funds to configure excellent coaches and train athletes. The national interest is the highest standard.

ENDNOTES

[1]   "The amount of interaction" is an index used to measure the interactive behavior including reposts, comments, and likes. According to Weibo Data Center, the average amount of interaction of hot topics is about 8.5 million in the whole year of 2015.

[2]   "The amount of reading" is an index used to measure the amount of reading on the Weibo posts through PC, smartphones or tablets. According to Weibo Data Center, only 2 hot topics' amount of reading exceeded 10 billion in the whole year of 2015.

[3]   As of February 23, 2018.

[4]   Unit: thousand(k).

[5]   Translation of the tweet content: "Happy birthday to @captain Long! Thanks for WeiQiao Club's help. Hope I can give more contribute to our big family. ps: I am not fat, just wearing too much...."

[6]   Translation of the tweet content: "How do you want to live?"

Chapter 4
City Marketing Using Sport Events:
The Case of Pontevedra and Two Editions of the Spanish Swimming Master Championship

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ABSTRACT

Sport events have become a key element in revitalizing tourism and a valuable instrument for city marketing managers. This is true not only for mega-events but also for medium and small-size events. This chapter focuses on two editions of the same sport event as an example of how it can be used for these purposes. The authors have chosen the Spanish Swimming Master Championship celebrated in the city of Pontevedra in 2011 and 2015. The choice of the city is justified by its concern about celebration of sport events during the last decade as a means of promoting the city and increasing tourism.

INTRODUCTION

The relationship between sport and tourism has been amply shown by the literature and seems unquestionable (Buning & Gibson, 2015; Hinch & Higham, 2011; Sato, Gibson, Todd & Harada, 2018). According to González, Marreño and Santana (2010), sport and physical activity have long been considered key motives for travel and tourism.

Tourist destinations tend to build their offering with a particular focus on tourist behavior and what tourist is looking for (Cohen, Prayag & Moital, 2013). Thus, sport tourism development is a relevant strategy carried out by many tourism destinations. As Griffin and Hayllar (2007) state, the aims of such a strategy are manifold: product differentiation, enhancement of competitive advantages and promotion of socio-economic development. In that sense, some studies analyze the preferences of sporting tourist and identify different typologies in order to develop more efficient strategies in sporting marketing. In that line, Fotiadis, Vassiliadis and Sotiriadis (2016) analyze the preferences of participants in small cycling events. From his part, Hungenberga, Grayb, Gouldb and Stotlarb (2016) segment the participants in the 2014 GoPro Mountain Games in Colorado. The authors in the two works, study active sports tourists and they explain that the results of their studies allow a better adaptation of the event to the clients, improving their satisfaction and increasing the odds of loyalty to the event. According to this, sport events are increasingly used in the marketing of cities (Green, 2002). Cities have justified the use of sport events as a component of their marketing mix on the basis of their power to attract visitors and increase exposure of the city. Such events give an opportunity to promote destination and represent an occasion to build, enhance or reposition the host destination image (Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007).

According to Sorrentino (2013), it is possible to consider positive effects both in short-run and in long-run. In short-run perspective, sport tourists can create value added through their expenditures and the indirectly induced increases in value. On the other hand, in the long-run, they can improve an important benefit generating free publicity for destination if they are satisfied from their tourist experience.

Therefore tourist satisfaction appeals as a key factor when considering this strategy in order to contribute to the overall marketing of the destination by helping to create or maintain an image for a destination. As Chen, Lin and Cheng (2011) point out sport events verify the relationships among the variables of the participants' background, the attractiveness of local sport tourism, participation motives, satisfaction, and loyalty. In the same line, Buning and Gibson (2015) remark that sport tourism is linked naturally to some features as social interaction, identity, mental and physical health, economic and touristic development. Thus, sport events have been used by cities as tools that are beyond mere tourism products to generate additional visits to

a destination. Indeed, they can yield extraordinarily high levels of tourism, media coverage, prestige, or economic impact for the host community or destination (Getz, 2012). Sport event tourism is recognized as a desirable niche market and many cities along the world have established sport commissions to promote this special tourism. The great demand for this kind of tourism has become an essential element for many regions being a relevant part of their socio-economic development (Wäsche & Woll, 2010).

Cities become responsible for their economic development by marketing a sporting event. In doing so, they not only establish strategic alliances with other cities or promote their tourism, but sponsoring sporting events to create powerful brands (Seisdedos, 2007). For this purpose it is necessary a knowledge of who the potential sport-tourists are, what types of services and what they expect to get out of the experience itself. In general, we can summarize the profile of sport tourists as the following: male, affluent individuals, college educated, willing to travel long distances, likely to engage in active sport tourism and tend to engage in repeat activity (i.e., not a 'one-off' vacation).

Our study focuses on a small-size sport event as an example of how it can be used as a marketing tool. For this purpose, we have chosen the Spanish Swimming Master Championship celebrated in the city of Pontevedra (Galicia) in 2011 and 2015. The choice of the city is justified by the fact of its concern about celebration of sport events during the last decade as a means of promoting the city and increase tourism. In fact, the city has organized numerous events of different sports in the last years. It provides us the advantage of being able of analyzing the same event in the same city in two different editions. With this aim, the chapter is structured as follows. In section two, general features of sport events are presented. Subsequently, we deal with sport event tourism as particular case of sport tourism. In next section events are presented as a strategic tool of city marketing. Section five focuses on the particular sport event studied. Finally, Section six concludes with some relevant implications for further studies about tourism planning and city marketing.

SPORT EVENTS

In addition, it says that González and Morales (2009) collected some event definitions. As an example, Goldblatt (1997) offered one of the first attempts of definition of a special event stating that it 'is a unique moment in time celebrated with ceremony and ritual to satisfy specific needs'. According to this definition two central ideas could be extracted (Getz, 1997 cited in Shone & Parry, 2004). The first one is that each event is unique and therefore if we do not attend it, we miss an opportunity (maybe the only one if our life). The second point is based on the idea that to the

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customer or guest, an event is an opportunity for leisure, social or cultural experience outside the normal range of choices or beyond everyday experience.

'Events are an important motivator of tourism, and figure prominently in the development and marketing plans of most destinations' (Getz, 2012). Thus, events can be understood as a tourism opportunity where the experience of participating in them is more important than the tangibles that can be consumed at the event. They have similar features to other tourism products (Foster, 1985) but, on the other hand, some other characteristics make them unique. These aspects which set them apart are summarized by Getz (1989) as follows:

- Non inspection in advance,
- No storage,
- Intangibility,
- Tangibility in a fixed quantity
- Difficulty to package
- Heterogeneous demand
- Small-scale and depending on intermediaries
- Non-standardization

Jago and Shaw (1998) categorized events according their size and impact on tourism as it follows:

1. Minor events,
2. Major events,
3. Hallmark events,
4. Mega-events,
5. Festivals

Considering the variety of events that can be organized in a city, Weed (2009) categorized events into three main groups: business events, cultural events and sporting events. We will focus on sport events which can be classified according the following features (Hall, 1992):

1. Numbers of participants and visitors,
2. Worldwide publicity
3. Role in economic marketing strategies (tourism)
4. Social, economic and other legacies

Among the previous definitions, current literature focuses mainly on sport mega-events as the most relevant type of events, as explained by Crompton (2006),

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Matheson (2006) and Wilson (2006). However, their definition will appear always subjective and as Moesch (2007, p. 3) states 'the meaning of a mega-event should always be regarded in its context'. Between them Olympics Games are considered the most relevant mega-event worldwide. Moreover, there are similar mega-events based on:

- **Geographical Regions**: e.g. African Games and Pan American Games.
- **Physical Disabilities**: e.g. Paralympics Games and Special Olympics.
- **Religious Affiliation**: e.g. Maccabeus Games.
- **Career or Profession**: e.g. Student World Games and Corporate Games.
- **Political Affiliations**: e.g. Commonwealth Games.
- **Sexual Orientation:** e.g. Gay Games.

Furthermore, there are three different types of sport mega-events regarding geographical or spatial criteria:

- Events held regularly in different places (more than one): e.g. F1 GP
- Events with a strong association with a place: e.g. Wimbledon
- Franchises with general spatial stability: e.g. Pan Am Games

Although other sport events different to mega-events have received less attention in the literature, they play an important role. In particular, Gibson (1998) insisted on that small and medium-scale sport events may have greater positive effects. Later, Wilson (2006), Klapanidou and Gibson (2010), Taks, Késenne, Chalip and Green (2011), Gibson, Kaplanidou and Kang (2012) or Taks Chalip and Green (2015) have confirmed this going deeper in the study of this kind of events. Thus, talking about sport events as 'an avenue of tourism development' (Higham, 1999) all events should be considered not only the mega-events.

SPORT EVENT TOURISM

Sport events - whatever their size - are characterized by their economic potential. This is the reason why they have become a key element in revitalizing tourism. The decline of traditional tourism improves its consolidation as a strategic tool. Due to its ability to generate funds and investment attraction, World Tourism Organization (cited in Chalip & Mcguirty, 2004) states that sport events should be planned as major tourist events. Therefore, Sport event tourism appears as a clear opportunity in tourism.

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Opposite to other kind of tourism, sport events show some particular features. Firstly, motivation is clearly different easy to identify. These tourists are motivated by attending sport events when travelling. In fact, they are more willing to travel long distances, stay more days in the destination, spend more for accommodation and spend more money per day.

The example of what have happened in Spain with attendance at sport events may help to understand the potentiality of this kind of activities in order to promote a city. Table 1 shows that the attendance at sport events keeps stable through the years in Spain according the National Survey of Spaniard's Sporting Habits. In 2010, Spaniards´ frequency of attendance at events stood at 8% - with a slight decrease in the 25 years period analyzed. Moreover, the number of people who come occasionally decreases from 19 to 15%, while the number of people who never attend up to 54%. However, we can note that the number of spectators has grown. As shown in the last available edition of the National Survey of Spaniard's Sporting Habits, year 2016, there has been a change in the presentation of results. Currently, the data are not introduced considering the frequency in the attendance. This way, the information provided is about the percentage of persons that attended a sport event during the last year of analysis. Then, this fact makes impossible the direct comparison with previous editions. The most recent results show that 37.1% of the surveyed population has attended sport events; this percentage rises to more than 50% in the case of younger people (15 to 24 years).

The sport events tourist profile is a young or middle-aged male (the number of male viewers triples that of women) with middle or high position. The number of attendees increases if we consider men who also practice some sport: the frequency of attendance at events almost tripled from 5% to 13% in the period 1995-2010. Something similar has happened in the last years. The percentage of men that attendee to sport events and also practice any sport between 2014 and 2015 is 46.5%. This figure rises to 59.3% if we consider men who have attended a sporting event during the last year (2014-2015) and also practice some sport (this figures are not comparable with those from 1995-2010). At the same time, the distance between

Table 1. Attendance at sport events, 1985-2010 (%)

Attendace	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010
Frequently	9	9	8	9	8	8
Occasionally	19	20	19	17	17	15
Rarely	23	25	21	25	23	23
Never	48	45	51	49	52	54

Source: García & Llopis (2011)

Table 2. Level of attendance at sport in relationship to sport practice, 1995-2010

Attendace	Play Sports			
	YES		NO	
	1995	**2010**	**1995**	**2010**
Frequently	14	13	6	5
Occasionally	26	21	12	12
Rarely	30	29	22	19
Never	30	37	61	63

Source: García & Llopis (2011)

men and women that practice any sport has decreased. The percentage of women that practice any sport and attend sport events has risen to 41.1% in 2015.

According to the FRONTUR (INE, 2017), in 2017 entered in Spain more than 81,8 million international tourists, of which 1.3 millons appeared as linked with sport according the Annual Report of Sports Statistics (Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte, 2018). The arrivals of foreign tourists with motivation related to sports have not changed much during the period of study. The sports tourist represents almost 2% of the total number of foreign tourist during the period 2015-2017 as shown in Table 3.

Regarding national tourist travels, the Annual Report of Sports Statistics (Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte, 2018) show that residents in Spain travelled 3.4 million trips in Spain with sport purposes. This figure is stable during the analyzed period and represents 1.8% of the travels made in domestic tourism destination as shown in Table 3 . This figure represents about 2% of the travels made in domestic tourism destination.

Within sport tourists, Roche, Spake and Joseph (2013), quoting Gibson (1998) distinguish three types: watching sporting events, visiting sports related attractions and active (sport) participation. The first group refers to spectators, tourists that travel to attend the event. The second type includes those tourists that travel to see a popular sportsperson or to visit a sports venue (such as arenas, halls of fame or sporting museums). Finally, the third group consist of active sports tourists. This means that they travel to practice any sport or to take part in a sport competition. Kaplanidou and Gibson (2010) distinguish between non-event (just to practice and sport) and event (participants in a sports competition) active sports tourist.

On the other hand, Preuss, Seguin and O´Reilly (2007) propose a typology of sports tourists in relation to economic impact of event. This typology includes both participants and spectators. They distinguish between those who attend the event or not. Four different groups of individuals can be considered:

Table 3. Sport event tourists in Spain according their origin

Foreign	2015	2016	2017
Foreign tourists *	68,1	75,3	81,8
Sport motivation *	0,97	1,4	1,3
% Sports tourists	1,4%	1,9%	1,6%
National	**2015**	**2016**	**2017**
National tourists †	175,5	181,9	193,7
Sport motivation †	3,2	3,4	3,4
% Sports tourists	1,8%	1,9%	1,8%

* Millions of persons.
†Number of trips.
Source: Annual Reports FRONTUR y FAMILITUR (INE, 2017) and Annual Report of Sports Statistics (Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte, 2017)

- **Event-Affected Persons:** Those who are attracted by the event (e.g. spectators, workers in tourism industry, etc) and those who avoid the event by leaving or not entering a host city/region because of the event.
- **Spectators**: People who attend sessions of the even without work commitments – they can be residents, tourists, or day visitors.
- **Tourists and Day Visitors:** Persons who do not live in the city/region. Tourists stay for one night or longer in the host city, while day visitors enter and leave the city in the same day.
- **Residents**: Those who live permanently in the city.

According this classification (Preuss *et al.*, 2007), there are some specific groups which visitors who spend 'fresh' money and create economic value such as 'extentioners', 'event visitors', and 'home stayers'. On the other hand, the groups of residents who avoid the event are distinguished as 'runaways' and 'changers'. The impact of their behaviour may be significant as they represent an opportunity cost to the city. Moreover, 'casuals' and 'time switchers' should be considered due to their economic impact[1]. Finally, 'avoiders' also represent an opportunity cost to the host city[2].

The sports events tourists have some features that makes them unique compared to other types of tourists. In general, they spend more than the average and their fidelity is greater. The motivation of their trip is clear and well established. Therefore, it can be said that hosting a sport event in a city increase the number of visitors and their expenses during the celebration constitute a key factor in economic and marketing sense.

EVENTS AS A STRATEGIC TOOL OF CITY MARKETING

City marketing is an established practice within urban management that includes a wide set of activities. As a complementary tool 'can overcome the shortcomings associated with traditional marketing' (Lee, 2009). This specific marketing tool was born in the United States in the sixties, reaching European countries two decades later. This stage can be considered as the second generation of city marketing[3]. This tool is introduced in the management of European cities under industrial restructuring as a means to diversify their economic structure towards the service sector.

It is in this period when many European cities understand the difference of the developing strategies of city marketing vs. tourism marketing strategies. In this context confusion between the asset and the city occurs. Similar misleading appears between the continent and content. As it is stated by the European Commission (2011), the cities working with the urban market orientation are aware that the city as a whole, as a product, is much more than its resources and, therefore, strategies are also different.

The twenty-first century began with the third generation of city marketing with an environment characterized by rapid economic, political and technological change. Local development agencies offering incentives to attract investment to the city become popular. As a result, they increase competition between cities. This fact causes a new phase focused on creating value for citizens, investors and tourists. Thus, the product-city should have the greatest possible added value for potential customers (García, 2009).It is essential the development of a strategic marketing plan in which the organization of major events as strategic city marketing actions are collected. These strategic actions are events of short duration, high profits, with great impact on the economy and in the tourism, and programmed with anticipation (Guala, 2002).

Elizagarate (2009) suggests that hosting events is a consequence of outsourcing of the urban economy. These events could be an important source of income and, at the same time, improve the cultural offer of the city. They have a clear impact on the development of infrastructure (accelerating the processes of urban renewal) and affect the quality of life of citizens and tourists attraction. Therefore, it can be said that the great events get several objectives, such us:

- Create a new image of the city, based primarily on outreach to external audiences but also transform the image internally,
- Attract tourists to the city, as the event is integrated into the offer of the city as a whole.

- Produce impact on urban regeneration in the city, as experience of cities that have hosted major sporting events evidenced.
- Strengthen the feeling of belonging to the city; the civic pride is shared by the citizens.

Achieving these objectives will also depend on the magnitude of the event organized. In this light, it is also possible to make a classification of them addressing issues such as the amount of financial, material and human resources needed to provide for the organization. Moreover, some other aspects should be taken into account: the impact generated in the internal and external audiences, the urban impact on the city and the number of visitors attracted to the event (Gratton, Shibli & Coleman, 2006). Some strategies can be oriented not to major events, at least in the sense of infrastructures. Cities can take the advantage of their natural features or established venues to plan their sports activities without the need of additional investments. This is the case of Pontevedra, a city beside the sea with a good Swimming pool. This city focuses its promotion through sports but in those in which investments are not need. So, Pontevedra has hosted swimming, triathlon, canoeing or rowing championships at national and international level.

Sports events have much in common on the attraction of urban tourism. They can also get to promote their own cultural policy of the city. This policy is becoming more appreciated by tourists who want to find places with the contrast between a global world and a local environmental factor. Residents also can be beneficiated as they can attend events in their own city as they do when visiting other places. Thus, it is important to note that urban tourism is an activity that has emerged in recent years as one of the most dynamic for the growth of cities. It can be also seen as a strategic opportunity to diversify the product tourist orientation.

Regarding to sports tourism, it has not always been considered as a component of tourism. It was not strange to identify it with a sport activity with no relationship with management and tourism planning. However, tourism diversification and increasingly specific demands can benefit to the tourism business. Destinations can enhance their image by hosting sport events that attract first time and repeat sport tourists using co-branding, brand leverage and bundling techniques (Chalip & McGuirty, 2004). That is the reason because, in recent years, destinations managers have focused on the organization of sport tourism events as a strategy to improve the image of the destination and differentiate their products (Chalip & Green, 2001; Chalip, Green & Hill, 2003; Dimarche 2003; Jago, Chalip, Brown, Mules & Shameem, 2003). Besides, other authors consider improving competitive advantage and promoting socioeconomic development (González, et al., 2010; Griffin & Hayllar, 2007; Higham & Hinch, 2002).

In particular, Taks *et al*. (2015) assert that attracting tourism and generating economic impact through medium and small-sized events is possible. For this, the aforementioned authors explain the need to design a portfolio of sporting events on an annual basis. The concept of the portfolio of events has been analyzed in previous works. This is the case of the work carried out by Presenza and Sheehan (2013). They study the redefinition of the strategic position of destination through a portfolio of events for the case of Southern Italy. As explained by the authors, that area is a classic tourist destination (sun, sea and sand). In that case, sports tourism would make possible to renew the tourist strategy and improve the destination image. Meanwhile, Ziakas and Costa (2011) analyze the performance of a portfolio of sports and cultural events in the rural community of Fort Stockton in Texas (United States). The authors affirm that the community has integrated the organization of events. Those events have become part of their social, tourist and economic growth. Therefore, it is important to not consider events as ephemeral and isolated, rather to work on the development of synergies and a holistic strategy of events.

Now, a case study about hosting two Swimming Master Championships is presented in order to extract some ideas and conclusions about what can be obtained by the city as consequence of these events. On the other side, the study of the case will show up some issues that could improve its marketing effect if were planned in the contest of a wider strategy to promote the city.

STUDY CASE: SPANISH SWIMMING MASTER CHAMPIONSHIP

Swimming is one of the most popular sports in Spain and its federation traditionally has been one with more licenses in the country[4]. This discipline has experienced an increase in the practice among the people known as 'master' that includes athletes aged 20 or more years. In fact, the Spanish Masters championships during the two decades have experienced a growing number of participants. This kind of competition divides the participants by range of age (5 years) performing two types of contests: individual and relay.

An important feature of this kind of competition, compared to what happens in other categories is the fact that most of the attendees are participants in the championship. That is, there are usually a small number of companions; most of the attendees take part in the competition. It is also important to note that in the case of mature persons and non-high level athletes the complementary activities to the competition are crucial (where tourist activities play a relevant role).

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As previously explained, two events are used to illustrate this study case. First, the 17th Spanish Swimming Master Championship, held between 27 and 30 January 2011. That edition attracted 1,048 participants. Second, the 21st Spanish Swimming Master Championship, held between 19 and 22 February 2015, which congregated 1,200 participants. The latter represented a record of participation since its inception. Pontevedra hosted both events. The participants belonged to teams from all Spanish regions. There were also international representation of teams from Portugal, Italy, Argentina, France, England and Russia. A study was carried out in order to analyze the economic and touristic impact that the event had in the host city. The information was collected via personal interviews to the organizers and a survey with a representative sample of the assistants to the event. In both cases the aims was twofold, first a description of the type of assistant tourist and then get a direct estimate of the impact produced by the event. For the purpose of this case, we focus on the first aspect but we will mention the economic impact of such events.

Participants and spectators were surveyed in the venue where the event took place. The interviewers were members of a research group of the University of Vigo. In total, the sample was of 275 in 2011 and 324 for the 2015 Championship. The percentages of non-residents in Pontevedra were 86% and 95% in 2011 and 2015 respectively.

Profile of the Sporting Tourist in This Event

The first aim of the survey conducted among the participants was to obtain the profile of the incoming people to the city to take part in the event. A questionnaire of 27 questions structured into four distinct parts was designed:

- The first part of the questionnaire addresses the identification in terms of sports respondent (participant or just a spectator).
- The second part collected socio-demographic aspects such as age, sex, and profession, also pertinent information regarding the number of companions.
- The third part contains questions concerning the planning of the event by the attendees, as the number of days spent in Pontevedra, how they heard about the celebration, where spent the night and how many days stayed or what other activities performed.
- The fourth part focuses on knowing the tourist side of the respondents asking them if they already knew the city, if they like, if they would go back. Also questioned directly on the image of the city for the event and its comparison with other similar ones.

Through this survey conducted during the event was possible the characterization of the participants and attendees at the two Championships.

Characterization of Tourists to the Event: Profile and Particularities

One of the first steps when a city is trying to promote itself through a sport event has to be to understand which kind of public is going to attract (Barajas, Salgado and Sánchez, 2012). For that reason, the first aim of the study on the Spanish Swimming Master Championship was to know the profile of the assistant to the event. Looking at the results, the first point to note is that most of the attendees were participants (83% in 2011 and 86% in 2015). In terms of demographic characteristics, in both events the percentage of men was higher (59% and 64% in 2011 and 2015 respectively) but with a good proportion of women. Therefore, a tournament of this nature involves indistinctly both sexes. With respect to age, there is no a clearly defined profile. People from very different ages are involved. This may be influenced in this tournament because there are categories ranging from 20 years onwards.

Being a National Championship, those attending the event come from almost all the regions in Spain. The 2011 Championship had a high concentration of people from Madrid (15%), Barcelona (13%), Canary Islands (10%), Valencia (8%), Asturias (8%), and the Balearic Islands (4%). In the case of the 2015 Championship, the landscape is similar and the regions coincide, only the proportions change. In this way, most of the attendees come from Madrid (21%) and Barcelona (9%), and these are followed by Valencia (5%), Asturias (4%), Canary Islands (4%) and Balearic Islands (4%). This is motivated because most of the teams come from these places and are the home seed of the most popular master teams.

Also, concerning the profession a clear profile is not observed. The occupation of the assitants is very mixed. In any case, it should be noted that most repeated professions in both events are: student, teacher, swimming instructor, retired and civil servant. With regard to organizational matters of the event, a point of interest relates to how they were aware of the event. In this case, as expected, almost 87% in 2011 and 77% in 2015 of respondents acknowledged that they heard of it through the club they belong to. This fact brings out the idea that if a city wants to promote some activities related to a sport event, maybe a good channel for it would be the clubs of federations that are going to announce the event. If the city is marketing itself, the design of the event would include a package of extra activities and information about accommodation, typical food and beverages, etc. This is even more relevant when almost 100% of the assistants in both events assert that they have gone to the city exclusively due to the fact that the event was organized there. However, it is worth to remark that the participants will take advantage of the competition to do

other activities. In both 2011 and 2015 Championships, around 80% of the surveyed persons affirmed that they will have lunch at local restaurants, and manifested their intention to do shopping in the city as well.

Regarding attendance at this event, it must take into account that the championship had duration of 4 days (Thursday to Sunday). Therefore, the average number of days that the participants spend in the city has almost to match this figure. From this, it is worth mentioning that 93% in 2011 and 88% in 2015 recognize that will spend the night in the city or surroundings. In both events, the vast majority (between 64%-68%) stayed 3 nights. The length of the event, as well as the time of the year when it takes place has to be considered in order to check the capacity of the hotels. The city needs to be able to provide enough room to the visitors and be sure that these persons are not going to expel tourist that come usually to the city during similar dates other years.

Other key factor to bear in mind when planning the marketing of the city through a sport event is the transport infrastructure (Barajas et al., 2012). Obviously, it is not the same a city in the middle of a country with a radial system of road, with an airport connected to the city center by metro than a city in the corner of the country with a secondary airport placed closed to your neighbor city. These features have to be considered because, for example, maybe some of the participants in the event are not going to overnight in the host city but in the city where they arrived by plane. In the studied case, the means of transportation most used by the attendees were mainly the plane (40%) and car (42%). In this question, respondents said they had to use various means of transportation to get to the Pontemuiños swimming-pool in which the championship was held. The type of accommodation chosen and preferred by the majority of the respondents in both events is the hotel (between 82%-84%). The way most used by participants to manage or book accommodation has been via Internet 45%. However, it is worthy to remark that 25.5% of the reservations were done through the organizers of the event.

One of the most relevant issues for the marketing of the city is to know if it has been effective. For this reason, it is necessary to measure to some extent the return on the investment. The study of the direct economic impact will provide first and useful information about it. In the case of the 17th and 21st Swimming Master Championship, the assistants where asked about the amount of money that was going to spend in the city during their stay. The result was that on average a person spent 319.27 Euros in 2011 and 278 Euros in 2015. Between 30% and 33% of their budget was spent to pay accommodation, just over 20% in food and beverages, between 13%-18% in souvenirs, 8%-9% in tourism related activities, slightly more than 8% in transport (inside and around the city), between 6% and 8% in leisure activities and 2%-10% in miscellanea.

Regarding future intentions of respondents, the vast majority said that they would like to return in subsequent years to Pontevedra (77% in 2011 and 97% in 2015). Moreover, in 2011 Championship 30.37% of the assistant had not visited Pontevedra before. On the other hand, in 2015 Championship this proportion increases to 63%. This increase can be explained by the attendance record in 2015 Championship. In 2011, most of the participants expressed their intention to come back to the city. Moreover, the total of participants in both events decided to go to the city due to the event. Altogether means that the fact of organizing this sport event implies that there will be a number of recurrent tourists that would not go to the city. On the other hand, only 25% acknowledged that their decision to participate or attend the championship was influenced by the fact that the competition was carried out in Pontevedra.

Key points for having a high percentage of assistants who are willing to return to the city can be related with their perception of the organization of the event (the reason why they went), and the perception of the image of the city itself and related to the event. In the studied case, majority, 98%, confirmed that they were satisfied with the organization of the Masters. Both the image of the city of Pontevedra as the place for hosting the event, as the image of the event in general, received a positive rating from respondents (both above 4 out of 5 points). The image of Pontevedra as a holiday destination presented also a positive score (3.8 in both events). A very high percentage of the respondents (97%) asserted that they do not miss any tourist aspect in the city in comparison with other cities.

Information is a decisive element for the marketing of the city. The organization of an event for the promotion of the city should plan properly this aspect. In the case of the Swimming Master Championship, 63% of respondents claim to have enough information about the city. In addition, 38% acknowledge having obtained this information through the internet and nearly 29% say that obtained by the organizers of the Championship. The bad news in this case was that almost 40% of the visitors did not have enough touristic information and the organizers did loss a great opportunity to provide more and better information about the city.

Direct Economic Impact in Pontevedra

From an economic point of view, the money that entities from outside Pontevedra spent on it is positive for the city. The revenues to fund the event and the investments or subsidies received from public authorities or sponsors from outside the city have also positive economic impact. However, the expenditures incurred by entities from the city of Pontevedra within the same city shall not be taken into account because only provide residual benefit to the city, which comes from the multiplier effect

that the money circulation may have on the local economy (Preuss, Könecke & Schütte, 2010).

The negative economic impact comes from the costs that the organization place outside the city of Pontevedra, namely those city funds which have moved to other places out of the city. For the celebration of the Championship, the organization has had to buy to suppliers elsewhere in the rest of Galicia and outside Galicia.

The net economic impact that hosting the Spanish Swimming Master Championship in Pontevedra has had in the city exceeds 370,000 Euros in each edition. Other interesting information is given by the impact per day of celebration. In this case, the resulting impact is almost the same in both years (slightly over 93,000 Euros per day). As inflation rate during the period 2011-2015 was very low, it does not affect much to the real values so there have been not significant differences between both editions.

Finally, it is interesting to determine the rate of return for the public money used to finance the event. Public funds from the City of Pontevedra amounted to 24,066.09 Euros in 2011 and 24,012.6 Euros in 2015. Therefore, the rate of return for public funding was almost 15.40. This implies that for every Euro that the local administration has spent on organizing the Spanish Swimming Master Championship 15.40 Euros have entered in the various businesses of the city. This extraordinary result is consequence of several factors as: a) the invested funds were low because it was not necessary to invest in infrastructures; b) the profile of the participants is mostly professionals with some purchasing power; and c) the event last for 4 days.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In line with Buhalis (2000), we could conclude that innovative and specialized tourism products will enable destinations to attract intentional demand and to differentiate their touristic offer. For that reason, the marketing strategies of cities should include holding sport events as dynamic elements of tourism planning and support tool. Due to the relevance that they are achieving, one could speak of true instruments of economic and tourism policy. They allow extending the promotional campaign of niche of markets that no other way could be covered.

Once this support tool has been chosen, the planners should select the most appropriate activities for the city in particular, taking into account circumstances such as sporting tradition, existence of elite teams, celebrity athletes, etc. This way, a policy of continuity and planning in this type of activity (promotion through sport events) is needed. Its effectiveness is much higher if it is not something isolated and occasional but, by contrast, is part of a usual practice over a period sufficiently

large. In this sense, it is important to consider the design of an annual event portfolio, which keeps sports tourism active in the region during most of the year.

The study of the same event, organized in different editions, allows corroborating the consistency of the results. Both championships show a similar profile and behaviour of the assistants. There are some ideas that arise from the study case that can be interesting to point out. First, in the process to plan the marketing strategy of the city using sports events, it is important to define the profile of the visitors expected for the event in line with the aims of the city. The type of sport event can influence of attracting more or less men or women, different ranges of ages, people from different regions or countries and diverse kind of professionals.

When planning the marketing of the city through an event is important to consider how to promote both the event and the city. It is worth to remark that the promotion of the event is done mostly via clubs or federations. For that reason, the city should consider the information that would provide to those prescribers in order to reach their aim. In this sense, the responsible persons for the strategic marketing of the city need to define the appropriate length of the event as well as the time of the year when it is going to take place. This plan should consider the capacity of the hotels and restaurants to attend the demand from visitors. It is important to avoid the exclusion of regular tourists. So, the inclusion of sport events in the strategic marketing of the city should check carefully these aspects in order to take the advantage and keep away from possible prejudices.

Other facet to consider is the transport network for arriving in the city. Peripheral cities have to plan how to compensate this factor. Even more, if the travellers need to use several means of transport like plane and car, because the airport is in a different city, the plan need to include strategies to avoid that the visitors stay in accommodations in the other city. The strategic plan should involve hotel and restaurants or the local tourist industry in the promotion. They are going to receive most of the possible benefits. An ex ante study of the potential economic impact would help to identify the elements that bring value to the city and those which do not.

One of the points that should contemplate is how to create a good complementary offer to attract the visitors to the event and to assure that they will go back to the city. In that sense, the sport event needs to be developed along with a touristic package. Information about it is a decisive element for the marketing of the city. Finally, the features of the sport event will determine if it will bring benefits to the city. Sport events with a minimum assured number of participants or assistants, which not implies additional investments will probably create value to the city.

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ENDNOTES

[1]   It was shown (Preuss et al., 2007) that 'these groups are more likely to spend additional money due to the event than they would have spent otherwise'.

[2]   These persons plan a visit and decide to stay away because of the event.

[3]   A completed revision of the phases of city marketing development can be read in Kavaratzis (2008).

[4]   There were 55,217 licenses in Spain in 2011 and 63,644 in 2015 (http://www.csd.gob.es/csd/asociaciones/1fedagclub/03Lic).

Chapter 5
An Update on the Marketing of the F1 Singapore Grand Prix Post 2014

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ABSTRACT

In 2008, the inaugural Formula One SingTel Singapore Grand Prix was held as the first night-time race in the history of Formula One Grand Prix. The purpose of this chapter is to provide readers with a better understanding of how the F1 Singapore Grand Prix markets itself. The chapter begins by examining the history behind motor sports racing events in Singapore. This is followed by a review of the marketing activities of the F1 Singapore Grand Prix. The last section describes an analysis of spectators' blogs. The analysis suggests that the marketing of the event had been successful as there was a high level of awareness of the event. However, the analysis also indicated that there were spectators who were more interested in the concerts held in conjunction with the race. In 2014, there was a change in title sponsor from Singtel to Singapore Airlines. This chapter provides an update on the marketing of the event post 2014 from an earlier version published in Strategies in Sports Marketing: Technologies and Emerging Trends.

INTRODUCTION

The first motor sports racing event was organised in Singapore as early as 1911. However, it was in 1961 that Singapore hosted its first Grand Prix in its efforts to boost tourism and spur economic growth. Due to various reasons, Singapore decided to stop hosting motor sports events in 1973. It was not until 2007 that the Singapore government decided to bring motor sports events back to the country again by signing a five-year contract to host Formula One Grand Prix races. This decision was again based on economic reasons as hosting the event was expected to bring in additional tourism revenue (DeCotta, 2008).

The relationship between sports and tourism is not new. A major sports event can attract large numbers of international tourists and high levels of media interest on an international scale. This provides opportunities for the host country to showcase their positive attributes to potential visitors (Yuen, 2008). With the growing popularity of sporting events and an increasing awareness by governments of the value of sport on the economy and global image, it is not surprising that there is a growth in interest among countries to host major sports events (McCartney, 2005).

The Singapore government also recognizes the value of sport on the economy and global image. It supports the hosting of sports events as they contribute to the tourism industry. In recent years, it hosted several major sports events successfully including the 2010 Youth Olympic Games and Volvo Ocean Race (Henderson, Foo, Lim, & Yip, 2010). It also hosted the International Olympic Committee in 2005 which elected London as the host city for the 2012 Summer Olympics. In hosting the F1 Grand Prix, Singapore had set a target of S$100 million in tourism receipts with at least 40% of attendance from tourists. In the inaugural race in 2008, this target was surpassed with tourism receipts reaching $186 million (Almenoar, 2009)

A study found that there was general agreement that hosting the Formula 1 Grand Prix in Singapore created new business opportunities and boosted the tourism sector. While the event disrupted daily life due to the inconveniences caused by diverted traffic flow and road closures, it was also a source of pride among Singaporeans on the country's ability to successfully host a major international sports event (Henderson et al., 2010; Yuen, 2008).

SingTel, a telecommunications company in Singapore became the first title sponsor for the event. Together with Singapore GP, the organizer for the race, marketing activities were planned for the event to draw in spectators. Over the years, the marketing activities included concerts, street performers, workshops and roadshows.

Sport event organisers are augmenting the core product of the sport event with a variety of add-on activities and services to promote fun and excitement. The objective is to enhance and broaden the event's appeal to both spectators and participants. Corporate sponsors can then leverage on the additional activities to promote their

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brands beyond the sport competition. This may include the parties associated with the sports event, and workshops to socialize and learn from the experts (Green, 2001).

These additional opportunities for brand exposure to an expanded audience are important to corporate sponsors. Earlier research has shown that investors are generally approving of corporations spending money to solicit celebrity endorsements (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1995). However, a recent study showed that sponsoring Formula One races is different from celebrity endorsements. The financial market does not react favorably to such announcements perhaps because of the high financial costs involved and the low perceived value from such sponsorships (Cobbs, Groza, & Pruitt, 2012). As such, the expanded opportunities for brand exposure may justify the high costs for the investors of corporate sponsors.

However, the augmentation is secondary to the hedonic opportunities afforded by attendance of the main sport event. In deciding on the augmented product, the subculture of the sport and the identity of the spectators or participants must be considered. It must allow opportunities for participants to parade and celebrate the subculture that they share (Green, 2001).

Studies have been conducted to profile the Grand Prix spectator. While motor sports racing events may have many fans, only a small number of fans are willing to commit financially to watching the race as a spectator. Most fans will instead be watching the broadcast of the race (O'Connor, 2011). This is perhaps due to the higher ticket prices for motor sports events. As such, spectators in Grand Prix races are more likely to have higher incomes (McCartney, 2005; O'Connor, 2011).

Specifically to a recurring mega-event like the Grand Prix, it must evolve over time to influence attendance decisions positively and create loyalty to the event (McCartney, 2005). Beyond demographic factors, recent studies have shown that subjective norms have a positive influence on the intention of watching a sports event (Lu, Lin, & Cheng, 2011; Santos, 2012). Other factors determining attendance decisions include positive or pleasurable emotions and a positive evaluation of the experience (Santos, 2012). As such, the marketing activities for the F1 SingTel Singapore Grand Prix had also evolved over the years in an attempt to ensure that spectators enjoy the event and will return to the event in future.

By 2012, both the management of Formula One and the Singapore government had seen the benefits of hosting the motor sports event. The contract to host the event was renewed and the event will remain on the Formula One calendar through 2017. In part, this is due to the success in marketing the motor sports event.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide readers with a better understanding of how F1 Singapore Grand Prix markets itself. The chapter will begin with a history of the early Singapore Grand Prix held from 1961 to 1973. This will provide a historical context to motor sports racing events in Singapore. The next section will examine the marketing activities of the F1 SingTel Singapore Grand Prix. This is followed

by an exploratory examination of spectators' blogs in an attempt to shed light on the relative success of the marketing strategies employed. Finally, the chapter will end with a discussion on the change in title sponsorship of the event in 2014 and the future of the sports event in Singapore.

SINGAPORE GRAND PRIX

The Early Singapore Grand Prix

The relationship between Singapore and motor racing began in 1911 when the country hosted Asia's first motor racing event. This was organized by the British residents on the island. However, during this period, few could indulge in motor racing as it is an expensive hobby (DeCotta, 2008).

In 1960, at the meeting of the International Union of Official Travel Agents in Manila, the Philippines proposed that the following year be designated "Visit the Orient Year". The purpose was to open up the South East Asian economies to the growing tourism trade. Leveraging on the opportunity to increase its foreign exchange earnings and stimulate international trade, the Singapore government proclaimed 1961 as "Visit Singapore – The Orient Year". The Ministry of Culture in Singapore then planned a series of events to attract tourists to the country including an air show, a television and radio exhibit and cultural festivities. Sporting events were also planned to attract tourists during the year. These included an international golf tournament, and regional badminton and basketball competitions. However, the main sports event was motor racing (DeCotta, 2008).

The Singapore Motor Club, which was established in the late 1940s, took the lead in organizing the motor racing event. The club had extensive experience in organizing motor sports events including Malaya's first post-war Grand Prix held in Johor in 1949 and the Johor Coronation Year Grand Prix in 1960 held to mark the coronation of the state's Sultan. As such, the club had the necessary expertise and contacts in the motor racing world to stage an event that would attract foreign visitors to the island (DeCotta, 2008; Solomon, 2008).

The inaugural Singapore Grand Prix in 1961 was a 4.8 kilometer-long street circuit that wound its way through wooded terrain along Old Upper Thomson Road. The track had 14 turns and twists, of which the most popular among spectators was Devil's Bend. It was the most treacherous part of the circuit and it offered spectators a good vantage point (DeCotta, 2008; Solomon, 2008).

The Singapore Grand Prix was to run over a 13-year period. From the inaugural event in 1961, it would grow to become one of the major motor racing events in the region by the end of its run. In 1961, the Singapore Grand Prix offered the winner

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$1,000 in prize money. It attracted 210 participants from various countries including Japan, Australia and Britain, and about 100,000 spectators. By 1966, the event attracted as many as 250,000 spectators. The prize money also increased to $7,500 in 1969. By 1972, the prize money was $10,000 making the Singapore Grand Prix the richest motor racing event in Asia at that time (DeCotta, 2008; Solomon, 2008).

In tandem with the growing stature of the Singapore Grand Prix and the increase in the number of spectators, there was also an increase in sponsorship dollars. In 1962, petroleum giant Esso, became the main sponsor for the event with a $50,000 sponsorship. By 1966, other corporate sponsors like Rothmans Pall Mall and Mobil Oil doubled the sponsorship amount to over $100,000. In 1973, the Singapore Grand Prix attracted more than $200,000 in sponsorship from corporations such as Shell Singapore, Singapore Pools and Fraser & Neave. Singapore Airlines alone sponsored $120,000 for the event (DeCotta, 2008; Solomon, 2008).

In 1972, the marketing of the Singapore Grand Prix was gradually becoming more sophisticated. More than 100 closed-circuit television sets were installed to show the action live from six vantage points on the track. A 30 minute program of the event was broadcasted to millions of television viewers across Asia, Australia, New Zealand and Britain. Grandstands were also marketed to corporate clients for the first time to entertain customers and employees. However, the entrance fee to the event remained at $1 throughout the years while grandstand prices ranged from $5 to $9. The Singapore Grand Prix was to remain as an event for the people (DeCotta, 2008; Solomon, 2008).

The government decided not to hold the Singapore Grand Prix in 1974. Although the government did not provide any reason for the decision, it was speculated that several factors led to the decision. These include the oil crisis and inflationary pressures of the period, the rise of illegal racing in the country, the high cost associated in hosting the event, the fatalities associated with the event and the reduced importance of the event in driving tourism due to the development of alternative tourist attractions in Singapore (DeCotta, 2008; Solomon, 2008).

Over the years, there had been several attempts to bring motor racing events back to Singapore. Several proposals were made to the government for a permanent site to stage a Formula One race. However, none of the proposals bore fruit. In 1986, the Federation Internationale de l'Automobile, the world governing body for motorsports, offered Singapore an opportunity to host the Formula One. The expected gain in tourist arrivals from hosting the event caught the attention of the Singapore government and a plot of land was set aside for a permanent track to be built in Singapore. Unfortunately, the feasibility study found the costs to be too high and the plan was shelved. It was not until 2006 when negotiations started again for Singapore to host the Formula One Grand Prix (DeCotta, 2008; Solomon, 2008).

The Formula One SingTel Singapore Grand Prix

The F1 management team was keen to have a greater Asian presence as this would enlarge the number of fans and allow higher promoter fees in other regions (Henderson et al., 2010). In 2007, the Singapore Government brought motor racing events back to the country by signing a five-year deal to host the Formula One Grand Prix. The F1 is amongst the most expensive yet lucrative of sports events. SingTel, a telecommunications company in Singapore became the title sponsor for the event. The event was officially named Formula One SingTel Singapore Grand Prix.

The F1 SingTel Singapore Grand Prix was notable for being the first night-time street race in the Formula One history. As such, it was complicated by lighting requirements and required government support in cordoning off the roads for the race. The financial cost of hosting the F1 Grand Prix was estimated to be S$150 million with the government committing to 60% of the cost. Besides the lighting requirement, the roads need to be widened, a new road stretching 1.2 kilometer need to be constructed and a Pit Building need to be built. Other temporary structures that were constructed for the event included the fence around the track, ticketing gates and toilets. There were also road closures and rerouting of vehicles and pedestrian traffic for two weeks (Henderson et al., 2010).

Bernie Ecclestone, the CEO of Formula One Management, believed that the event "will quickly establish itself as one of the most dramatic and atmospheric races on our calendar." In its inaugural year, the event received the Autosport Pioneering and Innovation Award at the Autosport Awards and the Motor Sport Facility of the Year at the Professional Motor Sport World Annual Awards (Singapore GP, 2013).

While this innovation of a night race presented a unique opportunity for marketers, it was also important for commercial reasons. The timing of the race allowed the event to be broadcasted live at a convenient time for European audience. From 2008 to 2011, the television audience averaged almost 100 million.

In terms of attendance, the F1 SingTel Singapore Grand Prix had been a success. The event spanned over three days with each day having a capacity of more than 80,000 spectators. In 2008, a standard ticket for the three days cost S$168 while a one-day ticket costs from $38 to $108. Considering the ticket price and the number of seats available, the event was a success as tickets to the event had been consistently sold out over the years. In 2012, it was reported that 50% of the tickets were sold four months prior to the event (Singapore GP, 2013). When the hosting rights for the event ended in 2012, there was interest from both the organizers and the Singapore government to continue to host the event in the country. The contract was subsequently renewed and the event remained on the Formula One calendar through 2017.

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The F1 Singtel Singapore Grand Prix is marketed not only as a race but as part of a total entertainment package. This has been the objective of Singapore GP, the company responsible for organizing the event, from the inaugural race. In 2008, Sarah Martin, a senior consultant at Singapore GP noted that "the entertainment on offer is a great mix of audio and visual treats that will enhance the exciting atmosphere of the first Formula One night race". In 2010, Michael Roche, an Executive Director at Singapore GP wanted fans to "look forward to a non-stop carnival weekend all with one ticket…The entire circuit park is being transformed into an urban street party" (Singapore GP, 2013).

To become a non-stop carnival and urban street party, the organizers put together an entertainment package that consisted of live concerts and other performances at the races. From the first race in 2008, the organizers brought in popular international artists for live concerts as their headline acts. The number of performers had grown over the years to more than 300 performers by 2010. In the same year, the entertainment line-up was also reported to cost more than S$5 million (Singapore GP, 2013).

Table 1 below lists some of the performers for the F1 Singapore Grand Prix concerts from 2008 to 2017. The table shows that over the years, there had been an increase in the number and diversity of performers. For example, Korean performers made their appearances at the concert in 2011 and Taiwanese singer, Jay Chou, performed in 2012 (Singapore GP, 2013).

In addition to the headline acts, there were also other performances by international and local artistes in the circuit area to add to the carnival mood. For example, in 2012, the list of international artistes included award-winning musicians Fuse from the United Kingdom, quick-change artistes Soul Mystique and vocal percussionist Tom Thum from Australia, 2006 BBC World Music Award's Best Newcomer nominee Dobet Gnahore and Cafe Rumi dancers from Indonesia. There was also an increasing number of local artistes who performed in the event. In 2017, there were more than 10 local acts, who represented a variety of genres and were featured across the three days of the event.

Besides the festivities held in the circuit park during the event, there were other marketing activities organized by both Singapore GP and the main race sponsor, SingTel. In 2007, when Singapore first inked the contract to host the F1 Grand Prix, the then Minister of State for Trade and Industry, Mr S Iswaran, explained that the government envisioned that it would be more than just a motor race as it would "be a national festival, and one that presents many opportunities for participation for everyone, both visitors and Singaporeans alike" (Singapore GP, 2013).

To that end, in 2008, SingTel made available to the public two custom-built race-car simulators which replicated the night race complete with iconic Singapore landmarks such as the Esplanade and City Hall. One of the simulators was housed in the SingTel headquarters in the town while the second made its rounds across

Table 1. List of performers at F1 Singtel Singapore Grand Prix

Year	Name of Performers	Country of Origin
2008	• Coyote Ugly • Wailers	• United Kingdom • Jamaica
2009	• Backstreet Boys • Chaka Khan • Ozomatli • Travis • Youssou N'Dour	• United States of America • United States of America • United States of America • Scotland • Senegal
2010	• Adam Lambert • Daughtry • Mariah Carey • Missy Elliott • Sean Kingston	• United States of America • United States of America • United States of America • United States of America • Jamaica
2011	• Boy George • Charice • Daddy G & 3D • GD&TOP • Linkin Park • Rick Astley • Seungri • Shaggy • Shakira	• United Kingdom • Philippines • United Kingdom • South Korea • United States of America • United Kingdom • South Korea • Jamaica • Colombia
2012	• Bananarama • Jay Chou • Katy Perry • Maroon 5 • Noel Gallagher's High Flying Birds • Pretenders • The Proclaimers	• United Kingdom • Taiwan • United States of America • United States of America • United Kingdom • United Kingdom • United Kingdom
2013	• Rihanna • The Killers • BIGBANG • Justin Bieber • Tom Jones • Bob Geldof • Owl City	• Barbados • United States of America • South Korea • Canada • Wales • Ireland • United States of America
2014	• Jennifer Lopez • Robbie Williams • MAYDAY • John Legend • Pet Shop Boys • The Sam Willows	• United States of America • United Kingdom • Taiwan • United States of America • United Kingdom • Singapore
2015	• Bon Jovi • Maroon 5 • Pharrell Williams • Spandau Ballet • The Sam Willows	• United States of America • United States of America • United States of America • United Kingdom • Singapore
2016	• Kylie Minogue • Queen + Adam Lambert • Imagine Dragons • Bastille • KC and The Sunshine Band • Sgt Pepper's Lonely Bluegrass Band	• Australia • United Kingdom • United States of America • United Kingdom • United States of America • United States of America
2017	• Calvin Harris • Ariana Grande • The Chainsmokers • OneRepublic • Seal • Duran Duran	• United Kingdom • United States of America • United States of America • United States of America • United Kingdom • United Kingdom

the island to allow the public an opportunity to experience driving a F1 car. The simulation programme was also available to be downloaded and played on a personal computer. To encourage gameplay, prizes were awarded to the top three drivers. With the increasing number of smart phones and SingTel being a telecommunications company, a F1 racing game competition that can be downloaded into mobile phones was also developed. Winners of the competition stood to win tickets to the actual race (SingTel, 2013).

As the F1 Grand Prix was re-introduced to Singapore after an absence of more than 30 years, the Singapore public may not be familiar with the motor sport. In order to create awareness for the event and F1 Grand Prix races in general, SingTel launched a dedicated F1 website to provide a platform for the community of F1 fans to share information and images. The website also featured celebrity blogs to encourage visitors (SingTel, 2013).

Competitions were also used to generate interest in the event. Besides the race simulation competitions described above, the SingTel Prediction Challenge was launched to encourage participants to learn more about F1 in order to guess the outcome of the races. The competition attracted 2,100 participants, with the winner walking away with tickets to the 2009 race and other prizes worth S$3,000 (SingTel, 2013).

In 2009, the website was expanded to allow fans to participate in activities, play games and post photos and videos in return for chances to win tickets and prizes. The race simulators were brought back for roadshows around the country (SingTel, 2013).

By 2010, the marketing efforts had moved beyond the awareness stage and attempted to engage the public by leveraging on its circuit park entertainment. Performers engaged for the circuit park entertainment conducted workshops and special performances for the public. For example, freestyle trial bikers performed daredevil stunts on a specially constructed outdoor stage setup with obstacles, half-pipe ramps, high slopes and fire spectaculars against the Marina Bay skyline as a backdrop. A workshop on stunt biking was also conducted. Other workshops included Brazilian martial art Capoeira, Brazilian drumming and 3D street painting (Singapore GP, 2013).

The marketing activities also took into consideration the demographic profile of the spectators. Sarah Martin, the Director of Operations of Singapore GP noted that as attendance has shown that women make up a significant proportion of race-goers at the Formula 1 Singtel Singapore Grand Prix, they have "enhanced the entertainment repertoire to further appeal to female patrons". In 2010, the professional male revue Chippendales was added to the entertainment repertoire (Singapore GP, 2013).

In 2010, the cyber game "Asia's Biggest F1 Fan" was also launched in 25 countries. The game involved a race against time to complete 25 questions related to the sport's history, Grand Prix rules and trivia on race teams and drivers. Winners stand to win prizes worth more than S$30,000 including a trip to Singapore to watch the F1SingTel Singapore Grand Prix. The success of "Asia's Biggest F1 Fan" led to its expansion to "World's Biggest F1 Fan" in 2011. This opened the competition to the world instead of being limited to the Asian region. In addition to the quiz, a new contest with exclusive limited edition Singapore GP merchandise as prizes was added (SingTel, 2013).

The marketing of the 2011 edition of the motor racing event moved a shade closer to the arts. Musicals, Bollywood Express and Forbidden Broadway, were brought in as circuit park entertainment. In addition, a gala premiere of "SENNA", an award winning film chronicling the story of triple world champion F1 driver Ayrton Senna, was held (Singapore GP, 2013).

The 2012 "F1 for Everyone" marketing campaign reflected a return to encouraging participation from the public. Roadshows featuring race-inspired carnival activities and electric go-kart races were held throughout the country. Living up to the marketing campaign to make F1 for everyone, children from the Association for Persons with Special Needs were among the first to preview the roadshow and experience the electric go-karts (Singapore GP, 2013).

The marketing campaign also targeted students by organizing the "F1 in Schools Fastest Car Challenge". Students between the ages of 9 to 19 participated in the competition to design, manufacture and race their miniature cars (Singapore GP, 2013).

The marketing activities described above were in addition to the usual marketing activities at other F1 Grand Prix races. Most F1 Grand Prix races include race-related exhibitions and support races. For example, in the 2008 edition of the F1 Singtel Singapore Grand Prix, vintage cars were exhibited including a yellow 1926 Rolls Royce believed to be one of the oldest in the region. In 2012, several support races were brought in including GP2, Ferrari Challenge Trofeo Pirelli Asia Pacific and Porsche Carrera Cup Asia (Singapore GP, 2013).

Pit babes are part of the F1 Grand Prix races. Their role is to hold up the national flag of the driver and the number of his car before each race. More importantly, they add color and glamour to the race track. In the F1 SingTel Singapore Grand Prix, the marketing behind the SingTel Grid Girls are almost as extensive as the motor racing event.

In the inaugural race in 2008, 300 hopefuls vied for a chance to be one of the 48 SingTel Grid Girls. The top 20 Grid Girls also took part in a four-episode 30-minute reality television show to compete for the chance to lead the rest of the Grid Girls to the starting line on the day of the race and prize money of $20,000 (SingTel, 2013).

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In 2009, the SingTel Grid Girls competition became more sophisticated. Some of the SingTel Grid Girls were selected to host a 16-episode television programme "SingTel Grid Girls on Tour". The Grid Girls travelled to Formula One Host cities like Bahrain, Melbourne and Shanghai to attend exclusive parties and meet the F1 drivers. In addition, all the Grid Girls appeared at roadshows throughout the country and interacted with their fans through their blogs (SingTel, 2013).

The competition for the chance to lead the Grid Girls on the day of the race became interactive as well. It was broadcast live on television and the results were determined by both viewer votes and a panel of judges. By 2012, the panel of judges would select 8 Singtel Grid Girls to vie for the top three spots. This result would be decided solely by the public though online and SMS votes (SingTel, 2013).

A Change in Title Sponsor

The 2014 edition of the Singapore Grand Prix saw a change in the title sponsor. Singapore Airlines, the country's flag carrier airline signed an initial four year agreement to be the event's title sponsor. The change in title sponsor saw a greater fit between the event and sponsor. As Singapore Airlines was in the travel industry, it was able to leverage on the event to showcase Singapore as a tourist destination and to drive up its business. Consequently, the new sponsorship deal brought about a slew of different initiatives that promoted both the event and the carrier.

The first change was the decision to discontinue the pageant style competition initially used to select the grid girls for the race. Instead, the event selected 50 of the airline's flight stewardess to serve as the race's grid girls. The flight stewardess of Singapore Airlines had been successfully marketed as the Singapore Girl and form an essential part of the Singapore Airlines brand equity. She is easily identified by her distinctive kebaya outfit, an ethnic dress of Southeast Asian countries (Singapore Airlines, 2018b). By leveraging on the Singapore Girl in the event, the airline was able to fully exploit its brand exposure as the title sponsor. In turn, the event was able to tap on the brand image of Singapore Airlines to further identify itself as a unique leg of the race held in Singapore. It should be noted that for the 2018 F1 season, the organizers of Formula 1 announced the mandatory removal of grid girls in all races. As such, it would be interesting to examine how the absence of the Singapore Girl in subsequent races affect the marketing of the event and the value of the sponsorship to Singapore Airlines.

Singapore Airlines had also incorporated the event into its marketing campaign and sales promotion activities by offering all-in-one packages on their flights to Singapore during the event. The package typically includes flight, accommodation as well as event tickets. For the 2018 edition, the airline also offered a complementary

tour at the headquarters of one the F1 teams in Switzerland, prior to arrival in Singapore (Singapore Airlines, 2018a).

In 2014, the Singapore Grand Prix created a new promotional activity that would later become a mainstay in future editions of the race; the Singapore Airlines Light up the Night Carnival. The carnival, which was free to members of the public, featured a variety of events that promoted both the race and the participating sponsors (Wong, 2015). Examples of events include the 'SIA paper plane challenge', where children below the age of 16 folded a paper plane and competed with each other in terms of distance and speed; and the pit stop challenge, where participants can experience the changing of a Formula One car tire. During the carnival, members of the public were also able to buy event day tickets at special rates.

SPECTATORS' RESPONSE

The above described the marketing efforts of the F1 Singapore Grand Prix. In this section, the spectators' response to the marketing efforts as examined through blogs will be detailed. A Google search was conducted to generate a list of blog entries on the Singapore Grand Prix. The responses were limited to individual posts as a spectator to the events from 2008 to 2012. A convenience sample of 23 blogs was selected for analysis. The majority of the blogs were entries for the 2012 edition of the race.

Using diaries or blogs in research allows immediate recording of experiences and the data is thus subject to less distortion (Alaszewski, 2006). However, it is difficult to generalize from the findings as the sample size for such research tends to be small due to the high volume of data that needs to be analyzed. In addition, it may also be difficult to control for the quality of data as respondents may not have sufficient competency to express themselves for the purpose of describing their experiences (Leigh, 1993; Zillinger, 2008). This remains a limitation of this research.

The analysis concurs with earlier research that the spectators of the F1 Singapore Grand Prix are likely to have higher incomes. This is because the price of the tickets seems to be too high for some spectators. Perhaps as an indication of the high price of the ticket and hence its status as a prized possession, photographs of the ticket passes were frequently uploaded on the blogs. As such, fans of the F1 Grand Prix are more likely to watch the broadcast instead of purchasing the tickets to watch it at the venue.

I do think the tickets are way overpriced and I'd never pay for them (well, not in my current financial state at least) but it's an experience like no other and free tickets mean instant excitement and maximum jakun-ality! - http://omgsianz.org

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Last week was quite a busy week because it's my first time attending the F1 race in Singapore! Tickets are not cheap, and I always failed to get any free tickets for the past few years, but I finally managed this year! - http://dallaseye.blogspot.sg

As the above blogs show, there are a number of spectators who managed to get free tickets to the race. As the race organizer and sponsors were giving out free tickets as prizes for their marketing activities, it is not unexpected that some of the spectators were there simply because there were free tickets and not because they are fans of the F1 Grand Prix.

*This year, I was very lucky to have received free tickets to watch Singapore Formula 1! My favourite four letter word - F R E E…I know absolutely nothing about F1…
- http://sherlynssj.blogspot.sg*

However, there are spectators who purchased tickets to watch the event. Some of these spectators are fans of the F1 Grand Prix races. As an indication of the success of the event in attracting tourists to the country, the analysis of the blogs also showed that the event was able to attract fans who reside in neighboring countries. For such fans, there is no substitute for watching the event at the venue. As suggested in the literature, it is the hedonistic experience of being at the event that is important. For these spectators, there was also indication from the blogs that they will be watching the race in subsequent years as their experience had been positive.

What is it like to watch F1 in person? To most people, watching race cars go over what seemingly like countless of laps would of course be boring (Just like the girl who keeps playing with her BlackBerry during the race, in the seat in front of us), but to me, watching F1 is more of a celebration, and an achievement at the same time. To me, F1 is the culmination of motor sports, the ultimate combination of skill, focus, knowledge, strategy, planning, and technological advances presented in a single event. And nothing pleases me more than seeing 24 cars taking on each other in a night race. Watching live F1 is irreplaceable. Not with TV coverage nor a pub with a humongous projector. You simply cannot replace the real sound of engines roaring across the track. You cannot replace the smell of fuel burning after every corner. You cannot replace the view of glowing disc brakes after laps of apexes. And most importantly, you simply cannot replace the excitement of a real race event. - http://www.bellamybudiman.com

Now I understand that all you people out there saying "I'd rather watch it on TV" probably haven't seen it for real. Yes you only see the cars race by you like a flash just like this* BUT the noise, the atmosphere and the excitement coupled with good

seats where you can actually see into the pits is an experience second to none. - http://msdemeanoursingapore.blogspot.sg

The F1 Singapore Grand Prix was well-covered in the local news. In addition, the race organizers and the sponsors organized many activities to market the event. As such, there is a lot of publicity for the event and even for those who are not fans of the motor sports event, they are aware of the event.

September is the month where we welcome the Formula One Night Race in Singapore. This year, the race is from 21 to 22 Sep. The atmosphere could be felt everywhere, every corner in Singapore. As I was preparing my photos for this blog update, I heard my Grandma called out "VROOM! VROOM! VROOM!" all of a sudden! See! Even my Grandma is in the F1 mood. whahahaha.. I am not a F1 fan but I am still excited to find out who is the winner.:) - http://sandyris.blogspot.sg/

Other blogs recorded the economic arguments for hosting the race and the inconvenience caused by the traffic disruption. As such, this suggested that the event has permeated the consciousness of the public. Of interest a blog entry suggested that the publicity had the effect of creating an expectation or a form of subjective norm to attend the event. Since the event is discussed so often, there is some expectation that a person must attend the event.

Mind you, I was in that category of people who thought 'Why would anyone wants to see passing cars that disappears in a blinks of an eye?' But I was lying to myself. Deep inside, I really, really wanted to go to this much talked about event." - http://www.muhdzulfadli.com

However, the most interesting finding was that the majority of the blogs described the concerts, specifically the headline acts. While there are many entries on the race, the teams and the racers, there were more reviews, photographs and videos of the concerts. While the concerts were meant to augment the main event, for many of the spectators, the concerts were the main event.

It was hardly the most ideal location for a Noel Gallagher concert. The racecars provided an unwelcome distraction, the crowd comprised of disinterested race-goers, but the Chief was still here, in person, on Saturday, 23 Sept for the 2012 Formula 1 Singtel Singapore Grand Prix! - http://www.feveravenue.com

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I am actually not a big fan of F1 but this year's tickets include concert passes for Katy Perry, Maroon 5, Jay Chou & other international performances. So why not? - http://www.therovingepicure.com

Because we knew that many people (especially the youngsters) would watch, we never left our spot near the stage and just spent more than 2 hours sitting on the grounds watching F1 race (finals) on the stage's screen (holding our pee and enduring drought.. haha.. just kidding). - http://www.eysilicioussss.com

This created an interesting marketing conundrum. In creating an exciting augmented product, the core product may have been diluted or in this case, the core product had been subsumed by the augmented product. While a recent study conducted on 140 marketing, creative and digital professionals in Singapore found that the primary reason for them attending the race was still the actual race itself, a substantial portion of these individuals attended it because of the musical acts (Manjur, 2015). On the other hand, deliberately selecting less exciting activities may not add to the appeal of the core product. While this makes no difference to ticket sales, it is important from a marketing management perspective. If the core product has changed from a motor sports event to a rock concert, then there must be corresponding changes to the marketing mix.

Other marketing activities received considerably less attention in the blogs. There were entries on the food, car exhibitions and the other performers in the Circuit Park. However, these entries were less frequent and shorter compared to the headline acts. The relative absence of a discussion of the other marketing activities suggests that to the consumer, the headline acts have captured more of their attention than any other activities.

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In 2012, following the success of the first few editions of the Singapore Grand Prix, the event was extended for another five years. However, there was uncertainty as to whether the event will continue after the five year extension. Several legs of the F1 Grand Prix in the Asian region did not do well and were removed from the race calendar. In 2014, the Korean Grand Prix citing heavy losses from the onset of the event, was removed from the race calendar. Two years later, Malaysia which had been on the F1 race calendar since 1998, announced their withdrawal from the event after 2018. This uncertainty was further magnified when Bernie Ecclestone, former chief executive of the Formula One Group, commented in 2016 that the 2017 race will be the final edition of the Singapore Grand Prix.

There were several factors for this uncertainty. Firstly, the cost of organizing the event has been rising. For a major sports event like the F1 Grand Prix, the local government needs to bear some of the costs. In the Singapore Grand Prix, it was estimated that the Singapore government bore about 60% of the cost of the event. As such, many of these events were terminated when the local government evaluated that the cost outweighed the benefits. Secondly, the event saw declining live attendances as well as television spectatorship. The 2016 Singapore Grand Prix recorded its lowest ever attendance figure since the race's inception. This was of concern to the Singapore government even though the decline could be attributed to several external environmental factors including the uncertainty over the US Presidential elections and the outbreak of the Zika virus. Finally, the local community's complaints about the inconvenience in traffic and the disruption to businesses as a result of the race have raised the political cost for the government in continuing to host the event (Farhan, 2017).

In spite of all the uncertainty, in September 2017, Singapore's Minister for Trade and Industry S. Iswaran announced that the country will continue to host the Singapore Grand Prix for another four years. This could be attributed to an improvement in attendance in 2017, as well as Singapore's desire to position itself as a premier location for hosting international sports events. It was also reported that due to accumulated experience in hosting the event, the organisers were able to reduce its cost. Consequently, the event may have become more viable economically. On the marketing front, the organisers decided to follow the successful use of social media as a marketing strategy by another major sports event in Singapore, the Women's Tennis Association (WTA) year-end finals tournament. Social media will be used to engage F1 fans internationally and encourage their attendance in future editions of the event (Lee & Leng, 2016).

CONCLUSION

The marketing objective of the F1 SingTel Singapore Grand Prix had always been to offer its spectators a fun-filled carnival. This is in line with other successful sports events in augmenting the race with other related activities. Over the years, as a recurring major sports event, the F1 Singapore Grand Prix continuously refined and added new marketing activities to attract spectators to the event. For example, it brought in the Chippendales to cater to a specific demographic segment and enhanced its marketing efforts on the internet over the years. The concerts also saw more and varied headline acts and the budget for providing entertainment to the spectators grew to more than S$5 million.

The event also aims to reach out to the community in Singapore. The analysis of the blogs showed that this had been successful as the public is aware of the event and even had sufficient knowledge to blog about the economic arguments for hosting the event. Interestingly, it also suggests that the hype may have even prodded some to attend the event.

However, while there is some evidence that the organizers have succeeded in creating a positive experience to encourage the return of some of the spectators, there is also evidence that some of the spectators are not F1 fans. These spectators are at the event not to watch the race but to watch the concerts. While these segment of spectators may have contributed to the continued hosting of the Singapore Grand Prix when other races from countries in the region like Korea and Malaysia have ceased to exist, the extent of this behavior remains to be studied and how this affects the marketing of the event remains unresolved.

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Chapter 6
Boosting Football Club Brands Through Museums:
The Experience of Mondo Milan

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ABSTRACT

This chapter focuses on the relatively recent phenomenon of the creation of museums by football clubs and discusses the role of football club museums as "branding platforms." The authors review the case of Mondo Milan, an innovative museum founded in 2014 by A.C. Milan, to illustrate how the development of football club museums represents a marketing strategy aimed at boosting the club brand and broadening the club customer base. The analysis of the case—supported by an interview with the Marketing and B2C Sales Director of Mondo Milan—shows how football club museums represent an opportunity not only for generating revenue but also for attracting new market segments that can engage in the history and values of the club and enhancing their brand awareness and image.

INTRODUCTION

This chapter will examine the relatively recent phenomenon of the creation of museums by football clubs. The growing interest in this type of museums can be understood in the context of the evolution of museums from mere inaccessible and elitist temples to "unabashed crowd-pleasers that appeal to entertainment as much as education" (Ramshaw, 2010, p. 384). Despite the increasing interest of football clubs in developing their own museums, the role of sports in museums has received scant attention (Ramshaw, 2010; Moore, 2016; Ramshaw, Gammon & Waterton, 2014). Only recently, are scholars looking at football club museums based on the assumption that "football counts as culture just as much as opera does" (Greer, 2008).

Due to loss and other economic issues, football clubs have been increasingly looking for new ways to generate revenues by exploring the possibilities of making income through alternatives that are not directly related to their core business (Ernest, 2018). In particular, a recent trend in the sector has been the creation of museums as an alternative source of revenue. A new way of 'consuming sports' has, therefore, been slowly emerging, based on the assumption that sports entertainment should cover "more ground than watching a game or attending a fan day of your favorite club" (Ernest, 2018). In this sense, the stadium and the club have become "venues that can be set to daily commercial use" (Ernest, 2018).

Especially major sport clubs have started developing their own museums. Examples include the Real Madrid Museum, based in the Bernabeu Stadium, which has become one of the most visited museums in Spain with 1,2 million visitors a year; and the third most visited museum in Madrid, following the Reina Sofia Museum (2,6 million visitors) and the Prado Museum (2,5 million visitors). Similarly, the FC Barcelona Museum has reached 1,53 million visitors in 2017 establishing itself as the most visited in Cataluña after the Dalì Museum (1,3 million) and Picasso Museum (920 thousand visitors). In Italy, the Juventus Museum has reached one million visitors in 2017, ranking 43rd in the Italian museums ranking (La Stampa, 2018).

Football club museums provide visitors with an experience that combines the display of rare historical memorabilia and the most modern and interactive technologies. Trophies and other mementos of the football club are displayed in a spectacular way, contributing to the storytelling of the Club and creating an experience that allows visitors to relive the emotions elicited by the history of the Club. In this way, memories and testimonies blend with the artefacts in a crescendo of emotions. Such museums reflect a "strange hybrid of approaches that incorporate both passive and spectacular consumption as well as active and tactile consumption" (Ramshaw, 2010, p. 49).

The authors will illustrate the case of Mondo Milan, an innovative museum founded in 2014. Unlike other football club museums, which are based in the Stadium where the football teams usually play the matches, Mondo Milan has its own venue and represents a *unicum* in the sector. Mondo Milan is based in the headquarter of A.C. Milan, the worldwide known football club based in Milan, Italy, and includes a Store with the Official Merchandising, a restaurant and a box office in addition to the museum. Mondo Milan organizes temporary exhibitions dedicated to historical insights on the international competitions and hosts a gallery dedicated to contemporary art where young artists can exhibit their works on the football team colors and icons of A.C. Milan.

This chapter will employ the case of Mondo Milan to illustrate how the creation of football club museums represents a marketing strategy aimed at boosting the Club brand and broadening the Club customer base. The chapter will emphasize how this strategy is particularly suitable to the intangible and emotional characteristics of sports products and services. The chapter is organized as follows. First, the literature on sports museums will be reviewed, with a focus on marketing and branding. Second, the advantages of the creation of museums will be outlined, including generating revenues, boosting brand image and awareness and building reputation. Third, the case of Mondo Milan will be illustrated and recommendations and implications will be presented.

CAN SPORTS BE IN A MUSEUM?

Not only does a football club museum represents the heritage and the history of a Club, but it is also represents the history of the community and of the city where it is placed (Vamplew, 1998; Jarvie, 2013). Just as other companies, football clubs have a history and a heritage, which contribute to build up the identity of the organization (Brunninge, 2005). Increasingly are football clubs employing museums as a means to showcase their history and narrate their history of successes and losses, thus building their identity and unique features to be communicated to the external stakeholder (Balmer and Gray, 2003, p. 979; Iglesias, Ind and Alfaro, 2017).

Although for some scholars, sport is part of the heritage of a country and represents an expression of its identity and culture (Ramshaw, Gammon & Waterton, 2014) and "sport counts as culture just as much as opera does" (Greer, 2008), for others, sports museums are a living oxymoron, because sports are not deemed worthy of being in a museum. Such an idiosyncrasy towards considering sports as heritage has determined a dearth of research on a topic that has often been dismissed as trivial (Ramshaw, Gammon & Waterton, 2014, p. 249), especially in fields such as tourism.

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According to the International Council of Museums (ICOM, 2007) a museum is "a non-profit, permanent institution in the service of society and its development, open to the public, which acquires, conserves, researches, communicates and exhibits the tangible and intangible heritage of humanity and its environment for the purposes of education, study and enjoyment" (ICOM, 2007). If one considers that the definition has evolved to include private institutions, a football club museum could be considered a museum with all the necessary requirements based on the ICOM definition. Indeed, the importance of sports, and in particular football, has become an anthropological phenomenon that has been studied and discussed in several articles which compared the role of football to that of a civil religion (Xifra, 2008).

Sport museums address the intangible and emotional characteristics of sports and aim to engage customers addressing motivations such as enjoyment (entertainment and escape), experience (aesthetic) and gains (learning), which have been identified as some the main drivers of sports consumption for fans (The Future of Sports, 2015). According to Ramshaw, Gammon and Waterton (2014) two main types of sports museums can be identified: halls of fame museums and sport museums. The first category includes "nostalgic and celebratory" museums (Fairley & Gammon, 2005; Ramshaw, Gammon & Waterton, 2014, p. 250).

An example is represented by the Italian Football Hall of Fame, promoted by FIGC (Italian Football Game Federation) and housed at the Museo del Calcio in Coverciano, Italy. This organization aims to promote the heritage, history, culture and values of Italian football teams.

The second category includes museums which are more focused on the history of the clubs (Fairley & Gammon, 2005; Ramshaw & Gammon, 2014, p. 250), e.g., football museums, and refers to museums such as the Juventus Museum and the Mondo Milan Museum that offer fans the possibility to get closer to their favorite football teams through a special visit in a characteristic environment that is able to evocate the football clubs DNA and the mission of the football teams. In this chapter, the authors will focus their attention on football clubs museums and will analyze the case of Mondo Milan, a unique customer experience provided by AC Milan.

WHY SHOULD FOOTBALL CLUBS CREATE A MUSEUM? THE EXPERIENCE OF MONDO MILAN

To explain the benefits of creating a museum for a football club, the authors analyzed the case of Mondo Milan, a project based in Milan, Italy, and developed by A.C. Milan to provide fans with a unique customer experience. For research purposes, a semi-structured interview was conducted with the Marketing and B2C Sales Director of A.C. Milan, Michele Lorusso. The interview was conducted on the phone in

October 2018. The interview was recorded and transcribed in order to be analyzed by the researchers. Given the exploratory nature of the research, a qualitative approach was adopted to gain insights into the Mondo Milan case.

Founded in 2014, Mondo Milan is a museum displaying the trophies of AC Milan in a spectacular and interactive way and illustrating the story of the Club through the most modern interactive technologies. Based in the new headquarters of Casa Milan, a project developed by architect Fabio Novembre, Mondo Milan is part of a broader project to renew corporate communications strongly desired by the President of A.C. Milan, Barbara Berlusconi. The building, which also hosts a restaurant and a bookshop is modern and functional, with a strong emphasis on innovation: a design that provides fans with "an emotional and entertaining journey in a unique place, where the concept of #weareacmilan develops in the fullness of its meaning" (Architetto.info, 2014).

The new museum has been designed to bring together the history and the heritage of the club, represented by relics and testimonies of the era, with the most modern interactive technologies, such as the holographic theater. This is the first Italian sports museum to be equipped with a holographic post: the images and words of champions such as Baresi, Shevchenko, Maldini and Kakà, along with Berlusconi himself, document the historical path. And holograms are not the only technological innovation experienced in the structure: you can in fact experiment with RFID technology (Radio frequency identification), thanks to which the fans, wearing a special bracelet, can see their image appear alongside that of the champions (Architetto.info, 2014).

Mondo Milan aims to provide its visitors with an experience that allows them to relive the emotions related to the history of the Club. From the Champions Gallery to the Golden football room and the Hall of the Trophies with the most important cups won by Milan up to now to the holographic theater: memories and testimonies blend with the objects that have made the Rossoneri[1] history in a crescendo of emotions. As explained by Michele Lorusso, Marketing and Sales B2C Director of A.C. Milan, the museum's mission is to *manage Milan Football Club's historic and sporting heritage. Mondo Milan Museum was created with the aim of transmitting and sharing with all the fans and not only the great history of the Rossoneri Club. Mondo Milan is a venue where the trophies and the victories of the Club find a showcase up to what they have represented in the past and that continue to represent today.*

The concept of Mondo Milan Museum is based on the coexistence between tradition and technology. Indeed, in the museum, the memorabilia, which are the most historical and traditional items, coexist with modern interactive technologies, which are accessible by visitors through touchscreens where visitors can find videos

and images, and the voices of the protagonists who helped to write the great history of the Club.

Since the year of its opening in 2014, the Museum has welcomed hundreds of thousands of visitors. In addition to the permanent exhibition that tells the story of the Club, there is a section dedicated to temporary exhibitions. In this way, Mondo Milan offers its visitors new content and constant updates.

For instance, in 2015, Mondo Milan experienced a large increase in visitors due to the presence of the Expo in Milan and set up the exhibition "La Fabbrica delle Coppe. Fifa World Design, which is *dedicated to the production of one of the most important international football trophies such as the FIFA World Cup: a made-in-Italy product produced since 1971 by the Milanese company GDE Bertoni and in particular by the sculptor Silvio Gazzaniga.*

Mondo Milan represents an instance of a sports organization that has understood how critical it is to provide customers, and in particular attendees of sports matches, with a broader and more articulated experience than the match itself and to communicate their history and heritage: *Milan is one of the biggest Top Clubs in the world; in the 119 years of history has collected hundreds of memorabilia and dozens of trophies including the most prestigious as 7 Champions League, 3 Intercontinental Cups and 1 World Cup for Clubs. Throughout its history there have been champions and legends like Rivera, Van Basten, Shevchenko and Kaka just to name a few.It was right to tell this great story and be able to share it with those who have lived it and with those who want to discover it for the first time.*

Football clubs create museums in their premises with the aim of reaching different objectives, including: expanding their customer base (Abosag, Roper & Hind, 2012); increase customer loyalty (Bauer, Sauer and Schmitt, 2005); enhance brand awareness, and build a brand image and reputation (Bobby, 2002; Gladden & Funk, 2004; Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005). In the following paragraphs the aims mentioned above will be explored and discussed in order to provide a more detailed approach for football museums and elaborate on the positive impact of football museums for brands.

Expanding the Football Club Customer Base

The shift in the perception and needs of sport fans and the decrease of attendance (Wakefield & Blodgett, 2016) have brought football clubs to invest in a new type of customer experience aimed at retaining current customers (i.e., fans), while also attracting new ones. Watching a football match is not the only driver of interests of attendees and clubs have started investing in the development of further services within football stadia, including museums (Paramio, 2008).

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According to Kelly, Lissel, Rowe, Vincenten and Voaklander (2001), corporate museums are shifting their efforts from the predominance of their curatorship to a more market-oriented approach and are contributing to public relations initiatives. The described phenomenon is following a popular trend in the public museums sector as well: while older museums' primary mission consisted in collecting and preserving, the most recent mission statements mention the audience's experience (King & Springwood, 2001). The rise of football club museums can be positioned and understood in this context.

In fact, the mission of football club museums is not only to preserve the club collections of memorabilia and artefacts, but also to communicate to the local community and the market. Football clubs bring with them not only the historical background of a community and a city but they also represent an important player in the social life of the community since their supporters developed a devotional relationship with the club (Delgado & Gomez, 2018). In this sense, football club museums can represent a point of contact with the local communities. They can tell a story of a city, in addition to that of the club, and can function as tool for engaging visitors (Paramio, 2008).

This is confirmed by Lorusso who stated that *Mondo Milan Museum wants to be inserted into the local landscape as a place of cultural interest, next to the museums already present in the Milan area, such as the Museo del Novecento or the Triennale to name a few. We want the tourists visiting Milan, include Mondo Milan Museum in the list of places to visit in the city. In recent years we have witnessed a great increase in the presence of tourists in the stadiums that have become real tourist attractions and places of interest and A.C. Milan in this context lives a particular situation as it does not possess its own stadium.*

Stadio S. Siro, thanks to its internationally recognized prestige, boasts every day thousands of tourists who want to admire the famous Scala del Calcio, theater of immense sporting enterprises.

In this context the example of Barcelona FC is a good one to showcase how sporting and local dimensions integrate and generate an impact on the society by influencing its community (Xifra, 2008). Barcelona FC in fact has been able to create a long-lasting relationship with its publics, bringing closer to the club also those who are not interested in football itself thanks to an approach oriented at the creation of a sort of civil religion through rituals, communications and symbolic devices (Xifra, 2008). This approach has allowed Barcelona FC to become a reference point in the city as well as one of the most visible and attended football museums, inspiring other football clubs to invest in the same (Paramio, 2005).

Understanding the importance of broadening the offer is key for success to generate more customer interest in the club among the non-fans, by offering a

unique experience which is not related to the core business of the club (Feddersen & Maennig, 2007). Through museums, clubs can share a common culture, thus supporting the building of shared values (Taylor, 2000) which can be used to attract new form of publics.

For example, when in March 2018 the Museum and Stadium of San Siro in Milano opened to the public for free in support to a fundraising activity by the Fondo Ambiente Italiano (Italian Environmental Fund), more than 8,000 visitors entered the stadium and the museum over the weekend, showing strong interest in the experiential aspect of the stadium rather than in the core business of the club. The interest of the attendants toward the history and past experiences of the club has proved to be an important offer to ensure attractiveness.

The importance of museums for expanding the customer base of a club is clearly explained by Michele Lorusso Marketing and Sales B2C Director of Mondo Milan: *In general Casa Milan contributed to expanding our customer base. The fact of having opened the doors to the public has diminished the distance between the Club and the people who feel definitely more involved and more part of the Club. In this light, the museum plays a fundamental role thanks to all the activities that it organizes, for example initiatives for the schools and the local community, like organizing and hosting birthday parties or activities for children during the holidays (e.g., Santa's village outside the museum during the Christmas period; costume parties at Carnival; etc.)*

The experience provided by Mondo Milan is attractive not only for fans but also for people who want to know more about the history of Milan: *The target of the museum is very varied. We have a large presence of foreign visitors, attracted by the great international prestige of the Club: the top five top countries by presence are Russia, France, United States, China and Germany. The Italian visitors' basin is made up of a large percentage of fans (avid fans) coming from Lombardy and the rest of Italy and a smaller but very important percentage of people interested in football and sport in general. Very significant presence is that of the families to whom we dedicate numerous initiatives and promotions; the students coming from the schools of Milan with whom we have started a project of educational meetings to explain the commercial and economic dynamics on which a football company like that of A.C. Milan.*

Increasing Customer Loyalty in the Football Club Brand

Research pointed to a convergence between sports and entertainment. Football teams compete with other organizations in the leisure market so that it becomes increasingly difficult to attract people's interest. Especially the sports market is very competitive, which requires sport managers to be more creative and possess entrepreneurial skills

when marketing their services (Verma, Iqbal & Plaschka, 2004). In order to build a strong relationship with spectators and fans, football clubs need to develop new marketing strategies (da Silva & Las Casas, 2017). The difference between a sports consumer (fan) and a spectator lies in differing levels of passion and on a different degree of loyalty (da Silva & Las Casas, 2017).

While until the 1970s, the concept of customer loyalty was considered solely as the likelihood of previous customers to continue to buy from a specific organization (Evanschitzky and Wunderlich 2006), Hegner-Kakar, Richter and Ringle (2018) sustain that customer loyalty is 'only achieved if high loyalty is attained across all four loyalty stages of the *customer loyalty cascade*' (Han et al. 2008) that are cognitive loyalty, affective loyalty, conative loyalty and action loyalty. Loureiro and Ferreira (2018) stated that the interrelation among all the customer loyalty's dimensions underlines the need for a company to create an engaging place where visitors are more willing to return and spread the word to others; in this perspective, could be determinant for a football club the creation of its own Museum where fan and spectators could interact.

According to Stewart et al. (2018), there are four key drivers that influence loyalty in sporting clubs, including pure entertainment value, authenticity, fan bonding and history and traditions. The first driver, which contributes to the creation of short-term loyalty, is linked to team success and can be affected by factors not directly related to success such as the quality of pre-game and half-time entertainment. The second dimension looks at whether a team plays regardless of their win or loss record. The loyalty that sport, which fans experience in their interaction with the club is strongly related to their sense of belonging to the sports brand community that is in turn linked with the level of authenticity associated with the sports club (Dionísio, Leal & Moutinho, 2008; Bauer, Stokburger-Sauer & Exler, 2008).

The third driver, i.e., fan bonding, refers to the personal attachment between fans and team p players. Within this cluster, the level of customer loyalty is high (Burden & Li, 2009; KPMG Report, 2018) because when fans feel part of the success of a sports team, they may experience empowerment, which motivates and encourages them to engage in positive consumer behaviors and to be faithful to their favorite team. The last component refers to the team's previous record of achievement and to its history (Burden & Li, 2009; KPMG Report, 2018).

According to Stewart et al. (2018), while some of the elements mentioned above cannot be controlled by specific marketing strategies, sports managers can enhance a sense of community and achieve an higher level of customer loyalty through the creation of a sports museum experience where customers can discover and learn about the history of the football club and get in touch with its heritage and values. While for Tsiotsou (2012) as well as Stander & Beer (2016), it is possible to understand sport consumer behavior as a consequence of product and/or service satisfaction,

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Collignon & Sultan (2014) state that loyalty has a significant positive impact on fan behaviours and attitudes.

In addition, recent studies have identified in the ability of sports teams to create opportunities to bring the spectator closer to the sporting event a decisive activity in terms of customer loyalty (Bauer, Stokburger-Sauer & Exler, 2008; Danglade & Maltese, 2014). For Lorusso, museums can be identified as one of such opportunities. *In these first five years of activity, Mondo Milan has become a meeting point for all the Rossoneri fans and for all the people in Milan. This is undoubtedly visible during the match days, in which now a very deep bond has been created between the Museum (and Casa Milan in general) and the supporters who arrive to Milan from all over Italy and the world to watch the match.Before each match, we host a large number of visitors, who want to experience a highly engaging experience that accompanies them until the arrival at the stadium before the kick-off. There is an atmosphere of sharing of a unique passion, that of the Rossoneri colors, through the visit of the museum rooms, the possibility of buying gadgets at the Milan Store or the tickets for the match at the box offices based in Casa Milan.*

So the Museum is part of a wider project of loyalty of current customers through a broad proposal offered by Casa Milan.

Enhancing the Football Club Brand Awareness

The impact of branding has grown exponentially over the last few decades and the literature abounds on the relationship between sport and branding (Bobby, 2002; Gladden & Funk, 2004; Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005). The concept of managing a team as a brand appears to be a mantra of increasing importance when it comes to sports marketing (Ross et al., 2006). Both football clubs, such as Real Madrid, Manchester United and Bayern Munich, and sports organizations (e.g., CIO, NBA, FIFA, UEFA etc.) can be regarded as brands.

Kotler et al. (2000, p.45) define a brand as "a name, a word, a sing, a symbol, a drawing, or a combination of these, which aims at identifying the goods and services of a company and differentiates them from the competitors". In this chapter, the authors refer to the definition of Keller (1993) that links the brand directly to the concept of brand awareness: "a brand is a network of associations in consumers' minds".

Brand awareness is a key brand dimension (Aaker, 1996) and has been defined as "the strength of a brand's presence in consumers' minds" (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 1993). Brand awareness is an important component of brand equity and has been shown to have an impact on brand choice, even in the absence of other brand associations (e.g., Hoyer & Brown, 1990). Keller (1993) argued that brand awareness may be

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created by a product's features or by the brand name but, most often, by a visual image that stimulates the response to the brand.

Under this perspective, football club museums can greatly contribute to creating images of the brand by displaying the visual elements of the brand which are embodied by the heritage of the football team. There is a relationship between brand awareness and a stimulus coming from an external environment that is associated with the brand (Pappu, Quester & Cooksey, 2005). In this sense football club museums become take on strategic importance.

Sport clubs aimed at being sustainable need to make their audience and the society in general aware of their brand. Football museums can be a way to increase the awareness of their brand by sharing their past history as well as their future plans, receive feedback from the visitors and create a dynamic and direct dialogue between the museum and the visitor, also approaching prospect customers. The creation of Mondo Milan represents a strategy clearly aimed at enhancing brand awareness: *Surely the presence of a museum inside the Club has given prominence to the visibility of the brand internationally. In addition, in this context the birth of Casa Milan has played a fundamental role, which in turn is acquiring great visibility and recognition, becoming a real brand that generates culture, entertainment and tourism.*

Another crucial factor that has to be taken into consideration when it comes to improving brand awareness, today more than ever before, is technology and, more specifically, social media platforms. Social media can allow sports clubs to build brand awareness through networking, conversation and community building (Newman, Bonefas & Trenthem, 2018). Social media can be the ground where satisfied visitors share their satisfactory experience within the museum and influence other visitors to plan their visit or at least to increase their awareness about the football reality (Hegner-Kakar, Richter & Ringle, 2018). Mondo Milan is clearly taking advantage of the potential offered by social media by using the museum has the place where the concept of #weareacmilan can take off.

Building the Football Club Brand Image and Reputation

The brand image regards the customer perspective as it refers to the perception that consumers have of the brand, i.e., the set of consumer opinions related to a specific brand (Kotler et. al, 2008). For Herzog (1963), the brand image is the sum total of the impressions that consumers receive from multiple sources and that together form the personality of the brand. A variant with these definitions is offered by Aaker (1996, p.109) which defines the brand image as "a group of associations generally organized in a meaningful way. Also Keller (1993, p. 2) speaks of brand associations or other information nodes connected to the node that represents the brand in the

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memory and which contains the meaning of the brand for consumers. The image that consumers have of the brand depends, therefore, on a series of associations that can be of different types, including attributes and benefits.

Defined as the reasoned or emotional perceptions that consumers attach to specific brands (Dobni & Zinkhan, 1990), the brand image is made up of consumer perceptions of a particular brand as reflected by the brand associations held in a consumer's memory (Keller, 1993). The concept of brand image is related to that of positioning, the place that a brand occupies in consumers' mind (Ries and Trout, 1986).

The association between the brand image and brand reputation is so strong that regardless of the performance of the team in the field a brand can still be regarded as trustworthy by consumers (Collignon & Sultan 2014; KPMG, 2018, The Future of Sports, 2015).

In the sports context brand image is crucial to pursuing that competitive advantage. From the interview it emerges that Mondo Milan has been developed to position the image of the club in a way that is unique and distinctive: *The project stems from the desire to give Milan a unique place where the concept of #weareacmilan is lived out of the fullness of its meaning. Our desire is to keep up with the big top European and world clubs and to share with fans passion, aggregation, constant and continuous participation with the Club in order to reunite employees, footballers, fans, sports lovers, Milanese and tourists. For this reason Casa Milan and the museum were born: a place that is able to satisfy the new needs of commercial growth, entertainment and development of the Company. The image that comes from this project is of a company at the forefront, capable of evolving and being in the past with the times, knowing how to look to the future and at the same time enhancing the past.*

In this sense, A.C. Milan is a clear examples of a club that has succeeded at managing its brand image, through a balanced combination of communication, sponsorships, and brand management. They built their brands not only based on the positive records of their successes but also through specific marketing strategies that contributed to building up their brand reputation. Their museum has the role of consecrating the football club fame all around the world, offering sport visitors a unique experience that contributes to building up the image and the reputation of the organization.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

This chapter has discussed the role of football club museums as 'branding platform' (Appel, 2015). In addition to generating revenues, the creation of museums can allow football clubs to broaden their customer base, boost customer brand loyalty,

and enhance brand awareness and image. By visiting these museums, individuals have the chance to learn about the history and the heritage of the football club and to familiarize with the respective brand values. This makes it possible to attract not only football lovers or fans of the Club, but also other individuals who could be potentially interested in the experience itself. Thus, football club museums represent an opportunity for attracting new market segments that can engage in the history and values of the Club. In this way, the museum becomes a symbolic place where to relive the history of the football team and convey the Club brand culture and value to the historical fans and new supporters.

The civil religion dimension of football clubs (Xifra, 2008) as well as the increasing competition among clubs to attract publics (Paramio, 2008) make clubs responsible for their relations with the communities and encourage clubs to provide innovative ways of interacting with the community itself. Football museums have proved to be an effective tool for building stronger brands (Abosag, Roper & Hind, 2012). Building on the history of the football club and on the emotional attachment with the community, clubs can achieve important results in terms of expanding their customer base (Abosag, Roper & Hind, 2012); increase customer loyalty (Bauer, Sauer and Schmitt, 2005); enhance brand awareness, and build a brand image and reputation (Bobby, 2002; Gladden & Funk, 2004; Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005). Football museums are, therefore, a tool which marketers should consider in light of the supporters' orientation rooted in clubs' history and heritage (Abosag, Roper & Hind, 2012) therefore leveraging on this to ensure a broader experience to football fans.

The new strategies adopted by football clubs marketers must take into consideration the evolving needs and wants of the publics (da Silva & Las Casas, 2017) thus creating marketing strategies aimed at tackling the loyalty of attendees by ensuring a comprehensive stadium experience aimed at building long-lasting.

The brand can be considered the most important asset of sports clubs (Bauer, et al., 2005). In order to enhance the strength and attractiveness of the brand, football clubs have to invest in innovative ways of building relations with their customers while rethinking their offerings (Paramio, 2008).

Museums are a way to raise the awareness over the heritage of the football club, its future plans and evolution. Interacting with football fans becomes critical to listen to their feedback and sharing with them the strategic evolution of clubs. In this context, it is again important to exploit this touch point to collect information and feedback in order to make informative decisions and ensure the sustainability of the activities of the club by creating a stronger relations based on trust (Pappu, Quester & Cooksey, 2005).

Lastly, football clubs build their brand reputation not only through the results they achieve but also through their interaction with the local communities (Higgins 2006), increasing the value of the brand equity. This implies that marketers must

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consider as competitors not only the other football teams or the other sports, but also the other form of entertainment that are offered to the public. The creation and management of a football museum represents a point of differentiation in the offer and an opportunity to increase the experience of the customers.

Football museums do not simply represent an ancillary activity of the club but can have an important impact of the visibility, sustainability and success of the brand. In this context, skilled managers and clear marketing strategies are necessary to ensure the achievement of the objectives of the museum as well as to fully exploit the benefit that a football museum can generate.

CONCLUSION

The chapter makes the case for the creation and development of museums by football club as a strategy for brand enhancement. Museums can help football clubs achieve greater visibility and effectively manage their brand image. The Mondo Milan case shows how branding can boost brand awareness, broaden the football club customer base and enhance customer loyalty. In particular, this case study has shown how museums can function as vectors to approach sports customers by spreading teams values also outside the sports field (KPMG, 2018; The Future of Sports, 2015). Obviously, this case is limited in that it represents only one experience and future research should look at other organizations to confirm results.

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ENDNOTES

[1]   Rossoneri (red and black) are the colors identifying A.C. Milan.

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Section 3

Experience and Behavior in Sporting Events

Chapter 7
Getting Supporter Engagement in Sports:
The Role of Digital and Mobile Marketing in the Real Madrid F.C.

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ABSTRACT

This chapter attempts to provide a better understanding of the impact that sport marketing is having on achieving customer engagement. To accomplish this goal, the case of the Real Madrid F.C., estimated at having over 200 million supporters worldwide, is analyzed. Moreover, the team is among the top three clubs of the world in terms of followers and engagement on social media. As regards brand value, the Real Madrid F.C. is worth more than any team in the world. The combination of the aforementioned factors made the Real Madrid F.C. the appropriate brand to choose for this study, representing a leading organization in sports, business, and marketing. A number of methods were used to collect data for this study; specifically, information about the team was gathered by repeatedly browsing its website, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram accounts, and apps. Data from interviews published in business press and posts were also compiled. Additionally, a focus group was conducted to discuss the customer engagement of Real Madrid's fans.

INTRODUCTION

Brands are a strategic choice for companies that operate in markets where technological innovation is a basic premise (Jensen & Beckmann, 2009). This is especially relevant in the 21st century, as due to the globalization of the economy, companies nowadays have the possibility to consider the entire market instead of just focusing only on their local region (Ratten & Ratten, 2011).

Regarding sports, globalization has enabled teams to expand their fan base throughout the globe. Specifically, teams are becoming increasingly commercialized, while at the same time sport entities have become more professional. Moreover, the distinction between fans (those who are highly identified with the team, coach, players, etc.) and spectators is crucial; as supporter fervor gives rise to an irrational rather than a rational economic way of consuming football (Rodriguez-Pomeda, Casani & Alonso-Almeida, 2015). To shed light on this issue, literature argues that good marketing plans should focus on and accentuate connection with the team in order to capitalize on this type of emotional attachment. However, only recently have researchers started to address the understanding of the brand-supporter relationships or consumer connections to brands (Wallace, Buil & De Chernatony, 2014; Baena, 2016).

Among the different constructs related to the brand consumer relationship, it has been posited that consumers may experience passion, obsession and dependency in particular (Fournier, 1998). More recently, brand commitment has been found to be positively linked to desirable post purchase behaviors among satisfied customers (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Nevertheless, to date, most literature within the field of sports branding has been limited to the area of brand equity or brand extensions, and little research has examined the relationship between supporters' emotional attachment and branding strategy (see. i.e., Baena, 2017b).

Particularly, prior sports literature has conducted single case studies to analyze Manchester United as an example of network orchestration (Shaw, 2007), David Beckham as a brand (Vincent, Hill & Lee, 2009); the brand elements and local inspiration of FIFA World Cup (Weszka, 2011); the global marketing strategy of Bayern Munich (Baena, 2017a); or the effect that CSR practices carried out by the Foundation Real Madrid may have on brand love (Baena, 2017b). However, to the author's knowledge, very scant literature has addressed the analysis of branding strategy to achieve fan commitment. To achieve this goal, this chapter attempts to contribute to the identification of the effects of cutting-edge digital and mobile marketing on the emotional relationship to a sports brand.

As stated, the present study analyzes whether digital (online and social networks) in conjunction with mobile marketing actions performed by sport entities may increase brand commitment and have an impact on the emotional attachment that supporters have towards their clubs. We also consider the effect of brand communities (through website and social networks). To do so, we focus on the Real Madrid F.C., a team that has truly realized the importance of branding and as such has developed the ability to market in a way not seen anywhere else in the world of soccer. Specifically, with millions of followers throughout the different channels, Real Madrid is among the top 3 teams of the world in terms of followers and engagement on social media as published in the latest Top Forbes' Social Media Rankings. Moreover, as regards brand value, since 2013 Real Madrid has usurped Manchester United's long-held title as the most valuable soccer team in the world.

We have structured the present work into various sections. Firstly, we discuss the role of Internet as a tool to transform the traditional company's communication strategy. Subsequently, the marketing strategy implemented by The Real Madrid FC through digital (website and social networks) and mobile marketing is discussed, as well as its effectiveness in terms of customer commitment. The present study ends with the conclusions of the research and some thought on its limitations, as well as suggestions for future lines of research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Managers need to concentrate their efforts on their company's brand as it is an important profile builder for corporations (Balmer, Greyser & Urde, 2006), and one of the firm's most important assets (Kaynak, Gultekin & Tatoglu, 2008). Furthermore, brand management, if executed in a proper and continuous way, can enhance the company's value. A brand can therefore be considered as a key strategic asset (Jensen & Beckmann, 2009).

One of the sectors where brand equity is especially relevant is sports, as it has become increasingly commercialized and internationalized over the past decades (Braunstein & Ross, 2010). Specifically, sports marketers are increasingly considering what benefits their team could provide to their fans to increase customer support. Strategies such as finely tuned communications through a variety of media (e-mail, and special limited access events) can boost and reinforce the degree to which committed fans feel that they are receiving special treatment and are truly part of a team (Kaynak, Gultekin & Tatoglu, 2008). Furthermore, the advance of the Internet, including social media and mobile phone, offers marketers an immense variety of new possibilities of team to fan as well as fan to fan communication. That is the reason why professional sport is one of the sectors of activity that most

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uses interactive marketing mediums to contact their followers in real time (Baena, 2016). In short, cell phones, iPads and iPhones have enabled marketing to be more interactive (Cooke & Buckley, 2008), which helps professional sports to attract new followers and collect fan feedback through Facebook, Twitter or Instagram, among others (Ratten & Ratten, 2011).

Moreover, the internationalization of the global economy has meant that many sports marketers now look to the global market instead of one region in their marketing efforts. Specifically, entrepreneurial sport ventures that adopt an international focus are likely to achieve success in the competitive marketplace. This implies, however, that successful sports brands must transcend their cultural origins to develop strong relationships with consumers across different countries and cultures (Hollis, 2008). In alignment with the above arguments, adopting marketing strategies that allow the sports team to contact their followers without physical restrictions is crucial to achieving superior customer engagement and loyalty. Therefore, sports managers must be up-to-date with the latest trends and developments of digital and mobile marketing. In other words, implementing branding strategies through Internet and mobile phone applications is not an option for sport marketers; it is a must.

From Customer Satisfaction to Customer Commitment

Customer satisfaction has been the key objective of marketing strategy for more than 50 years. Of late, however, there have been attempts to move beyond satisfaction in explaining differences in strategic consumer behavior and achieving customer commitment (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). That is, managers need to concentrate their efforts on managing their brands, as it is one of the most important resources of any company (Kaynak, Salman & Tatoglu, 2008).

To achieve this goal, many institutions have embarked on some customer-facing processes and solutions (CFPS), which might include customer relationship management (CRM), customer engagement management (CEM), customer satisfaction cells, call centers, and so on. However, just stand-alone CFPSs are not enough to keep the customer with the organization. Unless such CFPSs are strategically integrated into the entire customer life cycle, they would have limited usefulness, and the organization would not be able to exploit the potential of such mechanisms. In other words, a thorough knowledge of the market becomes essential to know what customers want (Triparthi, 2009).

Besides, managing a firm's brand in a proper and continuous way can contribute positively to the value of the company. According to Feldwick (2002), a brand is simply a collection of perceptions in the mind of the consumer. This statement led Faris (2007), former chief innovation officer at MDC Partners[1] to define a brand as a collective perception in the minds of consumers. This implies the fact that the

perceptions and emotions towards a brand need to be shared in order to create this collective image (Hollis, 2008).

It should also be noticed that the most successful companies build deeply emotional relationships with their customers, who in turn stay faithful to their brands. This is especially relevant as customers who are emotionally engaged behave quite differentially than those who just prefer a certain brand because of rational arguments. Particularly, when customers are affectively committed to a company, they identify themselves with the firm's vision and values, and in turn, they are interested in the growth of the company. In addition, emotionally engaged consumers spend more, are less price sensitive and are more likely to get through a problem than other consumers who are not so engaged (Triparthi, 2009). Consequently, companies interested in winning, retaining, and deepening customer relationships can no longer do so by launching winning products or holding down costs or even improving customer service. As fans dedicate their time and efforts to support the team towards which they feel and profess an unconditional engagement (Kaynak, Salman & Tatoglu, 2008), companies are realizing the need to engage their customers (Triparthi, 2009; Baena, 2016).

In line with the above discussion, we argue that branding could even be the most important mechanism for a sports organization to grow. In extreme cases, customer engagement can lead to the "religion" phenomenon, meaning that the supporter will stick to the team no matter what, as illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1. The "religion" phenomenon in branding
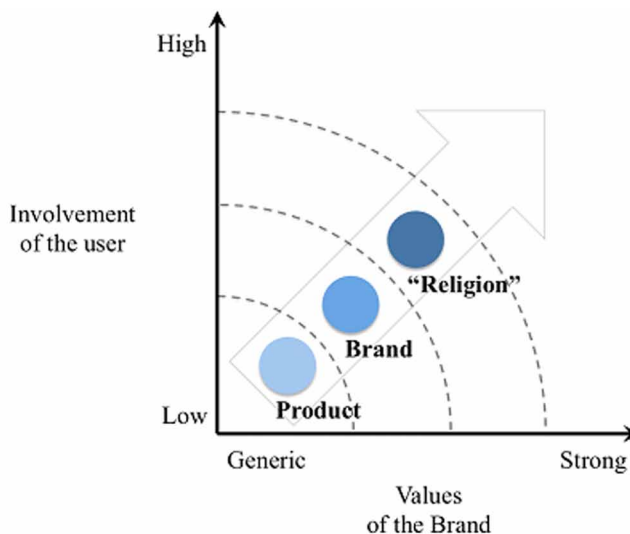
Source: Own elaboration based on Pedersen (2004)

The Role of Internet in the Marketing Evolution

Nowadays, companies are faced with two incommensurable challenges. On the one hand, they need to be constantly innovative and ready for change. On the other hand, they are expected to create an enduring and recognizable identity that attracts attention in a world saturated with communication (Jensen & Beckmann, 2009).

An important channel for brands to interact with their customers is the Internet. The advance of this tool, including also social media and mobile applications, offers marketers an immense variety of new ways to communicate with the customers. Furthermore, with Web 2.0, communication was no longer a one-way road and has become an exchange between fans and organizations, as well as fan to fan. Fischel (2004) enumerates some the key advantages of digital marketing. One valid for all channels is the 24-hour availability of online communication. This development means that consumers request the information they consider important at the most convenient moment for them. Secondly, every consumer is able to individually select the information she/he wishes throughout the various online channels, giving them easy access to the content. Thirdly, the Internet presents new sales channels, for example in form of online shops or mobile applications and at the same time offers easy and precise ways for success monitoring. Lastly and perhaps most importantly for the consumer is the benefit of always being up-to-date. Specifically, Fischel (2004) suggests adopting the online-marketing-mix according to Kolibius' (2001) eco-online-marketing-mix. This model transforms the "4Ps" (Product, Price, Place and Promotion) into the "4Cs", namely Content, Commerce/Convenience, Co-location and Communication/Community. Even though the "4Cs" do not replace the "4Ps", their importance is growing immensely with the increased importance of new media.

Consequently, Internet has transformed the marketing paradigm from physical offerings to the virtual marketplace. It also allows shifting attention from one-way communication to interactive and real-time relationships with a company's customers. Thus, considering the possibility for sport marketers to reach a global market, the appearance of Internet becomes even more important. This issue is very relevant as sports offer massive potential for revenue generation of a global scale because of its cross-cultural ability to appeal to different generations of people from multiple geographic locations.

In line with the above arguments, many sports organizations have implemented relationship-marketing programs designed to appeal to their most avid fans (Fullerton & Mertz, 2008). Moreover, team websites provide a brilliant tool for boosting the frequency of team fan connection. For example, video clips from past games and on-going or current press conferences allow the fans to be involved with the team more frequently (Kaynak, Gultekin & Tatoglu, 2008). Moreover, Internet plays an important role in achieving customer commitment and brand loyalty, as it allows

brand communities not to be restricted by the geographic location of its members. In short, interaction takes place through a technological interface, making a physical context unnecessary. The site also becomes a meeting point where fans develop their relationships with the club, which is always present (Sicilia & Palazón, 2008). However, managing a web page is not enough to succeed in supporter engagement (Hur, Ahn & Kim, 2011; Baena, 2016).

Brand Communities as a Tool to Achieve Customer Engagement

Interaction among a brand community's members may influence brand choice and enhance brand attachment, making this issue very relevant for both academics and practitioners (Sicilia & Palazón, 2008). For instance, committed customers show proactive behaviors such as positive word-of-mouth (Patwardhan & Balasubramanian, 2011). Accordingly, most teams use brand communities for the strategic purpose of getting closer to specific target market segments (Baena, 2016).

In particular, digital marketing and mobile phone applications may help sports organizations to further `implement marketing strategies oriented to increasing customer commitment. For instance, while brand community members may establish a brand related discussion, they may also share opinions about any other topic of interest (Hur, Ahn & Kim, 2011). This helps to achieve brand engagement, as members can join the group without the limitations of geographical barriers (Kaynak, Gultekin & Tatoglu, 2008). Then, digital and mobile marketing play an important role in achieving customer commitment, as they allow brand communities not to be restricted to geographic co-presence of members.

To summarize, as it will be discussed in the next sections, digital and mobile marketing actions may help sports organizations to implement further marketing strategies oriented to increasing customer commitment and fans retention.

METHODOLOGY

Data for the present study on the Real Madrid F.C. was gathered by repeatedly browsing the team's web site, social networks, and apps. Data was also gathered from news about the Real Madrid F.C. published in the business press and the team's Annual Reports were also considered. A similar procedure was followed to analyze Coca-Cola's brand communities (Sicilia & Palazón, 2008), the global marketing strategy of FC Bayern Munich (Baena, 2017a), and the importance of corporate social responsibility practices carried out by the Real Madrid Foundation and its influence on brand love (Baena, 2017b), among others.

Finally, two exploratory focus groups were conducted to discuss the customer engagement of Real Madrid's fans. A non-probability sample of 28 undergraduate students was selected on the basis that they are potential followers of sport teams. Most participants were men (68%) and aged between 18 and 25 years (78%) resulting in a mean age of 22 years. In this sense, it is worth mentioning that, as noted by Jackson and Shaw (2009), the use of non-probability samples is particularly relevant to management research. Literature has also highlighted the benefits of using young people as a sample to explore customer engagement, as they represent future earners and spenders (Ross & Harradine, 2011).

Eligibility of Real Madrid F.C.

Founded in 1902 as the Madrid Football Club, the team has traditionally worn a white home uniform ever since. The word Real (royal in Spanish) was conferred to the club by King Alfonso XIII of Spain in 1920 together with the royal crown in the emblem. The team has played its home matches in the 85,454 people capacity *Santiago Bernabéu Stadium* in downtown Madrid since 1947.

From a sports perspective Real Madrid is one of the most successful football clubs in the world. Specifically, as of 30 April 2018, the team has won 33 "Ligas" (national league trophies), 19 "Copas del Rey" (Spain's national cup), 13 European Championship titles, 3 Intercontinental Cup trophies, 4 European Super Cups, 3 FIFA World Cups, and 6 FIFA Club World trophies, among others. Due to this exceptional number of titles, Real Madrid was named "*FIFA Club of the Century*" in 2002. Real Madrid F.C. is allowed to wear a multiple–winner badge on their jersey during UEFA Champions League matches as the club has won more than five European Cups. Additionally, on 23 December, 2000 Real Madrid was named the FIFA Club of the 20th century. More recently, it received the FIFA Order of Merit.

The Real Madrid F.C. has truly capitalized upon the importance of branding and as such has developed the ability to market in a way not seen anywhere else in the world of soccer. Specifically, the team is represented in the most important social media platforms such as Facebook, and Twitter. In fact, with millions followers throughout the different channels, this sport team is among the top 3 teams of the world in terms of followers and engagement on social media as published in the 2013 Top Forbes' Social Media Rankings. As regards brand value, since 2013 Real Madrid has usurped Manchester United's long-held title as the most valuable soccer team in the world. Therefore, Real Madrid F.C. is worth more than any team in world.

As discussed, Real Madrid's understanding of the power of brand development has enabled them to market in a way not seen anywhere else in the world of soccer. In particular, this team is one of the most recognizable brands in sports. With some of the world's greatest players on the field, the team exemplifies that brand

equity is mainly based on brand awareness and image. For example, in terms of brand awareness, the fusion of the potent Real Madrid brand with equally powerful global football superstars such as David Beckham and Cristiano Ronaldo proved a profitable decision. Specifically, once the two famous footballers started to wear the Real Madrid jersey, the club was able to dramatically increase the price paid by their major corporate sponsors such as Siemens, Audi, and Adidas (Vincent, Hill & Lee, 2009).

RESULTS

As sports fans dedicate their time and efforts to support their teams, they also become consumers their team's services and products, since they unconditionally love their club (Baena, 2017a). Notwithstanding, it should be noted that only a small part of a team's turnover comes from the traditional revenue stream of tickets sales, while an important percentage of a club's gross revenue is derived from sponsorship deals, television rights, and other media royalties.

Other revenue streams include apparel and other merchandise. Specifically, sports leagues and other sports-related companies have five of the top 20 positions among global merchandise licensors (Ratten & Ratten, 2011). However, the costs associated with purchasing and employing top quality players have also hugely increased over the last decade. This means that sports teams have had no choice but to find new revenue sources (i.e., sponsors), which has made it ever more important to keep grow and develop popularity.

In view of the above arguments, professional sports teams are turning to long-term strategic brand management as the dominant viewpoint for their marketing efforts. While short-term tactics centering on winning matches (such as firing a head coach or hiring or renting a star player in the middle of the season), are commonly used by sports managers, these tactics do not guarantee long-term and steady revenue flows (Kaynak, Gultekin & Tatoglu, 2008). Consequently, it is necessary to increase the target market and get fans interested in the team, by keeping them up to date with developments (Ratten and Ratten, 2011). To achieve this goal all clubs must build a virtual community for their fans and dispose of mobile integration.

In sum, we can argue that interaction with the fans is one of the most relevant aspects to be considered. For instance, thanks to the Real Madrid's virtual community, the club has millions of followers. Furthermore, the team has its own encrypted Digital TV channel, - Real Madrid TV -, which is available both in Spanish and English. A YouTube channel was also created in addition to the club's web page, www.realmadrid.com. Nevertheless, none of these strategies helped the team to know how people react with the club's messages inside the official website. Therefore,

a decade ago Real Madrid started its Facebook page and Twitter account in which the team could gain insight into their fans in terms of number of visits, topics they like, etc.

Currently, social media allowed the club to reach millions Madridistas (Real Madrid followers) overseas, thus making it the most popular sports club in social networks in 2012 according to FameCount.com. In particular, since its launch, the club's Facebook page has been a success and has built up a huge following with millions of fans and with an average of approximately 3,000 new fans joining every day. Hence, although the social network started as a way for Real Madrid to test fan interaction, the team's official social network pages have also become a source of information for Madridistas worldwide, since it is published in five different languages (i.e., Spanish, English, French, Arabic, and Japanese).

Social media also opens up additional opportunities for sponsors and Real Madrid F.C. partners. That is, sponsors not only have the chance to be in the stadium, on the shirts, and on RealMadrid.com but they can also publish their messages via the club's social media channels and provide engaging content for the Real Madrid's fans. For instance, when Bwin was the Real Madrid's jersey sponsor, it hosted a weekly interview with the team talking about the next game. In addition, the Real Madrid Fantasy Manager game on Facebook and iPhone (which has 140,000 users on average per month) allows fans to coach the team. Furthermore, the YouTube channel makes a difference by offering exclusive free content in Spanish, English and Arabic.

Real Madrid F.C. also uses social media to encourage fans to join club membership programs. For example, the club encourages its fans to join the Madristas club, which gives access even more content. To cite an example, on May 26, 2018 after having won the European Champions for the thirteenth time, the team posted a special offering, which only lasted 48 hours, in its website and social networks to celebrate with the fans its happiness for having become European Champions three times in a row. Specifically, it posted "There are more than 975,000 Madridistas who are part of Real Madrid and enjoy the exclusive advantages of the card... This is the time to join the Champions Club! Request your personalized Madridista card now, and we will give you the exclusive Champions t-shirt! That easy. Show your colors with pride wherever you go and enjoy numerous benefits such as discounts at the Real Madrid Official Online Store, preference in the purchase of tickets, monthly raffles of official merchandising and VIP tickets ... you could even win a trip to Madrid in our annual draw!"

In conjunction with the above-mentioned marketing strategies, Real Madrid F.C. has been working with mobile technologies to implement them in the club's marketing strategy. As a result, the "Real Madrid Mobile" application was created. It generates extra revenue for the team through the distribution of their mobile content

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Figure 2. Become a Madridista and get the champions t-shirt for free

portfolio, and the creation of new mobile services. Moreover, the "Real Madrid Mobile" allows the club to build a new mobile community for Real Madrid fans, which is significant because mobile phones generate in some cases a much better response than other forms of communication like email or traditional letters. For instance, when the team wins a trophy, it sends out video calls to all of its mobile subscribers and once the fans respond to such a call, they see a video of one of the players saying "*Madridista we have won La Copa! Thanks very much for your support!*" This type of communication is much more personal, reaches out to fans, and enhances customer engagement. It is also worth mentioning the partnership with CISCO systems announced on March 2012 to make the stadium Santiago Bernabéu one of the most technologically advanced stadiums in the world. By using CISCO's Connected Sports Solutions, the Real Madrid's arena was fully optimized to improve web connectivity and facilitate social media access to their supporters.

Finally, the club's decision to join *The Mobile Marketing Association* (MMA) as a Regional Member gave the team the opportunity to launch several successful mobile marketing strategies such as MyMadrid's mobile community. This is a multi-platform and multi-language community for fans used by Real Madrid to communicate exclusive special offers and ticket availability, regardless of their phone model. The mobile platform also offers supporters up to the minute news. It has also gives access to the club's official Youtube channel, minute by minute game updates, real time 3D goals from matches, chat and MSN services, as well as a mini games service. In other words, MyMadrid goes beyond a conventional mobile community as it allows creating and sparking interaction amongst the fans.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

A person emotionally attached to a brand, usually accepts to pay premium prices for this specific brand in order to avoid separation distress (Sarkar, 2011). Therefore, the goal of any organization is not only their customers to be satisfied with the product but also, that they be willing to promote, defend and go to battle with others, on behalf of the brand (Thomson, MacInnis & Park, 2005). Strategic brand management has then become a key issue in the last decade, especially in sports (Blumrodt, Bryson, & Flanagan, 2012). Nevertheless, literature has only recently placed increased emphasis on the concept of strategic branding (Jensen and Beckmann, 2009) and especially, in understanding the role played by brands in sports management (Patwardhan & Balasubramanian., 2011).

The present study confirms that sport is becoming increasingly commercialized and sport entities have become more professional over the years. Real Madrid F.C. shows a privileged position, being one of the most important brand names in sports with players that are well known and highly supported. Specifically, over 200 million people worldwide follow the team. In addition, the club has more than 1,800 *peñas* (official club-affiliated supporters' groups) in Spain and around the world. In terms of virtual followers, Real Madrid has over 108 million Facebook (level 21.05.2018). It is also the team with the largest number of Twitter followers in Europe. Real Madrid players are also very popular in social networks. Particularly, Cristiano Ronaldo is the most popular athlete in the world, having more than 130 million Facebook fans and over three million Twitter followers (level 21.05.2018). We can then argue that Real Madrid has also the best online presence and largest communication activity in social networks of all sports teams.

Based on the above arguments, the marketing strategy adopted by Real Madrid F.C. has been analyzed to study the importance of both digital marketing and mobile phone applications to open up many new opportunities, gain customer commitment, and understand the customer perspective. Specifically, customer commitment is demonstrated by consumers who purchase season tickets and/or follow all of a team's games. Additionally, new services such as team-related merchandise stores and restaurants in close proximity to the stadium enable the team to create additional revenue streams through licensing agreements (Gladden & Funk, 2001).

To achieve fan engagement, sports marketers have to implement new tools that allow the team to interact with their followers without physical restrictions. This is very relevant as most teams focus on international branding to build a global fan base (Ratten & Ratten, 2011). In this sense, Internet usage and its derived applications (i.e., website, social networks and mobile phones) allow the appearance of virtual brand communities. This helps every club to get feedback from their followers (Patwardhan and Balasubramanian, 2011), and open new opportunities for the

club's partners as well as sponsors (Baena, 2017a). In this way, Real Madrid F.C. has reached agreements with the main media partners in Spain, in which the football team launches monthly SMS challenges on TV, and in newspapers giving theirs fans the opportunity to win exclusive prizes. As an example, in 2009 Real Madrid launched a special contest that gave their fans the opportunity to win the official AUDI cars of the players, those that had been used by the team's stars.

The present work also confirms that social media provides new opportunities to gain insight about the brand's fans. Specifically, when the club posts content, many people immediately answer by saying they like it or they do not. Supporters' feedback is very important. For instance, when Real Madrid F.C. started to include links to the club's online shop on their Facebook page, it took fans a while to realize that this was Real Madrid's official online store. This made the club think of this fact and consider that maybe it needs to include on their posts that this was the official online store, as the previous information was not as clear for fans as the team thought.

Mobile Marketing has also offered new opportunities, such as the promotion of sponsors through mobile services. The mobile services not only give the customers a sense of proximity and confidence about the brand itself but also about the sponsors of the brands. This type of marketing strategy increases the brand's popularity while also adding value to the brand. As Pedro Duarte, former Mobile Marketing Manager at Real Madrid CF, said, "Real Madrid is one of the leaders in terms of mobile technology and sports here in Europe. One of the main things that separates us from other sports organizations in terms of mobile success is that we have a department dedicated to our mobile platforms and mobile marketing – that is the main difference between Real Madrid and many other companies, some of them have digital teams, but we specialize in mobile marketing and building a mobile community for Real Madrid" (Read, 2010).

Moreover, one of the participants of the focus group we conducted in this study noted that "While showing these pictures in my phone, so you can realize that Real Madrid is always trying to get involved with their fans, because the team knows that it is very important for the fans to see everything that is happening. Followers not only buy the shirt and wear it when they go to the stadium. They like to feel they join the team and belong to their Football Team Community as one special member". In this sense, it is worth mentioning that contrary to expectations, recent literature discusses negative reactions, like irritation, that mobile marketing may provoke among customers. This is because mobile marketing is often perceived as disruptive, which negatively affects the customer engagement with the brand (Li, Edwards & Lee, 2002).

Therefore, one of the main challenges and opportunities for mobile marketing is to understand and respect the personal nature of the usage of mobile phones, as done by Real Madrid.

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Academic and Practical Contributions

The findings of this study have certain academic and practical implications for management literature that worth addressing. Firstly, virtual brand community marketing enhances customer commitment. Specifically, since customer participation often leads to brand loyalty, both digital (website and social networks) and mobile marketing have to be considered as tools to improve marketing effectiveness. This finding is consistent with recent research (Patwardhan & Balasubramanian, 2011; Ratten & Ratten, 2011; Baena, 2016). Brand communities also offer new insight for customer relationship management and related marketing activities as suggested in prior literature (i.e., Sicilia & Palazón, 2008; Hur, Ahn & Kim, 2011).

Additionally, this study highlights the importance of mobile marketing strategies. Developing an interactive web site is not enough to get brand loyalty, understood as an actual and profound behavior that consistently supports and repurchases referred products or services, despite competitors' marketing efforts to change their behavior (Oliver, 1997). Specifically, traditional websites are no longer motivating customers to return to the site (Sicilia & Palazón, 2008). As a result, sports managers need to use interactive marketing mediums to connect with consumer in real time (Cooke & Buckley, 2008). In addition, by integrating different elements of social media such as blogs, YouTube, Facebook, and Twitter, companies elevate presence and create virtual communities (Larson, 2011), which influence the choice of brands and impact brand loyalty (Ratten & Ratten, 2011).

It should also be noticed that the interaction among members may influence the choice of brands and enhance the company's brand loyalty (Sicilia & Palazón, 2008). Therefore, in today's entertainment environment, the football industry is facing difficulty in obtaining new incomes derived from traditional business, (ticket sales). Faced with this situation, football clubs have designed new strategies that have turned them into modern sports and media companies. Real Madrid F.C. is a perfect example of this new strategic view in a Spanish sports organization. The main contribution of the new management model applied by the club has been progressive brand value enhancement and new forms of brand exploitation from a new marketing strategy. As a result, incomes from brand exploitation have increased importantly and the team shows a leadership position among football clubs around the world (Blanco & Forcadell, 2006). These findings are of interest to both academia and management.

Limitations and Direction for Future Research

We conclude this paper by pointing out some limitations and offering suggestions for further research.

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A first limitation of this study is its focus on the Real Madrid football club. Supporters of different teams and sport categories (baseball, basketball, etc.) could be chosen, and comparative studies might be carried out.

Secondly, the analysis developed in this study is qualitative. It could be improved with a quantitative study in which supporters were asked about the degree to which their functional, social, and emotional needs are satisfied through the digital and mobile marketing strategy implemented by the club. We therefore, propose topics these as further lines of research.

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ENDNOTE

[1]   MDC is a Business Transformation Organization that utilizes technology, marketing communications, data analytics, and strategic consulting solutions to drive meaningful returns on Marketing and Communications Investments for multinational clients in the United States, Canada, Europe, and the Caribbean.

Chapter 8

Relationship Between Satisfaction and Social Perception of the Negative Impacts of Sporting Events

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ABSTRACT

Sporting events can be important stimulators of the cities that host them. The aim of this chapter is to find the relationship established between the residents' perception of the negative impacts associated with the holding of three sporting events in the same city and the degree of satisfaction with their hosting them. A total of 567 subjects in Valencia (Spain) were interviewed. A questionnaire composed of nine items about possible negative impacts and an indicator of overall satisfaction with the celebration of the event was used for this work. The results showed that the residents' perception of the possible waste of taxpayers' money associated with the construction of event facilities showed a significant prediction in explaining the degree of satisfaction with the holding of sporting events.

INTRODUCTION

Sporting events can be tools for boosting the economy of the cities or regions that host them, as well as important promoters of their image. In this sense, some administrations have opted for a sports policy focused on the organization of events as an instrument to increase the influx of tourists and promote international recognition. This is the case of the Valencian Community, and more specifically the city of Valencia, which in recent years has become an international benchmark in the organization of major sporting events. During the last two decades, the city of Valencia has hosted numerous sporting events, of which most are qualified as "international scope" or "great international impact".

Although the interest on the economic impact of this type of sports events has prevailed over the repercussion in other areas such as social and environmental, there are more and more jobs that focus their attention on the impact that sports events generate on quality of life of the residents of the host community. In this sense, know and identify social impacts will improve planning and management of sporting events at all stages, achieving sustainability and viability of the event (Parra, Calabuig, Nuñez, & Crespo, 2017).

In the field of research on the social impacts of sporting events, it is intended to know which variables contribute to explain the support or satisfaction of citizens with the reception of this type of events. Therefore, the efforts of the organizers and administrations must focus on knowing these variables and improving their management in order to prolong the legacy of the events in their city.

Thus, as highlighted by Thomson, Schlenker and Schulenkorf (2013), it is important to bear in mind that inadequate planning of the legacies of events in host cities or regions may lead to negative economic, social and environmental consequences, of an event for a long time. Hence, it is necessary to consider, evaluate and manage both positive and negative legacies, taking into account all stakeholders in order to maximize the positive and minimize the possible negative results inherited.

Sporting events have become key promotional tools for large cities, allowing outreach levels that would be economically unaffordable with conventional advertising. Furthermore, they have drawn the attention of managers and researchers because they are a uniquely important potential niche of economic intervention and exploitation. Not surprisingly, there is a large body of work aiming to rigorously determine the economic impact of holding major sporting events in cities (Preuss, 2004 and 2005), and economic assessment models have even been developed, such as TEIM: Travel Economic Impact Model (Frechtling, 1994), RIMS: Regional Input/Output Modelling System (Wang 1997; Donnelly, Vaske, DeRuiter, & Loomis, 1998), TDSM: Tourism Development Simulation Model (Donnelly et al., 1998), RIMS II (Wang, 1997), IMPLAN: Impact Analysis for Planing (Dawson, Blahna, &

Keith, 1993; Donnelly et al., 1998; Wang, 1997), and, lastly, the proposal of Dwyer, Forsyth, and Spurr (2003), CGE: Computable General Equilibrium. A large part of the work conducted is focused on economic analysis, in line with the interests of governments and organizing promoters of knowing the profitability of public and private resources invested in holding the event.

However, in the last decade, we have observed a significant increase of interest in the analysis of social, cultural, and environmental impact of sporting events in host locations. Studies that analyze the social impact of sporting events provide insight into how residents perceive such events, their degree of identification, and their willingness to accept them. Citizens are stakeholders who play an essential role in this type of events, as they will ultimately approve their management and dedicate additional funds for their financing (Preuss & Solberg, 2006). Likewise, a high level of citizen satisfaction will enhance their hospitality and solidarity towards the tourists who come to the city for the event (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006). Obtaining the support of local residents and understanding the antecedents that can explain such support is essential because social support can transform a major sporting event into an urban festival, while the lack of support and cohesion within the host community can have devastating effects on the host community by increasing social and political tensions (Gursoy, Yolal, Ribeiro, & Panosso, 2017).

One of the features of major sporting events is that a celebratory mood is generated that includes both the residents and tourists, as it is the joint participation and urban life that allow for the creation of this festive mood in the host city (Preuss & Solberg, 2006). In this sense, the analysis of citizen's perceptions of sporting events organized in their city is imperative because although many events attract a significant number of tourists to the organizing city or region, the great majority of participants are local citizens, making it crucial for the events to be consistent with the needs of the local community (Fredline, Jago, & Deery, 2002). The ability to understand, control, and measure social impact is vital for the long-term viability of the event. Therefore, residents' direct or indirect participation in hosting these events is essential to allow continuity (Ntloko & Swart, 2008).

SOCIAL PERCEPTIONS OF MAJOR SPORTING EVENTS

According to Preuss and Solberg (2006), citizens usually formulate their perception of sporting events based on three information sources. The first source is the information provided by the organizing committee, political authorities, the media, and lobby or interest groups (including groups opposed to the event). The second source is information received from the experience of hosting similar events in other locations, through the media or other people. The third source is their personal experiences

of events held in the same location or other locations. This fact is of paramount importance as a base for developing a communication strategy for the event.

Moreover, many authors have put forward diverse theories to try to understand and explain changes in residents' perceptions of sporting events. First of all, it is important to note that the initial application of these theories has been conducted in the area of tourism research, based on the analysis of reactions, attitudes, or perceptions of local communities of the impact on tourism (Deery & Jago, 2010). The most used explanatory theories in the areas of residents' perceptions of sporting events are the Theory of Social Representations and the Social Exchange Theory.

The first theory states that citizens have a set of representations about tourism and sporting events, which define their perceptions regarding the impact generated, these representations being determined by their direct experiences, social interactions, and other factors such as the media. This theory has been used in various studies to explain the reactions of residents to sporting events (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000; Zhou & Ap, 2009). Meanwhile, the Social Exchange Theory is mostly used to explain the changes in residents' perceptions regarding the impact of tourism (Ap, 1992) and, in this case, regarding sporting events (Deccio & Baloglou, 2002; Waitt, 2003; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Kim, Gursoy, & Lee, 2006; Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo, & Alders, 2012; Kaplanidou, Karadakis, Gibson, Thapa, Walker, Geldenhuys & Coetzee, 2013). This theory suggests that citizens have a more favorable attitude towards sporting events if they consider the expected benefits to be higher than the costs. Thus, the citizens, who benefit most from holding a sporting event, by obtaining employment or by seeing windfall for their business, will demonstrate more favorable attitudes than those who do not obtain any direct benefit (Fredline, 2005).

The main difference between these two theories is based on the assumption of rationality of the human mind. Thus, according to Fredline (2005), the Theory of Social Representation allows for irrational reactions of residents towards sporting events, based on personal and social values. Meanwhile, the Social Exchange Theory assumes rational processing of information in terms of the expected costs and benefits of a sporting event.

Eagly and Chaiken (1993) have proposed another theory related to the expectations-values model, which is used by authors such as Delamere (2001) and Delamere, Wankel, and Hinch (2001) for events or festivals. According to these authors, there is a relationship between the importance given by residents to certain results (value) and the degree of influence they think tourism has in achieving these results (expectations). This model provides a useful explanation for the variations of residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs derived from hosting major sporting events (Fredline, 2005).

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Sporting events are associated with a series of benefits to the organizing localities. These positive impacts or benefits greatly depend on the repercussions, the size, and the category of the sporting event. Nevertheless, assessing or measuring these benefits is usually done with economic analysis and, to a lesser extent, with social impact studies or by assessing the residents' perceptions of sporting events. This is due to the difficulty of measuring intangible aspects such as, in many cases, the social costs and benefits derived from hosting sporting events.

The research literature discussing the residents' perceptions of the impacts of events usually differentiates between positive and negative impacts, or benefits and costs, of holding a sporting event. However, the form in which citizens perceive costs and benefits is a determining factor which will influence the support or opposition to the event (Müller, 2012). This has been widely demonstrated in various studies performed on many types of sporting events (Deccio & Baloglou, 2002; Fredline, 2004; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Müller, 2012; Prayag et al., 2012; Kaplanidou et al. 2013; Parra, Calabuig, & Añó, 2013). Thus, one of the tasks of the authorities and organizers of the event should be to identify and predict these impacts in order to minimize the negative effects and maximize the positive results (Fredline, 2004; Bowdin, Allen, Harris, McDonnell & O'Toole, 2012).

INCONVENIENCES ASSOCIATED WITH SPORTING EVENTS

Many authors have classified or compiled the possible costs and benefits or positive and negative impacts derived from hosting sporting events. However, the majority comes from the area of tourism research (Higham, 1999; Fredline, 2005) due to the ability of major sporting events to attract tourists to the host city. In this context, Fredline (2000) points out that many impacts of sporting events are similar to those associated with tourism activity in general, especially in the long term, as an event can lead to an increase of tourism activity in general. However, the impacts of the events in the short term can be unique, as they are associated with high concentrations of tourism activity in a small area for a short period of time. Therefore, they may be more determining than similar impacts related to general tourism activity.

One of the first classifications was conducted by Ritchie (1984), and a later one was conducted by Hall (1989, 1992), who differentiate between the positive and negative impacts of events in six categories: economic, tourism/commercial, physical, socio-cultural, political, and psychological. Moreover, Fredline (2004) adapted this classification to determine the impacts of motorsports events, and Preuss and Solberg (2006) mention this classification together with the contributions of other authors (Hiller, 1990; Cashman, 2005; Scamuzzi, 2006).

The benefits of holding major sporting events are diverse and relate to the capacity of projecting the image of a city or country at the international level, promoting the locale as a tourism destination, remodeling and constructing new infrastructure and sporting facilities, creating new jobs (Añó, 2011), increasing the residents' pride and identification with their locality (Añó, Calabuig, Ayora, Parra, & Duclos, 2013; Kim et al., 2006; Calabuig, Añó, Parra, & Ayora, 2014), and increasing social cohesion and the capacity of the city to organize major sporting events (Fredline, 2005). They can also promote improvements in the quality of life of the residents due to the potential they have of increasing entertainment and leisure options, and they can promote healthy habits in the form of increased sporting activity (Malfas, Theodoraki, & Houlihan, 2004). In turn, these aspects can lead to increased productivity, consumption of goods and services, and reduction of workplace absenteeism (Preuss & Solberg, 2006).

Citizens usually have high expectations about the benefits that holding major sporting events can bring, although they know that these benefits will not come about without incurring additional costs, which may be economic, ecological, and socio-cultural (Kim et al., 2006), which can cause opposition among citizens. However, both the benefits and costs largely depend on the location, type, and scale of the event, as well as the locality where it is held.

From an economic perspective, we must highlight the risk that especially in the short term, income generated by the event will not be sufficient to cover the costs of organizing it (Solberg & Preuss, 2007). This may lead to increased public investment and higher taxes to cover the costs of necessary facilities for the event (Deccio & Baloglou, 2002). In this context, Parra, Añó, Calabuig, and Ayora (2012), point out that the residents perceived public investment and higher prices as the main costs at the socio-economic level of holding a Formula 1 Grand Prix event. In the same line, the study by Parra, Aguado and Núñez (2015) highlighted that residents considered that too much public funding had been invested in the organization of the Open 500 tennis, which could have been dedicated to other public projects. For example, Prayag et al. (2012) find that a higher level of investment cannot always be justified by the benefits obtained, using the expenditure for the Olympic Games in Greece in 2004 as an example (14 billion euros, equivalent to 6% of the gross domestic product of the country) and in the Beijing Olympic Games in 2008 (40 billion euros). Furthermore, Malfas et al. (2004), citing Hall and Hodges (1998), point out that major sporting events can affect the housing market and the value of land, as construction of new infrastructure related to the event may imply land expropriation and housing removals, while at the same time leading to increased house prices and rents.

Following this line of reasoning, Spilling (1998) points out that while there was more economic activity before and during the Winter Olympic Games in

1994, their legacy or long-term impact in Lillehammer, Norway, peaked shortly thereafter (1997), when industrial activity in various sectors returned to its normal levels. Spilling concluded that the repercussions of the event in the long term were small and disproportionate to the high costs of organizing the Games. Finally, at the economic level, one must also take into account to costs related to police and security and those of cleaning and hygiene of the event venues and their surrounding areas (Collins, Flynn, Munday & Roberts, 2007).

At the level of urban development of physical legacy, many authors have also found that sporting events do not always imply sustainable and positive urban development for the host regions or localities (Pillay & Bass, 2008; Swart & Bob, 2009). Cities that will host a major sporting event are faced with a great dilemma that consists of, on the one hand, the physical legacy that can be generated by the construction and improvement of infrastructure and facilities, and on the other hand, preventing unnecessary investment of money and resources in infrastructure and space (Smith & Fox, 2007). Some examples used by these authors are, in the former case, the Olympic Games in Atlanta in 1996, where most of the infrastructure was temporary and whose physical legacy was therefore restricted, and, in the latter case, the Olympic Games in Athens in 2004 where 95% of the facilities were permanent.

In this context, Smith (2012) points out that urban planning based on major sporting events runs the risk of being overly influenced by the needs of the event, generating unnecessary infrastructure with designs that are conditioned for and adequate for the event, which make for difficult adaptation to their conventional use after the event and do not meet the needs of the citizens.

Furthermore, public transport routes may be affected or modified to satisfy the needs of the event, although this may cause problems for citizens. In turn, major sporting events can cause displacements of local residents and local businesses in order to improve the look of certain zones or neighborhoods close to the venues or places where the event is held (Smith, 2012). It is estimated that around two million people were evicted as a consequence of holding Olympic Games in the last two decades. Pillay and Bass (2008) indicate that for the Olympic Games in Seoul (1988), around 700,000 people were evicted, while for the Beijing Olympic Games (2008), over 300,000 people were evicted. In this context, Horne and Manzenreiter (2006) point out that for the Barcelona Olympic Games (1992), around 400 homeless people were subjected to control and supervision by the authorities (Cox, Darcy, & Bounds, 1994), while access to low-cost housing, promised for low-income citizens after the Games, was restricted and the housing dedicated to higher-income resident groups. In this context, some authors, such as Lenskyj (2002, pp. 89-106), point out the significant increase of housing costs and rents during the preparation phase for the Sydney Olympic Games (2000), which resulted in displacing underprivileged populations.

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Negative impacts at the environmental level are related to the destruction of the environment and natural areas; waste accumulation; noise pollution (Añó, Calabuig & Parra, 2012; Collins et al., 2007; Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis y Mules, 2000; Kim et al., 2006; Parra, Alonso-Dos Santos y Duclos, 2018; Ritchie, Shipway & Cleeve, 2009); changes in the use of soil; beach, river, or lake contamination; or deteriorating historical and cultural heritage (Kim et al., 2006). Furthermore, Malfas et al. (2004) mention the negative impacts on the environment related to the temporary nature of some structures or facilities made to cover the needs of the event. In this context, they reference Lenskyj (2000), who points out the temporary nature of facilities for four sporting disciplines at the Atlanta Olympic Games, which were demolished after the event due to their limited use by the local community. This has negative consequences for sustainable ecological development because materials that cannot be recycled must be eliminated (Malfas et al., 2004).

The negative socio-cultural impacts relate to altered normal functioning of the city (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997; Dwyer et al., 2000) and of the residents' lives or their restricted access to public facilities and spaces (Fredline, 2005). This may cause conflicts between residents and visitors and a possible displacement of citizens to other sites to avoid over-capacity of the facilities used by the tourists during the event (Fredline, 2004; Bull & Lovell, 2007). Other negative impacts are congestion and traffic (Cegielski & Mules, 2002; Kim & Petrick, 2005; Kim et al., 2006; Mihalik & Simonetta, 1999; Ohmann, Jones & Wilkes, 2006; Zhou, 2010), vandalism, increased criminality indices, prostitution, and inappropriate behaviors such as excessive consumption of alcohol and drugs (Barker, Page & Meyer, 2002; Cheng & Jarvis, 2010; Collins et al., 2007; Dwyer et al., 2000; Kim et al., 2006; Kim & Petrick, 2005; Mihalik & Simonetta, 1999; Ohmann et al., 2006; Parra et al., 2018).

Finally, some negative impacts at the psychological level may be a defensive stance of the residents toward their city, locality, or region, as well as the potential of misunderstandings that may lead to conflicts and hostilities between residents and visitors (Preuss & Solberg, 2006).

SATISFACTION OF RESIDENTS WITH THE CELEBRATION OF SPORTING EVENTS

The satisfaction of residents with the celebration of sporting events or the support for their reception has been one of the variables most consulted in most of the works in this area of research. Specifically, studies on social impact have tried to verify the relationship between perceived impacts and support for the celebration of sporting events (e.g. Balduck, Maes & Buelens, 2011; Calabuig, Parra, Añó & Ayora, 2014; González-García, Parra, Añó & Calabuig, 2016; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Gursoy

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et al., 2017; Lee & Krohn, 2013; Parra & Duclos, 2013; Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo & Alders, 2013).

The first contributions in this sense are those made by Deccio and Baloglou (2002) and Gursoy and Kendall (2006). In the first study, the authors found that the perceived opportunities or possible positive impacts associated with the celebration of the Olympic Winter Games in Salt Lake City (Utah, United States) significantly predicted the willingness to support the celebration of games among residents from a county that did not host the event (Garfield County). On the other hand, perceived costs exerted little influence on the predisposition to support the event. In the work of Gursoy and Kendall (2006), the same tendency was observed as that of Deccio and Baloglou (2002) in a sample of residents of the host city of the same sporting event, the perceived benefits being a more determining factor than the costs or negative impact on the support for the celebration of the event. Also, the work of Lee and Krohn (2013), found that positive impacts exerted a stronger influence than negative impacts on the feelings of citizens towards the reception of future sporting events. In the same line, in the study of Balduck et al. (2011) it was observed that the perception of the citizens of Gent (Belgium) on the sociocultural aspects and some costs (problems of mobility and excessive public spending) were significant predictors of the willingness to support the celebration of the Tour de France. Recently, the work of González-García et al. (2016) about the Mundobasket, with residents of Gran Canaria, detected that the benefits perceived in the image and international recognition, in the socio-economic and socio-cultural and sports aspects, predicted the willingness to support the celebration of sporting events.

In small-scale events, the study by Parra, González-García, Añó and Ayora (2016) proved the existence of a significant positive relationship between the intangible impacts and the intentions of the visitors regarding the event, and negative with the negative impacts and the intentions. Other works such as Parra, Elasri, Triadó and Aparicio (2016), verified that there was a positive relationship between socio-economic and socio-cultural benefits and the perceived value of BWR and a negative relationship between perceived costs and perceived value, while it was positively related to general satisfaction. In addition, they verified the mediating effect of the perceived value between socio-cultural benefits and perceived costs and general satisfaction with the reception of the event.

According to the theory of social exchange, residents are more likely to support the celebration of a sporting event if they consider that the costs or negative impacts will not exceed the long-term benefits. According to this theory, the perception of potential impacts depends on how people evaluate the exchanges in which they are involved (Gursoy et al., 2017). People who consider it beneficial will probably evaluate potential impacts differently than others who perceive the change as harmful. Therefore, within the framework of this theory, supporting the celebration

of the event necessarily implies being willing to assume such an exchange (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006).

STUDY OF SPORTING EVENTS

The analysis of residents' perceptions of major sporting events is largely drawn from research of the social impact of tourism. On the one hand, as pointed out by authors such as Gibson, Willming, and Holdnak (2003), the majority of the studies conducted have focused on major sporting events. On the other hand, according to Gibson, Kaplanidou, and Kang (2012), referencing Wilson (2006), small-scale sporting events are minor events where the number of participants can be greater than the number of spectators, which are usually held annually, with little presence in national media and with limited economic activity in comparison with the large-scale events.

In this sense, Ritchie (2004) points out that although the small-scale sporting events have an important commercial potential and benefits for the economic development of hosting localities, they have not been equally studied by researchers and political decision makers. Thus, Veltri, Miller, and Harris (2009) find that this type of sporting event usually offers more economic benefits if they are held in small or medium communities rather than in larger cities. Higham (1999) remarks that small-scale sporting events can provide more positive long-term benefits for hosting communities. Some reasons include their use of existing infrastructure, their requirement of smaller public investment, the better control of problems caused by agglomerations and congestion compared to the emblematic events (Olympic Games or Soccer World Cups), and the minimization of the seasonality of tourism.

From the point of view of tourism generated by sporting events, we can differentiate between events with a more elite and those with a more non-elite character or participation. In elite events, we see large attendance by the public and a smaller ratio of sports professionals to the number of spectators. This is the case for the Olympic Games, Soccer World Cups, and, to a smaller extent, the Formula 1 Grand Prix. At the opposite extreme, Hinch and Higham (2004) find that non-elite sporting events have a high number of competitors and few to no spectators. However, these authors stress the contribution of Carmichael and Murphy (1996) on the exceptions within this category, which attract a high number of both spectators and family and friends of the participants. In some cases, both elite sports professionals and regular sportspeople and amateurs take part, allowing for a diverse set of participants. Examples include the London, New York, and Boston Marathons and the subject of this study, which is the Valencia Marathon.

The relationships present between participants and spectators in sporting events are important both from the view of sporting events tourism and in the attempt to understand how a city's residents perceive the sporting event, which is the object of our analysis. Thus, as a function of the type of event, we will find greater participation and attendance of the host city residents, while it is also important to note that the events should be consistent with the needs of the local community. Host city residents' perceptions of major sporting events have been widely studied, whereas we aim to contribute a unique point of comparison by studying the perception of costs derived from organizing and holding several sporting events in the same city.

The purpose of this chapter is to analyze the relationship between the satisfaction of residents with the reception of three sporting events in the city of Valencia and the perception of possible negative impacts associated with its celebration. The sporting events under study in this work are the European Grand Prix of Formula 1 (June), the Open 500 of Tennis (October) and the Valencia Popular Marathon (November).

The selection criteria for the three study events were their seasonal form (held at different times of the year), their diversity (visibly different competitions from the point of view of the spectator, drastically different disciplines for the participants, and their requirement of public collaboration and investment of different kinds), and the proximity to the spectator or amateur athlete (different opportunities to practice the three disciplines and the possibility of assessing whether their perception by the citizen is based on their practice).

The Formula 1 Grand Prix of Europe is, out of the three events studied, the event with the highest public expenditure and highest organizing cost. Furthermore, it is the event where the opportunities to practice the discipline by the citizens are most complicated and scarce. The elite sporting and social environment accompanying the event, despite its high popularity and prominent presence in the media, is also a factor to consider.

At the opposite end, the Valencia Marathon is the event with the lowest organizing cost and lowest public outlays (this aspect is deduced from the significantly lower budget of the event in comparison with the other two). It is also the only one of the three events where an elite minority take part together with amateurs, and an event that produces large changes in the everyday life of the city, as the 42,195 meters of the route pass through the urban environment.

Between these two extremes, the tennis Open 500 is a relatively mass-access discipline and is intermediate in terms of both organizing budget and public outlays.

A questionnaire composed of nine items about possible negative impacts and an indicator of overall satisfaction with the celebration of the event was used for this work. The items have been prepared from similar works, and especially those of Prayag et al. (2013), Ritchie et al. (2009) and Kim and Walker (2012). A total of 567

subjects resident in Valencia were interviewed around the dates of each of the three sporting events (sampling error $\pm$ 4.11% (p = q = 0.5), confidence level 95.5%).

The items were assessed on a 1-7 Likert scale, where 1 was "*completely disagree*" and 7 "*totally agree*" with statements of the type "*the construction of the facilities constitutes excessive spending*" or "*causes more inconvenience for citizens*" (see Table 1).

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE SATISFACTION OF THE RESIDENTS WITH THE CELEBRATION OF THE EVENT AND THE PERCEPTION ON THE NEGATIVE IMPACTS

Table 2 shows the results of the multiple linear regression in which the dependent variable is the degree of satisfaction of the residents with the celebration of the event and the residents' perception of the negative impact indicators has been introduced as independent variables.

To include the independent variables, we verified that they were not collinear using the collinearity statistics (tolerance and FIV). Also, we verified through the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test that the residuals had a normal distribution (p = .89; p> 0.05). In this way, we have obtained a predictive model that explains 31% for the Open 500 tennis event, 7% for the Marathon event and 38% for the European Grand Prix of Formula 1.

Table 1. Questionnaire items

Holding the *event***:**
1. Causes more inconvenience for citizens
2. Damages the environment
3. Generates more crime
4. Generates traffic problems
5. Generates more pollution
6. Increases real estate prices
7. Increases the prices of goods and services
8. The construction of visitor facilities wastes taxpayers' money
9. The construction of facilities constitutes excessive spending
10. In general I am satisfied that the event "Name of the event" is held in the city of Valencia
Adapted from Ritchie et al. (2009), Zhou & Ap (2009), Kim & Walker (2011) and Lorde et al. (2011).

The results obtained show how the indicator referring to the construction of equipment wastes taxpayers' money significantly predicts the dependent variable in the negative sense for the three sporting events: Grand Prix of Formula 1 (ß = -. 63), Open 500 of tennis (ß = -. 23) and Marathon (ß = -. 29). It can be seen that the highest coefficient for this indicator corresponds to the GP event of Formula 1.

On the other hand, in the case of the Tennis Open 500, the indicators "harm the environment" (ß = -. 24) and "the construction of facilities is an excessive expense" (ß = -. 31) also predict significantly, in a negative sense, the satisfaction of the residents with the celebration of the event in the city.

Table 2. Coefficients of the multiple linear regression analysis considering as a dependent variable satisfaction with the celebration of sporting events

Indicators of negative impacts	GP Formula 1			Open 500			Marathon		
	β	*t*	*p* value	β	*t*	*p* value	β	*t*	*p* value
Causes more inconvenience for citizens	-.18	-1.40	.16	.05	.71	.48	-.05	-.61	.55
Damages the environment	.08	.51	.61	-.24	-3.02	.00***	.06	.66	.51
Generates more crime	.00	.04	.97	-.04	-.62	.54	-.03	-.28	.78
Generates traffic problems	.14	1.03	.31	.07	.75	.45	.09	1.20	.23
Generates more pollution	-.03	-.18	.85	.05	.53	.59	.00	.01	.99
Increases real estate prices	.11	.75	.45	.02	.20	.84	-.19	-1.81	.07
Increases the prices of goods and services	.12	.83	.41	.04	.53	.60	.18	1.93	.06
The construction of visitor facilities wastes taxpayers' money	-.63	-4.35	.00***	-.23	-2.60	.01**	-.29	-2.82	.01**
The construction of facilities constitutes excessive spending	-.08	-.55	.58	-.31	-3.57	.00***	.10	1.00	.32

Note: GP Formula 1: R^2=.38 and ΔR^2=.32; Open 500: R^2=.31 and ΔR^2=.28; Marathon: R^2=.07 and ΔR^2=.03. *=p<0.05 ; **=p<0.01; ***=p<0.001

CONCLUSION

The negative impacts are the count of social costs that the citizen sets against the benefits to establish their agreement or disagreement with the celebration of the event in their locality.

Costs are the negative impact that a citizen compares to the benefits of holding an event in his locality. The importance of a citizen's stance towards an event has been demonstrated in the literature, as a citizen is one of the main public agents involved in supporting and hosting sporting events. The success of a sporting event depends not only on the support of organizers, sponsors, spectators, and local authorities but also on the appreciation and satisfaction of the citizens. Knowing the residents' perceptions of sporting events allows for improved management and organization of the event as a touristic product, paying special attention to the possible negative effects on the population and trying to make up for them or minimizing them to the greatest extent possible.

The factors taken into account when selecting the events for this study may seem to have influenced the perceptions of the citizens. The uniqueness of the study (three different sporting events, in the same city and same year) shows that residents' perceptions depend on the event itself and are not influenced by their perceptions of other events. Therefore, we cannot conclude that there is a general attitude for or against holding sporting events in Valencia.

The complex socio-economic context of Spain also offers an analytical perspective in this way: while it is obvious that in all three cases there was public expenditure involved, the citizens' perceptions of those costs are significantly different for each of the events. The unreliability and variability of accurate public data on the contribution of government authorities to events seems to show that this is not just a quantitative problem, but that other factors influence the perception of the costs associated with such endeavors.

We must remember that we are studying the negative aspects of holding events and that, according to the Social Exchange Theory, these are the aspects that a citizen compares to the benefits to be obtained in a personal assessment of his agreement or disagreement with holding an event in his city. In consequence, a global judgment of agreement or disagreement would require the residents' perception of the benefits and their balance with the costs.

As many studies in this area have highlighted (eg, Balduck et al., 2011; González-García et al., 2016; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Gursoy et al., 2017; Lee & Krohn, 2013; Müller, 2012) The residents' perception of a sporting event is closely related to the support for its celebration.

In this study we verified that within the negative impacts the main indicator that contributes to explain the satisfaction of the residents with the celebration of the three events analyzed is the one related to the spending of public money in the construction of facilities for the tourists that come with reason for the event. This indicator showed a negative relationship with the dependent variable, indicating that residents who highlight this negative impact tend to show a lower degree of satisfaction with the reception of the Formula 1 Grand Prix, the Tennis Open 500 and the Valencia Marathon in their city. On the other hand, in relation to the Open 500 it was observed that the indicators related to the environmental problems and the expense in the construction of the facilities also contributed to explain the degree of satisfaction with the event. In this way, residents who considered that the Open 500 generated problems associated with the environment and had involved an excessive investment in the construction of facilities tended to show a lower degree of satisfaction with the reception of the event in their city.

However, other indicators associated to possible negative impacts derived from the celebration of events (inconveniences derived from congestion or agglomeration, traffic problems, pollution or increase in prices) were not significant predictors of the degree of satisfaction with the events. This coincides with what has been observed in previous studies in which it has been proven that negative impacts have a low predictive power on support for holding sporting events or are not significant predictors of endorsement (eg, Deccio & Baloglou, 2002; González-García et al., 2016; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006).

Several factors differentiate the studied events, and it is a complex task to attribute the observed perceptual differences to each individual event.

As for the Formula 1 Grand Prix of Europe, various factors come together, among them the high costs of organization: Formula 1 requires expenditure of, at least, 25 million euros from public coffers for each edition (Ferrandis, 2011). This figure, which, given the absence of more precise data, should be taken with caution, do not consider, for example, other indirect costs borne by the authorities, such as safety, cleaning, etc. High costs and lack of detailed information about them has even been the subject of an intensive political debate on the suitability of holding the event in Valencia. The presence of this debate in the media, together with the lack of information on the costs to the authorities, does not seem to contribute to the positive civic perception of the sporting event. This lack of information is probably associated with the perception of excessive expenditure. Other factors, such as the elite character of the event (involving restricted access for a small group of sports professionals or difficulty for the general public to practice), can underlie the perception of elevated costs in comparison with the other two studied events.

As for the tennis Open 500, the results show a more moderate stance in citizens' cost perceptions. In fact, the critical stances are focused mainly on public contribution to the event (items 8 and 9). The Open 500 has a budget of 8.5 million euros, out of which 2.6 million come from public finance (Valencia, 2013). The respondents were neutral or even slightly disagreed with the statements of negative impact, as in the case of the environment, pollution, and housing costs. These perceptions are in line with the nature of the event.

Finally, the Valencia Marathon engenders a clear perception of a low negative impact, with the sole exception of traffic problems. The Valencia Marathon has an estimated organizing cost of 1 million euros. In consequence, it is the event which would need the least positive aspects to generate a generally positive perception among residents.

In any case, it seems evident that diverse factors affect the perception of costs associated with holding sporting events, such as the existence of public financing, the socio-economic context, the nature of the activity, and the dimension of the event's impact, but the particular contributions of each factor require further study.

Moreover, costs are one of the central elements, together with the perception of the benefits derived from the event, that form the citizens' general perception of the event. With the obvious importance of a positive perception among residents for organizational success, adequate information of the benefits derived from the event coming from the organizers and public authorities involved seems important to achieve better public perception of these events.

This work highlights the need to consider residents' perception of the negative impacts associated with sporting events as they may condition social representation on them. On the other hand, it is evident that the forecast of possible costs associated with sporting events should be an important part of the functions of the organisers in order to minimise or compensate them as far as possible.

Finally, it is important to emphasize that this study uses a convenience sampling, so we must be cautious when generalizing the results to the population as a whole. On the other hand, future studies should consider the possibility of including more indicators related to negative impacts, as well as observing their multidimensional nature.

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Chapter 9
Sport Atmospherics' Influence on the Event Experience

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ABSTRACT

This chapter discusses traditional and online atmospherics as a sport marketing strategy. Though with traditional retail roots, atmospherics have emerged as a strategy that may be utilized in the physical, online, and mobile sport environments. A comprehensive review of major traditional and sports atmospheric variables, online atmospheric variables including augmented and virtual reality, and applications to sport are discussed. In addition, the spectator experience cycle is introduced with atmospheric correlations. The purpose of the chapter is to explain why traditional and online atmospherics are important to the sport industry and to demonstrate how sport marketers may use physical, online, or mobile atmospherics to enhance spectator experience, increase loyalty, impact attitude, consumer choice, and impact purchase behavior. In addition, the chapter is meant to emphasize the importance of atmospherics to ultimately achieve sport promotional/marketing objectives. Finally, future research directions are recommended.

INTRODUCTION

What do music, fan noise, crowding, facility aesthetics, team web site color and mobile smartphones have in common? These are some variables that may enhance and influence the sporting spectator experience in both the physical and online environments. In general, two main categories of variables exist: uncontrollable and controllable. Many environmental factors are uncontrollable to the sport marketer. For example, uncontrollable factors that may impact sport marketing strategy include the economy, demographic shifts, technological advances, legal/political issues and competitive forces. Fortunately, controllable variables are available to the sport marketer such as pricing, promotion and location which allow the sport marketer to maintain a tighter control of his or her marketing strategy.

Before continuing, imagine and describe some of the sights and sounds of a sporting event. Some of the items one may include in the description of the event may be the size of the crowd, music played over speakers, lighting as the players were introduced or the scent of fresh popcorn filling the arena. Facility colors, the comfort of the seats, the merchandise for sale, temperature in the arena or waiting time to enter the facility may also be mentioned. These sights and sounds are identified and categorized by sport marketers as a controllable variable called atmospherics.

Atmospherics was first defined as the "conscious designing of a space to create specific effects in buyers" (Kotler, 1973, p. 50). It was also defined as the "effort to design buying environments to produce certain emotional effects in the consumer that enhance purchase probability" (Bellizzi & Hite, 1992, p. 348). Generally, this original definition was meant for brick and mortar retail establishments. Atmospherics was realized to be a method for retailers to use to impact shopping behavior of patrons while patronizing the store. By manipulating the music tempo or the color of the walls, for example, retailers learned atmospherics could influence the behavior exhibited by consumers and impact profitability. While this traditional and established definition is still relevant, atmospherics has built upon this ideal and advanced due to current technologies, changing consumer behavior and societal trends. In addition, traditional atmospherics have become an important part of sport marketing strategy and promotion. Sports marketers have embraced atmospherics as a means of marketing strategy (Tombs & McKoll-Kennedy, 2003).

Conversely, because of the massive growth and domination of the Internet and online consumer behavior, online atmospherics are becoming an important trend to consider for marketers in any industry, including sport. Online atmospherics has been defined as web site descriptors which impact the consumer such as colors, fonts, backgrounds, music, animation, and amount of white space or pricing information (Eroglu, Machleit, & Davis, 2001). With the importance of web sites, social media and other forms of digital correspondence, sport marketers must realize

how atmospheric variables impact consumer behavior and how atmospherics can be used to achieve positive results regarding revenue and attitude toward the brand, team or organization. Online atmospherics have even been shown to influence the intention to reuse a mobile application, thus indicating it importance for digital marketers (Lee & Kim, 2018) no matter the industry.

A physical facility or a team web site's atmosphere impacts a consumer or spectator's ability to form attitude, loyalty, judgment and image formation of the brand at hand and thus may influence event or browsing experience. Therefore, effective manipulation of the sporting atmosphere with traditional and online atmospherics in conjunction with other marketing tactics has the potential to increase spectator satisfaction, online consumer purchasing and many other positive results.

This chapter focuses on traditional/physical and online atmospherics in the sport marketing industry. One objective of the chapter is to explore the spectator experience cycle and its atmospheric correlations. A second objective is to emphasize why atmospherics are important to the sport industry and sport marketers.

In addition, some main topics of the chapter include:

- The spectator experience cycle and its atmospheric correlations
- Why atmospherics are important to the sport industry and sport marketers
- Use of atmospheric trends and how they relate to marketing strategy and tactical operations
- Atmospheric trends and how they relate to marketing strategy and tactical operations.

BACKGROUND

Definition of Physical Atmospherics

While Kotler (1973) first coined the term atmospherics, other classic studies have been extremely influential in the study of atmospherics. A typology that influenced the study of store atmospherics is the proposal by J.D. Lindquist (1974) in his benchmark article, "Meaning of Image: Survey of empirical and hypothetical evidence." Prior to Lindquist, numerous authors proposed differentiating attributes and characteristics that are part of an overall image of a store. Thus, Lindquist in his synthesis of the store image literature, combined models from nineteen studies and suggested nine major elements that influence the consumer: merchandise, service, clientele, physical facilities, comfort, promotion, store atmosphere, institutional and post-transaction satisfaction (Bloemer & Ruyter, 1998) and suggested store image is more than just an opinion.

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Another classic study (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982) investigated approach-avoidance behavior prediction from emotional states inside a retail establishment. It was reported that as pleasantness increased, enjoyment, money spent in the store and time spent in the store increased. The study established the relationship between retail environmental emotional states and behavioral intentions. Results indicated pleasantness influenced the consumer's shopping-related intentions inside the retail store. Pleasantness was found to be channeled via enjoyment of shopping in the store, time spent browsing and exploring the store's offerings, sales personnel's willingness to communicate, spending more money than planned and future patronage.

The study of the retail environment has slowly emerged as a viable and important area of study in consumer behavior. These classic studies were the benchmarks that guided researchers to explore store atmospherics as marketing and sports marketing tool. The literature stream began with these innovative theories and has thus resulted in further research devoted to store and sport atmospherics.

Since the original Kotler (1973) definition, other definitions have emerged as important descriptors of atmospherics. Turley and Bolton (1999) described it as a "practice that recognizes that a marketing environment should be carefully sculpted to both induce particular behaviors and evaluations from consumers and to appeal to a specific target market" (p.32). Baker (1986) suggested a definition that included a framework comprised of ambient elements ("background conditions of the environment"), design elements ("functional and aesthetic elements") and social elements ("the people component of the environment"). Turley and Milliman (2000) described atmospherics with a framework that included exterior of the establishment, general interior, layout/design variables, point-of-purchase and decoration variables and human variables. It has been defined as a way to appeal to human sensory functions (sight, smell, sound, touch and taste) and should thus attract consumers (Hulten, 2011). Atmospherics have the potential to impact a consumer's judgment on quality and image of the organization (Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal & Voss, 2002; Sherman, Mathur, & Smith, 1997). In addition, studies have shown that atmospherics influence feeling (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Dube, Chebat & Morin, 1995; Menon & Kahn, 2002; Wakefield & Baker, 1998) and attitude (Dick & Baru, 1994; Ratner & Miller, 2001). As the sport marketing industry has embraced the idea of atmospherics as an operational tactic, it has become a portion of the overall marketing strategy (Tombs & McKoll-Kennedy, 2003).

Definition of Online Atmospherics

Atmospherics has a well-established history in research and literature. However, only recently atmospherics have appeared in online environment research and literature (Childers, Carr, Peck, & Carson, 2001; Mathwick, Malhotra & Rigdon, 2001). As

online shopping has become increasingly prevalent and a standard means of conducting business, it has been suggested that researchers in the field of marketing take a more scientific approach to studying this issue. Just as physical atmospherics impact the consumer psychologically and behaviorally, "certain atmospheric qualities of the online….context are likely to affect the use and results of online shopping" (Eroglu, Machleit, & Davis, 2001, p. 177). Studies have defined online atmospherics as the study of color, graphics, logos, image interactivity and music (Eroglu, Machleit & Davis, 2003; Fiore, Jin & Kim, 2005; Ha & Lennon, 2010; Kim & Lennon, 2012; Price, 2010) and its impact upon consumer satisfaction, attitude, purchase behavior and patronization. Other studies have included content as being integral in online activities (Novak, Hoffman & Duhachek, 2003). Additionally, online atmospherics have the potential to affect shopping behavior negatively when a web site evokes negative consumer emotion (Dailey, 2004). Another offered definition of online atmospherics include components within an individual's perceptual field that stimulates one's senses (Milliman & Fugate, 1993) and increases curiosity (Collins, Litman & Spielberger, 2004). A further study indicated that online atmospherics is defined as, "the conscious visual designing of web environments to create positive emotional responses in users in order to increase favorable consumer responses such as prolonged stay and increased intention to purchase in the future." (Koo & Ju, 2010, p.379). Online atmospherics were also found to be a part of a competitive advantage strategy in regard to intention and future purchase (Liang & Lai, 2002; Richard, 2005).

Literature Review

Before a sports marketer can develop a comprehensive marketing strategy, he or she must consider and incorporate atmospheric variables in both the physical and online environments. This literature review begins with traditional atmospherics in the retail and sports environments, followed by online atmospherics in the retail and sports environments.

Color

Color has a rich and long history within the business environment. Much research has been conducted in many areas including branding, logo design, packaging, food marketing and advertising. Bottomley and Doyle (2006) found a relationship between hue (shade) and product type. Hue, saturation and value were found to influence brand personality (Labrecque & Milne, 2012) while color name, was found to increase satisfaction of the product (Miller & Kahn, 2005). Labeling a package with an elaborate color name, versus a plain, generic name increased willingness

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of liking the product (Skorinko, Kemmer, Hebl & Lane, 2000). In the area of food marketing, color plays a major role by influencing flavor perceptions (Garber, Hyatt & Starr, 2000). Another study revealed a difference in the taste between two identical samples with different colors, and two different samples with the same color (Hoegg & Alba, 2007). Within the field of advertising, color is a dominant factor. Ads with higher saturation of color evoked feelings of excitement (Gorn, Chattopadhyay, Yi & Dahl, 1997) and can attract consumer attention (Lohse & Rosen, 2001). Color may also be the persuasive factor for less-motivated consumers (Meyers-Levy & Peracchio, 1995) and also tend to influence quality but not mood (Chebat & Morrin, 2007).

Some color research tends to show a major divide between warm and cool colors, with warm colors causing more excitement and physical changes (elated mood) in the consumer, while cool colors tend to have opposite effects. Color can even contribute to an environment that may be transformative for the consumer (Naylor, Kleiser, Baker, & Yorkton, 2008). Bellizzi, Crowley and Hasty (1983) found color was associated with physical attraction but did not influence approach behavior. Study subjects were attracted to warm colors, but warm colors were found to be unpleasant. Cool colors, such as blue, created a very relaxed environment. Bellizzi and Hite (1992) conducted two studies to test the impact of store color. Colors focused upon were red and blue due to their extreme differences in properties. The blue environment elicited higher simulated purchase rates, fewer purchase postponements, a stronger willingness to browse, and an overall more favorable reaction from consumers. The study concluded that pleasure and arousal were strongly linked to color. Crowley (1993) studied wavelengths of red and blue and found that red was perceived as a more active environment. The study showed that the more the wavelength moved from red to blue, the more positive the behaviors became. The results also indicated that impulse buying may be more likely from an aroused consumer. In addition, the study revealed that color may impact perceptions of the merchandise in the physical environment. Furthermore, Babin, Hardesty and Suter (2003) discovered that consumers were negatively impacted by an orange interior but that a blue interior increased shopping and purchase intention and price fairness. Furthermore, the study concluded the effects caused by color are mediated by cognitive and affective reactions. Even products may be perceived as good quality when placed on in front of a cool background (Middlestadt, 1990). A recent study suggested a conceptual model attempting to showcase the manner in which "consumer's perceptions and experiences are influenced by embodied meaning and referential meaning of color" (Labrecque, Patrick & Milne, 2013, p.192). The model suggests that the two types of meanings impact choice and preference and that color has psychological (attention, arousal, motivation) and marketing outcomes (advertising, atmospherics, internet) (Labrecque, Patrick & Milne, 2013).

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Music

Music has also been studied widely within the atmospheric literature. Music is an atmospheric cue applied frequently to enhance the delivery of products and services in brick and mortar retail settings. Extensive literature demonstrates the potential for atmospheric music to influence consumer behavior (Ballouli & Bennett, 2014). Smith and Curnow (1966) believed that loud music would be related to store sales. Though sales were not found to be influenced by the loud music, the study found less time was spent in the loud environment. Milliman (1982) and Caldwell and Hibbert (2002) studied music tempo in relation to traffic pace, sales volume and awareness of the music in a supermarket environment. Results indicated that consumers spent thirty-eight percent more time shopping while listening to slow music versus fast music (Milliman, 1982). Milliman (1986) tested the atmospheric variable of music again in the restaurant environment. Results indicated that slow music tempo did not impact service time or food purchases, but did positively impact time spent at a table and gross margin. Yalch and Spangenburg (1990) investigated the impact of music in relation to age, mood, time perception and impulse behavior. Consumers were found to prefer foreground (music that is emphasized) to background (music that is passively consumed) music. When shopping, consumers completed fewer impulse purchases if foreground music was present. The younger subjects spent more time in the store when background music was present and the older subjects exhibited the same behavior when foreground music was present.

The type of music has also been examined in an atmospheric study. Areni and Kim (1993) found significantly higher sales resulted when consumers were exposed to classical music. The study indicated that classical music induced consumers to buy more expensive items. Age was also found to be a variable in shopping behavior. Gulas and Schewe (1994) stated that baby-boomers reacted more positively and purchased more in the classic rock condition. Older participants reacted more strongly to big band music. Genre was also found to influence consumers in the environment (North, Shilcock & Hargreaves, 2003; Wilson, 2003). Hui, Dube and Chebat (1997) explored pleasurable music and its relationship to time estimation, emotional evaluation to the environment, and emotional response to waiting. Results also indicated that music made an impact on the three presented variables and that the effects were moderated by whether consumers liked or disliked the music. Other studies involving music have involved music versus no music comparison (Park & Young, 1986), and product perception (Zhu & Meyers-Levy, 2005). Music has been confirmed to be related to scent in the environment (Morrison, Gan, Dubelaar & Oppewal, 2011; Spangenberg, Grohmann & Sprott, 2005). Organization image is also impacted by the type of music played (Vita, Obadia & Kunz, 2007). Music mode was found to have a significant interaction with music tempo and music in

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a minor mode was more effective when accompanied by a slow tempo (Knoferle, Spangenberg, Herrmann & Landwehr, 2011).

Some researchers have employed the concept of "music fit" to understand the effects of atmospheric music on consumer behavior (Beverland, Lim, Morrison, M., & Terziovski, 2006; MacInnis & Park, 1991). Previous studies on music fit have included assumptions about various factors, such as genre (Areni & Kim, 1993), style (North et al., 2004), and tempo (Chebat, Chebat, & Vaillant, 2001). In a meta-analysis of numerous atmospheric musical studies it was found that overall, familiarity had a positive effect of patronage, the mere presence of music was pleasurable, slower tempo and a low volume resulted in the consumer staying longer in the establishment, high volume had an impact upon perceived waiting time and tempo had the greatest impact on arousal. (Garlin & Owen, 2006).

According to Ballouli and Barnnett (2014), in recent developments within the US sport industry, numerous college and professional sport teams have developed brand music in efforts to create more memorable experiences and longer lasting impressions among sport consumers. For example, the Green Bay Packers of the National Football League (NFL) recently created an entire CD featuring original music written and recorded specifically for team marketing purposes. Such music branding efforts have been shown to enrich brand experiences, thus improving brand perceptions (Fulberg, 2003). The authors findings suggest that brand music, which is focused on style and lyrics that complement the brand identity of the sport organization, may positively enhance evaluations of the environment, satisfaction with the experience, and attitudes toward the organization such that lasting and fond impressions of music might be more conditioned and less chanced (Ballouli & Barnnett, 2014). They argue that, if indeed sport consumers are more aware and responsive to their physical environments than consumers of more traditional goods and services, then sport marketers should make a more serious effort to construct an optimal strategy for applying music in sport facilities and arenas. A recent "not so successful" example was when the Cincinnati Bengals of the NFL featured pop star Katy Perry's song titled "Roar" during the team's stadium entrance. "The marketers responsible for the decision likely believed that the lyrics of the song (featuring the chorus "I am a champion / you're gonna hear me roar") were a close enough fit with the team's moniker that they would positively affect the overall attitudes and behaviors of Bengals fans in attendance (Ballouli & Barnnett, 2014, p.71). The fans expressed discontentment on social media both during and after the game (Harvey, 2013). This example illustrates the need for focused marketing research on the use of music in sport contexts, as the dynamics of sport are most often captured in the production and consumption of music (Ballouli & Barnnett, 2014).

Scent

Scent, odor or aroma also plays a major role in atmospheric studies. Much research has focused on scent and how it impacts the environment in which it resides. Early conceptual frameworks were given to encourage and suggest further study (Gulas & Bloch, 1995). As scent became a topic of interest to marketing, further studies were conducted. Its impact has been found to impact consumer behavior (Bone & Jantranis, 1992; Knasko, 1995; Mitchell, Kahn & Knasko, 1995). Other conclusions have been found such as scent did increase time in a store, but did not impact revenue (Knasko, 1989). Spangenberg, Crowley and Henderson (1995) found a pleasant scent will increase the likelihood a consumer will return to the store and improve mood (Lawless, 1991). It even has the potential to improve brand recall for unfamiliar brands but not familiar brands (Morrin & Ratneshwar, 2000). Bone and Ellen (1999) noted that scent may be placed into one of three categories: presence, pleasantness and congruity/fit. Each of these categories involved the study of mood, cognitive elaboration, affective and evaluative response, purchase intention and behavior. The same study summarized that presence of scent is more affective in nature than evaluative. Pleasantness of a scent was noted to be generalized as being important in low-level processing. Finally, congruency/fit was stated to be weak on evaluation and influenced decision-making behaviors. Scent was thought to enhance emotional and attitudinal responses in a manner that will positively influence an organization resulting in profit. Conversely, one study concluded that the use of scent by a retailer may cause skepticism from consumers, and result in negative behaviors and less pleasant emotions (Lunardo, 2012). But, Bosmans (2006) affirmed congruency by finding that as long as scent is congruent with a product, then scent will continue to impact consumer evaluation. Krishna, Elder and Caldara (2010) determined that when a scent was perceived as masculine or feminine, it impacted perceived congruency with the product. Scent may even ensue a positive perception of an establishment (Chebat & Michon, 2003) and enhance memory (Krishna, Lwin & Morrin, 2010). Hulten (2011) concluded that sensory cues exert a positive emotion and the desire to touch merchandise. When questioning if using scent was appropriate for all consumer types, Douce and Janssens (2012) found that strategic manipulation of scent was positive and influenced affective reactions. Demographics play a role with scent as it was found that young consumers react more to certain scents that older consumers (Chebat, Morrin & Chebat, 2009).

Scent is recognized as an important component of experience, enhancing the sense of immersion in the experience (Willander & Larsson, 2006). Thus, sporting venues' smells may stimulate a more holistic experience of the game and venue. Importantly, smell is strongly associated with memory (Willander & Larsson, 2006), and can stimulate fans' previous associations with the stadium.

Crowding

The atmospheric variable of crowding may be defined as the unpleasant feeling that is experienced by an individual among other people, or the "negative subjective experience of certain density levels" (Hui & Bateson, 1991, p.176). Crowding in an environment has been shown to influence consumers positively and negatively (Eroglu & Machleit, 1990). For example, crowding is sensed by a consumer in a positive way when it entices him/her to stay longer in the environment (Babin & Darden, 1995; Sawson, Bloch & Ridgway, 1990). It also enhances store image (Darden & Babin, 1994). Conversely, crowding has shown a negative result when it creates in the consumer the desire to leave the facility (Eroglu & Machleit, 1990), due to feelings of confinement, constrain (Eroglu, Machleit & Chebat, 2005), or decrease in personal space (Stokols, 1972). From the perspective of completing the shopping goal, the consumer is inclined to leave the establishment without making a purchase or spending much less money if they feel too crowded (Harrel, Hutt & Anderson, 1980). In addition, the room itself may impact crowding. Sinha and Prakashvati (1995) found that an open floor plan is perceived as less crowded, and that a high floor height is perceived as more crowded (Kaya & Erkip, 2001). Even gender is a factor when considering crowding. It was found that men perceive the phenomena of crowding more and are impacted more negatively than women (Evans, Saegert & Harris, 2001). However, an opposite result was found as male patrons were more positive to more crowding in a restaurant setting (Yildirim & Akalin-Baskaya, 2007). Gender was also noted in a recent study which confirmed that genders perceive a retail atmosphere differently (Borges, Babin & Speilmann, 2013). More recently, studies have investigated the crowding – patronage intention relationship (Mehta, Sharma & Swami, 2012), motivation and crowding (Baker & Wakefield, 2012), and crowding in conjunction with waiting in the virtual environment (Hwang, Yoon & Bendle, 2012). The atmospheric variable of crowding has also been found to increase the economic value of the facility with an increased likelihood of re-visit by the consumer (Garrouch, Mzoughi & Tritar, 2012).

Other Atmospheric Variables

Though color, music, scent and crowding tend to dominate the atmospheric literature, it must be noted that many other important variables exist. As Turley and Milliman (2000) noted, five major atmospheric categories exist: external, interior, layout/design, point-of-purchase/decoration and human variables. External variables include color, signage, size of the facility and landscape. Interior include color, music, scent, temperature, cleanliness, merchandise as well as lighting (Areni & Kim, 1994; Summers & Herbert, 2001.) Layout/design is comprised of placement of

merchandise, waiting areas and flow while point-of-purchase notes the importance of pictures, artwork and signage. Finally, crowding and employee uniforms are noted as human variables.

Traditional Atmospherics in Sport Marketing

Atmospherics enjoys a rich history in research and continues to be of interest to marketers in many industries. Though much research and practitioner implementation has been conducted within the traditional retail environment, it is important to note that sport marketers have also utilized atmospherics to promote and to impact the spectator event experience. In fact, it is the marketer's responsibility to ensure the satisfaction of the spectator via the atmosphere and the atmospherics involved for re-patonage (Hall, O'Mahony & Vieceli, 2009). Though the research on atmospherics is not as extensive in the sport marketing literature, it is important to note the advances made in this area.

The sport atmosphere has been defined as the "preferential affective state that spectator attribute to the idiosyncratic environmental features of a sport stadium" (p.216), and has been suggested to be even stronger than the traditional retail atmosphere due to its high value to the main product (Uhrich & Benkenstein, 2010). Sport marketing has embraced atmospherics as a means of marketing strategy (Tombs & McKoll-Kennedy, 2003). Noise and crowd size (Charleston, 2008), music (Ferreira & Armstrong, 2004), "sportscape" (Gustafson, 2005), waiting time (Hightower, Brand & Baker, 2002), physical properties of the facility (Uhrich & Benkenstein, 2012) and color (Uhrich & Benkenstein, 2010) have each been proven as having a positive impact upon the consumer (spectator) while in the sporting environment and a call to research other variables such as cheerleaders and mascots has been suggested (Kelley & Turley, 2001).

Flow in Spectator Sport (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) is conceptualized as "the state in which people are so involved in an activity that nothing else seems to matter; the experience itself is so enjoyable that people will do it even at a great cost, for the sake of doing it" (p. 4). Csikszentmihalyi (1977, 1990), specified the condition of flow explaining that when a person experiences flow, they lose track of time, disregard space, and become less self-conscious. With flow as an influencing factor, fans become absorbed watching sports (Lee, Gipson & Barnhill, 2017). Among the crowd, mimicry makes fans feel as they are more than what they actually are and may display vicarious and group-based emotions (Lee, Kim, Newman, & Kim, 2013; Niedenthal & Brauer, 2012). Sporting events provide purposeful meaning to fans, as they feel they are deeply invested in the organization (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). According to Lee, Gipson and Barnhill (2017), flow have a strong direct effect on perceived stadium atmosphere. They found, however, that the role of flow

experience is more important for less-identified fans when it comes to enjoying a positive stadium atmosphere, whereas highly identified fans will experience a higher state of flow and higher perceived stadium atmosphere regardless. Flow theory was tested in regard to sports online consumers and found that sports marketers should carefully design web sites to facilitate flow. Such variables as satisfaction, loyalty and web site recommendation all may result from a successful design on flow on a sports web site (O' Cass & Carlson, 2010).

From a practitioner's perspective, Lee, Gipson and Barnhill (2017) suggest that event organizers should utilize audio-visual cues, mobile applications and social media to stimulate flow in less-identified fans, to create a constant engaging atmosphere in a way to stimulate team identification and re-patronage.

Buttle (1995) described the sport atmosphere within two contexts: front room factors (aspects of a sporting event that impacts spectator enjoyment such as smoke free areas) and back room factors (parking ease, facility accessibility). In this study, the facility/stadium was considered by comfort, food/drink access and seating. Just as retail atmospherics have emphasized the human crowding factor, sports marketing has too recognized how important socializing and the human interaction is to the atmosphere of the event and to the spectator enjoyment. Numerous studies have proved that the enjoyment of the sporting event is increased with group interaction and are less concerned with the outcome of the event than the overall experience and entertainment of the event (Kahle & Riley, 2004). The crowd and perceived crowding have been suggested to be one of the most influential atmospherics and have a major impact on the feelings of pleasure and desire to stay or leave the stadium (Shannon & Turley, 1997). Furthermore, the stadium and the advertising within it are considered to be a part of atmospherics, and to enhance the ability to reach a target market (Shimp, 1997). Even the medium in which the advertising is shown, such as a video screen, can positively increase spectator satisfaction and intention to attend future events (Moore, Pickett & Grove, 1999). Uhrich and Benkenstein (2011) suggested that three dimensions rule the sport atmosphere: density, appearance and behavior. The study also suggested that crowd was a major influencer on affective response which ultimately impacts on-site spending.

In regard to entertainment, the atmospherics aspects that have been associated with good entertainment are quality of service, cleanliness, food/drink, parking and facility (Wakefield & Blodgett, 1996; Wakefield & Sloan, 1995; Palmero & Price, 2015). Foods, drinks, and concessions are an essential part of the sports fan experience. Sports teams and leagues earn considerable revenue from concessions sales. Today's sports fans are expecting healthier concessions, unique concessions that reflect the local cuisine, and such healthy and diverse foods as (among others) locally-grown, gluten-free and kosher options (Oches, 2011; Schouten, 2016). Trail et al., (2008) examined the extent to which concessions might be a factor that affects

fan interest in sports and asked respondents to rate their perceptions of concessions (among many other items); the results suggest that concession experiences are one of many factors that influence fan satisfaction. Lee, Lee, Seo, and Green (2012) developed an instrument to measure fan perceptions of the smell of foods at sports stadiums that asked fans to rate the extent to which they like the smell of stadium foods and believe the stadium provides good tasting food; however, the service quality of stadium concessions is not measured (Lee et al., 2012).

Online Atmospherics

In the traditional retail store, certain aspects of the physical environment have been shown to impact shopper behavior. However, as atmospherics have transcended into the online environment, more study has been devoted to this topic. Online atmospherics have been found to increase online shopping experience (Szymanski & Hise, 2000).

It has been suggested that similar aspects such as satisfaction, patronage, time spent in the online store and amount purchased are all influenced by online atmospherics (Eroglu, Machleit, & Davis, 2001). Online atmospherics may be defined as web site descriptors which impact the consumer such as colors, fonts, backgrounds, music, animation, and amount of white space or pricing information (Eroglu, Machleit, & Davis, 2001). The same authors also produced a conceptual model based on the S-O-R framework (Stimulus – Organism – Response) to show consumer response to online shopping. The model introduced environmental cues identified as "high-task relevant" and "low-task relevant." "High-task relevant" cues were comprised of web site descriptors that appear on the screen which allow the user to reach his/her shopping goals. These goals refer to anything verbal or pictorial in character (e.g. terms of sale, price and return policies). "Low-task relevant" cues are irrelevant to the completion of the shopper's goals. Items of this nature may include colors, fonts, backgrounds, music, animation, and amount of white space. To test the 2001 model the Eroglu, Machleit, and Davis (2003) tested the conceptual model for effectiveness. By constructing a hypothetical retail web site, the authors tested "high-task" and "low-task" cues. By manipulating the task cues, the researchers found that atmospheric qualities positively affect consumer atmospheric responsiveness. The same study also found that: the levels of pleasure increased; the atmosphere of the web site influenced the feeling; and that feeling impacted attitude which then had a significant effect on satisfaction and approach/avoidance behavior. "Low-task" relevant cues were again tested and found to be quite important for online shoppers in different cultures. For example, when Chinese and American online consumers were compared, both responded to atmospheric cues, but "low task" cues were more central to decision making by Chinese consumers. Chinese consumers also found

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online atmospherics to be more helpful than American consumers. These finding may warrant further cross-cultural study regarding online atmospherics. (Davis, Wang & Lindridge, 2008). A separate cultural online atmospheric study indicated that British and Spanish consumers agree that visual elements, the way the products are displayed, animation, vividness, signs/symbols and ease of navigation were important (Eizaguirre, Feijoo and Yabar, 2008).

Online atmospherics have been shown to significantly influence consumer choice by manipulating atmospheric variables, such as color and the presence of images and that product choice was affected (Mandel & Johnson, 2002). Online atmospherics, namely color and music, also known as "cyberspherics," are also shown to influence purchase behavior on a web site (Price, 2010). Several conceptual models have been suggested to explain the virtual shopping environment. One such model, coined as the Virtual Component Presentation Framework (VCPF) is comprised of virtual layout/design, virtual atmospherics and virtual theatrics (Vrechopoulos, 2004). Another framework, the Online Store Environment Framework adds virtual social presence (comments, reviews by online consumer) to the VCPF (Manganari, Siomkos & Vrechopoulos, 2009). The model includes online atmospherics such as color, white space, music, fonts and scent appeal. Additionally, Abar, Zamana & Satti (2017) found variables of web site layout (color and other web site design factors) have a positive relationship with online repurchase intention.

More specifically, color in the online environment may also impact online consumer behavior. For example, one study found that background color of a web site not only impacted perceived load time, but it also impacted relaxation, quickness, evaluation and likelihood of recommendation to reference groups (Gorn, Chattopadhyay, Sengupta & Tripathi, 2004). Furthermore, color hue and saturation impact on arousal manipulation had an effect on shopping behavior (Kaltcheva & Weitz, 2006). Color also impacts a consumer's evaluation of store personality (Clark, Buckingham & Fortin, 2004). Cool colors such as blue and green are found to evoke an increased likelihood of purchase (Biers & Richards, 2005). Cool colors were again found to be more effective in the context of flow (enjoyment) of the online environment more than a warm hue (Ettis, 2017). However, using colors that are confusing to the consumer will be a negative distraction and will ultimately have a strong negative influence on consumer responses in the online environment (Garaus, 2018).

Music in the online environment has been studied and is found to yet again make an impact upon online consumer behavior. For example, Ding and Lin (2012) found that fast tempo background music, in fact, will result in higher consumer arousal than slow tempo background music. The authors also suggest that marketers should consider what type of product they are selling since fast tempo background music is recommended for hedonic products. As suggested by Kim and Lennon (2012), marketers should carefully select web site music based on pleasure not on the amount

of information provided on the site. The authors studied both affective and cognitive and concluded that music did have an impact on consumer involvement which ultimately impacted purchase intent. However, they cautioned that simply adding music to a web site may not affect consumer shopping behavior. In the online apparel setting, results showed a significant effects for music in relation to consumer situation involvement and online shopping (Kim & Lennon, 2012). Finally, within the virtual reality online store environment, music was shown to significantly and positively influence consumer emotion and behavior (Dad, Rehman, Kear & Davies, 2018).

Online Atmospherics in Sports

As online sources such as web sites have grown to dominate the way sporting events are promoted and sold to fans and participants, atmospherics have taken a new role within the online environment and may play a significant role in tactical operations. It has been noted that a compelling online experience relating to sporting team web sites appears to be a driver of positive aroused feelings, higher satisfaction levels, as well as web site loyalty (O'Cass & Carleson, 2010). As sports fan look to online sources for news, schedules, tickets, player statistics and other information, it is imperative that sport marketers manipulate their respective digital sources to increase spectator satisfaction toward their online experience. Therefore, it is not enough to simply entertain a press conference. One must integrate digital means such as social media, using technology suited for the device in which the spectator is viewing the event and even noting how the event looks from certain camera angles (Desser & Kosner, 2018).

The research in sport web sites is plentiful, but has mainly focused on the importance of having an online presence. Only recently has research been more focused on the actual user experience of the sport web site. For example, Hur, Ko and Valacich (2007) explored motivations of spectators' to use a sport web site, while another study examined brand awareness with virtual advertising (Tsuji, Bennett & Leigh, 2009).

Involvement is another major concept that will impact spectator behavior. One model was created to explain the relationship between the sport consumer and a sport web site. The SWAM (Sports Web site Acceptance Model) is comprised of perceived ease of use, usefulness, enjoyment, and trustworthiness (Hur, Ko & Claussen, 2007). Through testing of this model, it was found that perceived enjoyment was the most important variable when determining a consumer's intention and actual use of sports web sources (Hur, Ko & Clausses, 2012). The authors indicated that sports professionals should focus on how to enhance spectator enjoyment by using interesting content such as promotions, interviews and video.

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Online atmospherics have been researched minimally in relation to sport web sites. A recent study investigated music in an online sports store. The author played high-fit music (official team music) and low-fit music (Top 40) in an online environment to participants. It was found that a more positive behavioral outcome resulted from those participants who shopped while listening to the high-fit music than those who listened to the low-fit music. The author suggested that sport marketers actually collaborate with musicians to create a unique music selection that can be managed internally instead of using popular music available to all teams and organizations (Ballouli, 2011).

As discussed in the literature review, atmospherics in both the physical and online environments are crucial and integral parts of the sports marketer's strategy. Sport digital marketers can use data gained by analyzing how consumers interact with the facility in real-time (Orr, 2018). Therefore, spectator satisfaction, enjoyment, re-patronage and purchase may be achieved with the development and successful implementation of atmospheric variables in the stadium, facility, arena and digital mediums such as a team web site.

Atmospherics and the Spectator Experience

Attending sporting events is an important part of the American culture. Many fond memories are made when attending or participating in sporting events. However, such experiences are not just confined within the walls of gymnasiums, ball fields, arenas, and stadiums. They start at the very moment when the spectators leave their homes, and finish when they return safely and involve each interaction the consumer has with the event, organization or team. That is the reason why attention to each aspect of the fan experience is so important including the attention given to atmospherics in each step of the spectator experience.

The spectator experience is characterized by the sum of every interaction they have with team/venue staff members, the core service, other customers, and the environment surrounding the game (Greenwell, Lee, & Naeger, 2007). Such interactions make up the service fans receive at the venue. Unlike other service settings, the existing atmosphere within a sporting venue adds value to the core product (game) and provides great entertainment value, and many times become the dominant part of the total service experience (Uhrich & Benkenstein, 2010; 2012).

Also known as "sportscape" (Wakefield & Sloan,1995), the environment surrounding a sporting event in which spectator services are provided "consists of several dimensions including stadium access and parking, facility aesthetics and cleanliness, scoreboard quality, seating comfort, layout accessibility, space allocation, crowding, signage, food service, and fan control" (Chelladurai & Chang, 2000, p. 3). Such venue atmosphere is created to nurture "the relationship between perceptions

of the specific environmental features of a sport stadium and the elicited affective responses of the spectators." (Uhrich & Benkenstein, 2010, p. 215).

Balaji and Chakraborti (2015) define stadium atmosphere as "the functional, affective, and social aspects of the stadium that stimulate cognitive, affective and behavioral responses in spectators during the consumption of a live sports event" (p. 46). The authors conducted a review of literature, and found that stadium atmosphere is conceptualized to encompass four related dimensions:

1. The physical layout of the stadium in providing ease of access and convenience to spectators;
2. The design and décor of the stadium that contributes to the attractiveness of the stadium;
3. The live game that stimulates experience of spectators; and (4) behavior of spectators in affecting social interaction.

Gaffney and Bale (2004) suggested five sensory factors that affect stadium experiences: sight (e.g., a stadium's appearance, interior, sightlines, façade, and image of a packed crowd); sound (e.g., the noise of spectators, chants and songs, acoustics); touch (e.g., feelings of compression by other spectators, comfortable seats); smell (e.g., a stadium's unique odor, evoked memories and nostalgia, crowd smells, food and beverage smells, tailgate party smells); and taste (e.g., tastes of stadium food and beverage, release from routine life by eating at the stadium).

An effective layout can provide ease of access to particular points of interest in a stadium, flow of fans and space utility (Balaji & Chakraborti, 2015). Shonk and Chelladuria (2008) suggest that the salient dimensions of layout such as accessibility, seating and equipment make significant contributions to sportscape quality, as spectators spend a considerable amount of time observing and experiencing the game. In another study, Watanabe *et al.* (2013) noted that the layout and physical design of the stadium might determine whether spectators stay and watch a game or avoid crowded games at the stadium. The spectators consider stadium facilities and other tangential aspects as particularly relevant to perception of service quality (Hightower *et al.*, 2002). The facility aesthetics is conveyed primarily through the stadium's architectural style and design and includes elements such as the external environment, interior construction, scoreboards, facility upkeep and cleanliness and décor (Theodorakis and Alexandris, 2008). It includes the elements like color, lighting, aroma, ventilation, noise, temperature and music that have an apparent or non-apparent influence on spectators' perception of stadium environment (Mullin et al., 2007; Shonk and Chelladuria, 2009). Architectural design and décor produce a first impression of the stadium, which in turn establishes the spectators' quality

expectations, pleasure and attitude toward service provision at stadium (Wakefield and Blodgett, 1996).

Lee et al. (2012) created "Sensoryscape", "the study of the sensual, social, and psychological aspects of the sport consumption experience within the stadium" (P. 492). They created a scale that is a reliable and valid instrument to measure fans' stadium experience. This 22-item, five-dimension scale is parsimonious, and shows good internal consistency. It shows strong validity, as it relates to existing constructs in expected ways and is highly predictive of satisfaction with the stadium experience. Further, the Sensoryscape scale dimensions and associations with other constructs maintain their structure across contexts. From a sport marketing point of view, sport teams can build a stronger and longer-lasting connection with sport consumers by understanding what constitutes the stadium experience through the five senses and leveraging them to build emotional attachments to place (Lee et al., 2012).

The entertainment dimension of the fan experience includes the core product and its related elements that are unique to the spectator sports (the league, franchises/ clubs, schedule of games, league-designed home territory, club rivalries, inter-club competitiveness, clubs competing for players, coaches, management, game promotion, schedule convenience uncertainty of the game's outcome and association of the teams to local or regional identifications) (Balaji & Chakraborti, 2015). Spectator interaction is an important determinant of attending live sports events (Uhrich and Benkenstein, 2010). Spectators often relate sports events as a means of communing, socializing and entertaining each other through humorous commentary about the game (Gainer, 1995). Thus, sports stadiums might well be interpreted as a connecting place that takes on the social facilitation role. In another study on examination of spectators' socio-motivational factors in minor league hockey games, Zhang *et al.* (2004) found recreation, team identification, crowd interaction, sensation and pleasure to be highly predictive of game attendance. This suggests that social influences might have a direct effect on spectator intentions to attend live sports events (Balaji & Chakraborti, 2015).

Each of the five senses can be leveraged to create a stronger bond with the facility. Visually, a stadium can reflect its locality via its attractive architectural appearance (Lee, Heere & Chung, 2013; Lee, Lee, Seo, & Green, 2012). The San Diego Padres incorporated the historic Westem Metal Supply Company building into PETCO Park, and the left-field train at Minute Maid Park of the Astros was designed to evoke the spirit of early industrial Houston. MetLife stadium, where both the New York Giants and Jets play, can change its interior lighting depending on which team plays at home. The sounds of the ballpark can be incorporated into pre- and postgame soundtracks.

Comfortable seats with appropriate aisle space can enhance the fan experience. Quality surfaces throughout the stadium can also enhance fans' tactile evaluations of

the venue. As with sounds, other spectators play a large role in the tactile environment of sport venues. Small crowds provide each individual with more space, but do little to enhance the hedonic value or excitement of the game. On the other hand, too much crowding can result in high levels of physical contact (and discomfort) among spectators (Lee, Heere & Chung, 2013; Lee, Lee, Seo, & Green, 2012).

The integration of smell and locality can provide a memorable experience to fans. The consistency of smells at the venue can contribute to powerful olfactory cues to memories. For example, the smell of hotdogs and beer may stimulate positive memories of attending a game with friends or family. Sport teams can provide locally famous dishes, and franchise food providers can create a special dish only available at the stadium. The stronger spectators' positive associations with these tastes, the more likely that just smelling them cook will stimulate positive emotions. Sport marketers may be able to take advantage of strong community identification by theming the stadium's sensory environment to evoke the broader sense of place where the team is located (Lee, Heere & Chung, 2013; Lee, Lee, Seo, & Green, 2012).

While sport consumers, to some extent, holistically experience the sport venues through their five senses, these senses individually contribute to the team identity and team loyalty among fans. More importantly, each of these senses has a different level of effect on outcomes such as team identity and loyalty. Lee, Heere and Chung (2013) found that sight explained for the most variance in team identity, followed by the smell, touch, and sound dimensions. They also found that the sight, touch, and smell dimensions had a positive impact on team loyalty while the sound. Taste dimensions did not contribute to either team identity or loyalty. Thus, from sport marketing point of view, sport teams can build a stronger and longer-lasting connection with sport fans by maximizing the visual aspects of fan experiences (Lee, Heere & Chung, 2013; Lee, Lee, Seo, & Green,2012)

Atmospherics and the Spectator Experience Cycle

While atmospherics are an integral part of the spectator experience, it is important to note that atmospherics may be used to enhance the spectator experience. In this section, the spectator experience cycle (Figure 1), will be discussed in reference to atmospherics.

The physical and emotional experience starts when the spectators leave their homes (Ammon, Southall, & Nagel, 2010; Crompton, 2004; Lawrence & Wells, 2009). Spectators' main goal when attending a sporting event (in addition to seeing their team win) is to have a good experience. To achieve such a goal, it necessary that the event be held in a venue which is located within a reasonable distance from the fans residences. Spectators also need to have good access to the venue (Ammon, Southall, & Nagel, 2010; Crompton, 2004; Lawrence & Wells, 2009).

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Figure 1.
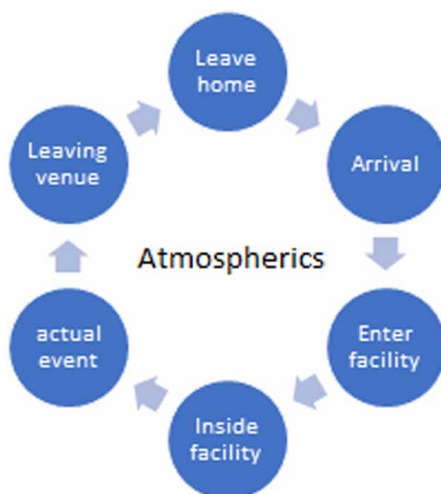
Such accessibility includes highways leading to the venue, public transportation to the venues, and parking facilities at the venue. Transportation and proximity to the venue reduce time and cost and thus make the experience more acceptable (Hinch & Higham, 2004). Though transportation may be an uncontrollable variable to the sport marketer, he or she may be able to influence the spectator via the digital interaction (web site, mobile, etc.) the spectator may have while in transit.

When spectators arrive to the venue, they expect to find available parking (within a reasonable distance from the venue), and at the reasonable price (Ammon, Southall, & Nagel, 2010; Crompton, 2004; Lawrence & Wells, 2009). Parking availability may enhance or detract from spectators' pleasure with the sportscape and atmospherics. They do not want to have to spend excessive time searching for parking spaces or walking long distances from their cars to the stadium (Wakefield, Blodgett, & Sloan, 1996). Lack of good parking conditions may not please some spectators and lead them to either not attend, or leave the sporting event early and thus a decrease in approach behavior. The organization may suffer some losses as consequence of spectators' displeasure with the parking situation, such as: low attendance, loss of late-game sales of concessions and souvenirs, and negative word-of-mouth generated by spectators' frustration and displeasure from having to choose between seeing the end of the game and avoiding traffic congestion (Wakefield, Blodgett, & Sloan, 1996).

After spectators begin their journey to the venue, fans hope to be safe (Ammon, Southall, & Nagel, 2010; Crompton, 2004; Lawrence & Wells, 2009). At some venues, fans walk through public spaces that offer them entertainment, food and beverage, and a safe place for them to congregate with other fans before entering the

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venue; thus showing the importance of the atmospheric of crowding. At other venues, the parking lot itself becomes the place for the spectators' pre-game celebration (tailgating). These places and opportunities not only enhance the fans experience, but also improve the economy and the quality of life of the cities and towns in which they are located (Ammon, Southall, & Nagel, 2010; Crompton, 2004; Lawrence & Wells, 2009). Before they enter the venue, fans will be required to stop at a safety checkpoint. At this point, they will have their belongings, and sometimes even themselves (pat-down), checked for prohibited items. In spite of being necessary to ensure everybody's safety, this is one piece of the fans' experience that can be very unpleasant if not managed well (Ammon, Southall, & Nagel, 2010; Lawrence & Wells, 2009).

At this point of the spectator experience cycle, fans start to have personal interaction with team/venue staff members. Spectators expect to be served by friendly and knowledgeable people, who show genuine care for them. Bryman (1999) calls it emotional labor. Employees are trained on how to talk and have proper body language as they interact with patrons. Those employees are expected to give the fans an impression that they too are having fun as they work. Chelladurai and Chang (2000) explain that actions staff members perform when serving fans are intangible, heterogeneous, and are produced and consumed simultaneously. With employees being a proven crucial atmospheric variable, the interactions between the fan and staff members are critical to the production and consumption of a service and the fan's overall perception of the experience.

The next stop is the box/ticket office. There, fans will get in line to either purchase their tickets or pick up pre-purchased tickets at the will call window. However, many fans choose to bypass this experience by purchasing their tickets online and have been delivered to their homes or to their phones (Ammon, Southall, & Nagel, 2010; Lawrence & Wells, 2009). It is in that ticket buying experience that atmospherics may increase approach behavior or the decision to purchase or not purchase the tickets. With tickets in hand, the fans will have their tickets scanned, and be greeted by ticket takers. This is another critical point of the fans experience. Long lines and/or grumpy ticket takers, are the main difficulties that may be present when fans try to cross the threshold of the venue, and each can really jeopardize the overall experience (Ammon, Southall, & Nagel, 2010; Lawrence & Wells, 2009). However, with the correct mix of atmospheric variables, such as the environment in which the tickets were purchased (digital or physical), the employees and the music while waiting to enter the facility could continue to influence the spectator and the experience thus far.

When inside the venue, fans must locate their seats, find the restrooms, and search for the concession stands and the merchandise shops. This is when the atmospheric variable of layout may be important to address. An effective layout enables consumers

to reach desired destinations easily and with no confusion (Ammon, Southall, & Nagel, 2010; Lawrence & Wells, 2009). Good layout design should make spectators feel as though they can easily locate and get where they want to go. Ineffective layouts may hinder free movement and make spectators feel confined, restricted, and cramped. Also important to spectators proper wayfinding are well-informed ushers and well-placed signage. A troubling wayfinding may transform a fan's experience into an unpleasant experience and decrease re-patronage. Spectators paid a decent amount of money to spend a lot of precious minutes searching for those services instead of enjoying their family and friends, and the game itself. (Ammon, Southall, & Nagel, 2010; Lawrence & Wells, 2009; Wakefield, Blodgett, & Sloan, 1996). In addition, a poorly designed or constructed (or even outdated) sports facility can have negative Impact on a team's bottom line. Frequently, low attendance and revenue shortcomings are blamed on the facility in which a team plays, where the lack of a good venue atmosphere and amenities can determine low attendance. Thus, the physical environment has strong influence on fan's satisfaction (beyond their perceptions of the game itself) and, consequently, on their purchase behavior (Greenwell, Fink, & Pastore, 2002).

After finding their way within the venue, spectators must remain seated for an extended period of time, so they expect their seats to be comfortable. Seat comfort refers to the physical seat as well as the space between the seats. Seating may be uncomfortable because of their design (hard benches without back supports), condition (deteriorating or wet), or close proximity to other seats (Wakefield, Blodgett, & Sloan, 1996).

As the actual event starts, other venue and event attributes are present. Lighting, special-effects, cheerleaders, dancers, mascots, and promotions (to mention a few) are added atmospheric elements with the intent of enhancing the experience. The spectators are affected by "stimuli emanating from the spectators and their behavior, stimuli relating to the architecture of the stadium, stimuli elicited by the organizers, and stimuli caused by the action of the game." (Uhrich & Benkenstein, 2010, p. 226). In terms of stimuli emanating from the spectators and their behavior, Uhrich and Benkenstein (2012) found that perceptions of other customers are important components of the atmospherics of sporting events. The authors found that favorable affective states caused by the environment and the core service performance are positively related to customers' on-site spending. They also found that some spectators' behavior have a strong impact on other spectators' experience and positive word-of-mouth behaviors.

During the actual event, the spectators are surrounded by atmospheric variables that they can see, hear, touch, and smell. In fact, the main event may become secondary at certain specific moments. If not managed well, these product extensions can become a major marketing problem. Greenwell, Lee, and Naeger (2007) found that

promotions and entertainment activities which are poorly executed, tasteless, or unattractive to consumers, can have the opposite effect of what was intended. However, if conducted well, these promotions may lead to some extra sales opportunities. Even after the game is over, there's still time to inform spectators about future events and promotions (and that the merchandise store is still open) (Ammon, Southall, & Nagel, 2010; Lawrence & Wells, 2009).

Research shows that venue and event attributes are critical aspects of fans' experience. Good performance in overall atmosphere, facility quality, and family atmosphere has a good impact on fans perception of service quality (Greenwell, Lee, & Naeger, 2007). On a different note, parking, weather conditions, food price, and facility comfort may generate more negative than positive impact on fans, if not exceeding their expectations. When service is perceived poor, fans are more likely to voice their dissatisfaction (Greenwell, Lee, & Naeger, 2007).

The next step of the spectator experience cycle is when spectators begin to leave the venue. First, the spectators do not want to spend too much time in line waiting to exit. They expect to have a convenient and satisfactory route from the venue to the parking lot. They also want to feel safe and not to have too much trouble driving back/being transported home (Ammon, Southall, & Nagel, 2010; Lawrence & Wells, 2009; Wakefield, Blodgett, & Sloan, 1996). Today, new facilities are designed to allow for quick entry and exit of fans with automobiles, and many old ones are being enhanced to provide fans with those amenities (Crompton, 2004). With that in mind, venue mangers who want to fully succeed on providing their spectators with the best experience possible must strive to exceed spectators' expectations in terms of venue multiple exits, increased security, and easy road/transportation access, all of which are controlled atmospheric variables.

Sport marketers have infinite possibilities to influence consumers from the beginning of the Spectator Experience Cycle with atmospherics. Whether in the line at the venue, purchasing tickets online at home or using the team app on their smartphone, atmospherics can enhance the entire experience and increase the potential for increased revenue and brand loyalty.

Additionally, technology is significantly changing the overall sports landscape in creative and innovative ways. For example, sport will see continued rise of "smart stadiums" and the technology which will compliment these physical structures (Mooney & White, 2014). The possibilities of integrating augmented and virtual reality (AR and VR) into sport are endless, for instance. The VR market is projected to grow to $80 billion by the year 2025 (Fisher, 2016). These types of technology are in their infancy in regard to how they can shape, control, manipulate and share sport perceptions (Silva & Casas, 2017). However, some digital marketers have suggested AR and VR will become the common for sports fans within the next two decades. Consumer will be able to view the game from their seat with multiple

screen overlays which will display body movements, patterns and statistical details (thestadiumbusiness.com, 2017). While sport has been using Digital Replacement Technology (a method where in-stadium signage enables the signage to change in real-time based on the user), sport digital marketers are finding ways in which to implement and use the technologies to drive sales and increase loyalty (Woods, 2017). Sport industry experts believe VR is a perfect match for sports and its fans. With virtual tickets, sports could see a major increase in revenue as fans watch any event from anywhere (Taylor, 2017). Sport digital marketers want to learn more about their fan's behaviors, attitudes and demographics as much as possible to individualize and personalize the event experience. For example, augmented technology allows for data to be collected regarding facial expressions of attendees. Using data analytics, images taken of the attendees frowns, cheers and other emotions allow for "measures of fan sentiment" and can "register the level of fan attention paid to a video board ad at a given moment" (Fisher, 2018). While AR and VR still have some perfecting to accomplish, AR may be better for an overall experience while VR has the potential to offer "raw" insight on a more individual basis (Bashford, 2017).

MAIN FOCUS OF THE CHAPTER

Issues, Controversies, Problems

While sport marketers have the potential to improve the sport consumption experience with atmospherics and technology, several related challenges remain.

I Would Rather Watch It at Home!

An increasing number of sports fans are finding the home viewing experience to be on par or even better than attending a live sporting event (King, 2010). To combat the trend, sport marketers are attempting to alter the live event to create an emotional experience that cannot be recreated from one's couch (Martin, 2013). "Certainly, the advent of HDTV when that hit the mass scale in America probably signaled a shift that teams were no longer competing with other live entertainment, but the opportunity to watch for free from home," said Jeff Dunn, vice president of business strategy and analytics for the Seattle Seahawks. In response, teams have ramped up in-game offerings and built venues that offer greater amenities, placing a premium on the fan experience. "Twenty years ago, fans were content to get a cheap hotdog and a Bud Light," Dunn said. Now, of course, the concession offerings need to be plentiful and often local (Kaplan, 2018). Event when fans come to the stadium, especially at luxury seating level, "It's not just sitting and watching the game anymore.

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It's interacting with other people," (J.P. Paul, vice president of guest relations and corporate development for the Minnesota Vikings). Architects and designers are adding all possible amenities as they have to compete with an excellent at-home viewing experience. "Our clients are scared to death that people will stop coming, but I don't think that will happen. You can't replace the in-person experience, but if you don't create an interesting place to go, they won't." Ron Turner, principal and director of Gensler Sports (Gray, 2017). Newer venues like Levi's Stadium, are built for a busier slate of events outside of football (Gray, 2017). What introduces the need for "spaces you can mix and match with any product or concept at a given time," Al Guido, San Francisco 49ers President (Gray, 2017).

The Loyalty Issue

Why are service quality and venue environment/atmospherics so important to organizations' overall marketing? The answer is that sport marketers have the potential to make or break an organization's marketing plan. An organization's profits depend on a sequence of three factors: quality, satisfaction and loyalty (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007). In other words, proven product quality (which satisfies consumers' needs and generates repurchase) earns consumers' loyalty. What does quality mean to sporting events spectators? It means having their needs attended and their expectations exceeded. Spectators perceive security employees' performance, food and beverage service, player interaction with spectators, social environment, visuals and sound, stadium access, seating, stadium cleanliness and design, atmosphere, and game quality as having important influence on their perceptions of service quality (Clemes, Brush & Collins, 2011). Loyalty is composed of four stages: 1) consumer learns about the product and bases his/her decision mainly on cost; 2) consumer learns to like the product and achieve satisfaction; 3) previous satisfaction lead consumer to future purchases; and 4) purchasing the favorite product becomes a consumers' habit (Oliver, 2010).Thus, loyal fans tend to attend more often, spend more money during events and recommend the team/venue to other fans (Ganesh, Arnold & Reynolds, 2000; Jones &Taylor, 2007; Park & Kim, 2000; So¨derland, 2006; Trail, Anderson & Fink, 2000).

Today, organizations do not try to gain spectators' loyalty by selling the team itself (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007). The reason for that is the obvious lack of control over the team's performance (Greenwell, Lee, & Naeger, 2007; Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007). Thus, organizations focus on selling what they can control. Regardless of who wins, spectators can count on having a good experience (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007). To provide spectators with a good experience, the event/ venue atmosphere must bedazzle them and event staff must roll out the red carpet for them. "Promoting game atmosphere in combination with the unique characteristics

of the core product (i.e., player performance, team history, star player, rivalry, and community prestige) helps sport marketers to satisfy and retain their customers." (Yoshida & James, 2010, p.354)

By exceeding spectators' expectations, organizations have a fair chance of improving spectator attitude toward and recognition of the organization's brand, influencing consumer choice and purchase behavior, and enhancing fan loyalty. In addition, organizations want to be able to retain current spectators and to entice new ones. "It can be argued that customer satisfaction is at the center of the marketing concept, and strategic planning of physical facilities has been found to influence consumer satisfaction" (Greenwell, Fink & Pastore, 2002 p.129). Customer satisfaction will lead to positive attitude towards the brand, impact spectators' choice and affect purchase behavior and atmospherics can help achieve these results.

The Issue of Spectator Attitude

For many of sports fans the experience of going to a sports stadium is considered to be of great importance for development of perception, attitude and behavior towards a sports brand (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007; Pritchard & Funk, 2010). The sport product attributes enable it to endow the desired benefits to consumers (Gutman, 1982). Fan's perceptions of a sport product's technical (game) and functional (venue) service elements lead them to consider the product important, show interest in it, and make a purchase (Pritchard & Funk, 2010). In their study of the formation and effect of attitude importance in professional sport, Pritchard and Funk (2010) found that atmospherics and service have a strong impact in generating positive fan attitude towards continued attendance. Thus, sport consumers' perception of product attributes influences attitude toward the event either directly or mediated by attitude towards brand (team/players) (Lee & Trail, 2012).

Impact on Spectator Choice Issues

In addition to the core aspects of the event, the event environment/atmospherics has been found to be very influential on spectators' satisfaction and choice of event to attend (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007; Pritchard & Funk, 2010). Spectators would rather experience their chosen event in an atmosphere that appeals to them (Hock, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2010). They are also more likely to attend sports events and to enjoy the experience more if they are satisfied with the facilities (Hall, O'Mahony, & Vieceli, 2010). Wakefield, Blodgett, and Sloan (1996) found that the most significant factors affecting spectators' pleasure with the sportscape and desire to stay and repeat attendance at that facility were: 1) whether or not spectators feel crowded or cramped due to limited access and space in the stadium, 2) aesthetic quality of the facility,

3) parking availability, and 4) scoreboard quality. Adding to those findings, Hock, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2010) found that visitor satisfaction is mainly determined by the venue atmosphere (e.g. exterior appearance and cleanliness, and the availability of security personnel), with venue's interior design as the aspect that influences the most visitors' satisfaction. Thus, providing superior facilities to help maintain and build attendance and concession sales enable team owners to effectively compete for consumers' entertainment dollars, even when they may be unable to compete on the field (Wakefield, Blodgett & Sloan, 1996).

Effects on Purchase Behavior Issues

The strong interaction and dependency between core product and service quality, game and service satisfaction, and spectator attendance and purchase behavior are highly recognized by sport management practitioners (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007; Yoshida & James, 2010). It is known that customer (fan) retention has a positive effect on an organization long-term team profitability because the costs of obtaining new customers is usually greater than the costs of retaining existing customers (McIlroy & Barnett, 2000; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996). Spectators attend sporting events with expectations, and based on those expectations, establish criteria to determine what levels of service will be unacceptable, acceptable, and more than acceptable (Greenwell, Lee, & Naeger, 2007). "In the process of product consumption, preexisting expectation sets a standard for future evaluation, and then the confirmation of the expectancy mediates the level of satisfaction."(Lee & Trail, 2012, p.105). In simple terms, spectator satisfaction depends on their perception and evaluation of service performance, and "the customer is the best judge of the quality of the service" (Greenwell, Fink, & Pastore, 2002, p.131). When their experiences are between more than acceptable and unacceptable, spectators are in the zone of tolerance. Service within this zone has little effect on fan satisfaction. When the fans experience is above the zone of tolerance, fan satisfaction is achieved. (Greenwell, Lee, & Naeger, 2007).

Fans need to have their expectations exceeded, rather than merely satisfied, to reach loyalty level in their relationship with the team/brand (Anderson & Mittal, 2000; Fullerton & Taylor, 2002). Consumer satisfaction leads to commitment, which consequently leads to loyal behavior (Nemec, 2011). "Satisfaction has an effect on the formation of attitudes toward a brand or product and that consumers' post-usage evaluation (satisfaction or dissatisfaction) with a product influences the perception about the product" (Lee & Trail, 2012, p.106). Such assessment leads to re-purchase intention, retention and brand loyalty. Repurchase intentions yield increased purchase frequency and quantity, and the likelihood of fans buying additional team's services and products (Greenwell, Fink, & Pastore, 2002). Retention is characterized either by

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renewal of season tickets, or by infrequent fans' purchase of tickets, merchandise, etc. year after year. It is also characterized by efforts directed at converting dissatisfied fans into satisfied ones (Greenwell, Fink, & Pastore, 2002).

Based on the discussion above, the sportscape does have a significant influence on spectator purchase intentions. However, this impact depends on sportscape's relationship with other aspects of spectators' perception of the experience, such as positive effect, perceptions of service quality, and value perceptions. Sportscape's effect (direct and indirect) on those aspects ultimately affects positively fan purchase intentions (Hightower, Brady & Baker, 2002). Atmospherics certainly play a major role in the sportscape and the success of the marketing plan of which it is a part.

Solutions and Recommendations

An organization's overall success depends on its capacity of delivering a product that is perceived as of high quality by the consumers (spectators), can satisfy their wants and needs, and can exceed their expectations. The organization's goal must be to earn the spectators' loyalty. Loyalty not only brings spectators back to the venue, but also reduces defection and creates positive word-of-mouth (which assists enticing new consumers). The sport facility is central to the organization's marketing scheme, by shaping the promotion and delivery of the sport product. Beyond the uncontrollable quality of team performance, the capabilities and features of the facility largely determine marketing and promotional strategy decisions. Thus, the "place" is the most important element of the marketing mix when marketing facility dependent sport services (Westerbeek & Shilbury, 1999). With that in mind, sport management practitioners must strive to provide spectators with remarkable experiences that will cause them to return and bring new spectators with them. Of all the tools available to sport marketers, atmospherics is the one controllable variable that they may utilize to achieve marketing objectives and that remarkable experience. Atmospherics whether physical or digital will influence, the spectator experience, loyalty, attitude, choice and purchase behavior.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Atmospherics have had a solid history in academic research and practitioner implementation. From the early days of when atmospherics were first recognized as a credible and profitable marketing strategy, (Kotler, 1973), to current uses, atmospheric strategy remains one of the most important and crucial of the controllable variables available to a sport marketer. Due to changing technologies such as AR and VR, atmospherics will be as relevant tomorrow as it is today and as it was decades ago.

Though the context in which atmospherics reside will change, the premise remains unchanged. As noted in this chapter, traditional atmospherics have been used in the retail and sports settings for many years. However, with the emergence, dominance and continued increase of online consumer consumption, much remains untapped regarding the potential of atmospherics in the online environment. In addition, atmospherics, online and traditional, are relevant to most retail and sport environments no matter the location, setting, sport or type of product. Sport marketers do not necessarily develop technologies, but they have the ability to implement them to increase brand awareness, revenue and spectator loyalty.

Several trends and emerging technologies and advancements are important to note in reference to atmospherics. For example, new technologies such as the advancements in digital signage impact consumers (Dennis, Michonm, Brakus, Newman & Alamanos, 2012). Even traditional atmospheric variables, such as scent are transitioning into the online environment. For example, by attaching a small dock to a mobile phone, one may access the appropriate app to deliver scent via the phone. One study found that consumers demonstrated a higher degree of approach behavior when exposed to scent while browsing in the online environment (Vinitzky & Mazursky, 2011). Therefore, the use of atmospherics such as color, music, crowding and other online atmospherics are the future of mobile apps for the increased enjoyment and satisfaction of its users.

However, mobile is a major area that will continue to see advancements in atmospheric technologies and is of much emphasis in atmospheric study. Digital advertising spending is projected to reach $335 billion in total annual ad spending by 2020 (Statista, 2018). Mobile and online consumers cannot be seen as the same and as a result, eleven mobile-branding design elements have been suggested for mobile applications (Magrath & McCormick, 2013). Many organizations have been proactive in the development of their apps to enhance consumer experience while in the facility or not and that the relationship between the consumer decision process and mobile activities are important (Grewal, Roggeveen & Runyan, 2013).

M-commerce (mobile commerce) is suspected to surpass e-commerce in the near future, one framework for m-commerce and its interface has been suggested. The 7C Framework is comprised of context, content, community, customization, communication, connect and commerce (Rayoirt & Jaworski, 2001). Most notable for atmospherics in this framework is the C of context which includes aesthetic elements such as color. Added to the 7 C's in a later study were the 2 M's, mobile setting and mobile device constraints (Lee & Benbasat, 2004). Another framework developed by Manganari, Siomkos & Vrechopoulos (2007), coined as the M-commerce Store Environment Framework suggests beyond store image, theatrics and social factors, that atmospherics plays a major role in development of the m-store strategy

(Vrechopoulos, Manganari & Siomkos, 2009). Therefore, a major trend in atmospheric research is for the investigation of m-atmospherics.

Sport marketers must also acknowledge the importance of not only m-commerce but the factors that influence consumers while in the online environment. As sport participants continue to utilize technologies in conjunction with the game experience, these factors can help sport marketers achieve goals. For example, one study showed that emotion played a large role in the mobile consumption experience. The study also indicated media richness was more important than convenience (Li, Dong & Chen, 2012). Knowing how consumers think, feel and behave while in the mobile environment will aid sport marketers to develop, design and implement mobile digital strategy.

Future research directions in the field of atmospherics and sport atmospherics are limitless. From an academic perspective, designing different treatment conditions, manipulating online atmospheric cues, testing consumer internal emotional states with different web sites, measurement development, the possibilities of AR and VR overall atmospheric research in the online environment are all possibilities for a future direction. Marketers and sport marketers alike should test, discover and manipulate as many atmospheric variables as possible with the ultimate goal of producing the most effective digital marketing strategy as possible. It is the responsibility of the sport marketer to utilize research and available technologies to enhance customer satisfaction. While traditional atmospherics will continue to be of the upmost importance for the physical stores, online atmospherics and m-atmospherics is the future of sport marketing. As spectators continue and increase usage of mobile technologies, it will be imperative that the sport marketer consider online atmospherics to enhance their respective brand, team or product.

CONCLUSION

Atmospherics began several decades ago as a simple strategy for a traditional retail environment. However, atmospheric strategy has grown to encompass online and mobile environments, none of which Kotler could have ever imagined. While further research must be conducted, especially in the mobile environment, atmospherics have a proven history of being the one controllable variable that sport marketers may utilize to improve spectator experience. It is the responsibility of the sport marketer to address every angle of the spectator perspective. The music the spectator listens to during intermission, the colors on the team's mobile application and even the lighting within merchandise selling areas do not just promote the team. Those and

other atmospherics have the potential to increase positive attitude with a losing team or even turn casual fans into loyal consumers for many profitable years to come. Sport marketers of any sport, team, organization or facility are encouraged to seek and implement an atmospheric strategy, both traditional and online. With atmospheric strategy, using the right color on the team web site may make the sport marketer see more green.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Atmospherics: The variables available for manipulation by marketers and sport marketers to impact cognitive and affective feeling and attitude in a physical environment.

Cyberspherics: A general term to describe all online, mobile or digital atmospherics as experienced by a spectator (consumer).

Event Service Quality: A term to describe how well a service is rendered to a spectator.

M-Atmospherics: The variables available for manipulation by marketers and sport marketers to impact cognitive and affective feeling and attitude in a mobile environment.

Online Atmospherics: The variables available for manipulation by marketers and sport marketers to impact cognitive and affective feeling and attitude in an online environment.

Spectator Experience Cycle: The cycle in which the spectator participates when he or she engages in a sporting event. The cycle may include physical, online, or mobile environments.

Spectator Purchase Behavior: The consumption behavior exhibited by spectators specific to the sporting industry.

Sport Atmospherics: The variables available for manipulation by marketers and sport marketers to impact cognitive and affective feeling and attitude in a sporting environment.

Sportscape: The sporting event environment in which a spectator (consumer) may be impacted by surrounding elements such as atmospherics.

Chapter 10

The Intention of Attending a Sporting Event Through Expectation Disconfirmation and the Effect of Emotions

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ABSTRACT

This chapter examines the intention of attending a sporting event using a cognitive-affective model. By using a survey at an international event, the authors show that emotions have a direct effect on satisfaction and an intermediary effect on the expectation disconfirmation and satisfaction and finally disconfirmation and satisfaction on the intention of attending the sport event. These results suggest that the organizers of sport events should pay special attention to emotional management before and during the activity.

INTRODUCTION

Today individuals have an increasing amount of leisure time, and therefore the number of institutions that offer gaming services has risen. Due to the growing competition in the sector, organizations are more concerned about understanding the fundamentals that guarantee the success of a company. User satisfaction is one of the most important determinants, and their study is a growing segment within marketing literature.

There is abundant literature on sports marketing and consumer satisfaction in relation to attendance and membership of sports centers such as (Bodet & Bernache - Assollant, 2011; Murray & Howat, 2002; Van Leeuwen et al, 2002). However, there is little literature regarding limited events within a recurring period (Calabuig, Burillo, Crespo, Mundina & Gallardo, 2010; Martinez & Martinez, 2007).

This research has focused on the study of satisfaction of an international sport event, analyzing the mediating effect of emotions through the cognitive affective model to explain the intention of returning to attend.

The current trend is that the process has a dual satisfaction, cognitive and affective (Oliver, 1997; Bigné, Andreu & Gnoth, 2005), established by the concept of disconfirmation a result of the contrast between a previous situation and the expected outcome of post- comparison service which will generate a positive or negative result. The relationship between disconfirmation and emotions has been confirmed (Menon & Dubé, 2000), demonstrating the positive relationship between the magnitude of disconfirmation and intensity of emotion to explain consumer satisfaction (Woodruff, Cadotte, & Jenkins, 1983).

This paper aims to verify and confirm the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction from a cognitive-affective approach intend to return to attend a fun event. Therefore, the objectives of the research are: (1) to test the influence of emotions on satisfaction and (2) contrast ratio disconfirmation with the intention of returning to attend the event.

PROPOSAL FOR AN AFFECTIVE - COGNITIVE MODEL OF CONSUMER SATISFACTION

This study is part of the cognitive and affective theory aims to contrast the trend in the literature that emphasizes the need to consider the process of consumer satisfaction from a cognitive approach affective influence (Wirtz & Bateson, 1999; Bigné et al., 2005)

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Since the late sixties, marketing researchers of consumer behavior have shown interest in the concept of satisfaction (Alvarado Herrera Beltrán & Gallego, 2008) and today there is not a consensus on its definition or nature (Bigné et al., 2005). Recently, researchers (Giese a&Cote, 2000; Yu & Dean, 2001) have suggested that a more appropriate measure is obtained if we understand satisfaction as an emotional and cognitive process. Even researchers who propose the disconfirmation paradigm as an explanatory satisfaction axis (Alvarado Herrera Beltrán & Gallego, 2008) advocate for the need to consider new perspectives (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991; Mano & Oliver, 1993), which is of even greater relevance in the case of sporting events (Martinez & Martinez, 2007).

Current authors who favor this literature observed that there is a better measurement of satisfaction if we analyze this as a dual process of cognitive and affective (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991; Cronin, Brady & Hult, 2000). Some past studies already assume that satisfaction is an emotional response that comes from a cognitive judgment (Giese & Cote, 2000; Yu & Dean, 2001). It is proven that satisfaction has a direct positive influence on consumer behavioral intention and loyalty (Cronin et al., 2000).

A Model Based on the Disconfirmation of Expectations

With the above approach, and taking into account the results of previous studies, we propose a theoretical model of relations based on the theory of disconfirmation of expectations described below (Figure 1).

First, satisfaction has been recognized in the literature as an important variable of the three main consequences: (Bigné et al, 2005) complaint behavior, ear and mouth communication intentions and exchange / buyback. In the literature the positive influence of satisfaction on intention is recognized by various publications (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Fornell, 1992; Price & Arnould, 1999; Wangenheim and Bayon, 2007) some of which focused specifically on the field of sporting events (Wakefield & Blodgett, 1996; Cronin et al, 2000; Laverie & Arnett, 2000; Trail, Anderson & Fink, 2005). Therefore, the hypothesis to be tested is:

H1. There is a direct and positive relationship between satisfaction and intention to reattend the event.

Second, viewers of sport events interact with the service, and as a result generate emotions. The relationship between disconfirmation and emotions has been studied in the literature (Wirtz & Bateson, 1999; Menon & Dubé, 2000; Bigné et al, 2005) and they confirmed the positive and direct relationship between the value of disconfirmation and intensity of emotion to explain consumer satisfaction (Woodruff et al, 1983).

Figure 1. Proposed relationship model with Bootstrapping results (5,000)
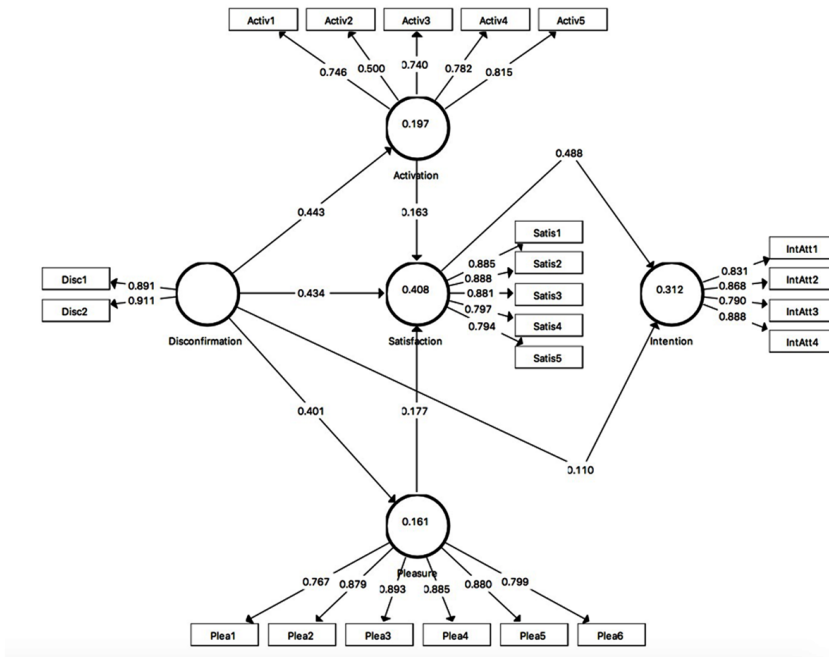
However, in different studies, not all relationships have been validated. Bigné and others like Wirtz and Bateson in 1999 could not confirm the relationship between the activation dimension and satisfaction. Still, further investigations could not confirm the relationship between pleasure and satisfaction, and yet certainly could (not?) validate the relationship between activation and satisfaction (Martinez & Martinez, 2007). Thus, the proposed hypothesis regarding the relationship between emotion and satisfaction are:

H2. Activation is positively related to the viewer's satisfaction.
H3. Pleasure is positively related to the viewer's satisfaction.

Disconfirmation in turn, is the result of comparing the result with what the consumer expected after a purchase decision, and may be positive or negative (Oliver, 1997). The structure on which the models have been based on assesses consumer experiences, confirming the direct causal relationship between disconfirmation and satisfaction (Oliver & DeSarbo, 1988; Binge et al, 2005; Szymanski & Heard, 2001). Consequently, the hypothesis that arises is:

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H4. There is a direct and positive relationship between disconfirmation and viewer satisfaction.

Furthermore, viewers of sport events interact with the service and as a result generate emotions. The relationship between disconfirmation and emotions has been proven in the literature (Wirtz & Bateson, 1999; Menon & Dubé, 2000; Bigné et al, 2005) and corroborated the positive and direct relationship between the value of disconfirmation and intensity of emotion to explain consumer satisfaction (Woodruff et al., 1983).

The following hypothesis is formulated based on past research, which shows that negative disconfirmation causes displeasure, while a result that exceeds expectations causes pleasure, so that a positive disconfirmation produces activation (Wirtz & Bateson, 1999). Accordingly, the two hypotheses are:

H5a. The disconfirmation of expectations is positively related to the emotion of pleasure.

H5b. The disconfirmation of expectations is positively related to the emotion of activation.

Finally, several authors have established a direct relationship between disconfirmation with the intention of reattend (loyalty) following a review of the modification indices (Bigné et al., 2005). Martinez and Martinez (2007) argue that the relationship of disconfirmation is a cognitive evaluation of perceived quality. Bloemer and De Ruyter (1998) previously demonstrated that a positive evaluation of quality was positively related to loyalty. Likewise, Anderson and Sullivan (1993) suggest that the perceived quality positively influences disconfirmation. The model as a whole is represented in Figure 1.

H6. There is a positive and direct relationship between disconfirmation and intention reattend sporting events.

METHODOLOGY

To measure disconfirmation we used previous studies by Wirtz and Bateson (1999), Bigné et al (2005), and Martinez and Martinez (2007) connecting two Likert items adapted to 7 points of Oliver (1980) and Churchill and Suprenant (1982): (1) "In general, their experience with the event was better / worse than expected " and (2) "In general, their experience with the event has been worse / better than I imagined". The scale for measuring emotions were adapted (Russell, 1980) in a semantic

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differential scale of 7 points. For each of the emotions (pleasure and activation) 6 items were used. Overall satisfaction with service was measured by 5 items on a Likert scale of 7 points from various sources (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991, Oliver, 1997). Finally, we proceeded to measure the intention by an adaptation of the scale (Zeithaml, Berry &Parasuraman, 1996) four items on a Likert scale of 7 points. Table 1 shows the list of questions from the survey.

The study was conducted at an international athletics meeting in the city of Valencia. 750 individuals given a questionnaire, obtaining a response rate of 84.93% (637 responses).

Results

Analysis of the Scales, Reliability and Validity

In order to analyze the collected data, the PLS-SEM (Structural Ecuation Model - Partial Least Squares) statistical technique was used. In general, the tests' ojective was to prove the validity of the model's measurements and structure in order to justfy the degree of compliance of the presented hypotheses. The measurement model was evauated in order to determine if it correctly reflects the adopted theoretical concepts and constructs, through the data coming from observation. Meaning, we studied both the validity of the measurement that indicates the degree to which it exactly corresponds to the phenomenom that it wishes to measure as well as its reliability, which indicates the precision with which a measurement instrument produces points free of random errors. For its part, validity refers to the degree to which it measures what it is supposed to measure. Malhotra (2004) defines validity as the degree to which the points obtained with the scale reflect the real differences between the objects regarding the characteristics being measured. Following Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle and Gudergan's (2017) recomendations, the analysis of the the measurement model includes the reliability analysis, the convergant vaidity and the discriminant validiy.

The variable's reliability is examined using Cronbach's alpha indicators, and composite reliability (CR) index (Table 2). The minimum threshold of 0.7, established by the academic literature (Hair, Hollingsworth, Randolph & Chong, 2017), was surpassed for the three indicators. Regarding each items' reliability, Table 2 shows that in general they all surpassed 0.7, making them all significative.

The convergant validity is evaluated using extracted variance analysis (AVE) indicators and the rho_A indictor. For all of the variables, the examined coefficients exceeded 0.5 (Rigdon, 2016). The discriminant validity was examined using three methods. First, it was evaluated using Fornell-Larcker's criteria (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) (Table 3), second, using cross-loadings analysis, and finally through the

heterotrait–monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) criteria (Table 4). All of the indicators were within the limits recommended in the academic literature (Henseler, Hubona, & Ray, 2016), therefore, showing the reliability and validity of the constructs and indicators.

Analysis of the Causal Relationships

This analysis began by evaluating the squared coefficient of multiple correlation (R2), which informs the endogenous factor's amount of variance, which is explained by the model, and is interpreted in the same way as thos obtained in a multiple regression analysis (Hair et al., 2017). Table 2 shows the R2 indicators. All of the indicators are greater than 0.1, which shows that the model provides relevant information (Hair, Hult, Ringle, Sarstedt, 2014). This highest value corresponds to the satisfaction variable. Next, the regression path coefficients were generally greater than 0.3, indicating that they can satisfactorily explain the model's endogenous variables (Figure 1). The Stone-Geisser Q2 coefficient (Table 2) (Omission Distance = 6) indicates that the model as a whole and the exogenous variables are capable of predicting the endogenous variables. In addition, the size of the figurative effect in Table 4 shows that the effect is moderate when it is greater than 0.35. Therefore, the relationships Activation -> Satisfaction, Disconfirmation -> Intention, Pleasure -> Satisfaction have a weak effect and the remaining have a moderate effect. Howeve, all of the relationships were significant, which means that none of the hypotheses are rejected. The signifaction and regression coeeficient value are shown in Figure 2.

DISCUSSION

This research has proven a model that integrates the precedents and consequences of satisfaction with a leisure event, from an affective cognitive approach, since it meets the fundamental features of the environmental perspective of Mehrabian and Russell (1974) with the general research consumer satisfaction and behavioral intentions.

This model is applicable to sporting events, as their hedonic and playful environment are a source of emotion in the consumer, but only recently some authors have emphasized the emotional nuance of the concept (Yu and Dean, 2001). Following Yi (1990), we intended to explain that satisfaction is formed cognitively and affectively, and therefore both factors simultaneously converge and determine consumer satisfaction.

The results allow us to draw the following conclusions:

First, unlike previous studies, we have accepted the hypothesis that emotions are related to consumer satisfaction. Previously, Bigné et al. (2005) and Wirtz and

Figure 2. Proposed relationship model with PLS algorithm results
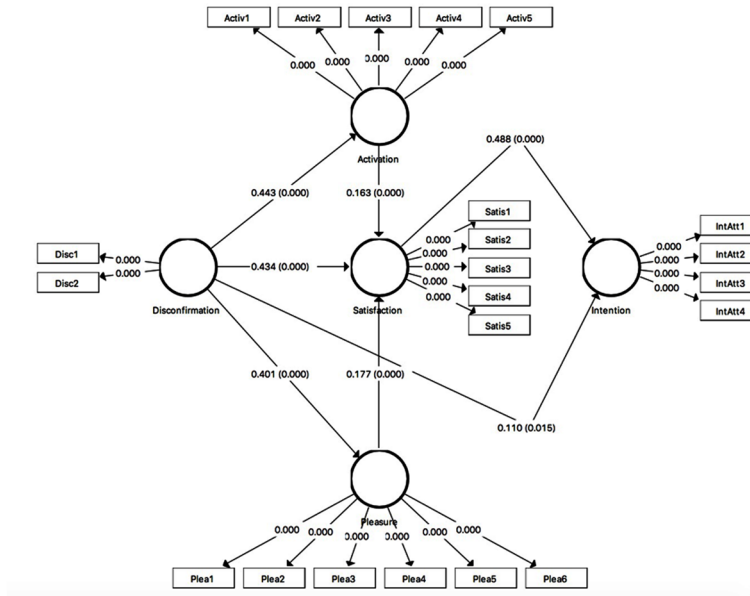
Bateson (1999) found no direct relationship between activation and satisfaction, justified this lack of correlation reasoning that the activation has more mediate and immediate effects against the satisfaction that considered as an evaluation of the consumption experience and therefore a response to something from the past.

Subsequently Martinez and Martinez (2007) could not demonstrate that there was a connection between pleasure and satisfaction. They argued that the individual may feel negative emotions related to negative pleasure, as the suffering involved great physical exertion or anxiety to meet expectations on athletic performance, and at the same time feel satisfaction that consciously seeks to experience these feelings. However, the inconsistency between the results of both studies may be due to Martinez and Martinez (2007), who based their findings on a survey of participants in sports, while ours is based on responses from spectators, making it more difficult to justify the existence of negative pleasure.

However, and secondly, we have found a positive effect between disconfirmation and intent. These results agree with those found by Martinez and Martinez (2007), which are supported by Anderson and Sullivan (1993), who suggest that the perceived quality positively influences disconfirmation. Also, Bloemer and De Ruyter (1998) showed that quality assessments were positively related to loyalty. Given that cognitive evaluations of perceived quality are the basis of disconfirmation (Bigne et al, 2005) these performance trials could establish the relationship between disconfirmation and repeat attendance.

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Finally, it should be added that there is a relationship, and so advised the model fit, between emotions and intent as found in the studies by Bigné et al. (2005) and Martinez and Martinez (2007), based on modification indexes given by the computer program without theoretical justification.

Implications for Management

Companies should pay particular attention to the important implications of managing emotions and its effect on customer satisfaction. Generating positive emotions is crucial to improving the service that ultimately impacts loyalty and customer attendance. Therefore, by studying emotions, companies must properly manage the generation of content and communicative moments of truth with the client. The place of the service is crucial in guiding the strategy of customer retention, from tangible items such as seats, or intangibles such as music, place or crowding and queues.

Therefore, as described by the proven model, emotions will affect the individual's future behavior. Consequently, the goal under a marketing perspective should be generating positive emotions for the client to develop positive behaviors toward the event. The added value of the study of emotions can affect consumer satisfaction during the service. Managers should seek to focus on managing elements that stimulate the emotions, such as environmental factors (music, lighting, etc).

As described by the model, cognitive appraisal between what consumers expect and what they receive for service development (disconfirmation) positively influences their emotions and satisfaction. Therefore, the organizers of sporting events should avoid creating false expectations while generating a quality service, as this will influence the satisfaction and repeat spectator attendance.

Satisfaction has a direct influence on intention, stronger than the direct influence of disconfirmation meaning that sporting bodies should endeavor not only to stimulate the emotions of the audience but to maintain a high quality of service. The relationship that is established between disconfirmation and satisfaction is significant, indicating that a higher level of quality of service will affect a greater satisfaction of the individual and therefore a higher level of repeat attendance.

Limitations and Future Research

To improve the study and the generalizability of the results, an overall longitudinal study should be done in different geographical areas in order to contrast the characteristics of different environments. Also, to capture the variability of emotions, non-verbal methods such as facial recognition could be used (Bigné et al., 2005).

As Martinez and Martinez (2007) suggest, the inclusion of background to the satisfaction, expectations and perceived quality could help to better understand the variability of dimensions and emotions disconfirmation (Oliver, 1993; Baterson & Wirtz, 1999). Similarly, sport and the geographical area in which the study was conducted create a handicap for the generalization of the results. Therefore, we propose replicas of this study in other sports and geographical areas.

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APPENDIX

Table 1. Measurement scales used

Item	Nomenclature	Description
Satisfaction		
	Satis1	I'm happy with the experiences I have had in the (name)
	Satis2	am satisfied with my experiences in the (name)
	Satis3	really enjoyed attending the (name)
	Satis4	I'm excited about the experiences I have had in the (name)
	Satis5	Assist (name) has been nice
Intention		
	IntAtt1	be willing to continue attending sporting events
	IntAtt2	will recommend attendance at sporting events to friends and relatives
	IntAtt3	generally would not expect any problems to attend a sporting event
	IntAtt4	If I had the opportunity to attend a sporting event repeat the experience I welcome
Pleasure		
	Plea1	Displeased - Content
	Plea2	Unhappy - Happy
	Plea3	Unhappy - Nice
	Plea4	Sad - Alegre
	Plea5	Disillusioned- Illusioned
	Plea6	Entertaining- Bored
Activation		
	Activ1	decayed - Anime
	Activ2	Uneasy - Calm
	Activ3	Sereno - Excited
	Activ4	Passive - Active
	Activ5	Indifferent - Surprised
Disconfirmation		
	Disc1	Worst - Better than imagined
	Disc2	Worst - Better than expected

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Table 2. Measures of reliability and validity of the scales used

Construct	Cronbach's α	rho_A	CR	AVE	R²	Q²	Factorial loads
Disconfirmation	.770	.775	.897	.812			.891 – .911***
Activation	.777	.809	.844	.526	.197	.092	.501 – .815***
Intention	.866	.868	.909	.714	.312	.203	.791 – .868***
Pleasure	.924	.927	.941	.726	.161	.103	.767 – .893***
Satisfaction	.903	.905	.929	.723	.408	.268	.794 – .794***

Note: *** $p < 0.01$

Table 3. Discriminant validity. Fornell-Larcker criterion, above the diagonal confidence intervals Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

	Activation	Disconfirmation	Intention	Pleasure	Satisfaction
Activation	**.725**	.539	.291	.714	.532
Disconfirmation	.443	**.901**	.479	.468	.691
Intention	.261	.392	**.845**	.353	.621
Pleasure	.656	.401	.320	**.852**	.497
Satisfaction	.472	.577	.552	.458	**.850**

Table 4. Discriminant validity and cross loads

	Activation	**Disconfirmation**	**Intention**	**Pleasure**	**Satisfaction**
Activ1	.746	.390	.280	.669	.403
Activ2	.500	.143	.031	.160	.138
Activ3	.740	.286	.173	.371	.327
Activ4	.782	.298	.213	.474	.345
Activ5	.815	.401	.172	.533	.405
Disc1	.368	.891	.363	.339	.488
Disc2	.429	.911	.345	.382	.550
IntAtt1	.146	.288	.831	.231	.421
IntAtt2	.247	.334	.868	.281	.463
IntAtt3	.249	.347	.790	.270	.486
IntAtt4	.231	.349	.888	.295	.485
Plea1	.541	.388	.324	.767	.445
Plea2	.555	.375	.302	.879	.397
Plea3	.594	.356	.235	.893	.394
Plea4	.557	.313	.230	.885	.352
Plea5	.585	.316	.267	.880	.386
Plea6	.504	.273	.262	.799	.343
Satis1	.400	.519	.481	.387	.885
Satis2	.405	.526	.481	.392	.888
Satis3	.402	.488	.486	.385	.881
Satis4	.395	.482	.385	.391	.797
Satis5	.404	.436	.504	.392	.794

Table 5. Coefficients and model fit measures

Hipótesis		**Path Coeff.**	**f²**	**P Values**
H1	Activation -> Satisfaction	.163	.024	.000
H2	Disconfirmation -> Activation	.443	.245	.000
H3	Disconfirmation -> Intention	.110	.012	.015
H4	Disconfirmation -> Pleasure	.401	.191	.000
H5a	Disconfirmation -> Satisfaction	.434	.249	.000
H5b	Pleasure -> Satisfaction	.177	.029	.000
H6	Satisfaction -> Intention	.488	.231	.000

Chapter 11
The Marketing Implications of Up–and–Coming Sports and of Official International Sports Rating Systems

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ABSTRACT

To effectively market the major international sports, those sports are identified along with their special characteristics. Further, widely available official ranking information about the best nations and individuals at those sports are located so that the special features of each ranking system can be creatively used to arouse spectator and sponsor interest. The three primary sources of recognition are identified: the International Olympic Committee, which recognizes 122 sports; SportAccord (also known as GAISF), which recognizes those plus another 21 sports; while Wikipedia lists those plus another 26 widely played sports for a total of 169. The immense popularity of the up-and-coming e-sports (electronic sports) strongly suggest opportunities for marketing. The 108 sports with ratings systems are covered in the sequence—36 object sports, 59 independent sports, 9 combat sports, and 4 mind sports—followed by the special implications that present themselves for effective marketing. Marketing guidance is then presented for the 61 sports without a rating system. Links to all 169 sports are identified, providing a wealth of individual and team information along with the official ratings. References, internet links, and definitions of all key terms are listed at the end of this chapter.

INTRODUCTION

In spite of the amount of money at risk, organizations may approach a sports competition with no marketing plan in mind, Stotlar (1993). On the other hand, effective marketing evolves when a brand actively aligns itself with a favorite team, Mitre and Ordonez de Pablos (2009), when an affinity can be established between a company and a sport, Bloom et al. (2006), and when fan support can be exploited as motivation to attend a sports event, Kahle and Close (2011).

The changing definition of what is a sport, Stefani (2017), and possible Olympics sports of the future, Stefani (2016), are important topics to understand if marketing strategies are to remain current. We will then identify international organizations with the cachet to decide which sports are significant, Stefani (1999, 2011). Compared to a similar study made for the last edition of this book, 13 up-and-coming sports will be identified, warranting special consideration. The various types of rating systems are identified for those sports whose governing federations publish official ratings, Stefani (1999, 2011).

This chapter then suggests strategies for the effective marketing of sports, based on the special attributes of each type of sport and based on the types of rating systems chosen by the stakeholders of recognized international sports federations. References, internet links and definitions of all key terms are listed at the end of this chapter

We begin by examining the various types of sports and the agencies recognizing them.

TYPES OF SPORTS AND THREE SOURCES OF RECOGNITION

There is literally a world of information that is free and available via the internet for purposes of marketing sports. The problem is understanding what it is out there and how it is organized.

Let's begin with understanding what types of sports exist and what organizations recognize the important sports, so our time can be focused on those sports for which marketing is worth the effort. *The Official World Encyclopedia of Sports and Games* (1979) and *Random House Encyclopedia* (1983) include many sports with various categories. There are racquet sports, stick-and-ball sports, and water sports categories, for example. A sport can be classified as being a team sport vs. being an individual sport. There is some ambiguity in separating sports into those two seemingly obvious categories. Tennis is an individual sport in singles but there is a team element in doubles. Swimmers compete individually, but placement points can be added to create team competition. Basketball is clearly a team competition. A more organized taxonomy of sports and rating systems is given in Stefani (1999)

leading to a survey of recognized federations (the actual groups that organize and regulate competition) and their official ratings systems in Stefani (2011). For this chapter, the latter two studies of sports and sports rating systems are updated through April 2018, an update from November 2013 upon which the previous edition of this chapter was written.

Sports involving physical activity can be separated into the three very simple and mutually exclusive ways competitors can interact. First, a **combat sport** involves direct contact between competitors (as for boxing, wrestling and judo) in which each competitor tries to control the other. Second, an **independent sport** does not allow contact at all, or perhaps incidental contact is allowed; but too much contact will result in being disqualified (as for swimming, athletics, and golf). In effect, each competitor tries to control the competitor's own self for success. Third, in what I call an **object sport**, contact is indirect in a quest to control an object (as in basketball, football, and tennis). Those three categories are unambiguous and mutually exclusive.

Contemporary society has broadened the meaning of sport far beyond what many would have imagined only a few years ago. The term e-Sports, an abbreviation for electronic sports has become ubiquitous among a number of Asian nations. Chess, bridge and Go competitions have been referred to as "mind sports" We therefore need to be fair in our definitions of sport categories, rather than becoming provincial in disregarding any competition devoid of copious sweating. I suggest three definitions, which separate the physical sports (combat, independent and object) from e-Sports and mind sports, so that swimming, a video game competition and chess can all coexist within the broad context of sport.

- **Physical Sport:** A physical sport is a competition with a set of rules for determining the winner, requiring physical prowess and skill to move the physical competitor and/or a physical object as required by the rules.
- **e-Sport:** An e-Sport is a competition with a set of rules for determining the winner, requiring physical prowess and skill to move a virtual person and/or a virtual object as required by the rules.
- **Mind Sport:** A mind sport is a competition with a set of rules for determining the winner, requiring intellectual prowess and skill. A surrogate could move a playing piece or cards under direct control of the competitor.

In order to focus on significant physical sports, e-Sports and mind sports, we will choose sports recognized by well-known international organizations. The International Olympic Committee (IOC) selects sports for inclusion in the Summer and Winter Olympic Games and others that can be included in a one-off manner. There is a problem in IOC-speak versus terms we use in everyday speech. When the IOC uses the term "sport", the IOC refers to a sports federation that organizes

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competition. The IOC defines aquatics as a sport because the federation, abbreviated FINA, organizes competition in four water-related "disciplines": synchronized swimming, swimming, diving and water polo. Since it is common outside of the IOC to define those four disciplines as sports, I will define all IOC disciplines as sports. Table 1 includes the IOC recognized federations and sports divided into the 39 official Summer Olympic Sports, the 15 official Winter Olympic Sports and the 68 otherwise recognized sports that may be included in an Olympics by request of an Olympic Organizing Committee, just for that Games. For example, chess and bridge are recognized mind sports that could, theoretically, be included in the Olympics, but that is unlikely; whereas surfing and skateboarding are recognized sports that will be contested at the 2020 Tokyo Olympics as per request.

Like the IOC, SportAccord is a Swiss-based international organization that recognizes sports federations which, in turn, organize sports competition. SportAccord is also known under the abbreviation GAISF (General Association of International Sports Federations). As of April 2018, SportAccord recognizes the same 122 sports also recognized by the IOC plus another 21. Among the additional 21 sports are two more mind sports, draughts (checkers) and Go. The first two World Mind Sports Games following the Olympic Games included the four mind sports recognized by the IOC and SportAccord, bridge, chess, draughts and Go, as well as Xiang Qi or Chinese Checkers, which does not appear on any source of recognition; hence, it is not included among the mind sports in this chapter.

Finally, I examined http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_International_Sport; which contains all of the IOC-recognized federations and all of the SportAccord-recognized federations. In addition, Wikipedia identifies additional international federations organizing significant competition in another 26 sports as of April 2018.

It is important to realize that free and comprehensive information is available for each of the 169 sports in Table 1. That information is a valuable resource for marketing each of those sports. As identified below, links are available from separate master federations for the 39 summer Olympic sports (ASOIF), for the 15 winter Olympic sports (ASOIF), for the other 68 IOC recognized sports (ARISF). SportAccord (GAISF) provides links to all of the above plus their additional 21 sports. Finally, Wikipedia provides links to all 169 sports.

- IOC Summer Olympic Sports (ASOIF): http://www.asoif.com/members
- IOC Winter Olympic Sports (AIOWF): https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Association_of_International_Olympic_Winter_Sports_Federations
- IOC Recognized Sports (ARISF): http://www.arisf.org/members.aspx
- SportAccord Sports (GAISF): https://gaisf.org/members/#
- Wikipedia: all 169 sports: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_international_sports_federations

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Table 1. Recognized international sports federations and sports

Recognition	Sports Federations	Sports	e-Sports	Mind Sports	Physical Sports		
					Combat	Independent	Object
IOC Summer	28	39	0	0	6	22	11
IOC Winter	7	15	0	0	0	13	2
IOC Recognized	38	68	0	2	5	32	29
SportAccord (additional)	21	21	0	2	6	8	5
Wikipedia (additional)	26	26	1	0	2	6	17
Total	120	169	1	4	19	81	64

UP-AND-COMING SPORTS

Table 2 includes 13 sports which have moved up significantly in international recognition from November 2013 (the "census" date for the recognized sports used for the last edition of this chapter) through April 2018 (similarly used for this edition). Eleven of these sports became recognized by the IOC, meaning that any future Olympic Organizing Committee can ask the IOC to include that sport as a medal event. The marketing of those eleven sports should emphasize IOC recognition, carrying the potential for future Olympic status.

We begin with the hugely popular electronic sports, commonly called **e-Sports**. The e-Sports federation IeSF has only just been listed by Wikipedia; but already the IOC President, Thomas Bach, has stated that he thinks there is enough physicality to be included in a future Olympics, suggesting that e-Sports might move to IOC recognition, such is the overarching importance to the IOC of the massive growth of participants. He has expressed concerns with the more violent of the games being played, but he believes that objection can be overcome by appropriate game selection.

E-Sports is a fixture in Southeast Asia, with an enormous target population for marketing. According to the IeSF website, https://www.ie-sf.org/, and Wikpedia, https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/International_e-Sports_Federation, the following 11 video games were used the indicated number of times during the nine IeSF world championships from 2009 to 2017. About three video games were used for each world championship. South Korea finished first seven times and second the other two times, giving an indication of where to target young players and fans.

- Starcraft II (5)
- League of Legends (4)

Table 2. Up-and-coming sports

Sport	Federation	Recognizing Organization	Sport	Federation	Recognizing Organization
e-Sports	IeSF	Wikipedia			
Formula 1	FIA	IOC	American Football	IFAF	IOC
Karting	FIA	IOC	Cheerleading	ICU	IOC
World Endurance Championships	FIA	IOC	Muaythai	IFMA	IOC
World Rally Championships	FIA	IOC	Roller Derby	FIRS	IOC
World Rally Cross	FIA	IOC	Skateboarding	FIRS	IOC
Would Touring Championships	FIA	IOC			
			Lacrosse	FIL	SportAccord

- FIFA Online (3)
- Hearthstone (3)
- Tekken Tag Tournament 2 (3)
- Alliance of Valiant Arms (2)
- Counter-Strike: Alliance (2)
- Dota 2 (1)
- Tekken 7 (1)
- Ultra Street Fighter IV (1)
- WarCraft 111 (1)

These 11 video games along with any related paraphernalia can be marketed as having played a part in e-Sports competition. The above website provides free information about individuals and team results that can be included with marketing advertisements to make them more interesting and focused to specific nations and groups.

Following e-Sports in Table 2 are 11 IOC-recognized sports. The first six of those sports involve motorized competition that the IOC has recognized as being noteworthy. The marketing of those six sports could include reference to IOC recognition. Theoretically, any of those six sports could be in a future Olympics, but it is highly unlikely that motorized sports gold medallists will share the stage with a 100 m runner.

- **American football** is hugely popular in domestic university and professional competition in the USA and also when American domestic professional league matches are played abroad; however, at the international level of competition, American football is desperately in need of proper marketing. There have been five world championship quadrennially since 1993, yet few American are aware of that. The USA did not even compete in the first two, due to problems coordinating the amateur football players with their university teams, which remains an issue. The USA won the last three world championships. In 2015, lack of sponsors for that very popular sport caused the competition to be moved from Sweden to the USA, causing a number of nations to withdraw. Skilled marketing ought to be able to produce a very successful world championship.
- **Cheerleading** has been a regular adjunct to American football games. As an international competition, Cheerleading has become very popular among young athletes, who perform very challenging gymnastic-like routines. By leveraging the new IOC recognition, additional popular and engaging competitions are very possible.
- **Muaythai** has emerged as a marketable martial arts sport with IOC recognition as a marker of success. **Roller derby** became a popular sport in the 1950s due early television coverage. The sport is having a renaissance, judging from IOC recognition.
- **Skateboarding** not only has IOC recognition; but the 2020 Tokyo Organizing Committee was given approval by the IOC to include it in the 2020 Games. It is another youth-oriented sport with considerable opportunity for marketing equipment and competitions.
- **Lacrosse** has recently been upgraded to member status by SportAccord. The sport was invented by an American Indian tribe, the Iroquois. The FIL federation honours the Iroquois by treating them as a sovereign nation, which finished third in the last world championship. That humanitarian gesture can be used to make the sport more personal in advertisements.

We now present the marketing implications of the various rating systems for the sports in Table 1. Even the lack of a rating system has important implications to marketing strategy.

TYPES OF RATING SYSTEMS

The following (at times technical) information is intended to provide another tool for marketing competition involving the 169 sports in Table 1. The idea is to be

able to easily identify the best teams and individuals and thereby better identify the key players in upcoming events. It is useful to understand how they were rated by official rating system as published for free and easy access on the websites of the sports federations. Master lists of links to the sports are contained in the References section of this chapter (see IOC, Wikipedia and SportAcord master web links), which are also listed above. By following movement among the rated competitors and identifying the teams and individuals commonly seen towards the top of the ranking order, the interest of the public can be enhanced. National groups can be targeted and paraphernalia for top-ranked teams and individuals can be marketed. The drama of an upcoming event can be enhanced. Also, those formerly top teams and individuals that have dropped in rank order can be called out to the curious public.

Rating systems can be divided into three mutually exclusive categories. First, a small number of combat sports are rated by a subjective system. There are then two types of objective rating systems: one type in which non-decreasing point totals are accumulated and one type in which a rating may adjust upward, downward or remain the same.

A point accumulation system (accumulative system for short) is one in which points are accumulated over some period in a non-decreasing running sum as shown in (1). The worst that happens is that no points are gained in which case the running sum does not change. Competitors are then ranked in order based on that accumulated point total.

Accumulative Rating = Sum over a period (result points, importance, ageing)

(1)

For example, a third-place finish might gain 100 result points. That competition may have a relative importance of 2 (earning 100x2 = 200 points). The period may include the last four years of results; where values from the most recent 52 weeks are multiplied by 100%, the next oldest year by 75%, the third year by 50% and the fourth year by 25%, counting backwards. If the 200 points were earned in the fourth of the four years, counting backwards, that result would be age-weighted as 200x0.25 or 50 points. The accumulative system encourages players to compete, enhancing ticket sales.

The remaining system is the most sophisticated. A self-adjustive system (adjustive system for short) causes each rating to seek its own level. Each rating self adjusts after every competition up, down or making no change at all using the following equation.

New Adjustive Rating = Old Adjustive Rating + factor x (actual result - prediction)   (2)

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A rating increases (decreases, remains the same) when the actual result exceeds (is less than, is equal to) the pre-competition prediction. The prediction takes into account the relative strength of the competitors. A weak team playing a strong team will have a small value for the prediction. A strong team playing a weak team will have a large value for the prediction. Teams of equal strength will have a medium prediction. Over many competitions, each rating seeks a level determined by the individual's or team's performance compared to the typical opponent. We might say that the "cream rises to the top".

As one example of an adjustive system, a team might secure a win so that the actual result may have value 1 (compared to 0.5 for a tie and 0 for a loss), while the prediction may be the estimated probability of winning which may have been 0.4 before the match. Suppose the Old Adjustive Rating was 150 and the factor is 50. Then the New Adjustive Rating would be 150 + 50 (1 - 0.4) or 180. In most of the adjustive systems, the opposing team would lose 50 points to create what is knows as a point exchange system. The sophistication comes in selecting the equations for the actual result, for the prediction and in selecting a multiplying factor that neither creates wild fluctuations nor is too insensitive.

Table 3 shows the breakdown of the three types of rating systems for the five types of sports. Of the 169 sports, one is an e-Sport, four are mind sports, 19 are combat sports, 81 are independent sports and 64 are object sports. The world marketplace seems to be partial to independent sports and object sports. Of the 169 sports, 61 have no rating system, leaving 108 with a rating system. Three of the four mind sports have the sophisticated adjustive rating system; which is in keeping with that type of sport. All four of the subjective systems are applied to combat sports, where the winner is also determined subjectively. The most common rating system is the accumulative system, comprising 94 (87%) of the 108 rating systems. Of those 94 accumulative systems, 61 use a one-year period (65% of the accumulative systems and 56% of all rating systems). One influence of world rating systems upon marketing just presented itself: a one-year window for 61 rated sports results in the crowning of a yearly champion at season's end; which in turn, provides excellent marketing leverage on the importance of upcoming competitions on crowning that yearly champion.

The remainder of this chapter will examine the special interaction of sports marketing and rating systems for each of the four types of sport which have rating systems. In order, we will consider object sports, independent sports, combat sports and mind sports. The marketing of the sports lacking a rating system is then discussed. The last section summarizes the conclusions from this chapter.

Table 3. Sports rating systems and types of sports

Sport	Number of Sports	Type of Sports Rating System				
		No rating System	Number of Systems	Subjective	Accumulative	Adjustive
e-Sports	1	1	0	0	0	0
Mind Sports	4	0	4	0	1	3
Combat Sports	19	10	9	4	5	0
Independent Sports	81	22	59	0	58	1
Object Sports	64	28	36	0	30	6
Total	169	61	108	4	94	10

MARKETING IMPLICATIONS FOR OBJECT SPORTS

Table 4 contains the 36 object sports with a rating system. Of the 36 rated object sports (13 of which are Olympic sports), 30 are rated via accumulative systems and six are rated by more sophisticated adjustive systems. As mentioned above, the accumulative systems encourage entrants in as many competitions as possible which enhances ticket sales. Further, 14 of the 30 accumulative systems cover a one-year period allowing a seasonal champion to be crowned. The six adjustive rating systems are intended to cause ratings to seek a level based on past performance, compared to current performance.

Some of the most viewed sports with accumulative systems are basketball, ice hockey, rugby league, rugby sevens (which became an Olympic sport in 2016), tennis, volleyball and beach volleyball. Effective marketing is enhanced by becoming familiar with the point table and with current rankings.

- As a competition is approaching, include specifics as to who are top ranked, who are challenging for the top position and how far apart top competitors/teams are in points. People tend to give special importance when numerical values are assigned.
- Play up the number of points available for the winners and runners-up.
- Indicate specifically how well-known competitors/teams can to move up in the rankings and what the top ranked need to earn to remain top ranked.
- Look for those making recent ranking gains to create curiosity among fans on how the upward-movers perform in the competition being marketed.

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- A sports federation will usually show the ranking positional changes which can be used to flag the ones to specially tout.
- Badminton, beach volleyball and tennis are among the 14 sports that crown an end-of-season champion. Exploit that throughout the season, touting the race among top competitors for the championship.
- There is a sense of permanence to being a seasonal champion. The media will give free advertising if they report on the chase to the trophy.
- For the multi-year accumulative systems, mention the number of years involved, which gives added credibility to the player or team.

Cricket, croquet, football, netball, rugby union and squash are rated by their federations using sophisticated adjustive systems, as summarized in Table 5. FIFA uses a different adjustive system for women's football than for men's football. The more that a marketer understands the rating system for a sport; the more effectively can that system can be used for promotional purposes. The actual result for cricket, croquet, netball and rugby union are based on winning, tying and losing, where women's football and rugby union also include the affect of score difference and home advantage. For five of those rating systems, the prediction depends on rating difference. The systems for cricket and netball are identical since these were both developed by David Kendix for the two federations.

Croquet and women's football calculate the prediction using the Elo probability equation, which has the unique distinction of appearing in a movie. The Elo system was developed by Arpad Elo, a chess master, for rating chess players, Elo (1978). An actor in the movie *The Social Network* wrote the Elo probability equation on glass, which was viewed in reverse. If the ratings are called *RA* and *RB* for opponents A and B respectively, the Elo probability that A will beat B can be written

$1/[1 + 10^{(RB-RA)/400}]$. The actor multiplied by 10 instead of using 10 as a logarithmic base. There, we might say that poetic license became mathematical license.

For cricket, croquet, women's football, netball and rugby union, the opposing teams after each match exchange ratings points: what one team gains, the other loses. However, the adjustive systems for squash and men's football do not have that trait. For both squash and men's football, match points gained is the actual result where the average of past points serves as the prediction. For squash, match points depend on tournament finishing position and not on who was defeated. For men's football, fewer match points are gained by defeating a weaker opponent, but zero points are gained when losing, regardless of opponent.

In the 2011 Rugby Union World Cup, the higher ranked team won 91% of the matches. For the 2010 netball world championship and also for the 2011 Commonwealth Games, the higher ranked team won 90% of the matches. These

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Table 4. Object sports with a rating system (36)

Sport	Int. Fed.	Recognition	Type of Rating System	Accum. Years
Badminton	BWF	IOC Summer	Accumulative	1
Baseball	IBAF	IOC	Accumulative	4
Basketball	FIBA	IOC Summer	Accumulative	8
Beach Volleyball	FIVB	IOC Summer	Accumulative	1
Carom Billiards	WCBS(UMB)	IOC	Accumulative	2
Court Handball	USHA	Wikipedia	Accumulative	1
Curling	WCF	IOC Winter	Accumulative	6
Double Disc Court Frisbee	WFDF	IOC	Accumulative	1
Field Hockey	FIH	IOC Summer	Accumulative	4
Guts Frisbee	WFDF	IOC	Accumulative	1
Handball	IHF	IOC Summer	Accumulative	4
Ice Hockey	IIHF	IOC Winter	Accumulative	4
Korfball	IKF	IOC	Accumulative	4
Lawn Bowls	CMSB (World Bowls LTD)	IOC	Accumulative	4
Pool	WCBS (WPW)	IOC	Accumulative	1
Racketlon	FIT	Wikipedia	Accumulative	2
Racquetball	IRF(IRT)	IOC	Accumulative	1
Real Tennis	IRTPA	Wikipedia	Accumulative	1
Rugby Fives	RFA	Wikipedia	Accumulative	1
Rugby League	RLIF(RLEF)	Wikipedia	Accumulative	5
Rugby Sevens	IRB	IOC Summer	Accumulative	1
Snooker	WCBS (WPSBA)	IOC	Accumulative	2
Soft Tennis	ISTF	SportAccord	Accumulative	1
Table Hockey	ITHF	Wikipedia	Accumulative	2
Table Soccer	ITSF	Wikipedia	Accumulative	1
Table Tennis	ITTF	IOC Summer	Accumulative	4
Tennis	ITF (ATP[M], WTA[W])	IOC Summer	Accumulative	1
Ultimate Frisbee	WFDF	IOC	Accumulative	1
Volleyball	FIVB	IOC Summer	Accumulative	4
Water Polo	FINA	IOC Summer	Accumulative	4
Cricket	ICC	IOC	Adjustive	
Croquet	WCF	Wikipedia	Adjustive Elo	
Football (Soccer)	FIFA	IOC Summer	Adjustive (M) Adjustive Elo (W)	
Netball	IFNA	IOC	Adjustive	
Rugby Union	IRB	IOC	Adjustive	
Squash	WSF (PSA[M], WISPA[W])	IOC	Adjustive	

Table 5. Adjustive rating systems for 6 object sports

Sport	Federation	Actual result	Prediction
Cricket	ICC	Win, tie, lose: (1, 0.5, 0)	*.5 (1+ d/50)*
Croquet	WCF	Win, tie, lose: (1, 0.5, 0)	Elo Probability: depends on *d*
Football (Soccer) Men Women	FIFA	Match Points Fraction depending on score difference	Average Match Points Elo Probability: depends on *d* and home advantage
Netball	IFNA	Win, tie, lose: (1, 0.5, 0)	*.5 (1+ d/50)*
Rugby Union (rating adjustment depends on margin of victory)	IRB	Win, tie, lose: (1, 0.5, 0)	*.5 (1+ d/10)* includes home advantage
Squash	WSF (PSA[M], WISPA[W])	Match Points	Average Match Points

d = rating difference= team rating – opponent rating +(possibly) home advantage

adjustive systems can be quite accurate at rating competitors and predicting future results. For effective marketing:

- When referring to any of the adjustive rating systems, use terms like sophisticated, comprehensive, accurate, well-respected and discerning to let the reader know that these are especially well-thought-out systems.
- The suggestions made above for accumulative systems hold here as well.

MARKETING IMPLICATIONS FOR INDEPENDENT SPORTS

Table 6 contains the 59 independent sports with a rating system, most of which are individual sports. Independent sports outnumber object sports 81-64 among all 169 sports, but the gap is larger when it comes to rating systems where independent sports with a rating system outnumber object sports with a rating system 59-36. Further, 53 of the 59 sports are either in the Olympics (34) or IOC recognized (19); hence this list contains many important sports. For example, the 47 Olympic athletics events plus the 34 Olympic swimming events comprised 26% of all 306 2016 Rio de Janeiro Summer Olympic events

Of the 59 sports in Table 6, 58 employ the simple accumulative system, giving points to a performance regardless of the opponent. Only golf uses an averaging system based on the most recent two years. However, the golf tour organizers know a marketing opportunity when they see it. The golf tour organizers use a seasonal

Table 6. Independent sports with a rating system (59)

Sport	Int. Fed.	Recognition	Years for Accum System	Sport	Int. Fed.	Recognition	Accum. Years
Adjustive System (1)							
Golf	IGF	IOC Summer					
Accumulative System (58)							
Airsoft Practical Shooting	IAPS	Wikipedia	2	Motorcycle Racing	FIM	IOC	1
Alpine Skiing	FIS	IOC Winter	1	Mountain Bike Cycling	ICU	IOC Summer	1
Archery	FITA	IOC Summer	1	Mountain Running	WMRA	Wikipedia	1
Athletics(Track and Field)	IAAF	IOC Summer	1	Nordic Combined	FIS	IOC Winter	1
Biathlon	IBU	IOC Winter	1	Orienteering	IOF	IOC	1
BMX cycling	ICU	IOC Summer	1	Power Boating	UIM	IOC	1
Bobsled	FIBT	IOC Winter	1	Powerlifting	IPF	SportAccord	1
Bowling	FIQ	IOC	1	Rhythmic Gymnastics	FIG	IOC Summer	4
Canoe	ICF	IOC Summer	1	Rowing	FISA	IOC Summer	1
Cross County Skiing	FIS	IOC Winter	1	Sailing	ISAF	IOC Summer	2
Cycling-road	ICU	IOC Summer	1	Shooting	ISSF	IOC Summer	2
Cycling-Track	ICU	IOC Summer	1	Short Track Speed Skating	ISU	IOC Winter	1
Dance Sport	IDSF	IOC	1	Skeleton Sled	FIBT	IOC Winter	1
Darts	WDF	SportAccord	2	Ski Jumping	FIS	IOC Winter	1
Diving	FINA	IOC Summer	1	Ski mountaineering	UIAA	IOC	2
Equestrian	FEI	IOC Summer	1	Sled Dog Racing	IFSS	SportAccord	1
Figure Skating	ISU	IOC Winter	2	Snowboarding	FIS	IOC Winter	1
Formula 1	FIA	IOC	1	Speed Roller Skating	FIRS	IOC	1
Freestyle Frisbee	WFDF	IOC	2	Speed Skating	ISU	IOC Winter	1
Freestyle Skiing	FIS	IOC Winter	1	Sport Climbing	IFSC	IOC	1
Frisbee Golf	WFDF	IOC	1	Surfing	ISA	IOC	1
Glider Racing	FAI	IOC	3	Swimming	FINA	IOC Summer	1
Gymnastics	FIG	IOC Summer	1	Trampoline	FIG	IOC Summer	4
Hang Gliding	FAI	IOC	3	Triathlon	ITU	IOC Summer	2
Ice Climbing	UIAA	IOC	1	Water Skiing	IWSF	IOC	1
Kayak	ICF	IOC Summer	1	Weightlifting	IWF	IOC Summer	1
Luge	FIL	IOC Winter	1	World Endrnce Championship	FIA	IOC	1
Minigolf	WMF	SportAccord	3	World Rally Championship	FIA	IOC	1
Modern Pentathlon	UIPM	IOC Summer	1	World Touring Championship	FIA	IOC	1

FedEx point accumulation system for major tournaments. The last competitions are heavily marketed. Each year's Tour Championship winner appears prominently in the media, thus promoting the following season. Henrik Stenson won the $10 million bonus as Tour Champion in 2013. It was quite easy to locate a photo of him in major newspapers, a very effective example of free marketing. Here are some marketing implications.

- Of the 58 accumulative rating systems, 45 employ a one-year period, creating a seasonal champion, providing a significant marketing opportunity.
- All of the suggestions made regarding the effective marketing of object sports with accumulative systems should be applied here.
- There is an additional point to bear in mind. Many of the accumulative systems consist of taking one or more of the best performances from the most recent 52-week period. All athletics and swimming events are rated in that manner.
- Where rating values and differences of ratings are expressed in seconds and meters, those are much more tangible than using points.
- The marketer should be familiar with the exact performance gap existing among key competitors in terms of time, distance, etc. If the public realizes that a competitor is only 1 second from being best at a running distance; that is easily remembered.
- Similarly, if an additional two meters of distance in the javelin will move a thrower into the top five: that will be picked up by the media.
- Four of the up-and-coming sports discussed earlier appear in Table 6; therefore, the comments made earlier apply to them: Formula 1, World Endurance Championship, World Rally Championship and World Touring Championship.

MARKETING IMPLICATIONS FOR COMBAT SPORTS

Table 7 contains the nine internationally-recognized combat sports having a rating system, six of which are in the Olympics. Five of the nine rating systems are accumulative and four are subjective. These sports are uniquely personal, as each competitor tries to overcome the opponent. A fencer may throw off a helmet in frustration with losing a point. A losing wrestler may hang the head in disappointment over losing to a stronger opponent. For effective marketing:

- A marketer should advertise an oncoming bout or tournament with very personal descriptions of the competitors: focus on personal background, major successes and obstacles overcome, for example.
- Sales will be enhanced when the potential audience identifies with a contestant.
- When marketing any of the four sports with a subjective rating system use terms like "as rated by the experts" and "as voted by the federation".
- Look for athletes who have risen in the ranks. The up and coming athletes will catch the fancy of the media, which will provide free advertising.
- Be sure to honor the athlete that has had years of high ranking position. Again, the public needs to identify with the personal side of a competitor to become interested in the upcoming competition.

The five sports with accumulative system provide the same opportunities as mentioned above for sports with an accumulative system.

- Become familiar with the point table.
- Advertise competitors in personal terms and then indicate how that person can move up specifically in terms of position of finish in the next tournament.
- Indicate how many points the top ranked person leads by and then indicate first place points if it is clear that the ranking positions are in play.

These nine sports (and all the other in the tables) have in common that competition in tournaments, world championships and the Olympics are open to any qualified competitor. Not included here are other professional combat sports such as boxing and mixed martial arts which use a champion-challenger format. The challengers are ranked subjectively by the professional organization to form a list of contenders for a championship bout. Matches are arranged among the challengers. These one-off bouts can be marketed as to the possibility of the lower ranked challenger moving up and the higher ranked challenger moving closer to a title bout. As mentioned above, tout the personal side of each competitor.

MARKETING IMPLICATIONS FOR MIND SPORTS

Table 8 contains the four mind sports having a rating system. These four sports have been contested in the Mind Sports Games following the 2008 and 2012 Olympics.

Chess, draughts and GO federations use the same adjustive Elo system described in Table 5 for croquet and women's football. The actual result is (1, 0.5, 0) for a (win, tie, loss) respectively, or the fraction of such outcomes over a sequence of

Table 7. Combat sports with a rating system (9)

Sport	Int. Fed.	Recognition	Type of Rating System	Accum. Years
Boxing	AIBA	IOC Summer	Accumulative	4
Fencing	FIE	IOC Summer	Accumulative	1
Judo	IJF	IOC Summer	Accumulative	2
Sumo Wrestling	ISF	IOC	Accumulative	1
Taekwondo	WTF	IOC Summer	Accumulative	3
Kickboxing	WAKO(WKF)	SportAccord	Subjective	
Mixed Martial Arts	ISCF	Wikipedia	Subjective	
Wresting- Greco Roman	FILA	IOC Summer	Subjective	
Wrestling-Freestyle	FILA	IOC Summer	Subjective	

Table 8. Mind sports with a rating system (4)

Sport	Int. Fed.	Recognition	Type of Rating System	Accum. Years
Bridge	WBF	IOC	Accumulative	7
Chess	FIDE	IOC	Adjustive Elo	
Draughts	FMJD	SportAccord	Adjustive Elo	
Go	IGF(EGF)	SportAccord	Adjustive Elo	

matches. If a player won three, tied once and lost once in five matches, the actual outcome would be recorded as $(1 + 1 + 1 + 0.5 + 0)/5$ or 0.7. The prediction is the probability of winning one match, or fraction of a sequence of matches that should be won, based on the Elo probability function mentioned regarding object sports. The Elo system was developed by Arpad Elo specifically for chess. Since these four mind sport are intellectual in nature, most of those playing or those interested in attending a will likely be familiar with the Elo system.

- A marketer should refer to the Elo rating system, using descriptions "sophisticated', "discerning", "well-respected", "widely-used" and "historic" to reinforce the importance of Elo ratings.
- The WBF bridge federation employs "master points" accumulated and aged.
- As with the other mind sports, anyone associated with bridge will already understand master points.
- The various suggestions marketing with an accumulative system hold here.

MARKETING IMPLICATIONS FOR SPORTS WITHOUT A RATING SYSTEM

Table 9 contains the remaining 61 sports which lack a rating system. Nine of those 61 sports were included among the up-and-coming sports discussed earlier: muaythai, roller derby, karting, Cheerleading, skateboarding, world rally cross, American football, lacrosse and e-Sports. All of the marketing implications made previously obviously apply here.

Most of these sports have regional interest; but only modest international interest; hence no rating systems are available at present. As mentioned earlier, American football is obviously popular in the USA. Some American football teams have played abroad with good attendance. Marketing efforts have been lackluster in that the IFAF federation has organized world cup competition for national teams in 1999, 2003, 2007, 2011 and 2015; however, those efforts have been largely unknown in the USA. The USA did not even compete in 1999 and 2003. The venue had to be changed in 2015 from Sweden to the USA due to lack of sponsorship. A sound marketing approach ought to change that apathetic record.

Australian Rules football has been played aboard. A set of International Rules are employed for Australian-Irish competition, combining Gaelic football with Australian Rules football.

A number of the sports are lesser known. Kabbadi is popular in India. The players play a rough wrestling-like version of tag holding their breath. Dragon boats are very ornate crafts rowed by a large crew. Practical shooting simulates combat shooting. Sepek Takrow is popular in Indonesia: volleyball using only the feet. Underwater hockey is played by flicking a lead puck along the bottom of a pool. Underwater rugby involves trying to push a water-filled ball into a net at the bottom of the pool. Apnea is another underwater breath-holding sport, determined by swimming as deeply as possible in one event and far as possible horizontally in another event. Only one of the 61 sports is in the Olympics, synchronized swimming; however, another 33 sports are IOC recognized. Skateboarding is scheduled on a one-off basic for the 2020 Tokyo Olympics.

Here are some marketing suggestions for the sports lacking an official rating system.

- Advertise an upcoming competition as including certain medal winners, finalists, etc. from the recent international competitions. Those results can be used as a surrogate for a rating system.

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- Bring visibility to a few improving competitors who may challenge for a medal at the next world championship.
- Advertise the specific accomplishments of top competitors.
- As mentioned above, attention is given by the media and to possible attendees whenever specific numbers are mentioned.

CONCLUSION

Two sports stand out among the up-and-coming sports as to marketing opportunities. E-Sports are ubiquitous in Asia and very popular in many other nations as well. The world championship video game competitions are hugely popular on television and at the venue. The video games used, the success of South Korea in winning seven of nine world championships, the popularity of certain players are all elements that call out to be used for marketing products, selling television advertising and selling venue tickets. At the opposite extreme, the five world championships of American football have gone largely unnoticed in the USA and abroad in spite of the huge success of domestic American teams both at home and abroad. International American football cries out for a marketing awareness that ought to be able to produce very popular world championships.

Recognized world sports federations appear to have chosen their official rating systems with marketing in mind. The profile of rating systems for each type of sport gives guidance as to the special features of each sport that should be exploited to enhance fan interest and therefore to enhance sales of tickets and sports paraphernalia. Accumulative systems encourage teams and individuals to enter as many competitions as possible and 56% of all rating systems involve an accumulative one-year window, in which a seasonal champion can be crowned. A marketer can chronicle the build up to that title among top contenders throughout the season, especially for the time preceding the final.

Combat sports such as wrestling, boxing and judo are intensely personal. A marketer should present top competitors in personal terms to the awaiting audience to draw them into the drama of the contest.

All but one of the independent sports has an accumulative rating system. Often that accumulative system amounts to that year's best performance. A rating in seconds and meters is more tangible than one in points. A marketer can illustrate the small gap between top competitors, making potential attendees realize each performance they will see could vault a challenger to the top for that season.

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Table 9. Sports without a rating system (61)

Sport	Int. Fed.	Recognition	Sport	Int. Fed.	Recognition
Combat Sports (10)			**Object Sports (28)**		
Aikido	IAF	SportAccord	American Football	IFAF	IOC
Ju-Jitsu	JJIF	SportAccord	Australian Rules Football	ARI	Wikipedia
Kabbadi	WFK	Wikipedia	Bandy	FIB	IOC
Karate	WKF	IOC	Bocci	CMSB (CBI)	IOC
Kendo	FIK	SportAccord	Broomball	IFBA	Wikipedia
Muaythai	IFMA	IOC	English Billiards	WCBS (IBSF)	IOC
Roller Derby	FIRS	IOC	Fistball	IFA	SportAccord
Sambo	FIAS	SportAccord	Floorball	IFF	IOC
Savate	FISav	SportAccord	Gaelic Football	GAA	Wikipedia
Wushu	IWUF(IKF)	IOC	Hurling	GAA	Wikipedia
Independent Sports (22)			Ice Stock Sport	IFC	IOC
Aerobatics	FAI	IOC	Inline Roller Hockey	FIRS	IOC
Apnea	CMAS	IOC	Lacrosse	FIL(IFWLA, ELF)	SportAccord
Artistic Roller Skating	FIRS	IOC	Pelota Vasca	FIPV	IOC
Ballooning	FAI	IOC	Pesapallo	PESIS	Wikipedia
Bodybuilding	IFBB	SportAccord	Petanque	CMSB(FIFJP)	IOC
Casting	ICSF	SportAccord	Polo	FIP	IOC
Cheerleading	ICU	IOC	Rock it Ball	IRIBF	Wikipedia
Dragon Boats	IDBF	SportAccord	Roller Hockey	FIRS	IOC
Finswimming	CMAS	IOC	Rounders	NRA	Wikipedia
Fishing	CIPS	SportAccord	Sepak Takrow	ISTAF	SportAccord
Horseshoes	NHPA	Wikipedia	Shinty	CA	Wikipedia
Karting	FIA	IOC	Softball	ISF	IOC
Life Saving	ILSF	IOC	Sport Bowls	CMSB(FIB)	IOC
Practical Shooting	IPSC	Wikipedia	Throwball	ITF	Wikipedia
Rafting	IRF	Wikipedia	Tug of War	TWIF	IOC
Skateboarding	FIRS	IOC	Underwater Hockey	CMAS	IOC
Skibobbing	FISB	Wikipedia	Underwater Rugby	CMAS	IOC
Skydiving	FAI	IOC			
Synchronized Swimming	FINA	IOC Summer	**e-Sports (1)**	IeSF	Wikipedia
Ultra-light Aircraft	FAI	IOC			
Underwater Orienteering	CMAS	IOC			
World Rally Cross	FIA	IOC			

The rating systems for object sports have a mixture of point accumulators and the more sophisticated systems that self adjust, compensating for the relative strengths of the opponents. The accumulative systems provide information as to how close competitors are and which competitors are moving up. That information creates interest in an upcoming competition. The specific critical numerical values tend to be picked up by the media providing free advertising. The ratings gain credibility when the adjustive rating systems are described as being accurate, discerning, sophisticated and well-respected.

For mind sports, the rating systems are quite appropriately of the sophisticated self-adjustive type. A marketer must realize that players and audiences for mind sports are sophisticated and knowledgeable; hence, marketing must be equally sophisticated.

The tables covering the 169 sports and 108 rating systems are interesting in their own right. A huge volume of free, comprehensive information can be found for each of the 169 sports and for each of the 108 official rating lists at https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_international_sports_federations. Readers may become interested in currently-obscure sports which await organized marketing efforts.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Accumulative Rating System: A rating system that converts performance to points with a non-decreasing running sum over a window of time. The points involve the result of the competition, importance, and the year that competition occurred.

Adjustive Rating System: A rating system in which actual performance is compared to a target based on past performance such that a rating increases, decreases or remains the same depending on whether the actual result for the competitor or team is better, worse, or the same, respectively, as the target.

Combat Sport: A physical sport in which the competitor comes in direct contact with the opponent in an effort to control the opponent.

E-Sports: A competition with a set of rules for determining the winner, requiring physical prowess and skill to move a virtual person and/or a virtual object as required by the rules.

Independent Sport: A physical sport in which contact is not allowed, as each competitor performs unimpeded by the opponent.

Mind Sport: A competition with a set of rules for determining the winner, requiring intellectual prowess and skill. A surrogate could move a playing piece or cards under direct control of the competitor.

Object Sport: A physical sport where contact occurs in an effort to control an object.

Physical Sport: A competition with a set of rules for determining the winner, requiring physical prowess and skill to move the physical competitor and/or a physical object as required by the rules.

Rating System: A system that creates a numerical value for each competitor or team. Each such competitor or team is then ranked in ordinal position based on the rating.

Sport: A competition with a set of rules for determining the winner.

Sports Federation: An international organization that organizes sports competition, as recognized by the International Olympic Committee, Sport Accord, or as listed in Wikipedia for an internationally widely played sport.

Subjective Rating System: A rating system combining the placements provide by a group of experts.

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